Sorghum laxiflorum and S. macrospermum, the Australian native species most closely related to the cultivated S. bicolor based on ITS1 and ndhF sequence analysis of 25 Sorghum species

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Abstract. Australian species make up seventeen of the world's twenty-five recognised species of Sorghum, with the genus separated into five sections: Eu-sorghum, Chaetosorghum, Heterosorghum, Para-sorghum and Stiposorghum. Whereas the genetic relationships within section Eu-sorghum are well known, little is known about the genetic relationships and crossabilities outside the primary genepool. We made a detailed investigation of phylogenetic relationships within Sorghum to identify wild species most closely related to cultivated sorghum (with outgroups Zea mays and Saccharum officinarum). The ribosomal ITS1 gene of ten species and the chloroplast *ndhF* gene from nineteen species were sequenced. Independent and combined analyses of the ITS1 and ndhF data sets were undertaken. The *Eu-sorghum* species were resolved into a strongly supported lineage by all three analyses, and included the Australian natives S. *laxiflorum* and S. *macrospermum* in the ITS1 and combined analyses. All remaining sorghum species were resolved into a second well-supported lineage in the combined analyses, although some internal

relationships within this second lineage remain unresolved. We identified S. laxiflorum and S. macrospermum as the Australian species most closely related to cultivated sorghum. Our data support a reduction in the number of subgeneric sections from five to three: *Eu-sorghum* (unchanged); a combined Chaetosorghum/Heterosorghum to reflect the very close relationship between these two species; and a combined Para-sorghum/Stiposorghum section, thereby removing the unclear taxonomic and genetic boundaries between these species.

Key words: Wild sorghum, phylogeny, ITS1, ndhF, Poaceae.

Introduction

Australian species of Sorghum make up seventeen out of the world's twenty-five recognised Sorghum species, with the genus separated into five taxonomic sections: Eu-sorghum,

Chaetosorghum, Heterosorghum, Para-sorghum and Stiposorghum. The six Eu-sorghum species consist of the cultivated Sorghum bicolor (L.) Moench, S. x almum Parodi, S. arundinaceum (Desv.) Stapf, S. x drummondii (Steud.) Millsp. & Chase, S. halepense (L.) Pers., and S. propinquum (Kunth) Hitchc. The Eu-sorghums originate from Africa and Asia with $2n = 20$ and 40 chromosomes, and the known progenitor of cultivated S. bicolor is S. arundinaceum (DeWet and Harlan 1971, Doggett 1976, Duvall and Doebley 1990). Sorghum drummondii originated from a natural cross between S. bicolor and S. arundinaceum, while S. propinquum is reputedly a perennial rhizomatous form of S. bicolor (Doggett 1976, Chittenden et al. 1994, Sun et al. 1994). Sorghum halepense (Johnson grass) is derived from a doubling of the chromosomes in a natural cross between S. arundinaceum and S. propinquum, while a natural cross between S. bicolor and S. halepense gave rise to S. x almum (Doggett 1976). The close genetic relationships and inter-crossability between the Eu-sorghum species are well known (Magoon and Shambulingappa 1961, Wu 1979, Chittenden et al. 1994, Paterson et al. 1995, Stenhouse et al. 1997).

The section *Chaetosorghum* contains the single species S. macrospermum E. D. Garber that is endemic to a small area in the Northern Territory of Australia. Sorghum laxiflorum F. M. Bailey forms the section Heterosorghum, is native to northern Australia and Papua New Guinea, and is geographically more diverse than its close relative S. macrospermum (Garber 1950, Lazarides et al. 1991, Dillon et al. 2001). The section Para-sorghum contains the seven species. S. grande Lazarides, S. leiocladum (Hack.) C. E. Hubb., S. matarankense E. D. Garber & Snyder, S. nitidum (Vahl) Pers., S. purpureo-sericeum (Hochst. ex. A. Rich.) Asch. & Schweinf., S. timorense (Kunth) Buse and S. versicolor Andersson with these species native to northern monsoonal Australia, Africa and Asia (Garber 1950, Lazarides et al. 1991, Phillips 1995). Sorghum amplum Lazarides, S. angustum S. T. Blake, S. brachypodum

Lazarides, S. bulbosum Lazarides, S. ecarinatum Lazarides, S. exstans Lazarides, S. interjectum Lazarides, S. intrans F. Muell. ex Benth., S. plumosum (R. Br.) P. Beauv., and S. stipoideum (Ewart & Jean White) C. A. Gardner & C. E. Hubb. form the section Stiposorghum, all being endemic to northern Australia (Garber 1950, Lazarides et al. 1991).

