# PHYLOGENY AND RELATIONSHIPS IN THE ASCOMYCETES<sup>1</sup>

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# PART I. ARGUMENT

Perhaps there is no other large group of plants whose origin and phylogeny have given rise to such diametrically opposed hypotheses as the fungi. The presence of chlorophyll and the synthesis of carbohydrates from inorganic materials are such general and dominant characteristics of plants, that many students regard them as the fundamental traits which primarily marked the divergence of plant from animal life. According to this hypothesis all plants possess chlorophyll or were derived from chlorophyll-bearing ancestors.

No one questions the origin of the chlorophylless seed plants from chlorophyll bearing ones by the loss of chlorophyll and reduction of photosynthetic organs.<sup>2</sup> What is more natural then, than the hypothesis that the fungi have been derived from chlorophyll-bearing ancestors? It is not my purpose to discuss the question as to whether or not the *Phycomycetes*, or lower fungi, had an independent origin, or were derived from one or several different groups of the green algae. I wish to consider some of the evidence which points to the origin of the *Ascomycetes* from fungus ancestry, rather than from the red algae.

<sup>1</sup> The first part of this paper is the abstract or argument as read at the anniversary proceedings. Because of the brief character of the abstract which renders many of the statements more or less categorical, while some therefore will appear dogmatic, the subject is further elaborated, and illumined by examples in a series of *Notes* which follow as an appendix in Part II.

<sup>2</sup> The chlorophylless seed plants constitute comparatively small, isolated groups of separate origin from different families or orders of the spermatophytes. They do not constitute a phylum. The situation is quite different with the *Ascomycetes*, which make up a great phylum with ascending and diverging lines, as well as descending branches. They do not give evidence of many isolated groups derived by degeneration from many separate families of the red algae.

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In this abstract the statements must be more or less categorical, and some will therefore appear rather dogmatic.

1. The phylogenetic relation of the oblastema filaments of the red algae, and the ascogenous threads of the sac fungi.— The nuclear history in the two structures is very different. In the red algae there is a single fusion of one pair of sex nuclei in the egg, forming a true diploid nucleus which multiplies by division in the oöblastema filament providing the primary nucleus for each cystocarp. The oöblastema filament fuses with vegetative auxiliary cells to furnish attachment and base for food supply of the cystocarp, but the diploid and haploid nuclei of the fusion cell repel each other. The attempt to show a phyletic relation between the copulation of short oöblastema filaments with cells of the procarp, or the fusion of the procarp cells, after the union of haploid gametic nuclei, in some groups of red algae, and the communication of functional archicarp cells of certain sac fungi, as well as entertaining the notion that fusions of approximate cells of the ascogenous hyphae are phyletically related to the fusion of oöblastema filaments and auxiliary vegetative cells, introduces additional confusion into a doctrine already overburdened with questionable hypotheses. The oöblastema filaments and ascogenous threads are parallel developments. They present an example of morphological homology or analogy, not of phylogenetic affinity.

2. The phylogenetic relation of the ascus and carpospore, or tetrasporangium (see Part II, Notes II and III).—There are two horns to the dilemma here, and either one requires several additional supporting hypotheses. The origin of the ascus from a coenocytic zygote, in some cases by reduction, in others terminating a progressive splitting of the same, is far more comprehensible. The nuclear fusion in the ascus is not vegetative (see Note III). It takes place in all forms thus far investigated and is to be considered the final stage of the sexual act, however modified this may be. Were it merely vegetative fusion there would be no need of conjugate division in the ascus hook to avoid the union of sister nuclei. The nucleocytoplasmic relation, or balance, would be just as easily at-

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tained by fusion of sister nuclei, or even by contemporaneous growth of nucleus and cytoplasm, such as is well known to occur in many other cases, for example in sexual cells, gonotokonts, etc.

3. The phylogenetic relation of the ascocarp and cystocarp. —If this principle of the resemblance between different types of cystocarp and ascocarp has any force, it would mean that the sac fungi had as many points of origin from the red algae as there are points of resemblance between their fruit structures. I presume no one at the present time holds any such view of the polyphyletic origin of the Ascomycetes.

4. The phylogenetic relation of the trichogyne and sexual apparatus of the Ascomycetes and those of the red algae.-The sexual apparatus of some of the Ascomycetes, particularly the trichogyne, and the so-called spermatia, is generally conceded to be the strongest evidence in support of their phyletic relation to the red algae. This theory, however, requires a jump from the simple trichogyne, a continuous prolongation of the egg of the red algae, to the complex, multiseptate one of the Ascomycetes. It requires further the reduction of this trichogyne to a unicellular one, and then to the simple gamete. It also requires the transition from free antheridia, or spermatia, to fixed ones, and from this specialized condition to the simple gamete, thus finally attaining the generalized condition of the copulation of simple gametangia. This appears to me to be a rather strained backward reading of the evidence.

## ORIGIN OF THE ASCOMYCETES FROM FUNGUS ANCESTRY

Although Sachs' suggestion of the relation of the Ascomycetes to the red algae was received with favor by many students at that time, and the doctrine has received a fresh impetus in recent years, it was not accepted by some of the foremost students of the fungi at that time (Winter, '79; deBary, '84). DeBary plead for the application of the theory of descent which had come to be used as the basis of classification for the higher plants. As a result of his extensive studies of development in the *Phycomycetes* and As-

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comycetes he was led to the conclusion that the Ascomycetes were derived from the Phycomycetes. This doctrine is based chiefly on the evidence of a phyletic relation between the sexual organs of the two groups. In spite of the persistence of the belief in the origin of the sac fungi from the red algae, deBary's doctrine of their descent from the Phycomycetes has had many adherents. Nowhere in deBary's writings have I been able to find any statement which can be construed as favoring the origin of the sac fungi from the red algae. The esteem in which his judgment is held, even at the present day, has led to the republication of a rumor of an ante mortem statement by deBary to the effect that he was inclined to the view that the procarps of the two groups pointed to the origin of the Ascomycetes from the Rhodophyceae!

Our present knowledge of the cytology of the ascus would not perhaps favor such close contact between the *Ascomycetes* and *Phycomycetes* as would appear from the knowledge possessed in deBary's time. Unfortunately we are not yet in possession of any cytological knowledge of spore production in the zygote of the *Phycomycetes* which we can use for comparison. But at any rate, the difficulties in this relation are no greater than are met with in attempting to derive the ascus from the carpospore or tetrasporangium of the red algae.

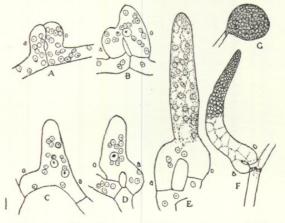
Origin of the ascogenous threads.—The ascogenous threads are outgrowths of the zygote or oögonium and represent one method of splitting up and proliferation of the same in accordance with recognized principles of progression in the same direction of increase in the output of spores following the sexual process, or its equivalent, and terminating the diploid phase.

One of the most instructive forms suggesting a mode of transition from the *Phycomycetes* to the *Ascomycetes*, is *Dipodascus*. Its sexual organs are strikingly like those of certain *Mucorales* or *Peronosporales* in their young stages. The sexual organs, which can be recognized as antheridium and oögonium, arise either from adjacent cells of the same thread, or from different threads. After resorption of the wall at the point of contact, the fertilized oögonium (or zygote) grows

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out into an elongate stout "ascus" or zygogametangium with the production of numerous spores. While all phases of the nuclear phenomena have not yet been made clear, the gametes are multinucleate, and multiplication either of the sex nuclei,

or of the fusion nucleus, takes place in the generalized "ascus." This so-called ascus is an outgrowth of the undifferentiated oögonium or ascogonium. The splitting up of such a generalized ascus by filamentous outgrowths. the ascogenous threads. which branch and produce terminal asci containing fewer spores, would be a very natural course in progressive evolution, specialization, and increase in spore output.



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Fig. 1. Dipodascus albidus: A, copulation of gametangia; B, communication established between antheridium and oögonium; C, the two sex nuclei approaching each other; D, fusion nucleus large, vegetative nuclei small; E, growth of generalized ascus from oögonium side of copulating gametes, early stages of, in C and D; F, generalized ascus with numerous spores; G, spore mass crowded out of end of ascus. a, antheridium; o, oögonium.—A-E, after Juel; F and G, after Lagerheim.

Origin of the ascus in the Endomycetaceae.—The tendency of generalized forms to split up in different directions, often giving rise to divergent lines or series, is a well founded principle in the doctrine of descent. These series are often of different character in respect to numbers and diversity of forms, as well as to progression or reduction in one or more structures. One of the directions in which descent from such a generalized, coenocytic, germinating zygote (or ascus) as represented by *Dipodascus* has taken place is that of reduction in size of the generalized ascus and in the number of spores. Evidence of this reduction is furnished by *Dipodascus* itself; for, as the culture ages the asci become smaller and smaller and the spores fewer in number. In this way by reduction in number of spores to 8 and 4, just permitting the meiotic nuclear divisions, forms like *Eremascus* and *Endomyces* have

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arisen. Further reduction of one of the gametes, or of the vegetative stages, would result in apogamous forms of Endomyces, the Exoasceae,<sup>1</sup> the Saccharomycetes, or yeasts, etc. By reduction and loss of one of the gametes without reduction in size of the generalized "ascus," such forms as Ascoidea, Protomyces, Taphridium, etc., may have arisen.

Origin, progression and sterilization of the so-called trichogyne.—There is no well developed trichogyne-like structure in any of the known *Phycomycetes*. But there is evidence in a

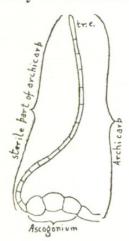


Fig. 2. Diagrammatic representation of the archicarp of lichens and many other Ascomycetes. The fertile part is the ascogonium; the sterile portion is the so-called "trichogyne"; tr.c, trichogyne cell. few of the forms, like certain species of Cystopus, of a tendency of the oögonium, probably under chemotactic stimulation and a softening of the wall, to develop a short process directed toward the antheridium. This has been suggested by a number of students (Lotsy, '07, p. 468) to be an indication of the origin of the trichogyne in the Ascomycetes. It does not mean that  $Cystopus^2$ is to be regarded as an ancestral form of the Ascomycetes, though certain species do possess a number of peculiarities which may be attributed to such a hypothetical form. This peculiar feature of the oögonium of some species of *Cystopus* is, however, of importance as it indicates one probable method of origin of the trichogyne in the Ascomucetes. The trichogyne is not a character possessed by all Ascomucetes, even of those which still retain two functional gametangia.

This, I believe, is strong evidence of the independent origin of the trichogyne in the *Ascomycetes*.

It arose as a copulating process or beak from the oögonium

<sup>1</sup> Such an origin for the *Exoasceae* is more comprehensible than the theory that their mycelium may represent ascogenous hyphae which have migrated from the condition of parasitism in the vegetative portion of a former ascocarp, to parasitism on their present hosts, as suggested by Harper ('00, p. 392).

<sup>2</sup> One of these features is the generalized character of the sexual organs, which are polyenergid, but particularly the great variation in number of functional egg nuclei in different species as described by Stevens ('99, '01).

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under chemotactic stimulation, combined with a transverse splitting of the oögonium or archicarp.

The failure of the antheridium to perform its function in the sexual process, its reduction or loss, are well known features in the life history of a number of *Ascomycetes*. In many cases where the antheridium or its supposed equivalent, the spermatium, is to all appearance potentially functional, its failure to function appears to be due to the sterilization of the terminal portion of the archicarp.<sup>1</sup>

Analogous situations are known in the seed plants. I need only cite the case of Elatostoma acuminatum (see Strasburger, '09). The nucleus of the embryo sac mother cell enters the preliminary phases of the heterotypic division. After synapsis the further stages of the heterotypic division are inhibited, and by typic or "vegetative" division the eight-nucleated embryo sac is formed. The egg, therefore, ripens with a diploid nucleus, and, without fertilization, develops the embryo. The walls of the inner integument grow together at the micropylar end of the oyule and harden, thus forming an effectual barrier to the entrance of the pollen tube (Treub, '05; Strasburger, '09). While great disturbances occur in pollen development and most of the pollen grains are empty or undeveloped, some pollen is formed which appears normal. In some cases the mother cell, which usually forms the diploid embryo sac, undergoes a true reduction division forming a row of four cells, the lower one of which forms a normal embryo sac with a haploid egg. The few male plants of this species, Strasburger thinks, result from fertilization of such

<sup>1</sup> While the "trichogyne" or terminal portion of the archicarp assumed vegetative characters in an increasing degree, it seems that it did not in every case lose all of the features appropriate to a receptive organ. It appears in a few cases at least to still respond to chemotactic or analogous stimuli, seeking the fixed spermatia as in *Collema pulposum* (according to Bachmann, '13) and *Zodiomyces vorticellarius* (Thaxter, '96). In a number of cases there seem to be receptive areas on the trichogyne where the free sperms become fixed, where fusion of sperm and trichogyne takes place. The perforation of the transverse walls of the trichogyne, which is said to occur after fusion with the sperm, also appears to be another example of the retention of an ancestral character of the archicarp which primarily permitted the passage of sperm nuclei through the terminal segment, or the association of nuclei of different segments as parthenogenesis or apogamy was introduced.

