Ingoldian fungi In Hong Kong

S.Y. Chan*, T.K. Goh and K.D. Hyde

Centre for Research in Fungal Diversity, Department of Ecology and Biodiversity, The University of Hong Kong, Pokfulam Road, Hong Kong S.A.R., P.R. China; * e-mail: momojack21@yahoo.com

Chan, S.Y., Goh, T.K. and Hyde, K.D. (2000). Ingoldian fungi in Hong Kong. In: *Aquatic Mycology across the Millennium* (eds K.D. Hyde, W.H. Ho and S.B. Pointing). Fungal Diversity 5: 89-107.

A discussion on Ingoldian fungi is provided. The Ingoldian fungi known from Hong Kong are listed and a key for their identification is provided. Most of the fungi are illustrated and it is hoped that the paper will be a basis for the study of Ingoldian fungi in Hong Kong, at the student level.

Key words: hyphomycetes, Ingoldian fungi.

Introduction

Freshwater hyphomycetes are often classified as those fungi which for part of their life cycle, or the whole of their life cycle, occur in freshwater environments. This definition, is however, quite vague as it includes all fungi that may be present in the freshwater ecosystem, regardless of their origins.

Freshwater hyphomycetes can be classified into four ecological groups based on sporulation methods and mycelial growth. This gives a clearer definition of different freshwater fungal groups. The four ecological groups include the aero-aquatic hyphomycetes, terrestrial-aquatic hyphomycetes, submerged-aquatic (amphibious) hyphomycetes and Ingoldian fungi. Ingoldian fungi, which were the target group of this study, are classified as those fungal species actively growing and sporulating under water. They occur mostly on plant litter, and leaves in rivers or streams (Bärlocher, 1992). However, the grouping of these different kinds of freshwater hyphomycetes is quite arbitrary and some species overlap between the definitions. Ingoldian fungi were named in honor of C.T. Ingold, the "father" of this group of fungi, who was the mycologist to discover the typical habitat of these fungi (Iqbal, 1994).

Habitat

Ingoldian fungi are found in freshwater environments, mainly in rapidly flowing and turbulent water. The apparent preference for fast running, wellaerated and non-polluted streams, indicates that they cannot tolerate low oxygen levels (Bärlocher, 1992). The majority of Ingoldian fungi are found in streams and rivers, but some have also been reported from lakes and terrestrial habitats. They are saprotrophs and occur on almost any type of plant debris and are indeed most common on deciduous leaves, but they also colonize conifer twigs and needles. They also grow on submerged macrophytes and as endophytes in healthy roots of riparian trees (Bärlocher, 1992).

Role in food web

Interest in Ingoldian fungi was increased by the studies by Kaushik and Hynes (1971), who found that autumn-shed leaves were an important food source for invertebrates in streams. The leaves undergo a process of microbial degradation, in which Ingoldian fungi play an important role. The microbial degradation makes the plant litter more palatable and nutritious to leaf shredders (Suberkropp and Klug, 1976; Bärlocher, 1992). These authors therefore established that Ingoldian fungi are intimately involved in the energy flow in streams. Fungi are decomposers, which have been shown to produce a rich array of enzymes active towards the major leaf polysaccharides (Suberkropp and Klug, 1980; Chamier, 1985; Suberkropp, 1991a), making the energy from shredded leaves accessible to the community. Energy flows and development of communities in freshwater ecosystems are largely dependent on the supply of allochthonous material, the majority of which is leaf litter from adjacent terrestrial environments (Bärlocher and Kendrick, 1976). The riparian vegetation therefore forms a close relationship with the stream ecosystem. Many previous studies of fungi in streams have focused on their role in the energy flow and trophic dynamics of such detritus-based food chains (Suberkropp, 1992).

Adaptation

Ingoldian fungi have a large variety of conidial shapes that include tetraradiate, branched or filiform. The most frequently observed spore conidial shape are tetraradiate. The function of this conidial shape in aquatic hyphomycetes is to minimize downstream transport (Webster, 1959). When a tetraradiate spore makes contact with a surface it does so at three points and the spore acts as a tripod, which represent a very stable form of attachment. Germination of Ingoldian fungi requires a contact stimulus and upon settling, the spore germinates to form a pad or appressorium, which further strengthens adhesion to surfaces (Webster, 1959). This mechanism may explain why Ingoldian fungi are successful colonizers on submerged plant material. Another explanation for the abundance of the tetraradiate shape is that the shape might

facilitate the dispersal in aqueous films, between layers of terrestrial leaf litter (Bandoni, 1975).

The second most common conidial shape typical of hyphomycetes is sigmoid, a configuration which also aids attachment (Webster and Davey, 1984; Webster, 1987). Sigmoid spores in a slow moving current tend to role along the bottom, and conidial ends can make contact with surface (Webster and Davey, 1984), which enhance the chance of colonizing the substratum. The two dominant conidial shapes of aquatic hyphomycetes increase their probability of encountering a target (Cox, 1983) and hence facilitate attachment.