The gene pool concept is useful to describe the total pool of different genes within a genus. The primary gene pool consists of species that readily cross producing viable hybrids with chromosomes that freely recombine. The secondary gene pool consists of species with a certain degree of hybridisation barriers due to ploidy differences, chromosome alterations, or incompatibility genes making gene transfer difficult. The tertiary gene pool consists of species from which gene transfer is very difficult due to strong sterility barriers (Harlan and de Wet 1971). In Sorghum, the Eu-sorghum species form both the primary and secondary gene pools, while Chaetosorghum, Heterosorghum, Para-sorghum and Stiposorghum species form the tertiary gene pool. Advances in biotechnology are increasing the use of these tertiary genepool species in breeding programs.

Direct evaluation of pest and disease resistances in non-primary wild sorghum species (sections Chaetosorghum, Heterosorghum, Para-sorghum and Stiposorghum) have been undertaken over the last twenty years (Bapat and Mote 1982, Karunakar et al. 1994, Franzmann and Hardy 1996, Sharma and Franzmann 2001, Kamala et al. 2002, Komolong et al. 2002). These studies show that many Australian native species of Sorghum contain valuable genes conferring resistances to pests (Australian species are non-hosts to the sorghum midge [Stenodiplosis sorghicola Coquillett]) and diseases already in Australia. Importantly, these species have resistances to some pests (shoot fly [Atherigona soccata Rondani], greenbug [Schizaphis graminum Rondani], stem borer [Chilo partellus Swinhoe] etc) and diseases (sorghum downy mildew [Peronosclerospora sorghi (Weston & Uppal) C.G. Shaw] etc) currently not present in Australia. These non-primary wild Sorghum species are therefore valuable sources of genes that could confer resistance to many pests and diseases currently affecting cultivated sorghum production. However, the phylogenetic relationships that exist between the cultivated and wild species must be established to act as a guide to using these wild species for breeding.

Whereas the phylogenetic relationships within section *Eu-sorghum* (primary and secondary gene pools) are well known, little is known about the phylogenetic relationships and crossabilities of the tertiary genepool species. Recent research has attempted to determine the phylogenetic relationships between primary and non-primary Sorghum species, however many relationships within the genus remain unresolved (Sun et al. 1994, Spangler et al. 1999, Dillon et al. 2001, Spangler 2003).

The ribosomal ITS1 work by Dillon et al. (2001) attempted to determine the phylogenetic relationships between all 25 Sorghum species, and obtained two distinct lineages. The *Eu-sorghum* species were all closely related with strong statistical support, with most Australian native species in a separate lineage. Many of the relationships between the Australian natives remained unresolved based on ITS1 alone (Dillon et al. 2001). Research on a subset of Sorghum species led Spangler (2003) to suggest that three distinct lineages exist within *Sorghum*. Although many relationships both between and within these lineages remain unresolved, Spangler (2003) suggests that each lineage should be recognised as distinct genera Sorghum, Sarga and Vacoparis. However, the order of evolution of species cannot be fully resolved without evaluating all species of a genus, and hence, the recognition of three distinct genera for Sorghum is premature.

To resolve the phylogenetic relationships between the Australian Sorghum species and further strengthen known relationships, the chloroplast ndhF gene was sequenced. The ndhF gene is located at one end of the small single copy region of the chloroplast genome, is one of eleven subunits (ndhA-K) and encodes the ND5 protein of the chloroplast NADH dehydrogenase involved in chloroplast respiration (Ferguson 1999, Kim and Jansen 1995, Bohs and Olmstead 1997). The ndhF has a relatively high rate of molecular evolution and provides three times more phylogenetic information than other chloroplast genes because of its length and sequence divergence (Olmstead and Sweere 1994, Kim and Jansen 1995). The highest rate of variability has been shown in the 3' end of the gene, with 60% of the nucleotide substitutions and all of the alignment gaps positioned there (Olmstead and Sweere 1994, Clark et al. 1995, Catalán et al. 1997). The *ndhF* gene has delineated closely related species within many plant groups including sunflower, solanum and Poaceae (Clark et al. 1995, Kim and Jansen 1995, Neyland and Urbatsch 1996, Bohs and Olmstead 1997, Catala´n et al. 1997, Spangler et al. 1999, Catalán and Olmstead 2000, Spangler 2003). Because *ndh*F gene sequences were able to elucidate relationships between closely related Poaceae species, we decided to use this gene to further resolve the phylogenetic relationships between the Australian native sorghums.

