BIOL 1202 General Biology II Lecture



note: book is overkill too much detail on biol 1202 (i think i meant to type fungi)

CHAPTER 31

Fungi

Dr. Adam Hrincevich

CH 31 Learning Objectives

- 1. Describe the structure of the fungal body.
- Compare and contrast sexual and asexual reproduction in fungi.
- Explain how fungi may have evolved from a single-celled protist.
- Identify and characterize major phylogenetic groups of fungi.
- 5. Give examples of how fungi interact with other organisms.

I would suggest completing the crossword puzzle to help you understand the terminology and correlate how the terms relate to topics covered in this chapter.

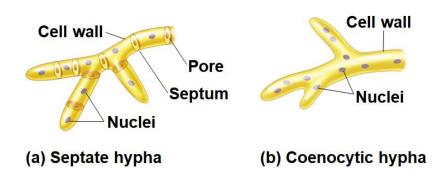
Concept 31.1: Fungi are heterotrophs that feed by absorption

- Despite their diversity, fungi share key traits, such as the <u>way in which they drive nutrition</u>
- Fungi use enzymes to break down a large variety of complex molecules into <u>smaller organic compounds</u>
- The versatility of these enzymes contributes to <u>fungi's</u> ecological success
 - Decomposers: break down and absorb nutrients from nonliving organic material
 - Parasitic: absorb nutrients from living hosts
 - Mutualistic: absorb nutrients from hosts and reciprocate with <u>actions that benefit the host</u>

Body Structure

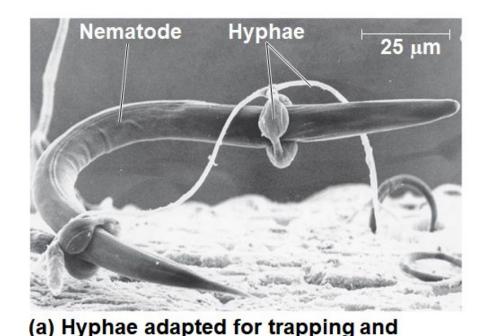
- The most common body structures are <u>multicellular</u> filaments and single cells (<u>yeast</u>)
- Some species grow as either <u>filaments or yeasts</u>; <u>others grow as both</u>
- The morphology of multicellular fungi enhances their ability to absorb nutrients
- The body of fungi form networks of <u>branched</u>
 <u>hyphae</u> adapted for absorption
- Hyphae have tubular cell walls <u>strengthened with</u> <u>chitin</u> (pronounced kite-in)

- Most fungi have hyphae divided into cells by septa, with pores allowing cell-to-cell movement of organelles
- Coenocytic fungi lack septa and have a continuous cytoplasmic mass with <u>hundreds or thousands of</u> <u>nuclei</u>
- Fungal hyphae form an <u>interwoven mass called a</u> <u>mycelium</u>
- The structure of a mycelium maximizes surface-to-volume ratio, making feeding very efficient



Specialized Hyphae in Mycorrhizal Fungi

- Some fungi have specialized hyphae for feeding on live animals
- Others have specialized hyphae called haustoria that allow them to extract nutrients from plants
- Mutualistic fungi have branching hyphae such as arbuscules that they use to exchange nutrients with plant hosts



Fungal Plant cell wall

Arbuscule Plasma membrane

killing prey

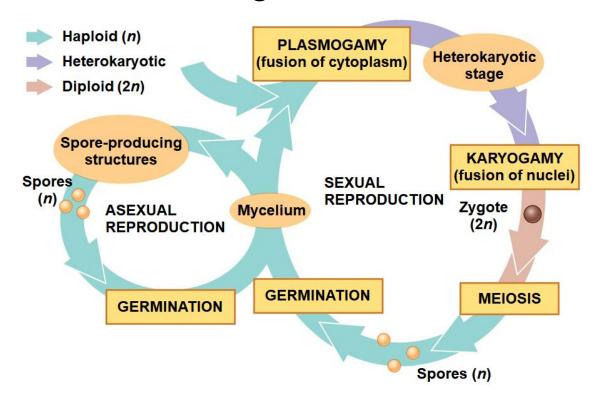
Plant cell vall

Plant cell plasma membrane

- Ectomycorrhizal fungi form sheaths of hyphae over a root and typically grow into the <u>extracellular spaces</u> of the root cortex
- Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi extend arbuscules through the root cell wall and into tubes formed by invagination of the plasma membrane
- Mycorrhizae are mutually beneficial relationships between <u>fungi and plant roots</u>
- Mycorrhizal fungi deliver <u>phosphate ions and</u> <u>minerals to plants</u>
- Most vascular plants have <u>mycorrhizae</u>
- Mycorrhizal fungi colonize soils by the <u>dispersal of</u> <u>haploid cells called **spores**</u>

