

Journal Pre-proof



The Third International Symposium on Fungal Stress – ISFUS

Alene Alder-Rangel, Alexander Idnurm, Alexandra C. Brand, Alistair J.P. Brown, Anna Gorbushina, Christina M. Kelliher, Claudia B. Campos, David E. Levin, Deborah Bell-Pedersen, Ekaterina Dadachova, Florian F. Bauer, Geoffrey M. Gadd, Gerhard H. Braus, Gilberto U.L. Braga, Guilherme T.P. Brancini, Graeme M. Walker, Irina Druzhinina, István Pócsi, Jan Dijksterhuis, Jesús Aguirre, John E. Hallsworth, Julia Schumacher, Koon Ho Wong, Laura Selbmann, Luis M. Corrochano, Martin Kupiec, Michelle Momany, Mikael Molin, Natalia Requena, Oded Yarden, Radamés J.B. Cordero, Reinhard Fischer, Renata C. Pascon, Rocco L. Mancinelli, Tamas Emri, Thiago O. Basso, Drauzio E.N. Rangel

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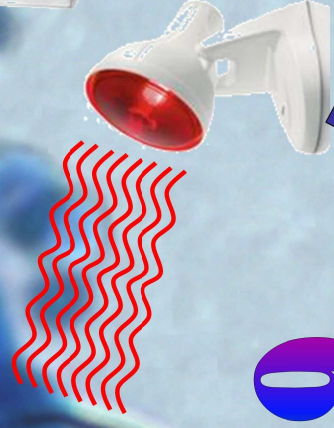
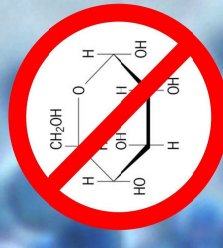
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International Symposium on Fungal Stress

ISEFUS



2019

São José dos Campos, SP, Brazil

The Third International Symposium on Fungal Stress – ISFUS

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74

75 **24 February 2020**

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78 **Abstract**

79 Stress is a normal part of life for fungi, which can survive in environments considered
80 inhospitable or hostile for other organisms. Due to the ability of fungi to respond to,
81 survive in, and transform the environment, even under severe stresses, many researchers
82 are exploring the mechanisms that enable fungi to adapt to stress. The International
83 Symposium on Fungal Stress (ISFUS) brings together leading scientists from around the
84 world who research fungal stress. This article discusses presentations given at the third
85 ISFUS, held in São José dos Campos, São Paulo, Brazil in 2019, thereby summarizing
86 the state-of-the-art knowledge on fungal stress, a field that includes microbiology,
87 agriculture, environmental science, ecology, biotechnology, medicine, and astrobiology.

88

89 **Keywords:** agricultural mycology; industrial mycology; medical mycology; fungal stress
90 mechanisms and responses.

91

92

93 **1 Introduction**

94 Fungi play an essential role in many industrial, agricultural, and medical
95 processes (Hyde et al., 2019; Rangel et al., 2018), and yet the importance and impact that
96 these microorganisms have on humans and the environment is often underappreciated.
97 Fungi can be a source of food and are essential for fermentation, including the production
98 of bread, wine, beer, and other consumables. Fungi produce medicine, enzymes for
99 industrial use, recombinant proteins, bioethanol, and biodiesel. Fungi serve as
100 bioremediators, bioinsecticides, and can inhibit other plant-pathogenic microbes. Fungi
101 can balance ecosystems via their roles as decomposers and by forming
102 mechanical/physiological networks between other living systems. However, fungi can
103 inflict diseases on humans, animals, and plants; degrade habitats or items of value;
104 contaminate buildings; and act as a primary agent to spoil foods and feeds (Hyde et al.,
105 2019; Rangel et al., 2018).

106 Fungi can survive in inhospitable and hostile environments. For instance,
107 pathogenic fungi can survive in the interior of other organisms, despite the potential
108 perils presented by anoxia and the host's immune system (Brown et al., 2014). They can
109 also withstand thermal stress, radiation, osmotic stress, desiccation, nutrient deprivation,
110 and the presence of chaotropes, hydrophobes, and other aggressive compounds (Araújo et
111 al., 2018; Araújo et al., 2019; Dias et al., 2018; Hassett et al., 2015; Rangel, 2011; Rangel
112 et al., 2005; Yakimov et al., 2015). Moreover, enduring stress during growth can allow
113 fungi to withstand other stresses (Rangel, 2011). While psychology considers stress a
114 negative force that disturbs well-being, for organisms like most fungi, the exposure to

115 stress is normal part of their lives (Hallsworth, 2018). In general, stress can enhance
116 vitality of the system by stimulating energy generation and other adaptations. This is
117 consistent with the observation of German philosopher Friedrich Nietzsche “What does
118 not kill me, makes me stronger.” (*Was mich nicht umbringt, macht mich stärker*)
119 (Nietzsche, 1888).

120 Their ability to respond to, survive in, and transform the environment, even in the
121 face of severe stress(es), is one of the reasons scientists seek to discover, understand, and
122 utilize the biochemical and molecular mechanisms that enable fungi to adapt to stress.
123 For some fungi, resistance to stress is a desirable characteristic; however, for other fungi,
124 their resistance to the stress poses a problem for humans. Knowledge about the stress
125 mechanisms of fungi may help scientists to develop methods that modulate their ability to
126 adapt to a specific environment and, by doing so, benefit the interests of society.