To fully determine the phylogenetic relationships between all 25 Sorghum species, new ITS1 sequences were generated for nine Sorghum species plus Cleistachne sorghoides Benth., and *ndhF* gene sequences were determined for 19 species (including the two outgroup species Zea mays (L.) and Saccharum officinarum (L)). This new evaluation confirmed two lineages within Sorghum, and showed that two endemic species *S. laxiflorum* and S. macrospermum are the Australian species most closely related to cultivated Sorghum bicolor.

Materials and methods

Seed material and accession catalogue information. All seed material for the Sorghum and Cleistachne species were obtained from the Australian Tropical Crops and Forages Collection, Queensland Department of Primary Industries and Fisheries, Australia. The catalogue information on each accession used for DNA extraction is shown in Table 1. ITS1 and *ndhF* sequence data were available from Genbank for some Sorghum species and the outgroup Zea mays and are shown in Table 2. The two outgroups Zea mays and Saccharum officinarum were chosen to represent species from different subtribes within Andropogoneae that have recently diverged from Sorghum (approx. 15 mya), and that have been resolved to separate clades from Sorghum in previous phylogenetic studies (Al-Janabi et al. 1994, Sun et al. 1994, Spangler et al. 1999).

DNA Extraction from fresh leaf tissue. For DNA extraction, seed from each accession was germinated and grown for four to six weeks. Total genomic DNA was extracted from fresh leaf tissue of Sorghum and Cleistachne using the hexadecyltrimethylammonium bromide (CTAB) method described in Dillon et al. (2001). Dr Giovanni Cordeiro (Centre for Plant Conservation Genetics, Southern Cross University, Lismore NSW Australia) kindly provided genomic DNA for Saccharum officinarum cultivars Fiji38 and Q124. At least two individuals per accession were used for sequencing, which gave a minimum of four sequences per species from which concensus sequences were generated.

Ribosomal ITS1 PCR amplification and sequencing. The ribosomal ITS1 gene was amplified from ten species (Table 1) following the protocol detailed in Dillon et al. (2001), and using the primers described by White et al. (1990). All amplified ITS1 products were visualised on 1% agarose gels and products purified using Qiaquick PCR purification columns (QIAGEN) following set protocols. Sequencing reactions for the ITS1 were carried out by the Australian Genome Research Facility (University of Queensland, St Lucia) using ABI PRISM ® BigDye™ Terminator v3.0 protocols (www.agrf.org.au). Purified DNA were sequenced using an ABI PRISM 377 DNA sequencer, and tracked and analysed using ABI sequencing software.

Chloroplast ndhF PCR amplification and sequencing. The chloroplast *ndhF* gene was amplified and sequenced from 19 species (Table 1) using primers described by Olmstead and Sweere (1994). Two overlapping fragments of length 1318 bp (fragment A) and 1138 bp (fragment B) were amplified using primers 1F and 1318R, and 972F and 2110R respectively. PCR reactions were carried out in a Perkin Elmer Geneamp 9700 thermocycler in a total reaction volume of 50µl and contained 0.5μ M each primer, 0.2 mM equimolar dNTPs, 2 units Taq DNA Polymerase (Roche Diagnostics, Mannheim, Germany), Taq DNA reaction buffer (to 10 mM Tris-HCl, 1.5 mM $MgCl₂$, 50 mM $KCl₂$, pH 8.3) and approximately 40 ng DNA template. PCR cycling conditions followed 93 °C for 1 min, 53 °C for 1 min and 72 °C for 2 min, for 35 cycles, with a final extension phase of 7 minutes at 72 °C. All amplified *ndh*F fragments were visualised on 1.0% agarose gel with ethidium bromide. The amplified ndhF fragments were purified using QIAGEN Qiaquick PCR purification columns and followed set protocols. Fragment A was sequenced using the internal primers 1F, 536F, 536R, 972F, 972R and 1318R, while the Fragment B was sequenced using the primers 972F, 1318F, 1318R, and 2110R. Two extra primers 1821F and 1821R (described by Clark et al. 1995) were required to completely sequence Fragment B. Sequencing reactions and gel separations for the *ndh*F gene fragments A and B of S. angustum and S. macrospermum were performed by the Australian Genome Research Facility, St Lucia, Queensland, Australia following set protocols. All other sequencing reactions were performed by Mr Larry Ross using ABI PRISM ® BigDye[™] Terminator v3.0 protocols.