Concept 31.2: Fungi produce spores through sexual or asexual life cycles

- Fungi propagate themselves by producing vast numbers of <u>spores</u>, <u>either sexually or asexually</u>
- Spores can be carried long distances by wind/water; germinate when landing in fertile, moist areas



Sexual Reproduction

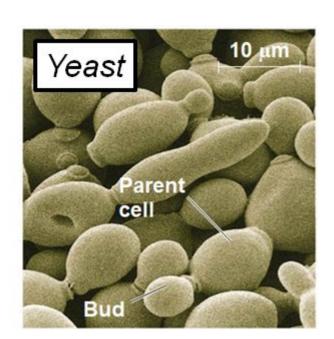
- Fungal nuclei are normally haploid
- Hyphae fuse from different mating types
- Fungi use sexual signaling molecules called pheromones to communicate their mating type
- Plasmogamy is the union of cytoplasm from two parent mycelia
- Hours, days, or centuries may pass before karyogamy (nuclear fusion) producing diploid cells
- The diploid phase is short-lived and undergoes meiosis, producing haploid spores
- The paired processes of karyogamy and meiosis produce genetic variation

Asexual Reproduction

- In addition to sexual reproduction, many fungi can reproduce asexually
- Molds produce haploid spores by <u>mitosis and form</u> <u>visible mycelia</u>
- Other fungi that can reproduce asexually are <u>yeasts</u>, which are single cells
- Instead of producing spores, yeasts reproduce asexually by simple cell division and the <u>pinching of</u> <u>"bud cells" from a parent cell</u>
- Some fungi can grow as <u>filamentous mycelia*</u>

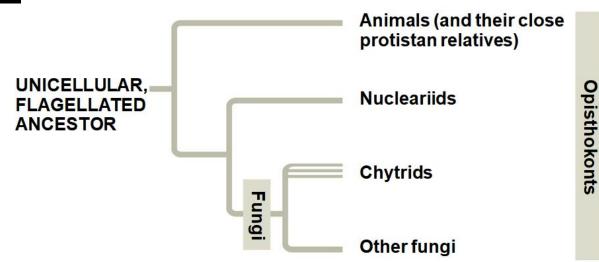
- Many molds and yeasts have no know sexual stage
- Mycologists have traditionally called <u>these</u>
 <u>deuteromycetes</u>
- These fungi are reclassified once their <u>sexual stage</u> is <u>discovered</u>
- Mycologists can now also use genomic techniques to classify fungi





Concept 31.3: The ancestor of fungi was an aquatic, single-celled, flagellated protist

- Fungi and animals are more closely related to each other than they <u>are to plants or other eukaryotes</u>
- Fungi, animals, and their protistan relatives form the opisthokonts clade
- Opisthokonts evolved from a <u>unicellular flagellated</u> ancestor



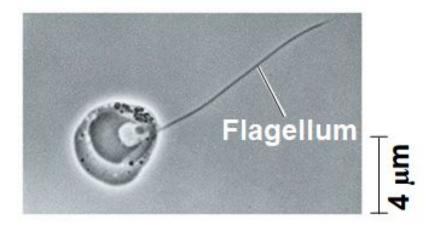
- DNA evidence suggests that
 - Fungi are most closely related to <u>unicellular protists</u> called <u>nucleariids</u>
 - Animals are most closely related to <u>unicellular protists</u> called choanoflagellates
- This suggests that multicellularity <u>arose separately in</u> <u>animals and fungi</u>
- The oldest undisputed fossils of fungi are about <u>460</u> million years old
- Fungi were among the <u>earliest colonizers of land</u>
- Fossil evidence indicates fungi formed <u>mutualistic</u> relationships with early land plants