Biodiversity

In his first report, Ingold (1942) described 16 species of Ingoldian fungi, 10 of which were new, marking the starting point of a "minor mycological industry" (Ainsworth, 1976). Later, over 150 species were described and many more await description (Webster and Descals, 1981). In the recent report, approximately 300 species of Ingoldian fungi were thought to have been described, most from temperate regions (Goh, 1997). This number is still increasing.

Geographical distribution

Ingoldian fungi exhibit morphological (Webster, 1959) and physiological adaptations (Suberkropp and Klug, 1981) for plant litter degradation in flowing water. Their conidia have been reported from a variety of habitats and geographical locations (Webster and Descal, 1981, Wood-Eggenschwiler and Bärlocher, 1983). They are cosmopolitan in their distribution, extending from the arctic Circle to the equator (Kobayasi *et al.*, 1967, 1971; Muller-Haeckel and Marvanova, 1976, 1979; Webster and Descals, 1981; Engblom *et al.*, 1986; Bhat and Chien, 1990). Geographic occurrences of fungi are broadly correlated with optimal temperature for in vitro growth and sporulation (Bärlocher, 1992). Abundance and biodiversity of Ingoldian fungi vary in different temperature zones. Most known Ingoldian fungi have been described from temperate regions, many tropical species are still unexplored.

Seasonal distribution

The concentration of conidia in stream water in temperate regions, has been shown to be influenced by seasonal changes in leaf fall from riparian vegetation (Iqbal and Webster, 1973, 1977). This seasonal influence on the occurrence of aquatic hyphomycete is more likely to be mediated through the availability of fresh supply of autumn-shed leaves. The more leaves are available for colonization, then the more conidia are found. A study found that most species

in England were more common from late summer to early winter than during the rest of the year (Ingold, 1942). In this period, there is an enormous amount of fallen leaves during autumn, and hence the concentration of conidia peaks.

Influence of riparian vegetation-type

The occurrence and concentration of conidia and the species composition of fungal communities not only vary with season, but also vary with the types of riparian vegetation in different streams. Streams with similar physical characteristics differ in their ecology according to the riparian vegetation. It is well established that changes in the riparian flora often coincide with changes in the aquatic hyphomycete community (Gönczöl, 1975, 1987, 1989; Bärlocher, 1982; Wood-Eggenschwiler and Bärlocher, 1983; Thomas *et al.*, 1989). When leaves of different species are collected from the same stream section, dominance patterns in the fungal communities of the leaves usually differ (Gönczöl, 1975, 1989; Suberkropp and Klug, 1976; Chamier and Dixon, 1982; Bengtsson, 1983; Rossi *et al.*, 1983; Shearer and Lane, 1983; Sridhar and Kaveriappa, 1988, 1989). It can be concluded that riparian vegetation-type plays an important role in determining the community composition of Ingoldian fungi in the stream.

Influence of water chemistry

Au (1992) studied the influence of physical-chemical factors on the ability of aquatic hyphomycetes to compete with other organisms for plant litter decomposition. She found that among water temperature, dissolved oxygen, biological oxygen demand, pH, turbidity, oxygen availability would probably be the major factors, since well-oxygenated water is required for growth and sporulation of aquatic hyphomycetes (Nilsson, 1964; Webster, 1975).

Dispersal

Since Ingoldian fungi do not have motile conidia, they are dispersed in water currents. Apart from having independent conidia, Ingoldian fungi can also attach to substrate during their dispersal. They can travel downstream by means of mycelium embedded in leaf tissue or wood submerged in the stream. Other dispersal mechanisms include animals, mycelium may attach to the feet of waterfowl (Bärlocher, 1992) or aquatic invertebrates, which may transport them to other areas. Asexual spore of aquatic fungi are generally too fragile for long-range dispersal, while sexually produced spores are often airborne and allow long distance dispersal (Bärlocher, 1992). This may help to explain the paradox of the worldwide distribution of freshwater fungi with passively dispersed conidia.

Table 1. List of Ingoldian fungi found in Hong Kong from different studies.