ITS1 and ndhF sequence alignment and analyses. New ITS1 and chloroplast ndhF sequences were manually checked to ensure no errors in base calling were present. The two overlapping sections of the chloroplast ndhF gene were aligned using ClustalX (Thompson et al. 1997), and a consensus sequence for each species generated. Very few differences between accessions within species occurred, and where observed differing bases were allocated the appropriate International Union of Biochemistry (IUB) nucleotide code (www. sequenceanalysis.com/code.html). Multiple sequence alignments were obtained separately using ClustalX, and verified and modified where inconsistencies were located. The chloroplast ndhF sequences generated do not contain approximately 100 bp from the 3¢ end of the gene (between primer 2110R and the stop codon). Sequence alignment matrices for both the ITS1 and *ndhF* data sets are available upon request from the corresponding author.

Table 1. Catalogue information including Australian Tropical Crops and Forages Collection accession numbers, Herbarium taxonomic voucher numbers, and the Genbank accession numbers assigned to the new sequences for both the ITS1 and ndhF analyses

Species & Subgeneric section	Ribosomal ITS1		
Section Eu-sorghum	Accession No.	Voucher No. ^a	Genbank
S. drummondii (Steud.) Millsp. & Chase	PI 330272	PI 330272	AY048866
S. propinquum (Kunth) Hitchc.	AusTRCF 302546	BRI AQ 773674	AY282488
Section Chaetosorghum S. macrospermum E. D. Garber	AusTRCF 302367	DNA C867	AY048867
Section Para-Sorghum			
S. grande Lazarides	AusTRCF 302580	BRI AQ585960	AF302914
S. matarankense E. D. Garber & Snyder	AusTRCF 302521	BRI AQ 773673	AY282490
	AusTRCF 302637	DNA D129480	
S. timorense (Kunth) Buse	AusTRCF 302532	BRI AQ 773672	AY048871
	AusTRCF 302660	DNA D129474	
Section Stiposorghum			
S. angustum S. T. Blake	AusTRCF 302596	BRI AQ 585973	AF302924
	AusTRCF 302604	BRI AQ 585980	
S. brachypodum Lazarides	AusTRCF 302480	CANB 480297	AF302925
	AusTRCF 302670	DNA D133019	
S. ecarinatum Lazarides	AusTRCF 302648	DNA D129449	AF302926
	AusTRCF 302661	DNA D129486	
Cleistachne sorghoides Benth.	AusTRCF 317661	IS 14340	AY282494
	Chloroplast ndhF		
Section Eu-sorghum	Accession No.	Voucher No. ^a	Genbank
S. drummondii (Steud.) Millsp. & Chase	PI 330272	PI 330272	AY282483
S. propinquum (Kunth) Hitchc.	AusTRCF 302546	BRI AQ 773674	AY282484
S. x almum Parodi	AusTRCF 302385	$[\neg]$	AY282482
Section Chaetosorghum			
S. macrospermum E. D. Garber	AusTRCF 302367	DNA C867	AY048873
Section Heterosorghum			
S. laxiflorum F. M. Bailey	AusTRCF 302503	BRI AQ 773670	AY282470
Section Para-Sorghum			
S. grande Lazarides	AusTRCF 302580	BRI AQ585960	AY282476
S. matarankense E. D. Garber & Snyder	AusTRCF 302517	BRI AQ 773676	AY282480
S. nitidum (Vahl) Pers.	AusTRCF 302539	CANB 479893	AY282471
S. purpureosericeum (Hochst. ex. A. Rich.)	AusTRCF 318068	IS 18945	AY282472
Asch. & Schweinf.			
Section Stiposorghum			
S. amplum Lazarides	AusTRCF 302623	DNA D129461	AY282473
S. angustum S. T. Blake	AusTRCF 302604	BRI AQ 585980	AY048874
S. brachypodum Lazarides	AusTRCF 302670	DNA D133019	AY282479
S. ecarinatum Lazarides	AusTRCF 302648	DNA D129449	AY282481

Table 1 (continued)

^a Herbarium voucher specimen prefixes: DNA = Northern Territory Herbarium, Darwin, NT Australia; CANB = Australian National Herbarium, Canberra, ACT Australia; BRI = Queensland Herbarium, Mt Coot-tha, QLD Australia.