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haploid eggs by sperms from the normal pollen.

This sterility of the archicarp, I believe, has been brought about by its assumption more and more of a vegetative character. The formation of septa at the base of the "trichogyne" in such forms as Pyronema and Monascus, which primarily may have been the beginning of a transverse splitting of the oögonium, would make more difficult the fertilization of the basal portion of the archicarp. In Aspergillus repens the socalled "trichogyne," or terminal cell of the archicarp, sometimes gives rise to ascogenous hyphae<sup>1</sup> (according to Miss Dale, '09). The basal portion of the two-celled archicarp, or the basal or central portions of the several-celled archicarp. seem to be the portions which have retained the function of ascogenic cells where that function still resides in the archicarp. As the archicarp becomes longer, the sterile portion, which is non-ascogenic, becomes longer and more septate. This only increases the difficulties of the passage of the sperm nuclei.

The increasing vegetative character of the terminal portion of the archicarp has given rise to the long, simple, multiseptate "trichogyne" of the lichens and many *Pyremomycetes* and *Discomycetes*, as well as to the profusely branched multiseptate trichogyne of certain *Laboulbeniales*.<sup>2</sup> It is an interesting fact that in many of the cases of the extraordinary vegetative development of the terminal portion of the archicarp (the "trichogyne"), antheridia and spermatia are entirely wanting.<sup>3</sup>

The degeneration changes of the sterile portion of the archicarp (multiseptate and often also much branched "trichogyne") which are described as taking place after connection of the spermatium with the receptive terminal cell (for lichens see

<sup>1</sup> It is worthy of note in this connection that Olive's studies ('05) of *Monascus* led him to regard the "trichogyne," or terminal cell of the archicarp, as the ascogonium, and the second cell, or ascogonium according to others, as a nurse cell.

<sup>2</sup> Thaxter ('96) says that when the spermatia do not become attached to the receptive cell of the trichogyne the vegetative growth of the trichogyne is greatly increased.

\* (Lachnea cretea, according to Fraser, '13; in Teratomyces actobii, Thaxter, '96, was not able to find antheridia.)

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Stahl, '77, Baur, '98, Bachmann, '13; for the Laboulbeniales. Thaxter, '96, p. 225), may be classed as secondary or accompanying sexual phenomena. It does not necessarily follow that the sperm nucleus reaches the egg or fertile portion of The trichogyne changes taking place after the archicarp. the entrance of the sperm into, or its connection with the receptive terminal cell, are not dependent on the final fate of the sperm, i. e., whether it reaches the egg or not. They are antecedent phenomena and in no sense a proof that fertilization has taken place. These disintegration changes, initiated, it would seem, by the influence of the sperm on the receptive cell of the archicarp, terminate the vegetative growth of the archicarp and thus the reflex upon the fertile portion at the middle or base releases the ascogenic cells from the inhibiting influence of the vegetative phenomena, and they then proceed with the modified sexual process among the ascogonial nuclei which may be now associated in sexual pairs, or this pairing be postponed to some period in the development of the ascogenous hyphae.

Origin of spermatia in the Ascomycetes.—The presence of the so-called spermatia in many lichens and other Ascomycetes, associated at the same time in numerous instances with the trichogyne-like termination of the archicarp, is one of the major pieces of evidence brought forward in supporting the doctrine of the red algal origin of the sac fungi. If we accept this doctrine, then in the Ascomycetes we must read the history of the antheridia in the following order: They appeared first as free structures, spermatia, abjointed from spermatiophores, large numbers of which were crowded in highly specialized receptacles.

At the next step there were few, imbedded, isolated antheridiophores to which a few spermatia remained attached, until finally the stage was reached where spermatium and antheridiophore were merged into the simple antheridium. This doctrine also requires that along with the change from free spermatia to the simple antheridium, there was a transition from the condition in which the spermatia do not function to

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that where the sperm nuclei of the simple antheridium are functional.

Notwithstanding this interesting course of evolution of the antheridium and of sexuality which we trace if the red algae are accepted as the source of the *Ascomycetes*, I believe, just as in the case of the archicarp and trichogyne, the evidence warrants us rather in reading it in just the opposite direction; and that in the last stages of progressive development of the sexual apparatus in the *Ascomycetes*, the resemblances to the sexual apparatus of the red algae are merely those of morphological homology and analogy, not phylogenetic homology and affinity.

According to this view, then, the ancestral forms of the Ascomycetes were fungi with well developed, simple but generalized gametangia. This condition is retained in a number of existing Ascomycetes, in many of which true sexuality exists.<sup>1</sup>

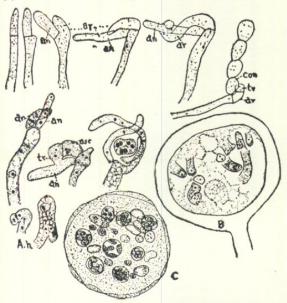
In connection with the specialization of the antheridium and the origin of the spermatia of the Ascomycetes, Monascus is an extremely interesting form. The antheridium is an elongate terminal cell of a hypha. The archicarp arises as a branch below the septum. It curves closely against the antheridium, bending it over more or less at right angles, and copulates at any point along the side of the antheridium, there being no portion of the latter especially selected as a copulation place. The conidia in Monascus are formed in chains by constriction and septation of terminal portions of hyphae similar in diameter to the antheridium. The archicarp sometimes copulates with a conidium of the chain before their final separation (Barker, '03). A chain of conidia is thus homologous with the antheridium, and a conidium with any section of the antheridium. It would be but a step from this condi-

<sup>1</sup> Examples of generalized, simple (non-septate) gametangia are found in *Dipodascus* and *Gymnoascus*. Examples of simple specialized gametangia, i. e., uninucleate gametangia, are found in the powdery mildews (*Erysiphaceae*) and *Eremascus*. A second stage is presented in forms where the antheridium remains simple and generalized, but there is a beginning of specialization in the archicarp where it is split transversely into two cells, the terminal one (trichogyne) functioning as a copulating organ and migration tube for the sperm nuclei. Examples are found in *Pyronema* and *Monascus*.

tion to the copulation of the archicarp with free conidia. The situation in Collema pulposum (Bachmann, '13), Ascobolus carbonarius (Dodge, '14), and Zodiomyces vorticellarius

(Thaxter, '96), is similar where the trichogyne copulates with spermatia (conidia) still attached to the spermatiophore. These cases are very strong evidence suggesting the homology of conidia (or pycnospores as the case may be) and spermatia<sup>1</sup> in the Ascomycetes.

Progression in the direction of multiplication of antheridia, or spermatiophores, and their association in groups followed from the simple and more or less isolated situation, progressing along the same course which is recognized in the association



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Fig. 3. Monascus, showing development of sexual organs and fruit. an, antheridium; ar, archicarp; tr, trichogyne; asc, ascogonium; con, conidium with which trichogyne is copulating; A.h, ascus hooks or croziers; B, young fruit showing ascogenous hyphae within, at left is a very young fruit body showing ascogonium becoming surrounded by the enveloping filaments; C, mature fruit body with asci and ascospores.—Upper row of figures after Barker; lower group after Schikorra.

and massing of conidiophores into bundles, cushions, or pycnidia. It is the same course which is universally recognized as a striking indication of progression in other groups of plants, a *cephalization* of fruiting or reproductive structures, as in the bryophytes, lycopods, conifers, and angiosperms. In the latter it has given us the flower, and further cephalization of the flower has resulted in the head of the com-

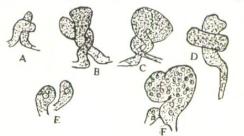
<sup>1</sup> Their function in the ancestral or early forms may have been generalized enough to permit of their performing as conidia or sperms, as in the case of *Ectocarpus, Prostosiphon, Ulothrix*, etc. Strasburger ('05, p. 25) has expressed the idea that the pycnospores of the *Ascomycetes* might have been spermatia, and that the process of fructification now presented by these fungi is a secondary adaptation in place of the erstwhile fertilization by spermatia.

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posites, the highest stage of phyletic evolution in the plant world.

In conclusion, the *Ascomycetes* present a very rich variety of form, structure, and adaptation with very marked diverging series. Some of these series present evidences of progression from simple, generalized forms to highly specialized forms, while others indicate descent by reduction. The evidences of progression are of the same kind and value as are generally recognized in other groups of plants.



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Fig. 4. Gymnoascus Reessii: A-D, formation of sexual organs, fusing at C; E, sexual organs in uninucleate condition; F, fusing sexual organs in multinucleate stage.—After Dale. Sachs, in his later writings, agreed with deBary in recognizing the *Ascomycetes* as a distinct phylum, with an ascending series from simple and generalized forms to complex and specialized ones. He never mentioned the trichogyne as evidence of their phyletic relation to the red algae. But his theory was based on

the presence of a *procarp* whether with or without a trichogyne. He selected *Gymnoascus*, where the sexual apparatus consists of simple copulating gametangia, as the simplest ascomycete known at that time. It is only in recent years that the trichogyne has been seized upon as evidence of the phyletic relation of the two groups and has forced this anomalous backward reading of the history.

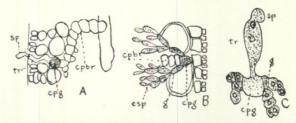
# PART II. ELUCIDATION

## NOTE I

The red algae are remarkable for the great constancy in the form of the procarp (procarpic branch, carpogonial branch, etc.) and the very great divergence in the processes subsequent to the fertilization of the egg (terminal cell of the procarp, carpogonium) and ending in the production of the carpospores. The general character of this divergence may be shown by a brief presentation of several types, as follows:

1. The simplest type of cystocarp development occurs in the *Nemalionales* where the carpogonium, or egg cell, after fertilization, gives rise to several branched sporogenous threads in a compact cluster, bearing terminally the carpo-

spores (Nemalion, Lemanea, etc.), or in some species the sporogenous threads are more widely extended in the thallus, the branches producing separated clusters of carpospores (Dermonema dichotomum, see Schmitz and Hauptfleisch, '97). Fertiliza-



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Fig. 5. A and B, Lemanea; C, Batrachospermum: cpbr, procarp or carpogonial branch; cpg, carpogonium or egg; tr, trichogyne; sp, spermatium; g, gonimoblast; csp, carpospores. -A and B, after Atkinson; C, after Davis.

tion by the fusion of a sperm nucleus with the egg nucleus after entrance into the trichogyne and migration down into the carpogonium has been described in *Nemalion* (Wolfe, '04) and in *Batrachospermum* (Schmidle, '99; Osterhout, '00).

2. In Polysiphonia (Rhodomeniales) the procarp branch of four cells is curved around so that the carpogonium is in contact with an auxiliary cell lying between the carpogonium and the pericentral cell which gave rise to the procarp. After fusion of the sperm and egg nucleus in the carpogonium, the fusion nucleus divides once. The carpogonium now connects with the auxiliary cell mentioned, which fuses with the pericentral cell. The two diploid nuclei migrate into the pericentral cell, the carpogonium separates from the auxiliary cell, while it and the remaining cells of the procarp degenerate. The pericentral cell now fuses with several other auxiliary cells, which arose from it as a branch, forming the central cell. The diploid nuclei remain in the upper part of the central cell, while the haploid nuclei from the auxiliary cells, some having divided, now degenerate (Yamanouchi, '06).

3. A somewhat different situation exists in *Erythrophyllum delesseroides* (*Gigartinales*). The oöblastema filament from the fertilized egg connects with the auxiliary cell which is the basal cell of the seven or eight-celled pro-

carp. This in turn fuses with the two other large cells of the basal portion of the procarp, thus forming the large fusion

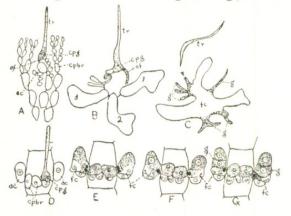


Fig. 6. A, Harveyella mirabilis; B and C, Erythrophyllum delesseroides; D, E, F, and G, Callithamnion corymbosum: cpbr, carpogonial branch; cpg, carpogonium; tr, trichogyne; of, oöblastema filament; ac, auxiliary cell; g, gonimoblast; fc, fusion cell. 1, 2, and 3 are the three large basal cells of the procarp in Erythrophyllum which fuse with the oöblastema filament to form the fusion cell. Shaded portions are diploid; note that in the fusion cell of Callithamnion the vegetative nucleus (haploid) remains at a distance from the diploid nucleus.—A, after Sturch; B and C, after Twiss; D, E, F, and G, after Oltmanns. cell from which the gonimoblasts, or sporogenous threads arise (Twiss, '11).