Name	References
Alatospora acuminata Ingold	Chan et al., 2000
Alatospora pulchella Marvanova	Au et al., 1992
Anguillospora crassa Ingold	Chan et al., 2000
Anguillospora gigantea Ranzoni	Chan et al., 2000; Tsui et al., 2000
Anguillospora longissima Ingold	Chan et al., 2000
Anguillospora pseudolongissima Ranzoni	Chan et al., 2000
Articulospora moniliforma Ranzoni	Au et al., 1992
Articulospora tetracladia Ingold	Au et al., 1992; Chan et al., 2000
Beltrania rhombica Penzig	Chan et al., 2000
Brachiosphaera tropicalis Nawawi	Ho, 1998; Chan et al., 2000; Tsui et al., 2000
Calcarispora hiemalis Marvanova and Marvan	Au et al., 1992
Camposporium antennatum Harkness	Chan et al., 2000
Campylospora filicladia Nawawi	Chan et al., 2000
Campylospora spp.	Chan et al., 2000
Centrospora aquatica Iqbal	Au et al., 1992
Clavariana aquatica Nawawi	Chan et al., 2000
Clavariopsis aquatica De Wildeman	Au et al., 1992
Clavariopsis brachycladia Tubaki	Chan et al., 2000
Clavarispora spp.	Au et al., 1992
Clavatospora longibrachiata Nilsson	Chan et al., 2000
Clavatospora tentacula Nilsson	Chan et al., 2000
Condylospora spumigena Nawawi	Chan et al., 2000
Dendrospora fusca Descals and Webster	Au et al., 1992
Dicranidion gracile Matsush.	Chan et al., 2000
Diplocladiella scalaroides Arnaud apud Ellis	Ho, 1998; Chan et al., 2000
Flabellospora acuminata Descals and Webster	Chan et al., 2000
Flabellospora crassa Alasoadura	Chan et al., 2000
Flabellospora spp.	Chan et al., 2000
Flabellospora verticillata Alasoadura	Chan et al., 2000
Flagellospora curvula Ingold	Au et al., 1992; Chan et al., 2000
Flagellospora penicilliodes Ingold	Au et al., 1992
Helicomyces colligatus Moore	Chan et al., 2000
Helicomyces spp.	Chan et al., 2000
Helicomyces torquatus Lane and Shearer	Chan et al., 2000
Isthmolongispora spp.	Chan et al., 2000
Isthmotricladia gombakiensis Nawawi	Chan et al., 2000
Lemonniera aquatica De Wildeman	Chan et al., 2000
Lemonniera spp.	Au et al., 1992; Chan et al., 2000
Lunulospora curvala Ingold	Au et al., 1992
Lunulospora cymbiformis Miura	Au et al., 1992; Chan et al., 2000
Mycocentrospora filiformis Iqbal	Au et al., 1992

Table 1. (continued).

Name	References
Nawawia filiformis (Nawawi) Marvanová	Но, 1998
Pseudoanguillospora stricta Iqbal	Au et al., 1992
Pyramidospora fluminea Miura and Kudo	Au et al., 1992
Scutisporus brunneus Ando and Tubaki	Chan et al., 2000
Sigmoidea aurantiaca Descals	Au et al., 1992
Subulispora procurvata Tubaki and Yokohama	Chan et al., 2000
Tetrachaetum elegans Ingold	Au et al., 1992
Tetracladium marchalianum De Wildeman	Chan et al., 2000
Tetracladium setigerum Ingold	Chan et al., 2000
Tricladim spp.	Chan et al., 2000
Tricladium attenuatum Iqbal	Au et al., 1992; Tsui et al., 2000
Tricladium indicum Sati rt N. Tiwari	Но, 1998
Tripospermum porosporiferum Matsush.	Chan et al., 2000
Triscelophorus acuminatus Nawawi	Au et al., 1992; Chan et al., 2000
Triscelophorus magnificus Petersen	Chan et al., 2000
Triscelophorus monosporus Ingold	Au et al., 1992; Chan et al., 2000
Triscelophorus ponapensis Matsush.	Chan et al., 2000
Triscelophorus spp.	Au et al., 1992
Varicosporium delicatum Ingold	Au et al., 1992

Ingoldian fungi in Hong Kong

Studies of Ingoldian fungi have been carried out in many countries, mostly in temperate regions. In Hong Kong, 387 species of freshwater water fungi have been identified (Lu *et al.*, 2000). Previous studies of Ingoldian fungi in Hong Kong were carried out by comparing the biodiversity found on specific leaf types in the polluted Lam Tsuen River and the unpolluted Tai Po Kau Forest Stream (Au *et al.*, 1992). Twenty-five aquatic hyphomycetes species were found and most of them were cosmopolitian or frequently reported in temperate regions. In other separate studies, Chan *et al.* (2000) reported 41 species, Tsui *et al.* (2000) reported 3 species and Ho (1998) reported 4 species from Hong Kong. A total of 51 species of Ingoldian fungi known from Hong Kong from several studies are lised in Table 1 and a key is provided below.

Key to the identified species found in Lam Tsuen River and Tai Po Kau Forest Stream in Hong Kong