Table 2. Genbank accession numbers for the ITS1 and ndhF of Sorghum species

The new ITS1 and *ndhF* sequences determined in our study were combined with existing data available from Genbank (Tables 1 and 2). The S. angustum, S. brachypodum and S. ecarinatum ITS1 accessions (Genbank AF302924 to AF302926) generated by Dillon et al. (2001) have been updated with new verified sequences.

Phylogenetic analyses were carried out on the separate ITS1 and *ndhF* data sets and in combination using PAUP*4.0b10 (Swofford 2002). Maximum parsimony branch and bound searches were performed with all characters having equal weight and gaps treated as missing. Branches with minimum length of zero were collapsed to create polytomies, and duplicate trees were eliminated from the set of most parsimonious trees. Full heuristic bootstrap analyses were generated using 10,000 replicates with TBR branch swapping and

multrees option in effect. Bootstrapping is the percentage of times the clade is recovered from 10,000 repetitions of tree construction. Prior to the combined analysis of the ITS1 and ndhF data set, congruence between the nuclear and chloroplast datasets was tested using the partition-homogeneity test using PAUP with a significance level of $P \leq 0.01$ (also called the incongruence length difference test; Farris et al. 1995). This test compares the sums of lengths of the most parsimonious trees of the data analyses to the distribution of the sums of lengths of the most parsimonious trees (we used random partition of the characters, 100 repetitions, and TBR branch swapping). The partition-homogeneity test provided $P = 0.01$ indicating that the ITS1 and ndhF datasets were congruent and could be used for combined analysis.

Results

ITS1 analysis showing a single resolved lineage in *Sorghum*. Aligned ITS1 sequences were 252 bp in length, and contained 47 parsimony informative characters that on maximum parsimony analysis generated 60 trees of length 127 and consistency index (CI) of 0.764. The strict consensus of the 60 trees is shown in Fig. 1a, with the bootstrap support for each clade shown above the branches. A single lineage (A) was resolved with moderate bootstrap support (70%) that contained the Eu-sorghum species (clade B, 100% bootstrap) and the Australian natives S. laxiflorum and S. macrospermum (clade C, 100% bootstrap).

NdhF consensus tree showing four lineages. The sequence length of the aligned chloroplast ndhF data set was 2014 bp with only 26 parsimony informative characters. One hundred trees of length 92 and CI of 0.628 were generated by maximum parsimony analysis, with the strict consensus tree generated from these 100 trees showing four lineages $(Fig. 1b)$. Clade B retains the *Eu-sorghum* species as in Fig. 1a. Sorghum laxiflorum and S. macrospermum form clade C and includes the Australian native species S. nitidum (bootstrap = 79%). The African grass Cleistachne sorghoides and S. versicolor (of African origin) form lineage D with 81% bootstrap support. All remaining *Sorghum* species form lineage E that is very strongly supported by bootstrap data (98%). Internal relationships within lineage E are either weakly supported by bootstrap data (55–59%) or remain unresolved (Fig. 1b).

Combined analysis of ITS1 and ndhF data showing partially unresolved lineages. The sequence data for ITS1 and ndhF had a combined length of 2266 bp with 73 parsimony informative characters that generated 96 trees of length 230 and with a consistency index of 0.752 using maximum parsimony analysis. The strict consensus tree of the 96 most parsimonious trees is shown in Fig. 2. Lineage A is again resolved including the Eu-sorghum species, S. laxiflorum and S. macrospermum, but the bootstrap support for the lineage has dropped to a moderate 63% compared with individual ITS1 and ndhF analysis. Internal clades within lineage A are strong, with 100% support for clade B consisting of Eu-sorghum species, and 100% support for clade C containing S. macrospermum and S. laxiflorum. All remaining Sorghum species plus Cleistachne sorghoides form a second lineage (lineage H) that has strong bootstrap support (85%) for the grouping of all of these species together. Support for internal relationships within lineage H vary. Very strong support (98%) exists for clade E containing S. brachypodum through to S. purpureo-sericeum, while many relationships within this clade remain unresolved. The African species S. versicolor and Cleistachne sorghoides again form clade D with strong bootstrap support (90%). The combined analysis resolves some relationships within Sorghum more strongly than either the ITS1 or ndhF analyses alone, however, many relationships within the genus remain unresolved.