4. In Harveyella mirabilis,<sup>1</sup> a large cell which gives rise to the four-celled procarp is the auxiliary cell. A short oöblastema filament from the egg connects with the latter, which becomes the central cell.

5. In Callithamnion (Ceramiales) the fusion (diploid) nucleus in the egg divides into two. Two short oöblastema filaments proceed from

the carpogonium, each containing a diploid nucleus, and fusing with an auxiliary cell at the side of the base of the procarp. Each of the two auxiliary cells now contains two nuclei. A wall divides each cell into two. The upper daughter cell contains the diploid nucleus and becomes the central cell, giving rise to the sporogenous threads, while the haploid nucleus in the lower cell degenerates (Oltmanns, '04).

6. The most complicated type may be represented by *Dudresnaya purpurifera* (*Cryptonemiales*) where several oöblastema filaments arise from the sterilized egg cell. These fuse with auxiliary cells which are either certain cells of the procarp branch, or terminal cells of its branched system, or of more distant "secondary procarp branches." An oöbla-

<sup>1</sup> *H. mirabilis* is parasitic on certain species of *Polysiphonia*, and is devoid of chlorophyll. For this reason it is regarded by some as indicating a step in the direction of an ascomycete.

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stema filament after fusing with one auxiliary cell may grow forward and fuse with another and so on. The diploid nucleus formed in the egg multiplies by division in the oöblastema filaments. In the fusion cell, resulting from the union of the filament and auxiliary cell, the diploid and haploid nuclei repel each other so that the former lies on the filament side while the latter lies in the base of the auxiliary cell. An outgrowth

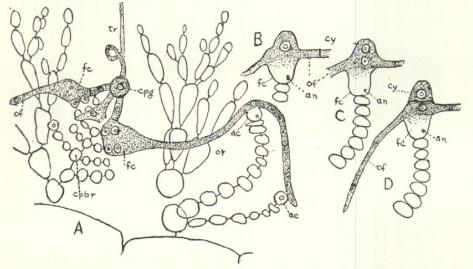


Fig. 7. Dudresnaya purpurifera: A, oöblastema filaments fusing with auxiliary cells; B, C and D, outgrowth from the fusion cell to form the central cell; C, diploid nucleus dividing; D, central cell of cystocarp separated by a wall. Note that the nucleus of the auxiliary cell remains distant from the diploid nucleus of the oöblastema filament. Shaded portions are diploid. cpbr, carpogenic branch; cpg, carpogonium; tr, trichogyne; of, oöblastema filament; fc, fusion cell; ac, auxiliary cell; an, auxiliary cell nucleus; cy, central cell of cystocarp.—After Oltmanns.

arises from the oöblastema filament at the point where the diploid nucleus lies. The latter divides, one nucleus migrating into the outgrowth, while a wall separates it from the fusion cell. This new cell with its diploid nucleus becomes the central cell (Oltmanns, '04).

7. In *Cruoriopsis cruciata* the situation is similar. The oöblastema filament by coursing widely through the thallus, fuses with the terminal cell (auxiliary cell) of "secondary procarp branches." Each of these fusion cells, or auxiliary cells, then gives rise to one or two simple rows of 2-4 spores (Schmitz, '79, '83), or a single 2-4-celled spore chain (Oltmanns, '04).

Relation between the fusions of procarp and auxiliary cells, and those of archicarp cells.-Several persons have made the interesting suggestion that certain similarities between the events which take place in the fusion of one or more of the middle or basal cells of the procarp with an outgrowth from the carpogonium, either direct, or through the medium of an auxiliary cell, as represented in Erythrophyllum, Harveyella, Callithamnion, etc. (third, fourth and fifth types mentioned above), and those occurring in the fusion among themselves of the middle or basal cells of the archicarp prior to the formation of the ascogenous threads, may be evidence of a phylogenetic relationship between the red algae and Ascomucetes. Thus Baur ('98) suggests that the first fertile cell of the several-celled ascogone of Collema crispum may be the egg cell, that this may be fertilized by the entrance of the sperm nucleus and its fusion with the egg nucleus. This fusion nucleus may now divide. The other cells of the ascogone below the egg are conceived of as auxiliary cells into each one of which a nucleus resulting from the division of the fertilized egg nucleus migrates after pore formation in the intervening walls.

In an interesting paper on the morphological relationships of the Florideae and Ascomycetes, Dodge ('14) emphasizes this theory by pointing to a number of cases in the lichens and other Ascomycetes where fusion, or pore connections, are known to occur between the ascogenous cells of the archicarp where more than one cell gives rise to ascogenous hyphae. Examples among the lichens are Collema crispum (Baur, '98), Physcia pulverulenta (Darbishire, '00), Anaptychia ciliaris (Baur, '04), and Collema pulposum (Bachmann, '13), while among the other Ascomycetes may be mentioned the following: Ascobolus (Harper, '96. Here there is but one ascogenous cell which gives rise to the ascogenous hyphae, but pore formation in intervening walls permits intercommunication between several adjacent cells in the middle of the archicarp. The species is not given), Ascophanus carneus (Cutting, '09). Lachnea cretea (Fraser, '13), Polystigma rubrum (Nienburg, '14).

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Now as to the suggested relationship between the phenomenon of broad or narrow pore formation in the walls of certain cells near the middle or base of the archicarp in certain lichens and other Ascomycetes, and that shown in the communications taking place between the carpogonium and auxiliary cells (often including one or more of the other procarp cells), it may be said (1) that in the red algae this communication of the carpogonium (terminal procarp cell) with other procarp cells when it does take place is not direct, but by a roundabout method, either through a distinct outgrowth from the carpogonium, or through the medium of one or more auxiliary cells, or by a combination of both, to form the central cell; (2) no evidence of any similar roundabout method has been observed in the archicarp of the sac fungi. The intercommunication between the middle or basal cells of the archicarp is always direct, and no communication in the multicellular archicarp occurs by means of which either a fertilized nucleus, or a sperm nucleus has been observed to migrate from the terminal cell to the middle or basal cells; (3) that in a number of the fungi where pore formation occurs between cells of the fertile portion of the archicarp, the "trichogyne" is either absent, or admittedly degenerate, or the antheridium is absent. Examples are: Ascobolus, studied by Harper ('96), antheridium and trichogyne absent; Ascophanus carneus, antheridium absent, trichogyne doubtful or degenerate; Lachnea cretea, no antheridium observed, trichogyne not functional; Polystiama rubrum,<sup>1</sup> trichogyne not functional, from a multicellular cell at base of archicarp one nucleus migrates into the adjacent uninucleate archicarp cell. which is regarded as the ascogonium (Nienburg, '14). In none of the lichens has a sperm or other nucleus been observed to move down into the fertile part of the archicarp. Pore formation in the archicarp of the Ascomycetes has no phyletic relation to the fusions of auxiliary cells among themselves or with a short oöblastema thread or the egg cell. It occurs in-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Blackman and Welsford ('12), who earlier investigated the cytology of *Polystigma rubrum*, are of the opinion that the "spermatia" as well as the archicarps degenerate, and that certain vegetative cells become transformed into ascogones.

dependently in different groups of the fungi as a means of permitting the association of nuclei, often in conjunction with the association of sex nuclei or their equivalent modified sex nuclei (see the situation in *Basidiobolus*, Eidam, '86; Raciborski, '96; Fairchild, '97; Olive, '07; Woycicki, '04).

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Relation of oöblastema filaments and ascogenous hyphae.— In the Ascomycetes the processes in the growth of the zygote or ascogenic cell present to a certain extent a somewhat analogous course of progression to that of the carpogenic cell of the red algae. In the less complicated process, as shown in the Laboulbeniales, the carpogenic cell may undergo a few divisions, the subterminal cell of the series forming the ascogonium. The ascogonium then usually divides to form two or four ascogenic cells, or without division forms the single ascogenic cell (Thaxter, '96; Faull, '12). The ascogenic cells give rise directly, by budding, to the asci. They are, therefore, somewhat comparable or analogous to the gonimoblasts of the red algae. In Sphaerotheca (Harper, '95<sup>a</sup>, p. 475) there is a single short ascogenous thread of a few cells (arising from the one-celled oögonium or ascogonium) forming a single ascus from the subterminal cell. Where the process is more complex, as in Pyronema (Harper, '00; Claussen, '12), several long ascogenous hyphae arise from the large single-celled zygote or ascogonium, giving rise ultimately to numerous terminal asci. In other forms the ascogonium is severalcelled, a number of the cells developing ascogenous hyphae (Collema, Stahl, '77; Baur, '98; Bachmann, '12, '13; Anaptychia ciliaris, Baur, '04; Physcia pulverulenta, Darbishire, '00; Ascophanus carneus, Cutting, '09; Lachnea cretea, Fraser, '13; etc.).

Some of the chief objections in the way of accepting the theory of a phylogenetic relation between the oöblastema filaments of the red algae and the ascogenous threads of the sac fungi are as follows:

1. The fusion of a free sperm and the egg nucleus in the single uninucleate oögonium or carpogenic cell. So far as we know this is universal in the red algae. In the *Ascomycetes* the oögonium is usually multinucleate or multiseptate. In no

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case has fertilization by a free sperm been determined, and in forms with a multiseptate "trichogyne," or oögonium, the socalled spermatia, or antheridia, do not, so far as we know, play the usual rôle in fertilization, not even a modified rôle by association with the oögonial nuclei.

2. The individual nuclei of the oöblastema filaments are of the usual diploid character, and there is no fusion of these nuclei prior to the formation of the carpospores. The individual nuclei of the ascogenous threads, or ascogenic cells, are probably haploid in character, and sooner or later form the so-called synkarion, an association of two nuclei, together equivalent to a diploid nucleus. Fusion of the paired nuclei takes place before the formation of the ascospores.

3. It has been suggested that the complex processes in the extensive migration, branching and fusions of the oöblastema filaments with auxiliary cells as is known to occur in the Cryptonemiales (as in Dudresnaya, Cruoriopsis, Gloeosiphonia, etc.), may furnish still more important evidence of the ancestry of the Ascomycetes than that suggested in the fusions of procarp and auxiliary cells on the one hand, and archicarp cells on the other (Dodge, '14). The fusions of the oöblastema filaments with auxiliary cells and the production of sporogenous threads from the central cells thus formed, are supposed to be represented by the fusions which are known to occur between the ultimate and antepenult cells of the ascus hook prior to the formation of additional asci. The processes in both groups result in the multiplication of spore origins and consequently in an increase in spore output. Perhaps the nearest analogue to the process in the Ascomycetes which results in the formation of the ascus with its four to eight spores. is found in *Cruoriopsis*, where one or two spore chains of two to four spores each are produced as a result (Schmitz, '79, '83; Oltmanns, '04). The theory of "second sexual fusions" in the red algae was founded on the discovery of these fusions of the oöblastema filaments with auxiliary cells, since it was supposed that a fusion occurred between the nucleus of the oöblastema filament (derived from the diploid nucleus of the fertilized egg) and the nucleus of the vegetative auxiliary cell

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(Schmitz, '83). Recent cytological work on the red algae has not confirmed this theory, but, on the other hand, has discredited it, since in the cases examined the diploid nucleus of the oöblastema filament and the haploid nucleus of the auxiliary cell are said to repel each other and no fusion between them occurs. It should be emphasized that the fusion of the oöblastema filament and the auxiliary cell is a fusion of a diploid structure with a haploid one, that it is probably of a nutritive, or parasitic, nature comparable to the fusion of the moss sporogonium with the tissue of the gametophyte, a physiological. nutritive requirement in the absence of other means of nourishing the moss sporogonium. The fusions occurring between cells of the same ascogenous hypha are fusions between cells of the same phase and serve to bring into association nuclei of more or less remote ancestry, but each endowed with the same number of chromosomes (probably the 1x number).

Thus, while there are somewhat analogous variations in the splitting up of the ascogonium in the sac fungi, and of the carpogonium in the red algae, with progress in the direction of increasing the output of spores, it seems fair to conclude, that, so far as the evidence at present in hand is concerned, the relation between the fusion of oöblastema filaments and auxiliary cells in the red algae, and those between the ultimate and antepenult cells of the ascus hook (of the ascogenous hyphae), however interesting it may be, has no phylogenetic significance, and is at best a rather strained parallel.

Ascogenous hyphae, gonimoblasts, oöblastema filaments, the several fertile cells of certain ascogonia which communicate by resorption of the intervening septa, the fused procarp, may be considered as morphological equivalents, as suggested by Dodge ('14, p. 174), but there is no evidence of a phyletic relation between the ascogenous hyphae and fusing ascogonial cells, and their morphological equivalents in the red algae. They illustrate different modes of increase of spore output by splitting up of the oögonium.