Concept 31.4: Fungi have radiated into a diverse set of lineages

- Molecular analyses have helped clarify evolutionary relationships among fungal groups, although areas of <u>uncertainty remain</u>
- Recent metagenomic studies estimate fungal diversity at <u>around 1.5 million species</u>
- Five phyla/divisions of fungi are recognized
 - 1. Chytrids (1000 species)
 - 2. Zygomycetes (1000 species)
 - 3. Glomeromycetes (160 species)
 - 4. Ascomycetes (65,000 species)
 - 5. Basidiomycetes (35,000 species)

1. Chytrids

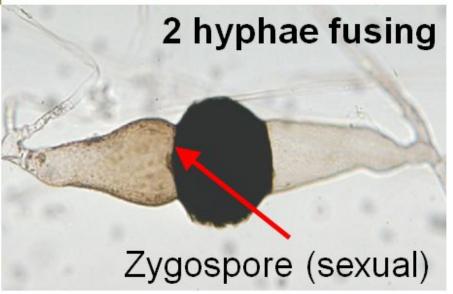
- Chytrids (phylum Chytridiomycota) are found in terrestrial, freshwater, and marine habitats including hydrothermal vents
- They can be <u>decomposers</u>, <u>parasites</u>, <u>or mutualists</u>
- Molecular evidence supports the hypothesis that chytrids diverged <u>early in fungal evolution</u>
- Chytrids are unique among fungi in having <u>flagellated</u> spores, called <u>zoospores</u>



2. Zygomycetes

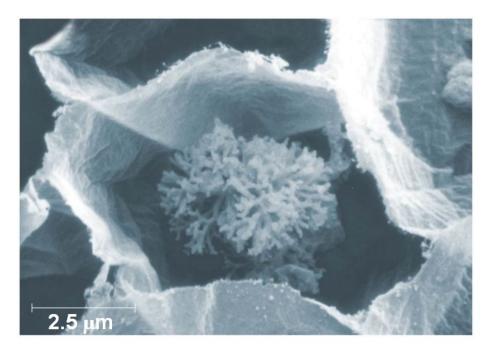
- The zygomycetes (phylum Zygomycota) include fast-growing molds, parasites, and commensal symbionts
- The life cycle of black bread mold (Rhizopus stolonifer) is fairly typical of the phylum
- Its <u>hyphae are coenocytic</u>
- Asexual sporangia produce <u>haploid spores</u>
- The zygomycetes are named for their <u>sexually produced</u> <u>zygosporangia</u>
- Zygosporangia are the site of <u>karyogamy and then meiosis</u>
- Zygosporangia, which are resistant to <u>freezing and drying, can</u> <u>survive unfavorable conditions</u>





3. Glomeromycetes

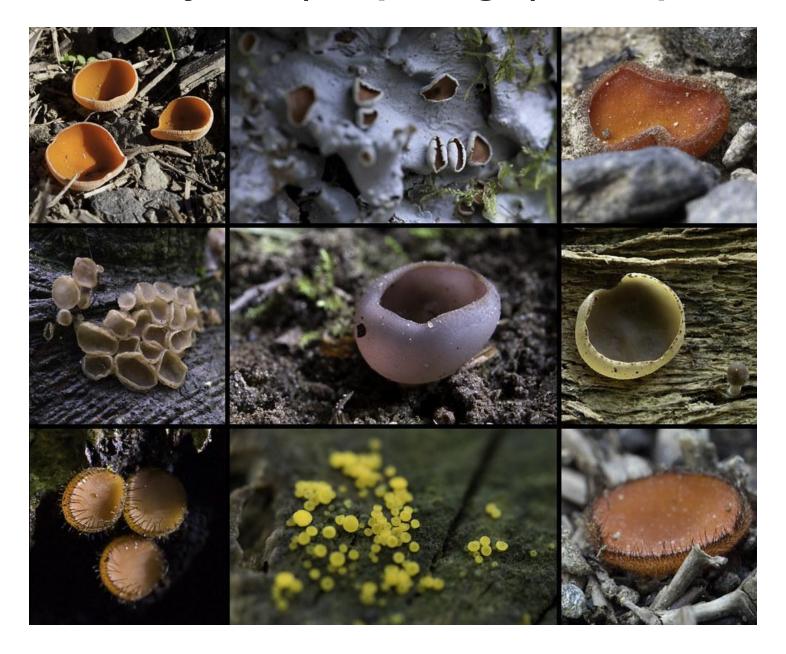
- The glomeromycetes (phylum Glomeromycota) were once considered zygomycetes
- Molecular analyses indicate that glomeromycetes form <u>a separate clade</u>
- Nearly all species of glomeromycetes form <u>arbuscular</u> <u>mycorrhizae</u>