1.	Conidia tetraradiate	2
1.	Conidia sigmoid	3
	Conidia with other shapes	
2.	Conidia hyaline	5
	Conidia brown	

Fungal Diversity

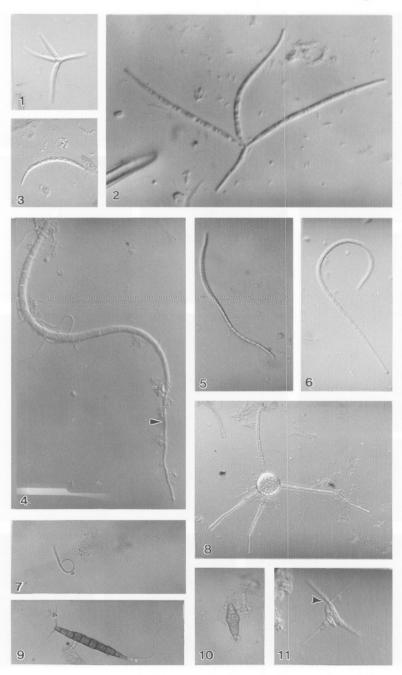
3. 3.	Conidia unicellular
4. 4.	Conidia hyaline
5. 5.	Conidia septate
6. 6.	Conidia with 4-8 appendages slightly constricted at origin, much longer than 1.5 times diam. of central part; central part globose to pyramidal . <i>Brachiosphaera tropicalis</i> (Fig. 8) Conidia consisting of a clavate central body (triangular in outline), 5-8 µm wide at base, 24-33 µm wide above (crowned portion), and with 4, 0-3 septate, 53-160 µm long appendages, 3-5 µm at widest point, tapering to 2-2.5 µm towards their ends; appendages septate but not constricted at their base
7. 7.	Conidia filiform, not wider than 8 µm
8. 8.	Conidia coiled 13 Conidia uncoiled 14
9. 9.	Conidia consisting of a biconic, symmetrical main axis, with a distinct, hyaline, transverse band
10. 10.	Main axis clavate, truncate at apex, with non-septate appendages
11. 11.	Conidia with spherical main axial cell
12. 12.	Conidia bicelled, not longer than 60 µm
13. 13.	Secondary conidia usually formed, patellate end of filament without flattened detachment scar
14. 14.	Conidia branched
15. 15.	Conidia with filiform appendages
16.	Conidia consisting of a main axis widening at apex, where there is an oval to spherical central knob, appendage with apical cell rounded, forming an eccentric knob

16.	Conidia without central knob or eccentric knob24
17.	Conidia with 3-5 (mostly 4) appendages, which are obclavate, 3-9-septate (mostly 5), 56 μm long, 3-3.5 μm wide at apex, 5.5-7.5 μm at widest point. Main axis 5-15 × 2-3 μ with a 5-7 μm wide terminal swelling
17. Conidia with 4 divergent appendages, which are $25-120 \times 2-5 \mu m$, 1-3 septat	Conidia with 4 divergent appendages, which are $25-120 \times 2-5 \mu m$, 1-3 septate, uniform in width. One of the appendages longer than the othersLemonniera aquatica (Fig. 31)
18. 18.	Conidial appendages rhomboid, obpyramidal, or obclavate
19.	Conidia with a basal filiform or falcate appendage, 5-35 × 1-2 µm, uniform width throughout its length
19.	Conidia with a basal filiform or falcate appendage, 75-125 × 2.5-30 µm, tapering slightly towards the apex
19.	Conidia without a basal filiform or falcate appendage
20. 20.	Condia multiradiate (with more than 4 appendages)
21. 21.	Conidia sickle-shape
22.	Conidia consisting a cylindrical main axis and 2 subapical appendages
22.	Conidia not consisting a cylindrical main axis
23.23.	Conidia with 4-6 cylindrical or obclavate appendages with rounded apices, diverging at right angles to the main axis
	axis 3-5 celled, with 1-2 appendages
24.24.	Conidia with axis rarely cylindrical, proximal part from cylindrical to narrowly clavate, distal part narrow-cymbiform
25.	Conidia consisting of an obconical, 2 celled axis, and 3-4 romme appendages, either conic
25.	or obconical, much wider at base than at apex
26.	Main axis clavate, with 3 equidistant divergent appendages arising from apex
26.	Main axis not clavate
27.	Conidia bent, with a detachment scar at where it bends at one -fifth of its length
27.	Conidia not bent Calcarispora hiemalis (Fig. 44)
28. 28.	Conidia with 3 digitate (finger-like) appendages <i>Tetracladium setigerum</i> (Figs. 36-37) Conidia without 3 digitate appendages

