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Importance of Fungi in Human Life

1. Farming

The mycorrhizal relationship between fungi and plant roots is essential for the productivity of farm land. Without the fungal partner in root systems, 80–90 percent of trees and grasses would not survive. Mycorrhizal fungal inoculants are available as soil additives from gardening supply stores and are promoted by supporters of organic agriculture.

2. Food

Fungi figure prominently in the human diet. Morels, shiitake mushrooms, chanterelles, and truffles are considered delicacies. The meadow mushroom, Agaricus campestris, appears in many dishes. Molds of the genus Penicillium ripen many cheeses. They originate in the natural environment such as the caves of Roquefort, France, where wheels of sheep milk cheese are stacked to capture the molds responsible for the blue veins and pungent taste of the cheese.

Fermentation of grains to produce beer and of fruits to produce wine is an ancient art that humans in most cultures have practiced for millennia. Ancient humans acquired wild yeasts from the environment and used them to ferment sugars into CO2 and ethanol under anaerobic conditions. It is now possible to purchase isolated strains of wild yeasts from different wine-making regions. Louis Pasteur was instrumental in developing a reliable strain of brewer’s yeast, Saccharomyces cerevisiae, for the French brewing industry in the late 1850s.

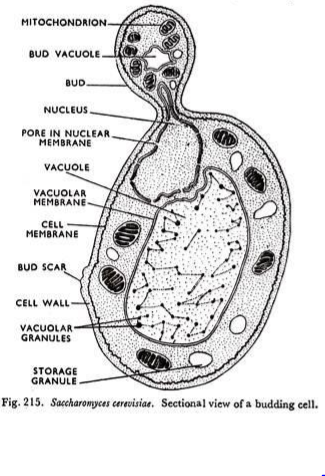
Saccharomyces cerevisiae, also know as baker’s yeast, is an important ingredient in bread, a food that has been considered a staple of human life for thousands of years. Before isolated yeast became available in modern times, humans simply let the dough collect yeast from the air and rise over a period of hours or days. A small piece of this leavened dough was saved and used as a starter (source of the same yeast) for the next batch, much in the same way sourdough bread is made today.

3. Medicine

Many secondary metabolites of fungi are of great commercial importance. Fungi naturally produce antibiotics to kill or inhibit the growth of bacteria, limiting their competition in the natural environment. Important antibiotics, such as penicillin and the cephalosporins, can be isolated from fungi. Valuable drugs isolated from fungi include the immunosuppressant drug cyclosporine (which reduces the risk of rejection after organ transplant), the precursors of steroid hormones, and ergot alkaloids used to stop bleeding. Psilocybin is a compound found in fungi such as Psilocybe semilanceata and Gymnopilus

junonius, which have been used for their hallucinogenic properties by various cultures for thousands of years.

As simple eukaryotic organisms, fungi are important model research organisms. Many advances in modern genetics were achieved by the use of the red bread mold Neurospora crassa. Additionally, many important genes originally discovered in S. cerevisiae served as a starting point in discovering analogous human genes. As a eukaryotic organism, the yeast cell produces and modifies proteins in a manner similar to human cells, as opposed to the bacterium Escherichia coli, which lacks the internal membrane structures and enzymes to tag proteins for export. This makes yeast a much better organism for use in recombinant DNA technology experiments. Like bacteria, yeasts grow easily in culture, have a short generation time, and are amenable to genetic modification.



Sexual reproduction

Sexual reproduction, an important source of genetic variability, allows the fungus to adapt to new environments. The process of sexual reproduction among the fungi is in many ways unique. Whereas nuclear division in other eukaryotes, such as animals, plants, and protists, involves the dissolution and re-formation of the nuclear

membrane, in fungi the nuclear membrane remains intact throughout the process, although gaps in its integrity are found in some species. The nucleus of the fungus becomes pinched at its midpoint, and the diploid chromosomes are pulled apart by spindle fibres formed within the intact nucleus. The nucleolus is usually also retained and divided between the daughter cells, although it may be expelled from the nucleus, or it may be dispersed within the nucleus but detectable.

Sexual reproduction in the fungi consists of three sequential stages: plasmogamy, karyogamy, and meiosis. The diploid chromosomes are pulled apart into two daughter cells, each containing a single set of chromosomes (a haploid state). Plasmogamy, the fusion of two protoplasts (the contents of the two cells), brings together two compatible haploid nuclei. At this point, two nuclear types are present in the same cell, but the nuclei have not yet fused. Karyogamy results in the fusion of these haploid nuclei and the formation of a diploid nucleus (i.e., a nucleus containing two sets of chromosomes, one from each parent). The cell formed by karyogamy is called the zygote. In most fungi the zygote is the only cell in the entire life cycle that is diploid. The dikaryotic state that results from plasmogamy is often a prominent condition in fungi and may be prolonged over several generations. In the lower fungi, karyogamy usually follows plasmogamy almost immediately. In the more evolved fungi, however, karyogamy is separated from plasmogamy. Once karyogamy has occurred, meiosis (cell division that reduces the chromosome number to one set per cell) generally follows and restores the haploid phase. The haploid nuclei that result from meiosis are generally incorporated in spores called meiospores.

Fungi employ a variety of methods to bring together two compatible haploid nuclei (plasmogamy). Some produce specialized sex cells (gametes) that are released from differentiated sex organs called gametangia. In other fungi two gametangia come in contact, and nuclei pass from the male gametangium into the female, thus assuming the function of gametes. In still other fungi the gametangia themselves may fuse in order to bring their nuclei together. Finally, some of the most advanced fungi produce no gametangia at all; the somatic (vegetative) hyphae take over the sexual function, come in contact, fuse, and exchange nuclei.

Fungi in which a single individual bears both male and female gametangia are hermaphroditic fungi. Rarely, gametangia of different sexes are produced by separate individuals, one a male, the other a female. Such species are

termed dioecious. Dioecious species usually produce sex organs only in the presence of an individual of the opposite sex.

Two adaptations made the move from water to land possible for Bryophytes: a waxy cuticle and gametangia. The waxy cuticle helped to protect the plants tissue from drying out and the gametangia provided further protection against drying out specifically for the plants gametes.