4. Ascomycetes

- Ascomycetes (phylum Ascomycota) live in <u>marine</u>, freshwater, and terrestrial habitats
- Ascomycetes produce sexual spores in saclike asci contained in <u>fruiting bodies called ascocarps</u>
- Called "sac fungi"; vary in size and complexity from unicellular <u>yeasts to elaborate cup fungi and morels</u>
- Ascomycetes include plant <u>pathogens</u>, <u>decomposers</u>, <u>and symbionts</u>
- More than 25% form symbiotic associations with green <u>algae or cyanobacteria called lichens</u>
- Ascomycetes typically reproduce asexually by enormous <u>number of asexual spores called conidia</u>

Ascomycete ("cup fungi") examples



the missing slide o._.o

- Ascomycetes include plant pathogens, decomposers, and symbionts
- More than 25% of all ascomycete species form symbiotic associations with green algae or cyanobacteria called lichens
- Ascomycetes reproduce asexually by enormous numbers of asexual spores called conidia
- Conidia are produced at the tips of specialized hyphae called conidiophores
- Conidia may also participate in sexual reproduction by fusing with the hyphae of a mycelium from a different mating type

5. Basidiomycetes

- Basidiomycetes (phylum Basidiomycota) include mushrooms, puffballs, and shelf fungi
- Some basidiomycetes form mycorrhizae, and others are <u>plant parasites</u>
- The phylum is defined by a clublike structure called a basidium, a transient diploid stage in the life cycle
- Basidiomycetes are <u>commonly called club fungi</u>
- Many basidiomycetes are <u>decomposers of wood</u>

Figure 31.17_



Puffballs



Shelf fungi



Maiden veil fungus

- The life cycle of a basidiomycete usually includes a long-lived dikaryotic mycelium
- The mycelium can reproduce sexually by producing fruiting <u>bodies called **basidiocarps**</u>
- EX: Edible white button mushrooms
- The numerous basidia in a basidiocarp are sources of <u>sexual spores called basidiospores</u>
- Can produce <u>mushrooms within a few hours</u>
- Some species produce rings of mushrooms called "fairy rings" that <u>appear literally overnight</u>



Concept 31.5: Fungi play key roles in nutrient cycling, ecological interactions, and human welfare

- Fungi interact with other organisms as <u>decomposers</u>, <u>mutalists</u>, and <u>pathogens</u>
- Fungi are efficient decomposers of <u>organic material</u> <u>including cellulose and lignin</u>
- They perform essential recycling of chemical elements between the living and nonliving world
- Without these critical decomposers, <u>life as we know it</u> would cease

Fungi as Mutualists

- Fungi form mutualistic relationships with plants, algae, cyanobacteria, and animals
- Mutualistic fungi absorb nutrients from the host organism and reciprocate actions that benefit the host
- Mycorrhizae are enormously important in <u>natural</u> <u>ecosystems and agriculture</u>
- Plants harbor harmless symbiotic endophytes, fungi that <u>live inside leaves or other plant parts</u>
- Some endophytes make toxins to help defend the host plant; others help the plant tolerate heat, drought, or heavy metals
- Most endophytes are <u>ascomycetes</u>

Fungus-Animal Mutualisms

- Some fungi share their <u>digestive services with</u> <u>animals</u>
- These fungi help break down plant material in the guts of cows and other grazing mammals
- Many species of ants use the digestive power of <u>fungi</u> by raising them in "farms"



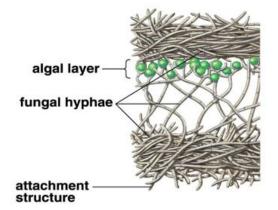
Lichens

- A lichen is a symbiotic association between a photosynthetic microorganism and a fungus
- The photosynthetic component is green algae or cyanobacteria
- The fungal component is most often an ascomycete
- Millions of photosynthetic cells are held in a <u>mass of fungal hyphae</u>
- Algae or cyanobacteria occupy an inner layer <u>below</u> the lichen surface
- The symbioses are so complete that <u>lichens are given</u> scientific names
- Are important pioneers on new rock and soil surfaces