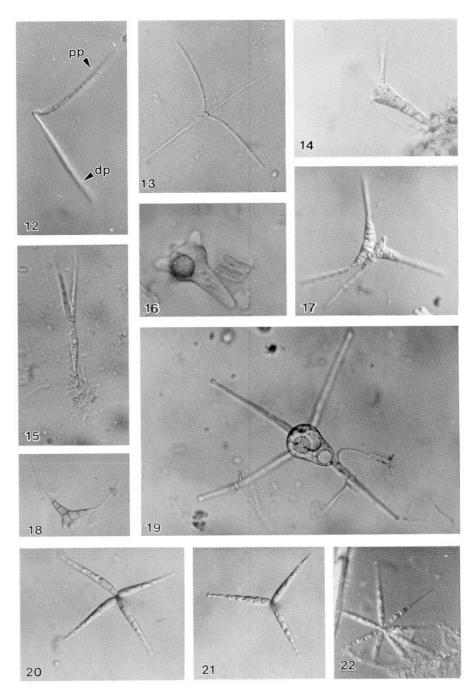
Fungal Diversity

29. 29.	each corner of the triangle
30.	Conidia with two bends at the middle, proximal portion (pp) straight to slightly curved distal portion (dp) forming an angle of 30-120° with the proximal portion
30.	Conidia bent, with a rhombic detachment scar near the middle
31. 31.	Conidia without filiform appendage Isthmolongispora quadricellularia (Fig. 26) Conidia with filiform appendage, conidia subulate-conoid, truncate at base
32. 32.	Main body 4-celled, with a long appendage arising from each of the four corners of the main body
33.	Conidia consisting of 4 divergent appendages, one of them 1-3-septate, forming the main axis, the other 3 appendages inserted at the upper end of the main axis, one usually longe than the others
33.	Conidia consisting of 4 divergent appendages, one forming the main axis, the other appendages attached to the anterior part of the main axis, but not to the end of the main axis.
34.	Main axis 30-70 μm × 2.4.5 μm, with two 25-60 μm × 2.5-3.5 μm appendages fusing with main axis
34.	Main axis 75-300 μ m × 2.5-5 μ m, bent at the insertion of appendages, with 2 diverging appendages of uniform width (septa indistinct)
34.	Main axis 150-200 μ m, widest (3-4 μ m) in the region between the two lateral appendages. The lower lateral appendages arising 50-70 μ m from the base and apparently causing a slight deflexion in the direction of growth of the principle axis, a further deflexion occurring
	when the second lateral arises 15-20 µm above the first
35. 35.	Conidia with a broad detachment scar or base truncate
	Conidia consisting of a 2-celled central axis, lateral outgrowths unbranched, hemispherica or conic to cylindrical, with rounded ends
	 Agis cylindrical, usually slightly sitemaired new branch insertions, ages, edgelag, t
37. 37.	
38. 38.	Main axis triangular and 8-celled
39. 39.	

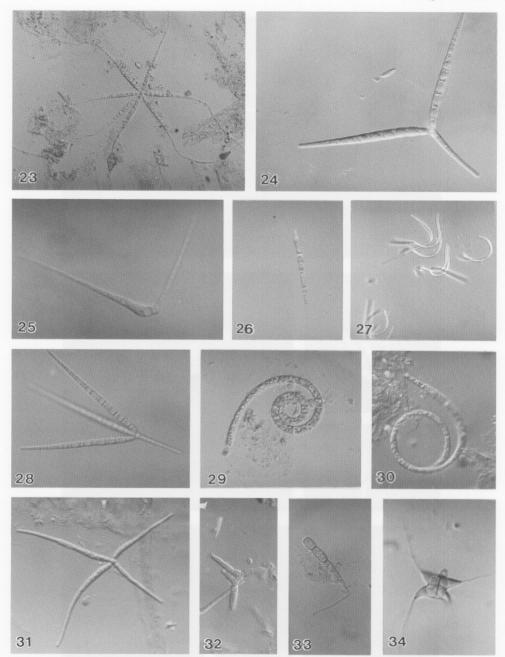
40. 40.	Conidia straight or slightly curved, long-fusoid to narrow-obcalvate, (20-)100-210(-275) × 2.5-5.5 µm
41. 41. 41.	Conidia not longer than 100 µm
42.	Conidia is a specialized lateral branch system, main axis with usually 3 lateral branches, each lateral behaves like the main axis and may branch to form secondary lateral, the secondary laterals may branch again to form tertiary laterals
42.	
43.	Conidia having an obconical/clavate, 2-3-celled main axis
43.	Conidia having an obconical/clavate, 2-3-celled main axis
44.	Conidia with apical cells of axis rounded at tip; two of the four appendages usually
44.	crossed
45. 45.	Conidial axis are longer than 50 µm, 6 or more cells, axis elongate end attenuated toward apex, but not subulate
46. 46.	Conidial appendages and axis not tapering towards their apices, of uniform width throughout
47. 47.	Conidia star-shaped
48.	Main conidial axis is parallel-walled or slightly tapering to the end, with more or less blunt tips (round apex), appendages with constricted bases, attached to the main axis by an
48.	Axis cylindrical, usually slightly attenuated near branch insertions, apex acicular, base truncate at first, becoming acicular after conidium release, basal extension percurrent
49.	Conidia with appendages acuminating at one-third to one-half of its length from apex
49.	usually wider than 7.5 µm



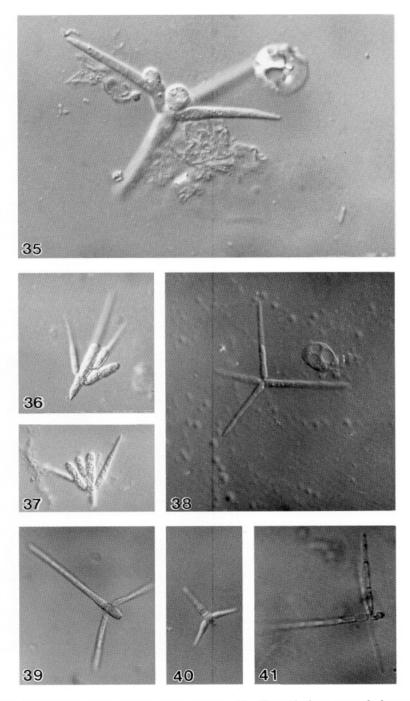
Figs. 1-11. Ingoldian fungi from Hong Kong. 1. Alatospora acuminata. 2. Articulospora tetracladia. 3. Anguillospora crassa. 4, 6. Anguillospora longissima. 5. Anguillospora gigantea. 7. Anguillospora pseudolongissima. 8. Brachiosphaera tropicalis. 9. Camposporium antennatum. 10. Beltrania rhombica. 11. Campylospora filicladia.