## NOTE II

The fundamental difference in the method of development of ascospores and carpospores is one of the great barriers in the

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way of the descent of the Ascomycetes from the Florideae. Some (Bessey, E., '13, p. 151) have attempted to overcome this difficulty by suggesting the homology of the ascus and tetrasporangium. But this effort leads to so many suppositions and supporting hypotheses because of the fundamental difference between the process of spore formation in the ascus, and the processes of carpospore or tetraspore formation, that the descent of the ascus fungi from the red algae would require a far more labyrinthian course than would be necessary in deriving them from the *Phycomycetes*.

### NOTE III

# IS NUCLEAR FUSION IN THE ASCUS OF A VEGETATIVE OR SEXUAL NATURE?

It is unfortunate that there is such great divergence of opinion in the interpretation of the nuclear phenomena in the archicarp and ascogenous threads. These conflicting results are probably, in a large measure, due to the difficulties presented in the minute size of the nuclei. The divergence of opinion relates primarily to the question as to whether the fusion nucleus of the ascus is the result of two successive nuclear fusions, the first taking place in the ascogonium and the second in the ascus, or whether the nuclear fusion in the ascus is the only one.

The principle of a single nuclear fusion, that in the ascus, interprets this act as the final stage in the process of fertilization, by the fusion of two nuclei of more or less remote ancestry. At some time prior to ascus formation these two nuclei may possibly become associated in pairs into a synkarion and multiply in the ascogenous threads by conjugate division, or the synkarion and conjugate division may be postponed to the ascus hook and the complicated series of fusions between the ultimate and antepenult cells of the crozier, or proliferations of the young ascus with accompanying conjugate divisions of the synkarion.

Dangeard ('94) first described the presence of two nuclei in the young ascus, and their fusion, in several species (Borrera ciliaris, Peziza vesiculosa, Helvella ephippium, Geoglossum

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hirsutum, Acetabula calyx, Exoascus deformans, and some lichens). The origin of the ascus was correctly described in a number of cases, but in the majority of cases at that time he thought the young ascus arose by the copulation of two unicellular gametes according to a method similar to the formation

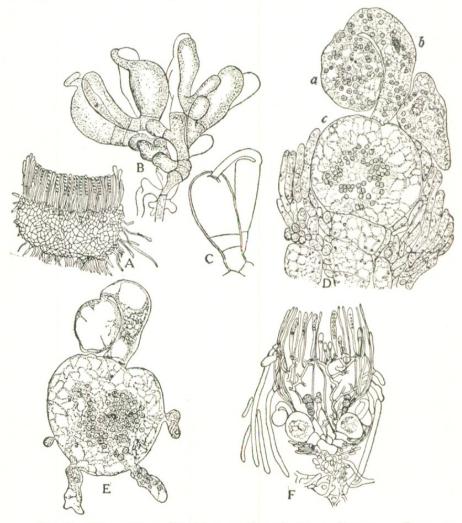


Fig. 8. Pyronema confluens: A, section of mature discocarp; B, group of archicarps copulating with antheridia by means of the slender prolongation (trichogyne) of the ascogonium which is separated as a distinct cell; C, pair of sexual organs copulating by means of the trichogyne cell, ascogonium at left, antheridium at right; D, showing multinucleate condition of sexual organs and communication of antheridium and trichogyne. a, antheridium; b, trichogyne; c, ascogonium. E, older stage of a similar group of sexual organs after the antheridial nuclei have entered the ascogonium and the trichogyne nuclei have degenerated; also showing early stage of growth of ascogenous hyphae, asci, and paraphyses in mature fruit body.—After Harper.

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of the ascus in *Eremascus*, so that the ascus appeared to be supported on two stalks. Frequently, however, in Peziza vesiculosa and Helvella ephippium he observed the origin of the ascus from a single hypha curving at the end in the form of a hook or crozier. The four nuclei resulting from the division of two were so situated in the crozier that after the formation of two cross walls the ultimate and antepenult cells each contained one nucleus, while the penult cell contained two The association of two nuclei in the young ascus and nuclei. their fusion he interpreted as a sexual act, and the young ascus was looked upon as an oögonium. Later, Dangeard found that the crozier method of ascus formation was the usual one in the forms studied and that in no case in these higher forms did the ascus arise immediately from the conjugation of two different hyphae.

This important pioneer work by Dangeard was a great stimulus to further studies which has led to a more or less clear knowledge of the history of the nuclei from the archicarp through the ascogenous hyphae to the ascus, while the origin of the ascogenous hyphae from the fertile cells of the archicarp was first described by Janczewski ('71) in Ascobolus, and later by Kihlman ('83) in Pyronema confluens. Harper first demonstrated the origin of the ancestral ascus nuclei in the archicarp of Sphaerotheca castagnei ('95ª) and Pyronema confluens ('00) and their migration in the ascogenous hyphae, though he does not give the nuclear history in the ascogenous hyphae, except the later stages at the time of formation of the Their archicarp origin has been abundantly confirmed ascus. by several investigators in a number of different forms, both among the lichens and other Ascomycetes.

The different opinions in regard to the significance of nuclear fusion in the ascus rest upon the interpretation by different investigators of the behavior of the nuclei in the archicarp, or ascogenous cells, before they begin to move into the ascogenous hyphae. Some maintain that there is a fusion, in pairs, of the sex nuclei (1) in the archicarp when fertilized

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by an antheridium (Harper in Sphaerotheca castagnei,<sup>1</sup> '95<sup>a</sup>, '96: Erysiphe. '96: Pyronema confluens. '00: Phyllactinia, '05; Blackman and Fraser in Sphaerotheca, '05; Claussen in Boudiera [=Ascodesmis], '05); or (2) in the archicarp where the antheridium is functionless or absent (Blackman and Fraser, '06, in Humaria granulata; Fraser, '07, in Lachnea stercorea). In Asperaillus herbariorum Miss Fraser (07, p. 420) finds that the antheridium often degenerates and did not observe disappearance of the intervening wall when fusion with the trichogyne took place. She nowhere describes or figures fusion in pairs of the ascogonial nuclei. She merely assumes it, for, in the summary ('07, p. 428) she says: "It seems probable that normal fertilization occurs in some cases, and that in others it is replaced by a fusion of ascogonial nuclei in pairs'; Welsford ('07) in Ascobolus furfuraceus; Dale ('09) in Aspergillus repens; Cutting ('09) in Ascophanus carneus believe in the fusion of archicarp nuclei in pairs; or (3) of nuclei in vegetative cells where the archicarp is wanting or functionless (Fraser, '07, '08, in Humaria rutilans, fusion of the nuclei said to take place soon after entering the ascogenous hyphae; Carruthers, '11, in Helvella crispa; Blackman and Welsford, '12, merely found evidence of nuclear fusion in vegetative cells of Polystigma rubrum).

<sup>1</sup> Dangeard ('97) claims that the antheridium is functionless and that the single nucleus in the oögonium divides into two. After his study of Pyronema Claussen ('12) is inclined to question the fusion of the two sex nuclei in the oögonium of Sphaerotheca, Erysiphe, Phyllactinia, and Pyronema as described by Harper ('95a, '96, '00, '05), and by Blackman and Fraser ('05) in Sphaerotheca as well as in the case of Boudiera (= Ascodesmis) studied by him in 1905. In respect to his work on Boudiera he now says: "My own statements upon the nuclear fusion in the ascogone of Boudiera (Ascodesmis) are clearly wrong." He points out that in none of these cases is the history of the nuclei in the ascogenous hyphae known, and thinks that a reinvestigation will show paired nuclei here. A question to be considered, says Strasburger ('05, p. 24), is whether the chromosomes of the nuclei united in the oögonium do not remain in separated groups in the ascogenous hyphae, in order to fuse as individual nuclei in the ascus. Lotsy ('07) has expressed a somewhat similar view in an attempt to harmonize the situation in the Ascomycetes and Basidiomycetes. The fusion nucleus in the oögonium remains for a time a 2x nucleus but some time prior to ascus formation the 2x nucleus separates into two individual 1x nuclei in the ascogenous hypha, forming a synkarion. Conjugate division now takes place with ascus formation occurring immediately or after several successive conjugate divisions.

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Others maintain with equal assurance that there is no fusion of the sexual nuclei in the archicarp. There is merely an association of sex nuclei.

(1). In forms with a functional antheridium and archicarp may be mentioned *Monascus*<sup>1</sup> (Schikorra, '09) and *Pyronema confluens* (Claussen, '07, '12).

(2). In forms where the antheridium is absent or functionless may be mentioned Pyronema confluens (Brown, W. H., '09, antheridium functionless), Lachnea scutellata (Brown, W. H., '11, antheridium absent). In both of these examples, cases of division of the nuclei in the ascogonium were observed which might be mistaken for fusion. Since no divisions of nuclei in the ascogonium have been described by authors in the forms where they believe sexual fusions of nuclei to take place, W. H. Brown ('11) suggests that they may have had before them division stages. In



Fig. 9. Pyronema confluens: A, B, and C, conjugate division of nuclear pairs in the ascogenous hyphae; D, conjugate division in ascus hook; E, tips of branched ascogenous hyphae with ascus hooks, young asci, and beginning of conjugation of the ultimate and antepenult cells of the ascus hooks; F, completed conjugation of the ultimate and antepenult cells of the hook and association of their nuclei as a pair. Ascog, ascogonium; asc. h, ascogenous hyphae with paired "sexual" nuclei.—After Claussen.

Ascophanus carneus and Ascobolus immersus the antheridium is absent, but association of the nuclei in several of the multinucleate ascogonial cells occurs after pore formation in the walls. Most of these nuclei become paired and remain paired as they migrate in the ascogenous hyphae to the ascus hooks, where conjugate division takes place. The only fusion of nuclei is that in the ascus, except in badly fixed preparations or in degenerating nuclei in the ascogonium (Ramlow, '14). In Leotia (Brown, W. H., '10) the ascogenous hyphae

<sup>1</sup> Barker ('03) ascribed his failure to find a fusion of nuclei in the ascogonium of *Monascus* to the absence of proper stages in his material.

are supposed to arise from an ascogonium in the base of the ascocarp, but the nuclei are believed to arise from a haploid nucleus. Conjugate division occurs in the ascus hooks, the majority of which are formed by proliferation of the binucleate penult cell and from fusions of the ultimate and antepenult cells of croziers, so that many conjugate divisions of the haploid nuclei take place, and the first nuclear fusion is in the ascus. In Laboulbenia chaetophora and L. Gyrinidarum (Faull, '11, '12) fusion of nuclei does not occur in the ascogonium, the mature binucleate ascogenic cell develops the asci by budding, each ascus bud being preceded by a conjugate division of the nuclear pair. In Polystigma rubrum (Nienburg, '14) no fusion in the ascogonium occurs. In Collema pulposum (Bachmann, '13) the nuclei in the ascogenic cells were often found in pairs, but no cases of fusion were observed.

(3). Forms in which an archicarp is absent or functionless. and certain vegetative cells take on the function of ascogenic cells, in which the authors believe nuclear fusion does not take place except in the ascus: Gnomonia erythrostoma (Brooks, '10); Helvella elastica (McCubbin, '10) in which the "ascogenous hyphae" form an intricately interwoven subhymenial layer of threads each with two nuclei in the end. The ends of these hyphae form croziers with conjugate division of the two nuclei followed by about six repeated proliferations of the young ascus and crozier formations, accompanied by fusions of the ultimate and antepenult cells and crozier formation, resulting in many successive conjugate divisions of the haploid nuclei, with fusion first in the ascus. In Xularia tentaculata (Brown, H. B., '13) the ascogenic cells which appear to be derived by the separation of the cells of "Woronin's hypha" are uninucleate and soon become multinucleate by nuclear division. The nuclei multiply also in the ascogenous hyphae.

The theory of a vegetative fusion in the ascus arose from the belief on the part of some students that sexual fusion of the nuclei occurred in the ascogonium, that the nuclear fusion in the ascus must be a second fusion with no relation to the

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sexual process, and, therefore, it must be of a vegetative nature. If a second fusion of the nuclei occurred it would call for a triple division of the fusion nucleus in order that the haploid condition should be again reached.

The universal occurrence of the triple division in the ascus in the formation of the spores is by some ascribed to a "quadrivalent character" of the chromosomes in the fusion nucleus, and rendered necessary in the return to the univalent condition (Harper, '05; Overton, '06), and Overton states, "that all these divisions persist, no matter how many spores are to be produced, which shows their necessity in the process of reduction."<sup>1</sup> *Eremascus* controverts this statement since there is certainly but one fusion (Stoppel, '07; Guilliermond, '09) and yet triple division occurs in the ascus.

The results of cytological investigations by different students in connection with the triple division show considerable variation. Thus Harper ('00, '05) finds the same number of chromosomes in all three divisions (10 in *Pyronema*, 8 in *Phyllactinia*). The two ascus nuclei "fuse with all their corresponding parts" (Harper, '05, p. 67), so that the quadrivalent nature of the chromosomes in the fusion nucleus is not to be seen, though he conceives it to exist. Synapsis occurs in the first division.