Discussion

Two lineages are resolved by our combined analysis of ribosomal ITS1 and chloroplast $ndhF$ data. Lineage (A) consists of the six

Fig. 1. The strict concensus trees generated using PAUP branch and bound maximum parsimony analysis. Letters A–D designate clades discussed in the text. 1a. ITS1 data: strict concensus of 60 equally parsimonious trees of 127 steps and consistency index (CI) of 0.764. **1b.** ndhF data: strict consensus of 100 equally most parsimonious trees of 92 steps and consistency index (CI) of 0.826. Numbers above branches are percentages of 10,000 bootstrap replicates in which each clade was recovered. Trees were rooted using Zea mays. Letters in parenthesis indicate taxonomic sections within $Sorghum$ where $P = Para-sorghum$, $S = Stiposorghum$, $C =$ Chaetosorghum, H = Heterosorghum and E = Eu-sorghum

Eu-sorghum species (clade B) plus the natives S. laxiflorum and S. macrospermum (clade C), making these the two Australian species most closely related to the cultivated species S. bicolor. All remaining Australian Sorghum species plus the exotic species S. purpureo-

sericeum, S. versicolor and Cleistachne sorghoides are strongly resolved to a second lineage H (Fig. 2).

The very close relationships between the Eu-sorghum species are well documented (Magoon and Shambulingappa 1961, Wu

Fig. 2. The strict consensus tree of 96 equally parsimonious trees of 230 steps (CI = 0.752) for the combined ITS1 ndhF data under maximum parsimony analyses. Numbers above branches are percentages of 10,000 bootstrap replicates in which the clade was recovered. Letters A and E designate clades discussed in the text. Trees were rooted using Zea mays. Letters in parenthesis indicate taxonomic sections within Sorghum where $P =$ Para-sorghum, S = Stiposorghum, C = Chaetosorghum, H = Heterosorghum and E = Eu-sorghum. Taxa on right indicate suggested reclassification of Sorghum species into the three genera Sorghum, Sarga and Vacoparis described by Spangler (2003)

1979, Chittenden et al. 1994, Paterson et al. 1995, Stenhouse et al. 1997, Spangler et al. 1999, Dillon et al. 2001, Spangler 2003), and are again reiterated in all our analyses where the Eu-sorghums formed clade B with very strong bootstrap support.

Sorghum laxiflorum (Heterosorghum) and S. macrospermum (Chaetosorghum) are very similar in taxonomy, both annuals and $2n = 40$ (Lazarides et al. 1991). In our analyses, S. laxiflorum and S. macrospermum formed clade C with 100% bootstrap support situated within the same lineage (A) as the *Eu-sorghum* species with moderate bootstrap of 63%. This indicates two things: that *S. laxiflorum* and S. macrospermum are very closely related, and that they are more closely associated with the Eu-sorghum species than they are with other Australian native species. It is well established that S. laxiflorum and S. macrospermum are cytologically, morphologically and genetically distinct from the other Australian native Sorghum species (Garber 1950, Celarier 1958, Wu 1990, Sun et al. 1994, Spangler et al. 1999, Dillon et al. 2001, Spangler 2003, Price et al. 2004). Our analyses show that S. laxiflorum and S. macrospermum have a closer genetic association with the Eu-sorghum rather than the Australian species which supports the theory of Garber (1950) and Wu (1990), and that the Eu-sorghum, Heterosorghum, and Chaetosorghum species form one circle of affinity, and the Para-sorghum and Stiposorghum another.