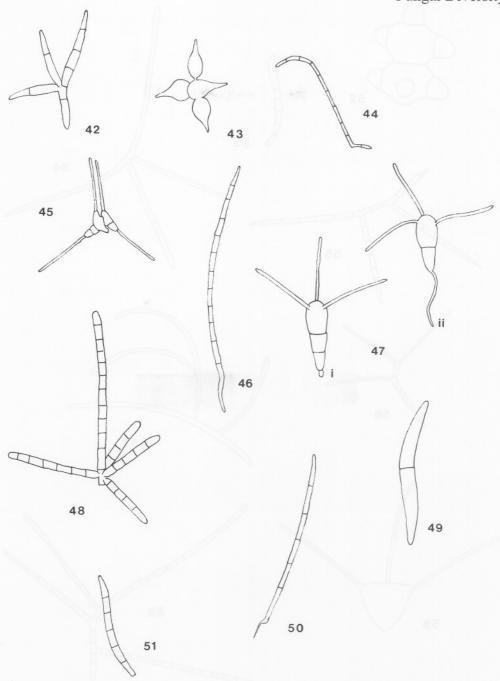
Figs. 12-22. Ingoldian fungi from Hong Kong. 12. Condylospora spumigens. 13. Clavatospora tentacula. 14. Clavatospora longibrachiata. 15. Dicranidion gracile. 16. Clavariopsis brachycladia. 17. Campylospora spp. 18. Diplocladiella scalaroides. 19. Clavariana aquatica. 20-21. Flabellospora crassa. 22. Flabellospora verticillata.



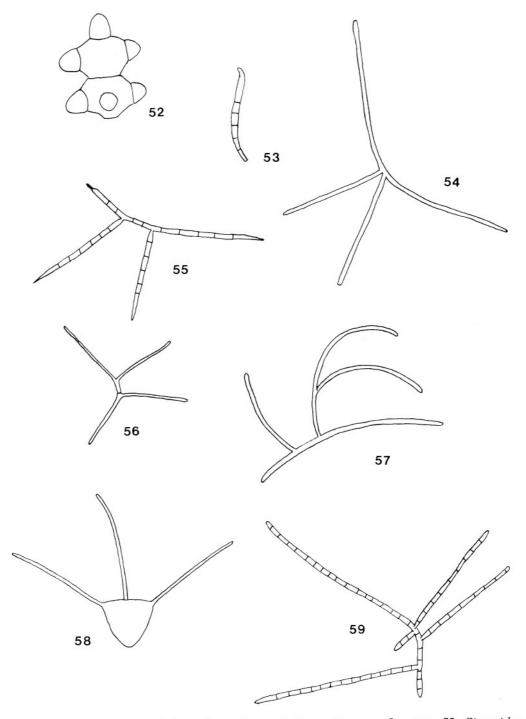
Figs. 23-34. Ingoldian fungi from Hong Kong. 23. Flabellospora acuminata. 24. Flabellospora sp. (not shown in the key). 25. Lunulospora cymbisformis. 26. Isthmolongispora quadricellularia. 27. Flagellospora curvula. 28. Isthmotricladia gombakiensis 29. Helicomyces colligatus. 30. Helicomyces torquatus 31. Lemonniera aquatica 32. Tripospermum porosporiferum. 33. Subulispora procurvata. 34. Scutisporus brunneus.



Figs. 35-41. Ingoldian fungi from Hong Kong. 35. Tetracladium marchalianum. 36-37. Tetracladium setigerum. 38. Triscelophorus acuminata. 39. Triscelophorus monosporus. 40. Triscelophorus ponapensis. 41. Triscelophorus magnificus.



Figs. 42-51. Ingoldian fungi from Hong Kong. 42 Alatospora pulchella. 43. Articulospora moniliforma. 44. Calcarispora hiemalis. 45. Campylospora chaetoclades. 46. Centrospora aquatica. 47(i-ii). Clavariopsis aquatica. 48. Dendrospora fusca. 49. Flagellospora penicilliodes. 50. Mycocentrospora filiformis. 51. Pseudoanguillospora stricta.



Figs 52-59. Ingoldian fungi from Hong Kong. 52 Pyramidospora fluminea. 53. Sigmoidea aurantiaca. 54. Tetrachaetum elegans. 55. Tricladium attenuatum. 56. Tricladium chaetocladium. 57. Varicosporium delicatum. 58. Nawawia filiformis. 59. Tricladium indicum.

Acknowledgements

Helen Leung is thanked for kind assistance.