Miss Fraser ('07, '08) describes *Humaria rutilans* as having 16 chromosomes in the first division where synapsis occurs (heterotypic) which split transversely and the daughter nuclei have each 16 chromosomes which appear on the nuclear plate in the second division. In the second division the chromosomes split longitudinally (homöotypic) and 16 chromosomes pass to each daughter nucleus. In the third division the 16 chromosomes are supposed to separate at the nuclear plate without division, 8 going to each daughter nucleus. This division she terms "brachymeiotic". A similar situation is described by Fraser and Welsford ('08), Fraser and Brooks ('09), and Carruthers ('11). Faull ('05) finds the same num-

<sup>1</sup> Polysporous asci resulting from several to many nuclear divisions may be the retention of an ancestral character, the number of divisions being reduced to three in most forms.

ber of chromosomes in all three divisions, in some species 4 or 5 (Hydnobolites), in others 8 (Neotiella).

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More recently Claussen ('12) after a very thorough study of *Pyronema confluens* finds the same number of chromosomes (about 12) in all three divisions. The first division is heterotypic accompanied by synapsis, diakinesis and a splitting of the chromosomes. The second is homöotypic, while the third is typic. Faull ('12) in a recent study on *Laboulbenia* also finds that the two first divisions in the ascus agree with the usual phenomena accompanying reduction in spore mother cells, the first being heterotypic, while the second follows "very swiftly on the heels of the first." He concludes that "probably the only nuclear fusion in the life cycle is that in the ascus," and that conjugate divisions of nuclei are an important phase in the sexual phenomena of the *Ascomycetes*.

The evidence from recent investigations, therefore, supports more and more the interpretation of nuclear fusion in the ascus as a process of exactly the same significance as the nuclear fusion in the basidium of the *Basidiomycetes*, and in the teleutospore of the Uredinales, i. e., it is the fusion of a pair of nuclei of a longer or shorter history of conjugate divisions from a pair of ancestral nuclei of more or less remote This association of nuclei arises in a variety of association. ways and at different periods in the ontogeny just as it does in the Basidiomycetes (Maire, '02; Ruhland, '01; Harper, '02; Nichols, S. P., '04; Kniep, '13), and Uredinales (Sappin-Trouffy, '96; Maire, '99, '01; Blackman, '04; Christman, '05, '07; Blackman and Fraser, '06; Olive, '08; Hoffmann, '12; Werth und Ludwigs, '12). The association is accomplished in some cases through the copulation of two gametangia (Pyronema, Monascus, Gymnoascaceae, and the Erysipheae). Such an association represents nearly, if not quite exactly, the true type of sexuality. The other methods of association represent a variety of modified types of sexuality (see Note 1) where the archicarp is present and the antheridium absent, or functionless, or where the archicarp is absent and vegetative cells, either with or without the migration into them of nuclei

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from adjacent vegetative cells, give rise to the ascogenous threads.

The results of recent work tend more and more to show that there is no fusion of the associated nuclei in the ascogonium, or ascogenic cells, whether certain of the nuclei have been derived from an antheridium (*Pyronema*, Claussen, '12; *Monascus*, Schikorra, '09), or not. Conjugate division in the ascogenous threads has been abundantly proven, though in some cases it may occur only one or a few divisions prior to the formation of the ascus.

What the peculiar features of nuclear fusion in the ascus are which characterize it as vegetative, seem to rest more on an ex parte judgment of a fusion of nuclei in the ascogonium than upon any well established idea of the nature of vegetative nuclear fusion. Thus, Miss Fraser ('08, p. 37) states that in Humaria rutilans the two nuclei in the ascus enter independently upon the prophases of the first division, fusing in the spirem stage. This she regards as evidence in disproof of the sexual nature of the fusion of nuclei in the ascus ('08, p. 44). Harper ('05) raises a similar objection. On the other hand, it seems to me that it is excellent evidence that it is not of a vegetative nature. It is well known in a number of cases that the egg and sperm nuclei, lying side by side in the egg, undergo the prophase stages of division up to the formation of the chromosomes before fusion of the two takes place. I cite certain examples in the Abietineae: Pinus sulvestris (Blackman, '98); P. strobus (Miss Ferguson, '01, '04); Tsuga canadensis (Murrill, '00).

In support also of the supposed vegetative nature of the fusions in the ascus Miss Fraser ('13, p. 559) cites "vegetative nuclear fusions" in the quadrinucleate ascus of *Humaria rutilans* and her work on this plant in 1908. But she nowhere describes or figures the fusion of the four nuclei in such asci. She says ('08, p. 41) "trinucleate (Fig. 50) and quadrinucleate (Fig. 51) asci are sometimes formed; their fate could not be determined." It is very likely that such tetranucleate young asci found by Miss Fraser in *Humaria* result from further conjugate division prior to the prolifera-

tion of the young ascus to form branches and further croziers resulting in an increase of asci as shown to take place in *Pyronema confluens* by Claussen ('12, p. 25, fig. 6, III).

It has been suggested by some who regard the fusion in the ascus as a second fusion of nuclei (Harper, '05; Overton, '06) that if the synkaryophytic condition of the terminal portion of the ascogenous hyphae in Pyronema, and far back in those of Galactinia succosa (Maire, '03, '05), could "work back until the egg cell was reached," an apogamous condition might result similar to that in the Hymenomycetes. Certainly those who have suggested this theory have not thought far enough ahead, for how would the univalent condition of the spore nucleus pass to the bivalent condition of each nucleus prior to the paired (= quadrivalent) condition in the ascogenous hyphae of the next generation unless this were preceded by a nuclear fusion. Such a condition would not be apogamy. The quadrivalent character of the fusion nucleus of the ascus, or of the synkarion in the ascogenous threads, demands two successive nuclear fusions, if the triple division in the ascus brings about the reduction of a quadrivalent nucleus to a univalent one as maintained by the adherents of this theory. As to such an apogamous condition being similar to that in the Hymenomycetes it must be remembered that there are only two divisions in the reduction process in the Hymenomycetes, so that when two univalent nuclei become associated in cells of the mycelium or basidiocarp the bivalent condition of these cells is attained.

In a very interesting and scholarly argument Harper ('05) has attempted to explain the inclusion and fusion of two nuclei in the young ascus on the basis of the nucleo-cytoplasmic relation or balance in the cell. The abundance of food material in the tips of the ascogenous hyphae inhibits cell wall formation so that two nuclei are enclosed in one cell. Rapid growth of the ascus and cytoplasm follows in order to balance the relation of the latter with the nuclear mass. The fusion of the nuclei and growth of the fusion nucleus again overbalance the cytoplasm, which then by growth increases again

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in mass. The process is thus a reversible one, and by a sort of see-saw growth of nucleus and cytoplasm the ascus cell is pushed up to the large size characteristic of spore mother cells.

It is very true that the "regulative function is a reversible one," that an active cell with a large amount of cytoplasm demands a correlative amount of nuclear substance, that the increase in one may result in the increase of the other. Also it is very true that the ascus belongs to the category of spore mother cells, which are characterized by relatively large nuclei and cytoplasmic mass compared with most vegetative cells, but this does not explain why, when ascus or spore mother cell formation is about to take place, cell division does not occur at a period when the food relation would permit the formation of young uninucleate asci if these nuclei are bivalent in nature. The regulative functions accompanying growth and maturity of such a young gonotokont would assure sufficient size, sufficient food material, and the necessary equilibrium. The fact that asci in different species and groups vary so greatly in size shows this, and also that there is no general standard of mass in relation to surface area which would demand two nuclei at the origin of the ascus.

In fact it is very clear, from the morphological processes which take place in the tip of the ascogenous hyphae of most of the forms studied, that cell division, or cell wall formation, is more likely governed by the last division of the two nuclei so that the cell walls are laid down between the daughter nuclei. If the inclusion and fusion of two nuclei in the young ascus were controlled entirely by nutritive and cyto-regulative processes, why are not sister nuclei included? Surely the purely cyto-regulative functions would be just as well satisfied. It appears that in rare cases sister nuclei may be included in the ascus (Brown, W. H., '10, in *Leotia chlorocephala*).

Of the four nuclei resulting from the two successive divisions of the zygote nucleus in *Spirogyra*, Chmielewski ('90) states that two fuse to form the nucleus of the single germling which is usually formed in the *Zygnemaceae*. Harper inter-

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prets this as a vegetative fusion in support of his interpretation of vegetative fusion in the ascus. Karsten ('08) describes the divisions of the zygote nucleus into four nuclei in Spirogyra jugalis, but does not state the relation of the nuclei to the germling (second division sometimes omitted). Tröndle ('07) interprets the process in Spirogyra Spréeiana as presenting but a single division of the zygote nucleus. Results of this nature, so divergent from expectations based on the normal history in many other organisms in widely separated groups, are usually received with considerable reserve, particularly where they are pioneer investigations in a group not yet studied. Recently Kurssanow ('11) in a thorough study of nuclear division and germination of the zygote in two species of Zygnema (Z. cruciatum and Z. stellinum) has shown that the process is normal, there being two successive divisions, three of the nuclei usually degenerating, while one becomes the nucleus for the single germling characteristic of the Zygnemaceae. Occasionally only two of the nuclei degenerated, but then two germlings were formed, an interesting case showing a tendency to retain what is believed to be the ancestral condition where four germlings are formed as in the Mesotaeniaceae, while in the desmids two germlings are regularly formed.

Other cases cited as examples of vegetative nuclear fusion and classed with nuclear fusion in the ascus, are those of the endosperm nucleus with the second sperm nucleus in seed plants (Harper, '05), and (Fraser, '13) nuclear fusions in paraphyses and in hairs of the excipulum of certain discomycetes. Such cases, however, cannot be legitimately compared to fusion in the ascus, since those nuclei are shut off from further participation in the line of successive ontogenies.

The example cited by Harper of Boveri's ('88) experiment in shaking sea urchin's eggs after fertilization, resulting in the production of an abnormally large larva with 72 instead of 36 chromosomes, is in a different class from most of the other examples of vegetative fusion given. This is equivalent to a true double fertilization and it is quite within the bounds of possibility that among many such larvae some

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might under favorable conditions be the starting point of a new ontogeny which would be similar to certain mutants. The case of *Oenothera gigas* (see De Vries, '03, '13) a mutant from *Oe. Lamarckiana* with double the number of chromosomes is similar.<sup>1</sup> Other tetraploid mutants are known (see Gates, '13), the diploid gametophyte and tetraploid sporophyte of the mosses produced experimentally by Marchal ('09, '11) is interesting in this connection.

Now, the possibility of a similar double fertilization in an ascomycete is not, a priori, excluded. There might be an isolated example. But the normal expectation is that it would have afterward a nuclear history in its ontogeny similar to others with one nuclear fusion and one reduction from 2x to 1x. But it is not likely that the entire group of sac fungi is founded on such a mutation, followed by a double reduction with triple division and then double fertilization again and so on. The several cases where it has been quite well established that there is no nuclear fusion prior to the ascus, together with the great uniformity of the ascus nuclear phenomena in the group, controverts the idea of any such origin for the sac fungi.

All of these facts go to prove that the inclusion and fusion of two nuclei in the young ascus is of a very different and far greater significance than a vegetative one. The process of nuclear fusion in the ascus does not comprise in itself the entire series of events generally accepted as belonging to the process of fertilization, for in most organisms nuclear fusion occurs in the same cell where nuclear association takes place. It is generally conceded that before the haploid condition of the nucleus is again established important processes take place which we call reduction phenomena, the full significance of which we perhaps are as yet ignorant of. These processes, including synapsis, cannot take place unless nuclear fusion has occurred, and some students see in

<sup>1</sup>Just how the doubling arose in this instance is of course difficult to determine. Stomps ('12) suggested that it arose through the union of two unreduced diploid gametes, while Gates ('09, '13) thinks it arose through "suspended mitosis of a megaspore mother cell" having (4x) 28 chromosomes, and its apogamous development.

them the real act of fertilization (Strasburger, '00, '04, '05). Remarks on the origin of the specialized ascus.—In the direction of progression from the generalized ascus by splitting up of the zygote, the diploid phase has been prolonged and the number of spores multiplied. The filamentous outgrowths of the zygote, or its equivalent, provide numerous terminal cells of restricted size suitable for the production of a small number of spores in each, following the meiotic divisions of the fusion nucleus which terminate the diploid phase.

The situation in species with polysporic asci, where the spores result from numerous divisions of the fusion nucleus, is interpreted by some as a germination phenomenon (Overton, '06), but it seems to me more comprehensible to regard it as a retention of a primitive feature existing in certain phycomycetous ancestors, and characteristic also of primitive Ascomycetes like Dipodascus.