Recent molecular and taxonomic evaluation led Spangler (2003) to suggest that S. laxiflorum and S. macrospermum are distinct enough from all other Sorghum species to form their own new genus, Vacoparis. Our data does not support the suggestion by Spangler (2003) to describe these species to the new genus Vacoparis as V. laxiflorum and V. macrospermum. Our data does support the removal of the subgeneric boundary between Chaetosorghum and Heterosorghum to create a unified subgeneric section for S. macrospermum and S. laxiflorum.

Para-sorghum and Stiposorghum species are characterised by bearded culm nodes, with subgeneric separation of these species traditionally based on the length and shape of the sessile spikelet callus (Garber 1950). In several instances, the differences in callus morphology identify taxa to the species level (Lazarides et al. 1991). The callus length and shape are not good indicators of subgeneric taxa as they are continuous across many Para-sorghum and Stiposorghum species (Spangler 2003). The subjective nature of callus morphology is reflected in all morphological and genetic phylogenies of Sorghum where no clear resolution of the Para-sorghum and Stiposorghum into discreet clades has occurred (Sun et al. 1994, Spangler et al. 1999, Dillon et al. 2001).

In our study, the Para-sorghum and Stiposorghum species are resolved to varying degrees

depending on the gene sequence used. Under our ITS1 analysis, all Para-sorghum/Stiposorghum species are an unresolved polytomy (Fig. 1a). This differs from the ITS analysis of both Sun et al. (1994) and Dillon et al. (2001) where most of the Para-sorghum and Stiposorghum were resolved into a lineage separate from the Eu-sorghum, Heterosorghum and Chaetosorghum species. Although our ITS1 had a relatively high proportion of phylogenetically informative characters (18.7%) , it was unable to resolve the very close relationships within the Australian Sorghum species.

Using chloroplast ndhF analysis, most of the *Para-sorghum*/Stiposorghum species were resolved into lineage E (Fig. 1b) with very strong bootstrap support (98%). Sorghum purpureo-sericeum is the basal species on this lineage followed by S. leiocladum, which are both sister to the large unresolved polytomy of 13 Para-sorghum/Stiposorghum species (clade G, 58% bootstrap). Our ndhF analysis produced a phylogeny significantly different from that produced by Spangler et al. (1999) who resolved three lineages of Sorghum. Lineage 1 contained S. bicolor, S. halepense, S. arundinaceum and Cleistachne sorghoides; lineage 2 S. laxiflorum, S. nitidum and S. macrospermum; and lineage 3 with S. angustum, S. bulbosum, S. stipoideum, S. timorense, S. leiocladum and S. sp. The S. sp accession has since been identified as S. versicolor (Kamala et al. 2002). Our ndhF analysis resolved lineage B that roughly correlates to Spangler lineage 1 (minus Cleistachne sorghoides), our lineage E correlates to Spangler lineage 3 less S. versicolor. Also in E were most of the Para-sorghum and Stiposorghum analysed by Spangler et al. (1999). Our lineage C correlates with Spangler lineage 2. Lineage D resolved a close relationship between S. versicolor (African origin) and Cleistachne sorghoides (African, Asian origin) that supports the earlier study by Dillon et al. (2001) , but contradicts the *ndhF* relationship of Cleistachne sorghoides being closest to S. arundinaceum (Eu-sorghum) depicted by Spangler et al. (1999).

In contrast to the findings of Sun et al. (1994) and Spangler (2003), S. nitidum is not resolved within the same lineage as the Eu-sorghum species. In our ITS1 analysis it remains unresolved (Fig. 1a); under our ndhF analysis, S. nitidum is most closely associated with *S. laxiflorum* and *S. macrospermum* (lineage C, Fig. 1b); and in our combined analysis, it is a basal species of the Para-sorghum/ Stiposorghum lineage H (Fig. 2). The S. nitidum ITS1 sequence published by Sun et al. (1994) was generated from an accession of Chinese origin. Our S. nitidum sequence was obtained from six taxonomically verified Australian accessions, and was significantly different (11.6%) from the sequence generated by Sun et al. (1994). Despite every effort, we were unable to obtain any Chinese S. nitidum seed for any taxonomic or genetic verification of the accession used by Sun et al. (1994). As there was no within species differences in our ITS1 sequences from six taxonomically verified plants, we can assume until proven otherwise that the inclusion of all Sorghum species in our analysis has depicted the more distant genetic relationship between S. nitidum and the Eusorghum species.