References

- Ainsworth, G.C. (1976). Introduction to the History of Mycology. U.K., Cambridge, University of Cambridge Press.
- Au, D.W.T., Hodgkiss, I.J. and Vrijmoed, L.L.P. (1992a). Fungi and cellulolyticactivity associated with decomposition of *Bauhinia purpurea* leaf litter in a polluted and unpolluted Hong Kong waterway. Canadian Journal of Botany 70: 1071-1078.
- Au, D.W.T., Hodgkiss, I.J. and Vrijmoed, L.L.P. (1992b). Decomposition of *Bauhinia purpurea* leaf litter in a polluted and unpolluted Hong Kong waterway. Canadian Journal of Botany 70: 1061-1069.
- Bandoni, R.J. (1975). Significance of the tetraradiate form in dispersal of terrestrial Fungi. Report of the Tottori Mycological Institute 12: 105-113.
- Bärlocher, F. (1982). Conidium production from leaves and needles in four streams. Canadian Journal of Botany 60: 1487-1494.
- Bärlocher, F. (1992). The Ecology of Aquatic Hyphomycetes. Germany, Berlin, Springer-Verlag: Ecological Studies Vol. 94.
- Bärlocher, F. and Kendrick, B. (1976). Hyphomycetes as intermediaries of energy flow in streams. In: *Recent Advances in Aquatic Mycology*. (ed E.B.G. Jones). Elek Science, London, U.K.
- Bengtsson, G. (1983). Habitat selection in two species of aquatic hyphomycetes. Microbial Ecology 9: 15-26.
- Bhat, D.J. and Chien, C.Y. (1990). Water-borne hyphomycetes found in Ethiopia. Transactions of Mycological Society of Japan 31: 147-158.
- Chan, S.Y., Goh, T.K. and Hyde, K.D. (2000). Ingoldian fungi in Lam Tsuen River and Tai Po Kau Forest Stream, Hong Kong. Fungal Diversity 5: 109-118.
- Chamier, A.C. and Dixon, P.A. (1982). Pectinases in leaf degradation by aquatic hyphomycetes. I: The field study. The colonization pattern of aquatic hyphomycetes on leaf packs in a Surrey stream. Oecologia 52: 109-115.
- Chamier, A.C. (1985). Cell-wall degrading enzymes of aquatic hyphomycetes: a review. Botanical Journal of the Linnean Society 91: 67-81.
- Cox, P.A. (1983). Search theory, random motion and the convergent evolution of pollen and spore morphology in aquatic plants. The American Naturalist 121: 9-31.
- Engblom, E., Lingdell, P.E., Marvanova, L. and Muller-Haeckel, A. (1986). Foam spora in running water of southern Greenland. The Polar Regions 4: 47-51.
- Goh, T.K. (1997). Tropical freshwater hyphomycetes. In: *Biodiversity of Tropical Microfungi* (ed K.D. Hyde). Hong Kong University Press, Hong Kong: 189-227.
- Gonczol, J. (1975). Ecological observations on the aquatic hyphomycetes of Hungary, I. Acta Botanica. Academiae Scientiarum Hungaicae 21: 243-264.
- Gonczol, J. (1987). Ecological observations on aquatic hyphomycetes of Hungary, III. Acta Botanica. Academiae Scientiarum Hungaicae 33: 41-49.
- Gonczol, J. (1989). Longitudinal distribution patterns of aquatic hyphomycetes in a mountain stream in Hungary. Experiment with leaf packs. Nova Hedwigia 48: 391-404.
- Ho, W.H. (1998). Biodiversity, ecological and ultrastructural observations of fungi on wood submerged in tropical streams. Ph.D. Thesis, University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong.
- Iqbal, S.H. (1994). Species diversity of freshwater hyphomycetes in some streams of Pakistan.