The formation of internal non-motile spores through free cell formation in the zygote, under conditions adapted for dispersion by ejection from either the generalized or specialized ascus, may be sufficient to account for the distinctive processes of spore formation in the sac fungi. In the oögonium of *Saprolegnia*, functional nuclei in the oögonium are very similar to the nuclei of the ascus preceding ascospore formation. The nucleus is provided with a prominent central body at its pointed end from which kinoplasmic radiations extend (Hartog, '95; Claussen, '08; Mücke, '08).

In most of the *Ascomycetes* the cytoplasm in the ascus is differentiated into epiplasm and spore plasm, the former assisting in the ejection of the ascospores. This separation of the plasm may have been one of the direct causes of the peculiar method of ascospore formation.

#### NOTE IV

## THE PHYLOGENETIC RELATION OF THE TRICHOGYNE AND SEXUAL APPARATUS OF THE ASCOMYCETES AND THOSE OF THE RED ALGAE

The sexual apparatus of the *Ascomycetes*, particularly the trichogyne and the so-called spermatia, is generally conceded to be the strongest evidence in support of their phylogenetic

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relation to the red algae. The analogy at least between the trichogyne of the red algae and that of the Ascomycetes is very striking. The evidence brought forward by Stahl ('77) and others of the relation of the trichogyne to the ascogonium in the lichens, together with the fusion of spermatia to the trichogyne, followed by the gradual and peculiar degeneration of the latter and the subsequent development of the ascogenous threads, was generally accepted as proof of fertilization in the ascogonium by a spermatium. Also the early studies of Polystigma rubrum (Fisch, '82; Frank, '83) and Gnomonia erythrostoma (Frank, '86) in which similar structures and phenomena were observed at that time, were generally accepted as indicating a well developed condition of sexuality. These studies gave a great impetus to the theory suggested by Sachs ('96) that the Ascomucetes had their origin from the red algae, or that the two groups had ancestors in common. This theory has taken very deep root and probably is accepted by a majority of botanists even at the present time, especially by those who are not special students of the fungi. It should be stated also that a number of our foremost students of the fungi, perhaps a majority of them, are firm disciples of this theory.

Recent investigation, however, including a cytological study of several of the now classic types, including Collema (Bachmann, Miss F. M., '12, '13), Polystigma rubrum (Blackman and Welsford, '12; Nienburg, '14), Gnomonia erythrostoma (Brooks, '10) have failed to furnish any evidence of a real sexual function on the part of either the trichogyne or spermatia in any of the species of fungi possessing these two structures. Pairing of nuclei in the oögonium, or the pairing of these with nuclei from adjacent cells of the ascogonial branch or archicarp, furnish the synkaria, or the synkaria are organized at different stages in the development of the ascogenous hyphae (see Note III). In some quarters these results have led to a loss of confidence in the sexual significance of the trichogyne and spermatia of the Ascomycetes. Some have therefore attributed to the trichogyne a physiological significance of another kind, that of a respiratory organ for

example (Brooks, '10), or a boring organ, a terebrator (Lindau, '99). Zukal ('89) interpreted the trichogyne of *Pyronema confluens* as a haustorium to provide food for the large ascogonium with its numerous ascogenous threads.

Recent investigations on *Collema pulposum* (Bachmann, F. M., '13) have revealed an interesting departure in the relation of the trichogyne and spermatia from that thus far found in other lichens, and is in strong contrast with the condition found by Stahl in *Collema*. The "spermatia" are not free and are not formed in large numbers in superficial receptacles, but are imbedded in the thallus and remain attached to the supporting hypha. The trichogyne does not extend to the surface but migrates through the interior of the thallus, seeks the spermatia and fuses with one. Then the trichogyne undergoes the usual deterioration, but no evidence was obtained of the migration of the nucleus of a spermatium to the ascogonium, although a nucleus supposed to be the sperm nucleus appears to have been observed in the terminal cell of the trichogyne.

In the red algae the only variations and progression in the trichogyne is in variations in length to meet the requirements of thin or thick cortex, some more or less sinuous or spirally wound, and a few stout and blunt. It is universally a continuous, enucleate,<sup>1</sup> prolongation of the oögone, i. e., not septate nor a separate cell. So far as we know the sperm always functions in the red algae. In the sac fungi, there is great variation and marked morphological progression from an oögone without a trichogyne through short one-septate trichogynes to long, simple, several-celled ones, and also to profusely branched, multi-septate trichogynes. It is more comprehensible to regard this progression and variation in the light of evolution from the simple to the complex, in the ascomycete phylum, independent of the red algae, than to con-

<sup>1</sup> Davis ('96) describes the trichogyne of *Batrachospermum* as having a nucleus of its own, but it is not separated from the egg nucleus by a wall until just prior to the development of the gonimoblasts from the egg. He also states that the sperm nucleus never passes out of the trichogyne into the egg. However, Schmidle ('99) and Osterhout ('00) find no trichogyne nucleus and describe a real fertilization by fusion of sperm and egg nucleus.

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ceive the long septate trichogyne of the highly specialized *Collema* to be derived directly from the simple trichogyne of the red algae, and then degenerate to the simple gamete of lower more generalized *Ascomycetes*.

### NOTE V

# MODIFICATION OF SEXUAL PROCESS ALONG WITH STERILITY OR LOSS OF THE ANTHERIDIUM AND STERILIZATION OF THE ABCHICABP

Sterility or loss of the antheridium.—Several species are known in which the antheridium, though present, does not function. In such cases sexuality is modified in such a way that sex differentiation occurs among the nuclei in the ascogonium or in the ascogenous hyphae. Several examples may be cited as follows: In Pyronema confluens (Brown, W. H., '09) the antheridium sometimes fuses with the trichogyne but there is no migration of its nuclei; in other cases it may not connect with the trichogyne. The antheridial nuclei degenerate. In still other cases the antheridium is absent. In Lachnea stercorea the antheridium fuses with the terminal cell of the archicarp but its nuclei degenerate (Fraser, '07). In Aspergillus herbariorum (Fraser and Chambers, '07) and A. repens (Dale, '09) a similar situation exists. In those numerous examples where spermatia (mostly free "antheridia") are present it is very likely that the sperm nuclei no longer play a rôle in fecundation due to such extensive sterilization of the terminal segments of the archicarp, but the cytology of only a few species has been determined. They no longer perform the function of fecundation in Polystigma rubrum (Blackman and Welsford, '12; Nienburg, '14), Gnomonia erythrostoma (Brooks, '10), and in Collema pulposum (Bachmann, '13) the sperm nucleus has not been traced through the long succession of sterile segments of the archicarp, and it is very probable that it does not reach the ascogonial cells. The spermatia are entirely absent in a number of species where archicarps are present, as in Laboulbenia chaetophora (Thaxter, '96; Faull, '12).

Sterilization of the terminal portion of the archicarp and differentiation of sex nuclei in the ascogonium or ascogenous

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hyphae.—A moderately large number of species, in which more or less extensive sterilization of the terminal portion of the archicarp has occurred, have been examined by cytological methods and in most cases a reduced or modified sexual condition has been found.

In Pyronema confluens great variations occur in the sexual nature of the ascogonium. In what may be called normal cases, antheridial nuclei enter and become associated with the ascogonial nuclei (Harper, '00; Claussen, '07, '12). Under cultural conditions the antheridium may be normal, rudimentary or absent, but the ascogonium develops in a normal manner (van Tieghem, '84). Different strains may also behave differently. In some the antheridium does not fuse with the trichogyne, while in others it does (Brown, W. H., '09). In some cases even when the antheridium fuses with the trichogyne, its nuclei do not pass into the ascogonium (Dangeard, '07), but degenerate in situ (Brown, W. H., '09). In these cases where the antheridium does not function the sexuality of the ascogonium is modified in as much as its nuclei are differentiated sooner or later so that in pairs they perform the function of sperm and egg nuclei. According to W. H. Brown ('09) in cases where the origin of the pair of nuclei in the ascus hook could be determined, they were sisters. After the one conjugate division in the hook the two nuclei in the ascus, or penult cell, are "cousin" nuclei.

The archicarp of Lachnea scutellata (Woronin, '66; Brown, W. H., '11) consists of about nine cells. No antheridial structure has been observed. The penultimate cell functions as the ascogonium (Brown, W. H., '11). It is multinucleate and no fusion of nuclei in pairs takes place here. The nuclei are increased in numbers by division, not only in the ascogenous threads where they do not appear to be paired or show conjugate division, but also in the ascus hook where conjugate division takes place. The numerous fusions of the terminal and basal cells of the ascus hook result in numerous successive conjugate divisions. In *Leotia*, although the archicarp has not been clearly observed, it would appear from the account (Brown, W. H., '10) that the antheridium is absent (or

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if present, functionless) and that the ascogonium consists of a single coenocytic cell. Conjugate division takes place in the ascus hook, and the subsequently fusing cells, so that in most cases rather distantly related pairs of nuclei form the fusion nucleus in the ascus. In L. chlorocephala (Brown, W. H., '10), it appears that the pair of ascus nuclei are sometimes sisters. This would indicate an extreme case in the modification of sexuality, the distance of relationship between the sex nuclei being reduced to the minimum. It recalls the very close relationship of the sex nuclei in many of the lower algae, particularly in certain diatoms<sup>1</sup> (Oltmanns, '04), and in the species of Spirogura having buckle-joint conjugation (Chodat, '10). In the case of Spirogyra it is not known whether the pair of sex nuclei in this type of conjugation are cousins or sisters, or whether now one and then another of these possibilities exists. Such species of Spirogyra in which certain threads present scalariform as well as bucklejoint conjugation offer an interesting parallel to the variation in distant relationship of the fusing nuclei in the young ascus.

In some other species where the antheridium is functionless or wanting, sex differentiation is said to take place among the nuclei in the ascogonium. This indicates a sex differentiation much earlier than that which is supposed to occur in the species just cited. This differentiation in sex nuclei has been described in *Humaria granulata* (Blackman and Fraser, '06).

Another species in which similar phenomena are described is *Lachnea stercorea* (Fraser, '07). Here the archicarp consists of several coenocytic large cells and the terminal trichogyne of 4–6 smaller coenocytic cells. The unicellular coenocytic antheridium fuses with the terminal cell of the trichogyne, but its nuclei do not reach the single-celled ascogonium, among whose nuclei sex differentiation is said to take place.

For a number of years *Polystigma rubrum*, a parasite on cherry leaves, as the result of studies by Fisch ('82) was regarded as an example of fertilization of an ascogone coil by

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> In Achnanthes subsessilis, the protoplast divides into two parts along with nuclear division. The two uninucleate protoplasts now immediately unite in auxospore formation.

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sperm nuclei from spermatia after passing through a long succession of cells constituting the trichogyne or sterile portion of the archicarp. The trichogyne, or sterile portion of the archicarp, is very long and branches into two portions, one extending to either surface of the leaf. But according to Nienburg ('14) sex differentiation has occurred between the basal cells of the archicarp and a nucleus from the basal cell migrates into the adjacent cell, which becomes the ascogonium or ascogenic cell, but nuclear fusion does not take place here.

Loss of function by the archicarp or its disappearance.— A number of examples are known in which the archicarp has either lost its function as a sexual organ or ascogone, or has disappeared. In such cases differentiation of sex occurs in special vegetative cells, sometimes by the migration of a nucleus from certain cells into adjacent ones. In Gnomonia erythrostoma, although Frank ('86) described coiled ascogonelike structures with trichogynes, and believed that the coils were fertilized through the agency of the spermatia, recent cytological work (Brooks, '10) on this species appears to show that the tufts of hair-like structures emerging through the stomates of cherry leaves, on which this species of Gnomonia is parasitic, are not now connected with the coiled hyphae deeper in the tissue. It appears also from the same work that the ascogenous hyphae do not arise from the coils, but from one or more slightly differentiated hyphae in the center of each coil.

A similar example is found in *Xylaria polymorpha* (Fisch, '82), where an extensively coiled hypha ("Woronin's hypha") occurs in the early stages of the formation of the ascocarp, but later disappears and certain vegetative cells give rise to the ascogenous hyphae.

In *Humaria rutilans* (Fraser, '08) no archicarp or ascogone coil is discernible, but certain vegetative cells function as ascogenic cells following the migration into them of nuclei from adjacent cells.

# MORPHOLOGY OF THE ARCHICARP

If the history of the *Ascomycetes* is correctly read from the simpler and more generalized forms to the complex and

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highly specialized ones as Sachs ('74, '96), de Bary ('81, '84), and many other students have advocated, the female organ or archicarp first appeared as a "unicellular" or continuous organ, not differentiated into an oögonium or fertile portion, and a trichogyne. The presence of a "procarp," whether consisting of one or several cells, which ultimately gave rise to the asci or ascogenous threads was the predominant character which led Sachs in 1896 to believe in the phyletic relation of the sac fungi and red algae, although earlier he had regarded the morphology of the ascocarp and cystocarp of greater importance in showing relationship. No known red alga possesses a procarp simple enough to represent the prototype of the two groups. Gymnoascus was selected by Sachs as representing the simplest Ascomycetes. The archicarp of *Gymnoascus* is a continuous structure more or less coiled around the antheridium from which it copulates directly without the intervention of a trichogyne.