A comparison of our S. nitidum ndhF sequence and that generated by Spangler et al. (1999) showed no differences except that we resolved a large block of ~ 60 bp of N bases around the 930bp mark in their sequence. This led us to also resolve the blocks of N bases in three other Spangler et al. (1999) ndhF sequences. The resolution of these N bases and the inclusion of all Sorghum species in our ndhF analysis produced an aligned dataset with 26 phylogenetically informative characters (1.3% of total length) that was able to resolve S. *nitidum* as more closely related to the Para-sorghum and Stiposorghum species (bootstrap 85%).

In 1950, Garber determined that S. nitidum and S. leiocladum shared at least one genome with very high homology, confirming that these two species share a common ancestor. Gu et al. (1984) showed that the chromosomes of S. nitidum were smaller than the chromosomes of other *Para-sorghum* species, and suggested they were like those of S. bicolor and S. halepense. Recent studies of chromosome numbers and DNA content showed that S. nitidum chromosomes resemble those of other Para-sorghum and Stiposorghum species rather than the much smaller chromosomes of S. bicolor (Price et al. 2004). The evidence of Garber (1950) and our resolution of the closer relationship of S. nitidum to the Para-sorghum/ Stiposorghum species, refutes the suggestion of Spangler (2003) that S. nitidum is closer to the Eu-sorghum species.

In his most recent publication, Spangler (2003) suggests that the Para-sorghum and Stiposorghum species (excluding S. nitidum) should be reclassified into the resurrected genus Sarga, collapsing the sixteen species to only seven. Our combined ITS1 *ndhF* analysis (Fig. 2) shows a clear lineage of the Parasorghum and Stiposorghum species with very strong bootstrap support (clade E, 98%) although many internal relationships are weakly supported or unresolved (lineage H, Fig. 2). The suggested reclassification of the Para-sorghum and Stiposorghum species as Sarga species by Spangler (2003) is depicted on the right of Fig. 2. Spangler (2003) suggests collapsing Sorghum amplum, S. brachypodum, S. bulbosum, S. ecarinatum, S. matarankense, S. *stipoideum* and S. *timorense* into the single species Sarga timorense. Sorghum exstans and S. intrans are collapsed into Sarga intrans, while Sorghum grande, S. interjectum and S. plumosum are collapsed into Sarga plumosum. The taxa Sorghum angustum, S. leiocladum, S. purpureosericeum and S. versicolor are maintained as discreet species renamed to Sarga.

The proposed Sarga timorense species are resolved to clade G with relatively weak bootstrap support in our analysis. Sorghum brachypodum and S. matarankense are strongly resolved to clade J and are distinct from Sorghum timorense (Fig. 2). The $x = 5$ genome sizes reported in Price et al. (2004) also show that Sorghum timorense is distinct from the other proposed Sarga timorense species in terms of chromosome and genome size. These

species are closely related, but unless it can be demonstrated that there are no reproductive barriers between the species, and regular pairing of chromosomes occurs in hybrids, it is illogical to reduce them into the single species Sarga timorense at this time.

While not as well supported at the branch point, collapsing Sorghum exstans and S. intrans to form Sarga intrans, and reducing Sorghum grande, S. interjectum and S. plumosum to Sarga plumosum is questionable given the current published data from ITS, ndhF and chromosomal studies. If the Spangler system is adapted as currently proposed, it creates more problems than it solves. Taxonomic reclassification must be done after sufficient data involving combined genetic, cytogenetic, ecological, classical systematic, and molecular phylogenies have accumulated to justify the change, which to date has not been achieved.

Conclusions

Based on our combined analysis, it is evident that Sorghum laxiflorum and S. macrospermum are very closely related and are closer to the Eu-sorghum species rather than the Australian native species. Sufficient evidence has accumulated to create a single subgeneric section within Sorghum to encompass both S. laxiflorum and S. macrospermum (combine sections Chaetosorghum and Heterosorghum). All the Para-sorghum and Stiposorghum species were resolved into a strongly supported lineage, however, discreet clades for each of these subgeneric sections was not achieved using our dataset. Given the continuous nature of the morphological characters (callus shape and length) used to separate the Para-sorghum and Stiposorghum species, and given the many genetic studies that have failed to resolve these species into two discreet clades, it would be practical to combine them into a single subgeneric section.

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