- I. Comparison of sampling techniques. Mycoscience 35: 331-343.
- Iqbal, S.H. and Webster, J. (1973a). Aquatic hyphomycete spora of the River Exe and its tributaries. Transactions of British Mycological Society 61: 331-346.
- Iqbal, S.H. and Webster, J. (1973b). The trapping of aquatic hyphomycete spora by air bubbles. Transactions of British Mycological Society 60: 37-48.
- Iqbal, S.H. and Webster, J. (1977). Aquatic hyphomycetes spora of some Dartmoor streams. Transactions of the British Mycological Society 69: 233-241.
- Ingold, C.T. (1942). Aquatic hyphomycetes of decaying alder leaves. Transactions of the British Mycological Society 25: 339-417.
- Kaushik, N.K. and Hynes, H.B.N. (1971). The fate of the dead leaves that fall into streams. Archiv für Hydrobiologia 68: 465-515.
- Kobayasi, Y., Hiratsuka, N., Korf, R.P., Tubaki, K., Aoshima, K., Soneda, M. and Sugiyama, J. (1976). Mycological studies of the Alaskan Arctic. Annual Report of the Institute of Fermentation of Osaka 3: 1-138.
- Kobayasi, Y., Hiratsuka, N., Otani, Y., Tubaki, K., Udagawa, S.I., Sugiyama, J. and Konno, K. (1971). Mycological studies of the Angmagssalik region of Greenland. Bulletin of the National Science Museum of Tokyo. 14: 1-96.
- Lu, B.S., Hyde, K.D., Ho, W.H., Tsui, C.K.M., Taylor, J. E., Wong, K.M., Yanna and Zhou, D.Q. (2000). Checklist of Hong Kong Fungi. Fungal Diversity Press, The University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong.
- Muller-Haeckel, A. and Marvanova, L. (1976). Konidienproduktion und kolonisation von Suddwasser-Hyphomyzeten im Kaltisjokk Lappland. Botaniska Notiser 129: 405-409.
- Muller-Haeckel, A., Marvanova, L. (1979). Periodicity of aquatic hyphomycetes in the subarctic. Transactions of British Mycological Society 73: 109-116.
- Nilsson, S. (1964). Freshwater hyphomycetes. Taxonomy and morphology and ecology. Symbolae Botanica Upsalensis 18: 1-130.
- Rossi, L., Fano, E.A., Basset, A., Fanelli, C. and Fabbri, A.A. (1983). An experimental study of a microfungal community on plant detritus in a Mediterranean woodland stream. Mycologia 75: 887-896.
- Shearer, C.A. and Lane, L.C. (1983). Comparison of three techniques for the study of aquatic hyphomycete communities. Mycologia 75: 498-598.
- Sridhar, K.R. and Kaveriappa, K.M. (1988a). New host records of aquatic hyphomycetes. Indian Phytopathology 41: 160-161.
- Sridhar, K.R. and Kaveriappa, K.M. (1988b). Colonization of leaf litter by aquatic hyphomycetes in Western Ghat stream. Proceedings of Indian National Science Academy B 54: 199-200.
- Sridhar, K.R. and Kaveriappa, K.M. (1988c). Colonization of leaf litter by aquatic hyphomycetes in a tropical stream. Archiv für Hydrobiologia 112: 627-630.
- Sridhar, K.R. and Kaveriappa, K.M. (1988d). Occurrence and survival of aquatic hyphomycetes in brackish and seawater. Arch für Hydrobiologia 113: 153-160.
- Sridhar, K.R. and Kaveriappa, K.M. (1988e). Survival of water-borne fungi imperfecti under non-aquatic conditions. Proceedings of Indian National Science Academy B 54: 295-297.
- Sridhar, K.R. and Kaveriappa, K.M. (1989a). Notes on aquatic hyphomycetes of mountain streams in Western Ghat region, India. Feddes Report 100: 187-189.
- Sridhar, K.R. and Kaveriappa, K.M. (1989b). Colonization of leaves by water-borne hyphomycetes in a tropical stream. Mycological Research 92: 392-396.
- Sridhar, K.R. and Kaveriappa, K.M. (1989c). Water-borne hyphomycetes spora of two freshwater streams. Environmental Ecology 7: 771-772.
- Sridhar, K.R. and Kaveriappa, K.M. (1989d). Observations on aquatic hyphomycetes of the

- Western Ghat streams, India. Nova Hedwigia 42: 455-467.
- Sridhar, K.R. and Kaveriappa, K.M. (1989e). New substrates of aquatic hyphomycetes. Indian Phytopathology 42: 203.
- Suberkropp, K. (1991a). Relationships between growth and sporulation of aquatic hyphomycetes on decomposing leaf litter. Mycological Research 95: 843-850.
- Suberkropp, K. (1992). Interactions with invertebrates. In: *The Ecology of Aquatic Hyphomycetes*. Germany, Berlin, Springer-Verlag: Ecological Studies Vol. 94: 118-134.
- Suberkropp, K. and Klug, M.J. (1976). Changes in the chemical composition of leaves during processing in a woodland stream. Ecology 57: 720-727.
- Suberkropp, K. and Klug, M.J. (1980). The maceration of deciduous leaf litter by aquatic hyphomycetes. Canadian Journal of Botany 58: 1025-1031.
- Suberkropp, K. and Klug, M.J. (1981). Degradation of leaf litter by aquatic hyphomycetes. In: *The Fungal Community* (eds D.T. Wicklow and G.C. Carroll). Marcel Dekker, New York: 761-776.
- Thomas, K., Chilvers, G.A. and Norris, R.H. (1989). Seasonal occurrence of conidia of aquatic hyphomycete in Lees Creek, Australian Capital Territory. Australian Journal of Marine and Freshwater Research 40: 11-23.
- Tsui, C.K.M., Hyde, K.D. and Hodgkiss, I.J. (2000). Biodiversity of fungi on submerged wood in Hong Kong streams. Aquatic Microbial Ecology 21: 289-298.
- Webster, J. (1959). Experiment with spores of aquatic hyphomycetes. I Sedimentation, and impaction on smooth surfaces. Annals of Botany 23: 595-611.
- Webster, J. (1987). Convergent evolution and the functional significance of spore shape in aquatic and semi-aquatic fungi. In: *Evolutionary Biology of the Fungi* (eds A.D.M. Rayner, C.M. Brasier and D. Moore). Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, U.K.: 191-201.
- Webster, J. and Davey, R.A. (1984). Sigmoid conidial shape in aquatic fungi. Transactions of British Mycological Society 83: 43-52.
- Webster, J. and Descals, E. (1981). Morphology, distribution and ecology of conidial fungi in freshwater habitat. In: *Biology of Conidial Fungi. Vol. 1* (eds G.T. Cole and B. Kendrick). Academic Press, New York, U.S.A.: 295-355.
- Wood-Eggenschwiler, S. and Bärlocher, F. (1983). Aquatic hyphomycetes in sixteen streams in France, Germany and Switzerland. Transactions of British Mycological Society 81: 371-379.

(Received 18 December 1999, accepted 27 June 2000)