After copulation the ascogonium divides into several cells which give rise to the ascogenous hyphae. In some forms the splitting up of the ascogonium by transverse division occurs at an earlier period, before copulation. There is some evidence which indicates that the "trichogyne" in the Ascomycetes primarily was a prolongation of the "unicellular" oögone (or carpogone), and that when it was first separated as a distinct cell it was still a fertile part of the archicarp. In Aspergillus repens the terminal cell, or "trichogyne," sometimes gives rise to ascogenous hyphae (Fraser, '08).

The terminal cell became merely a trichogyne when it ceased to give rise to ascogenous hyphae, and acted as a transport tube for the sperm nuclei from the antheridium to the ascogonium, as in *Pyronema* and *Monascus*. The septum between the terminal cell and the functional ascogonium was an impediment to the passage of the sperm nuclei, as well as the fact that when they entered the terminal cell of the archicarp they did not meet with functional egg nuclei. This situation very likely favored the assumption of sperm and egg functions by the nuclei of the functional ascogonial cell. The variations in *Pyronema* where the antheridium may or may

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not be present, and often when present and fused with the trichogyne its nuclei degenerate and the ascogonium is still functional producing ascogenous hyphae and asci, is in support of this interpretation.

Further sterilization of the terminal portion of the archicarp proceeds as it becomes longer and more septate, the fertile ascogonial cell or cells being near the center or base. All of the sterile portion of the archicarp distal to the ascogonial cells is usually interpreted as the trichogyne. I believe it would be more in harmony with the historical origin of the archicarp, and with the real homologies, if only the terminal sterile receptive cell of the archicarp were called the trichogyne, the other portions to be regarded as sterile portions of the archicarp or ascogonium. This would be in harmony also with Thaxter's ('96) interpretation of the archicarp of the Laboulbeniales.<sup>1</sup> In this group the inferior and superior supporting cells are sterile cells of the archicarp derived by a transverse splitting of the ascogonium. Even with this interpretation of the trichogyne of the Ascomycetes, it would be a different structure from that of all the red algae where it is merely a continuous prolongation of the egg cell.

### NOTE VI

The coenocytic character of the mycelium of the *Phycomy*cetes has been presented as an obstacle to the derivation of the sac fungi from the sporangium fungi (Bessey, E. A., '13); this character can, however, have very little or no significance, for many of the *Ascomycetes* are coenocytic. As in most of the fungi, cell wall formation is delayed so that new portions of filaments are often multinucleate, the cell walls being laid down subsequently, sometimes enclosing one nucleus, sometimes several in a cell. There are the monoenergid and polyenergid species of sac fungi. In the *Phycomycetes* cell wall formation is usually longer delayed or does not occur except where reproductive cells are formed. In the *Mucorales* old mycelium frequently becomes multiseptate. It should be noted that in *Basidiobolus* (Eidam, '86; Raciborski, '96; Fair-

<sup>1</sup> Except in the case of the multiseptate branched trichogynes.

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child, '97, and others) the cells are uninucleate. The variation in coenocytic character of mycelium probably is due in some measure to the usually fundamental difference between cross wall formation in dividing cells, in the thallophytes and the higher groups of plants, where the fibers of the inner spindle play a part and the cell wall development is centrifugal, while in most thallophytes the spindle fibers do not play such a part, wall formation being centripetal, like a closing iris diaphragm.

The strong plasma connections between the protoplasts of the Laboulbeniales (Thaxter, '96) present a very striking resemblance to those in the red algae. This feature is regarded by some as very strong evidence of a phylogenetic relation between the Laboulbeniales and the red algae. But intercellular plasma connections are a common feature in all groups of plants, though in many plants these connections are very minute. The single central pore in the wall of the Laboulbeniales is perhaps the result of incomplete closing of the ringforming wall, and in the Laboulbeniales would seem to be of physiological rather than of phylogenetic significance. The firm cell walls which are characteristic of the members of this group bear a very definite relation to their habit as external parasites of insects. Standing out free from their bodies and thus having no other means of support than their own rigidity. thick cross walls would interfere with transport of food material, while the prominent plasma connections permit easy passage of nutrients.

### NOTE VII

BRIEF OUTLINE OF SOME OF THE THEORIES AS TO THE PHYLOGENY OF THE ASCOMYCETES

I. Descent from the Rhodophyceae.—Sachs ('74, p. 287) regarded the resemblances between cystocarp and ascocarp as the most important character indicating a relationship between the red algae and sac fungi, although the form of the sexual organs, particularly the carpogonial branch, was also believed to point in the same direction. In his 'Lehrbuch der Botanik' he did not even suggest that the Ascomycetes were derived from the Florideae. The relationships were based

on the principle of morphological homology, which he believed were great enough to justify their inclusion in the same class. To justify his arrangement in one large group of plants with such diverse aspects and habitats, he cites the inclusion of the *Lemnaceae* and palms in the great group of the monocots. We could not then interpret his inclusion of the sac fungi and red algae in one class, the *Carposporeae*, as indicating that the former were derived from the latter.

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Sachs says ('74, p. 288) that in order to find the relationships between plant divisions one must compare the simplest. not the highest forms. By this method he finds that the Coleochaetaceae and Characeae are linked, on one hand to the simplest *Florideae*, and on the other to the simplest Ascomycetes. Each of these series, he says, has developed in its own peculiar manner to higher forms, so that if one compared the most complete Ascomycetes with the coleochaetes only very slight resemblances are to be found. From this it is very clear that Sachs, at that time, had no thought of the derivation of the Ascomycetes from the Florideae. There is nothing to indicate that he believed the Ascomycetes descended from the charas and simplest coleochaetes, to which he says the simplest Ascomycetes are most closely related. Nor would his theory require a common ancestor for the two groups. Because of the morphological resemblance between cystocarp and ascocarp, he would have united the Ascomycetes and *Florideae* into a higher group even had he believed that the former were derived from the *Phycomycetes*.

It has been said by Sachs ('96, p. 204) that the fungi as a whole cannot be valued as an architype because, as apochlorates, they must be descended from green plants. The bacteria he would derive from the *Cyanophyceae*, the *Phycomycetes* from the *Siphoneae*, and the *Ascomycetes* (or at least the *Discomycetes*) from the *Rhodophyceae*. The predominant feature indicating the descent of the sac fungi from the red algae he now sees in the procarp of both groups ('96, p. 205).

The chlorophylless seed plants have only a slight form-producing power or motive, as Sachs has pointed out ('96, p. 205), since they occur mostly as small plant groups within certain

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green leaved families and show very plainly the morphological characters of their antecedents. But he says it is quite otherwise with the fungi. The simplest primitive forms of the Ascomycetes, Phycomycetes and Basidiomycetes have given rise independently to an enormously high state of differentiation. Now Sachs in 1896 (and earlier, '74, p. 310) recognized Gymnoascus as belonging to the simplest Ascomycetes, the sexual organs of which are a simple carpogone and It is very clear then that Sachs would not derive pollinode. the Ascomycetes from any primitive form at all like any known red algae, much less through such forms as the highly specialized Collema or Polystigma. This warrants us in concluding that Sachs had in mind a primitive hypothetical ancestor of the sac fungi and red algae, which possessed simple copulating gametes. With the knowledge we possess to-day of such forms as Dipodascus, Eremascus, etc., where the zygote becomes the ascus (generalized or simple) I believe he would have recognized in the Phycomycetes, as we know them to-day, a situation very closely approximating an "Urform" for the Ascomycetes, particularly in view of the fundamental difference in the cytology of the red algae and sac fungi.

But whether the fungi represent one or several architypes it by no means follows that, because of the absence of chlorophyll, they *must* be derived from green plants, or that each great series must be derived separately from different groups of algae.

The appearance of the higher fungi (*Eumycetes*) was, in the opinion of Vuillemin ('12, p. 223), contemporaneous with the emergence of sea-shore, which abandoned certain red algae to a terrestrial life. This new environment introduced the change, which, accompanied by loss of chlorophyll, gave rise first to the *Pyrenomycetes*, from which the other higher fungi (*Uredinales, Basidiomycetes*) have originated. The saprophytic forms represent the productive and progressive stock. Parasitic groups, like the *Uredinales, Laboulbeniales*, lichens, etc., are composed of highly specialized and uniform members, their progressive potentialities being suppressed, but they retain their hold on existence because of their specialized hab-

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The first Pyrenomycetes, according to his view, were itat. some of these depatriated red algae, losing their pigments while preserving the structure, the sexual organs and the general evolution. But he recognized no known member of the red algae as a prototype of the Pyrenomycetes. Primitive trichogyne-bearing algae gave rise to the red algae on one hand, and to the Pyrenomycetes on the other, the now known colorless red algae (like Harveyella mirabilis, Choreocolax alba) being recently reduced forms having no significance in the origin of the sac fungi. But the Pyrenomycetes with well developed trichogyne and spermatia are chosen as the primitive forms, the simplest represented by Polystigma (in his "Polystigmales") the higher ones (his "Pyreniales") giving rise successively to the Hysteriales and Phacidiales. From the Polystigmales three other lines arose, their simplest forms being represented by first, Gymnoascus; second, Pyronema; and the third line represented by the Laboulbeniales (see Vuillemin, '12, pp. 338-341).

Bessey ('14) regards the *Discolichenes* as the most primitive *Ascomycetes*. This theory is based on the supposed phyletic relation of the multiseptate trichogyne of the lichens (*Collema*, for example) to the trichogyne (a mere tubular, continuous, prolongation of the egg) of the red algae. Certain of the red algae became parasitic on blue-green algae and on simple members of the green algae, forming a lichen thallus. It is supposed that this parasitism may have had its origin while both kinds of organisms still lived in the water, but finally the lichen assumed the land habit. The improbability of such a derivation of the sac fungi as suggested in the above theories has been fully discussed in the preceding pages.

II. Descent from the Phycomycetes.—De Bary ('81, '84, '87), as already stated in the first part of this paper, believed the Ascomycetes were derived from the Phycomycetes, particularly through such forms as the Peronosporales. The criterion for the relationship is the close homology and morphological resemblance of the sexual organs, though he suggested that Eremascus might have been derived from the Mucorales through some such form as Piptocephalus where

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the zygote is the outgrowth from the fusion point of two equal gametangia.

Brefeld ('89, '91) also derived the Ascomycetes from the *Phycomycetes* but interpreted the ascus as the phyletic homologue of the sporangium, the ascus representing a specialized structure derived from the generalized sporangium in one direction, while the conidia were regarded as reduced onespored sporangia. But the nuclear fusion and reduction phenomena in the ascus are so fundamentally different from any known cytological processes in the sporangium, that its phyletic relation to the sporangium is doubtful.<sup>1</sup> The conjugation of the gametangia he interpreted as ordinary fusion of hyphae which occurs in numerous instances devoid of all sexual significance. Protomyces, Ascoidea and Thelebolus, with numerous spores in the ascus, were interpreted as representing an intermediate condition between the generalized sporangium of the Mucorales and the specialized ascus. In Thelebolus it has been found that the development of the ascus follows the type with crozier formation and that it is closely related to Ascobolus and Rhyparobius (see Ramlow, '06; Dangeard, '07). As for Protomyces and Ascoidea they probably represent forms with reduced sexuality while retaining the ancestral character of many divisions of nuclei to form numerous spores.

Zukal ('89), influenced by Brefeld, derived the hymenial Ascomycetes (like Ascobolus, Pezizales, etc.) through Thelebolus and Monascus; the stromatic Ascomycetes (whether Pyrenomycetes or Discomycetes) from the Uredinales; the Gymnoascales and others with asci arising directly from the mycelium, from another ancestral type.

Lotsy ('07, p. 469) sees no difficulty in deriving the polyenergid forms like *Pyronema* from the *Phycomycetes*. The forms with spermatia, which are usually monoenergid, it would seem rational, he thinks, to derive from the red algae, and this raises the question as to whether the *Ascomycetes* are of polyphyletic (or biphyletic) origin. The great uniformity of the

<sup>1</sup> The nuclear phenomena in the "germ" sporangium (from the zygote) are not known.

ascus in the entire group is a great obstacle in the way of accepting a polyphyletic origin for the group. All things considered he is inclined to accept de Bary's view of their phycomycetous origin.