Figure 31.22



A fruticose (shrublike) lichen





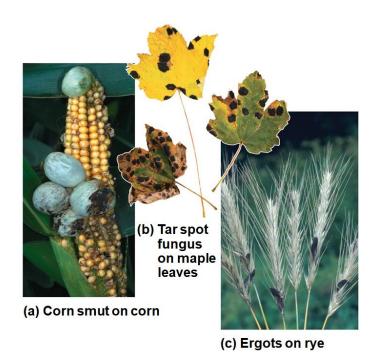
A foliose (leaflike) lichen



Crustose (encrusting) lichens

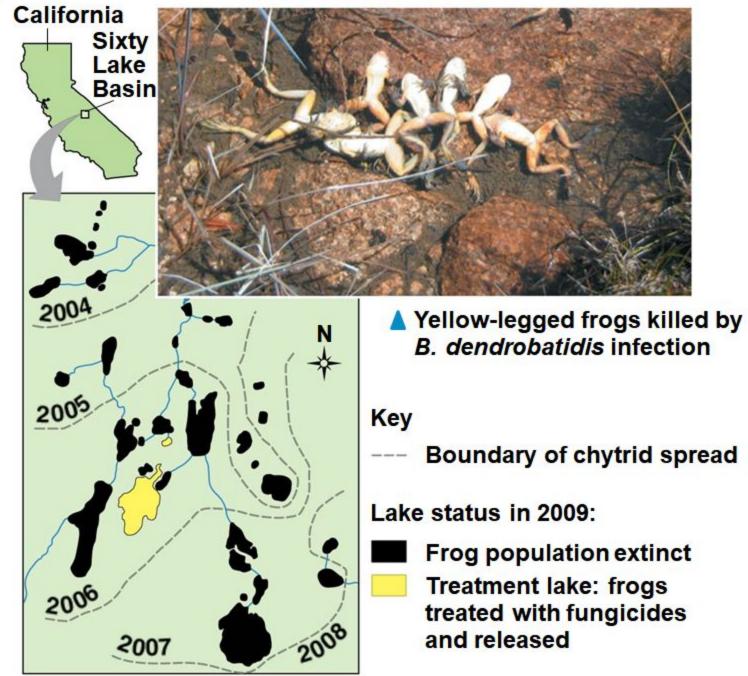
Fungi as Parasites

- About 30% of known fungal species are parasites or pathogens, mostly on or in plants
- Each year, 10% to 50% of the world's <u>fruit harvest is</u> <u>lost due to fungi</u>
- Some fungi that attack food crops are toxic to humans



- Ergot on rye is caused by an <u>ascomycete and</u> <u>produces toxins</u>
- More than 40,000 people died from an epidemic of ergotism <u>during the Middle Ages</u>
- <u>Ergotism</u> is characterized by gangrene, nervous spasms, burning sensations, hallucinations, and temporary insanity (<u>Salem Witch Trials of 1692</u>)
- Ergots contain <u>lysergic acid</u>, the compound in <u>LSD</u>
- Animals are much less susceptible to parasitic fungi than <u>are plants</u>
- The chytrid Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis has been implicated in the decline or extinction of <u>about</u> 200 species of <u>amphibians worldwide</u>

Figure 31.25



- The general term for a fungal infection in <u>animals is</u> <u>mycosis</u>
- EX: Ringworm and athlete's foot are human mycoses





- Systemic mycoses spread through the body
 - EX: Coccidioidomycosis produces <u>tuberculosis-like</u> <u>symptoms</u>
- Some mycoses are <u>opportunistic</u>
 - EX: Candida albicans, which causes <u>yeast infections</u>

Practical Uses of Fungi

- Humans eat many fungi and use others to make cheeses, alcoholic beverages, and bread
- Some fungi are used to produce antibiotics for the treatment of bacterial infections
 - EX: the ascomycete Penicillium





- Genetic research on fungi is leading to applications in biotechnology
 - EX: Scientists are using Saccharomyces to study homologs of the genes involved in Parkinson's and Huntington's diseases
 - EX: Insulin-like growth factor can be produced in the fungus Saccharomyces cerevisiae
 - EX: Gliocladium roseum, a fungus that produces hydrocarbons similar to <u>diesel fuel</u>, could be used to <u>produce biofuels</u>