The origin of the Ascomycetes from the Phycomycetes is recognized by Dangeard ('07) through such forms in which there is still a union of gametangia. Dipodascus and Eremascus represent such forms in his scheme. The generalized ascus resulting from the union of the gametangia of Dipodascus he terms a "sporogone." From Eremascus, by reduction, forms like Endomyces arose, while the Ascomycetes with ascogenous hyphae were derived from such forms as Dipodascus by delayed nuclear fusion and the proliferation of the gametangium into what he terms "gametophores" (= ascogenous hyphae). The gametes then are formed in the nuclear pair which fuses in the ascus. This terminology arises from his persistent belief that the ascus is the egg. Shorn of the change in terminology and his, perhaps, unfortunate insistence on homologizing the ascus with the egg, his interpretation of the relation which such a form as Dipodascus bears to the Ascomycetes, has much merit.

Nienburg ('14) suggests the origin of the Ascomycetes from the *Phycomycetes* through some such form as *Monoblepharis*. He would find the evidence for this in the homology of the archicarp of Polystigma rubrum with such forms of Monoblepharis in which the stalk cell of the obgonium is an antheridium, and where the oögonium is terminated by one or more sterile cells. The archicarp of *Polystigma* he interprets as having two fertile cells at the base and prolonged into a long sterile septate portion (so-called trichogyne) which forks, sending a branch to either surface of the leaf. The basal multinucleate cell is the antheridium. After pore formation one nucleus migrates into the unicellular egg. Interesting as this suggestion is, forms of Pythium (see de Bary, '81, '84; Atkinson, '95) with intercalary oögonia and stalk antheridia present a closer analogy to the archicarp of Polystigma as described by Nienburg, but it is extremely doubtful if the point of contact is to be sought through such structures.

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Brief comparative summary of the above views on the phylogeny of the Ascomycetes.—The adherents to the doctrine of the red algal origin of the Ascomycetes interpret the point of contact in three different ways: first, sac fungi with highly developed "trichogyne" (sterilized archicarp) of the Collema type with red algae like certain of the existing forms, Nemalion, or some of the higher forms in the vicinity of Harveyella, etc.; second, sac fungi with highly developed "trichogyne" (= sterilized archicarp) of the Polystigma type with hypothetical trichogyne algae representing the common stock for the origin of both groups; third, sac fungi with simple generalized copulating gametes of the Gymnoascus type with hypothetical algae having a simple procarp representing the stock from which both groups originated.

According to the two first interpretations the sac fungi have been derived through highly developed and specialized forms from either quite highly developed and specialized red algae, or both groups from a common trichogyne algal stock, and then by degeneration have slid backward from complex and specialized structures to simple, generalized and primitive ones. The third view which recognizes a simple procarp, without regard to a trichogyne, as the important character of the hypothetical stock, is far more comprehensible.

But if we must go back to some hypothetical ancestor, which cannot be represented by any known red alga, for the source of the sac fungi it is far more reasonable to search for one in another fungus line, where, in the light of present-day knowledge, there are known forms with sexual organs very much like the sexual organs of simple, known forms of the *Ascomycetes*. But we are not yet in a position to name any known phycomycete<sup>1</sup> as a probable ancestor of the *Ascomy cetes*, though it appears very likely that the ancestral stock possessed phycomycetous characters.

<sup>1</sup>Lotsy ('07) suggests Cystopus; Miss Dale ('03) in her study of Gymnoascus suggests Basidiobolus; Nienburg ('14), Monoblepharis; while Dangeard ('07) suggests Myzocytium vermicolum as the prototype of the higher fungi.

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# PROVISIONAL ARRANGEMENT OF MAIN LINES OF DEVELOPMENT IN ASCOMYCETES

For those who are interested in the suggestions as to the phylogeny and relationships of the *Ascomycetes* presented in this paper, a diagrammatic arrangement of the principal series or lines which will illustrate the relationships tentatively held by the writer may be acceptable. It is with considerable hesitation that this arrangement is presented. The writer trusts that it will be accepted as provisional and in the nature of a working hypothesis which he hopes will further stimulate investigation, suggestions and criticisms on the ideas embodied in this paper, all of which, for or against, will be gladly welcomed.

Dipodascus, a primitive form, cells of mycelium polyenergid, gametogenous branches large, unequal, polyenergid. Ascus is elongated, broadened zygospore, zygote germinating immediately forming a broad germ tube in which spores are formed. Since the process does not go on to the formation of a sporangium, a different mode of internal free cell-formation then arose in connection with the precocious formation of spores in the zygote and retention of epiplasm which assists in discharge of spores. Dipodascus retains tendency of gamogenic branches to copulate early before they become strongly differentiated as gametangia, just as in Mucorales.

I. PROTOASCOMYCETES are derived by descent and degeneration from some such primitive ascomycete form as *Dipodascus*. The ascus when of sexual origin is the zygote, except in *Nadsonia*.

Endomyces Magnusii is the nearest known form to the generalized condition seen in Dipodascus. Cells of mycelium usually polyenergid, those of stout mycelium are polyenergid. Formation of ascus in Endomyces Magnusii repeats formation of zygospore in Zygorhynchus. Gamete branches in both are multinucleate, but when cell wall is laid down delimiting the gametangia all but one nucleus in each gametangium of E. Magnusii are excluded. After contact of the two sexual branches the male gametangium is formed by enlargement of its tip, into which protoplasm and the one nucleus migrates,

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exactly as male gamete of Zygorhynchus is formed, except the latter is multinucleate. By disappearance of the separating wall, ascus is formed of the two gametes.

Endomyces series, then, derived from Dipodascus-like ancestors, with Endomyces Magnusii the lowest and most generalized.

Developmental tendencies from here in four, five, or six different directions:

- 1. Eremascus, both gamogenic branches uninucleate, ascus more definite and specialized in shape. Loss of conidial formation. Endomyces fibuliger indicates step toward Eremascus (E. fertilis) in small size of gametes.
- 2. Endomyces diverging into the two series, one chiefly with sprout conidia, the other chiefly with oidia; the latter preserves the E. Magnusii character, the former takes on sprout conidia in addition to oidia (E. fibuliger and E. capsularis form both oidia and sprout conidia); oidia formation the more primitive and generalized condition in Ascomycetes.
- 3. Saccharomycetes. Still more specialized and reduced than in Endomyces fibuliger and in this same line. Schizosaccharomyces may have come from same line with dropping of sprout conidia, or may be descended from form near Endomyces Magnusii.
- 4. Exoascaceae. From Endomyces-like ancestors. Nuclear phenomena not well known. Diploid young ascus may have arisen in connection with cell wall formation, two nuclei being retained in ascogone instead of one as in E. Magnusii, where all but one are excluded at time of wall formation, i. e., ascus fundament may have retained the polyenergid character of the most primitive forms like E. Magnusii. Tendency to form hymenia may be controlled by host since asci in all, except Taphrina laurencia, come to surface to mature.
- 5. Ascocorticium, saprophytic on wood where food is not so rich, tendency to drop conidial formation (?), association of asci in hymenium, highest development of the *Endomyces* series, or of the *Protoascomycetes*. Series is terminated early, tendency in *Endomyces* line to specialization of zygote into one ascus with reduced number of spores, and line soon terminated.
- 6. Ascoidea, Protomyces, Taphridium, etc., probably represent forms derived by reduction and loss of distinct sexual organs but preserving primitive feature of many divisions of nucleus in the generalized ascus.

II. EUASCOMYCETES. Lowest forms with generalized archicarp. Similar to *Monascus*, *Gymnoascus*, etc.

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- 1. *Tendency* to late copulation of gamogenic branches, so that archicarp becomes large and many-nucleate, or tendency to elongate, or both.
- 2. As it elongates *tendency* to septation, first a single terminal cell ("trichogyne"), and later longer and multiseptate "trichogyne," or rather sterilization of terminal portion of archicarp. One of the early tendencies in connection with elongation of the archicarp may have been the origin of a receptive terminal portion under chemotactic or similar stimulation; such a condition suggested in *Cystopus*.
- 3. This made the passage of antheridial nuclei increasingly difficult, and resulted in early *tendency* to sterilization of antheridium or failure to function because of functionless condition of "trichogyne." Led in many cases to modified sexuality by differentiation of sex among nuclei in ascogonium, vegetative cells, or ascogenous threads.
- 4. Progressive tendency to multiplication of spores by postponement of nuclear fusion and spore formation; conjugate division of sex nuclei, and multiplication of the specialized structures (asci) in which spores are formed, so that spore formation and distribution is extended over greater period of time. This most advantageously attained by sprouting of zygote (ascogone), branching of threads, and terminal formation of specialized asci.

Diverging lines from *Gymnoascus* and *Monascus*-like ancestors or related prototypes in which asci are irregularly arranged but associated in groups with imperfect envelope.

- 1. A line with interwoven asci, *Plectascales* as a highly specialized lateral group, with *Gymnoascaceae* at base. *Aspergillaceae* a progressive line, with *Perisporiales* an offshoot, or *Perisporiales* direct from *Monascus*-like ancestors.
- 2. *Elaphomycetaceae*, asci interwoven in groups but separated by sterile walls.
- 3. *Pezizales*, asci remaining in groups not interwoven in mycelium, but spaced by sterile threads (paraphyses). *Pyronema* represents one of the generalized, lower forms. The *Helvellales*, etc., are probably derived from the *Pezizales*.
- 4. The *Microthyriales*<sup>1</sup> have usually been placed among the *Perisporiales* with which they have little in common. I believe they

<sup>1</sup>Recent studies by several authors, particularly by von Höhnel ('10) and by Theissen ('12, '13, '14) have greatly increased our knowledge of these interesting fungi, partly by the discovery of new forms but especially by uncovering many forms from the clouded situation in which they have been placed for lack of an adequate study of their structure.

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represent reduced forms derived on the one hand from the *Phacidiales* and perhaps on the other from the *Sphaeriales* and possibly some from the *Perisporiales*. The formation of the characteristic shield has rendered superfluous the perithecial wall as a protective structure. The genus *Diplocarpon*, the structure and development of which was investigated by one of my former students (see Wolf, '12), I believe is an excellent illustration of a form on the way (by reduction of the perithecial wall in conjunction with the formation of the shield) from the *Phacidiales* to the condition presented by many members of the *Micro-thyriales*.

The above provisionally suggested relationships may be represented by the following five or six series, or lines of development, with the accompanying diagram (fig. 10):

1. Apocarp line	from Dipodascus-like forms and by reduction.
2. Plectocarp line	from <i>Dipodascus</i> -like forms, perhaps similar to <i>Monascus</i> .
3. Perispore line	arising from <i>Monascus</i> -like prototype, before splitting of archicarp, or from <i>Aspergillaceae</i> .
4. Pyrenocarp line	arising near Monascus-like prototype. Laboul- beniales side line near base, and some of the Mycrothyriales as reduced from Sphaeriales.
5. Discocarp line	from <i>Dipodascus</i> -like forms near <i>Monascus</i> , but lower (it is not improbable that some of the members of the stock of primitive <i>Euascomy-</i> <i>cetes</i> showed considerable variation in the strength of the ascocarp envelope, also in its presence or absence in forms where it is more or less rudimentary <sup>1</sup> ); and some of the <i>Microthy-</i> <i>riales</i> as reduced forms from <i>Phacidiales</i> .

Or a 6th line also, Laboulbeniales from Monascus-like ancestor.

<sup>1</sup>This variation sometimes occurs in existing forms. Zukal ('89) describes an abnormal case in *Eurotium* (*Aspergillus*) herbariorum where the antheridial branch and envelope are wanting, the mass of asci being exposed. In this connection it is worthy of note that Fraser and Chambers ('07) regard *Aspergillus* "as representing a primitive ascomycetous type from which most others can be derived." This suggestion was based on the assumption that the red algae were the ancestors of the sac fungi. On the basis of the counter theory (phycomycetous origin) *Gymnoascus* and *Monascus*-like forms are more comprehensible as primitive *Euascomycetes*.

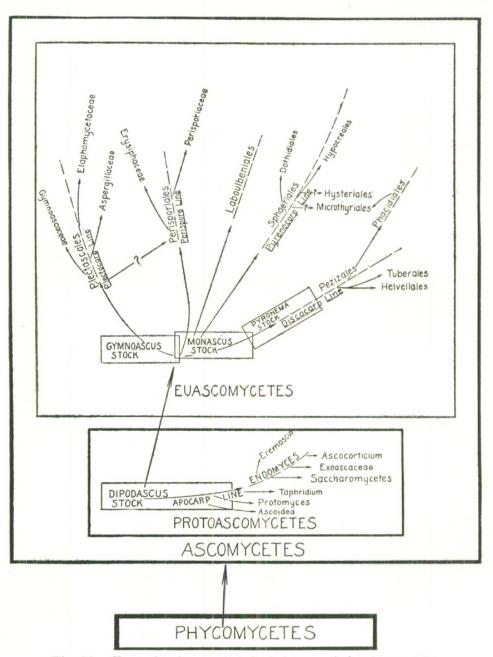


Fig. 10. Chart showing suggested phylogeny of the Ascomycetes.

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