127 Further understanding about how stress affects fungi and how they circumvent
128 potential constraints is the focus of the International Symposium on Fungal Stress
129 (ISFUS). This Symposium takes an interdisciplinary approach attracting researchers with
130 degrees in Mycology, Biology, Biochemistry, Molecular Biology, Genetics, Chemistry,
131 Biotechnology, Microbial Physiology and Biomedical Sciences, Plant Pathology,
132 Ecology, etc. Leading scientists from around the world have gathered in Brazil to present
133 and discuss their research about fungal stress. ISFUS is the brainchild of Drauzio E. N.
134 Rangel, who dreamed about bringing together scientists that focused specifically on the
135 many stresses that fungi must endure. In 2014, Rangel invited senior scientists to the first
136 ISFUS and acquired funding from São Paulo Research Foundation (FAPESP), to bring
137 them to Brazil. Rangel was assisted by Alene Alder-Rangel and other members of the

138 Organizing Committee. The first ISFUS took place in October 2014 in São Jose dos
139 Campos, São Paulo, Brazil, at the Universidade do Vale do Paraíba. The second ISFUS
140 occurred in May 2017 in Goiania, Goiás, Brazil, at the Universidade Federal de Goiás,
141 and received funding from the Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível
142 Superior (CAPES) and the Fundação de Amparo à Pesquisa do Estado de Goiás (FAPEG).

143 The third International Symposium on Fungal Stress (ISFUS-2019) returned to
144 São José dos Campos, São Paulo, Brazil, and occurred on May 20 to 23, 2019 at the
145 Hotel Nacional Inn. This Symposium was supported by grants from FAPESP and CAPES.
146 The Instituto de Ciência e Tecnologia of the Universidade Brasil acted as the host
147 institution. ISFUS-2019 was larger than the previous ISFUS meetings, with 39 featured
148 speakers from 16 countries (Figures 1 and 2), 58 posters presentations, and around 125
149 participants. Elsevier (Amsterdam, Netherlands) and Journal of Fungi (Basel,
150 Switzerland) provided the students awards. Corporate sponsors were Biocontrol
151 (Sertãozinho, SP, Brazil), Meter (São José dos Campos, SP, Brazil), and Alder's English
152 Services (São Jose dos Campos, SP, Brazil). The Organizing Committee included
153 Drauzio E. N. Rangel, Alene Alder-Rangel, Claudia B. L. Campos, Ekaterina Dadachova,
154 Gustavo H. Goldman, Gilberto U. L. Braga, Luis M. Corrochano, and John E.
155 Hallsworth. The logo of the symposium features one of the most-studied ascomycetes,
156 *Aspergillus nidulans*, and illustrates several key stress parameters that fungi must cope
157 with to survive (Figure 3). The Annals of the third International Symposium on Fungal
158 Stress, which feature abstracts from the presentations and posters, is available in the
159 Electronic Supplementary Material 1.

160 Each ISFUS has represented a major step in bringing together the community of

161 fungal biologists interested in the mechanisms that fungi use to cope with stress. The first
162 ISFUS as the initial meeting set the basic format of the symposium with a small size, a
163 program touching different aspects of fungal stress biology, and activities in addition to
164 the scientific program to increase scientific interactions among participants. The main
165 role of ISFUS as an international forum for the exchange of ideas and to foster scientific
166 interactions and international collaborations on fungal stress was clearly defined in the
167 first ISFUS. The second and third ISFUS have grown upon these themes, expanding the
168 number of topics covered, providing lecture time to students and young postdocs in the
169 community, while keeping the number of participants both international and Brazilian to
170 a level that allows easy and frequent interactions during lectures and free time. We
171 anticipate that topics covered by future ISFUS will highlight the role of fungal stress
172 biology in understanding how fungi contribute and adapt to global changes in the climate,
173 and to provide alternative resources for food, feed, and bioenergy.

174 A special issue has been published after each ISFUS that featured articles related
175 to fungal stress primarily from researchers who presented at that ISFUS: for ISFUS-2014
176 in *Current Genetics* (Rangel et al., 2015a; Rangel et al., 2015b), and for ISFUS-2017 in
177 *Fungal Biology*, by Elsevier on behalf of the British Mycological Society (Alder-Rangel
178 et al., 2018). After the success of that special issue, *Fungal Biology* agreed to publish this
179 special issue arising from ISFUS-2019, which is titled “Fungal Adaptation to Hostile
180 Challenges” focused on cellular biology, ecology, photobiology, environment,
181 agricultural, industrial, and medical mycology in the context of fungal stress
182 (Acheampong et al., 2019; Antal et al., 2019; Araújo et al., 2019; Brown et al., 2020;
183 Dias et al., 2018; Fomina et al., 2019; Harari et al., 2019; Kelliher et al., 2019; Király et

184 al., 2019; Laz et al., 2019; Malo et al., 2019; Medina et al., 2020; Mendoza-Martínez et
185 al., 2019; Rodrigues et al., 2019; Schumacher and Gorbushina, 2020; Sethiya et al., 2019;
186 Tagua et al., 2019; Walker and Basso, 2019; Yu et al., 2020; Yuan et al., 2019), and
187 several other manuscripts under review.

188 **2 The third International Symposium on Fungal Stress - a synopsis**

189 Although the Symposium started Monday, May 20, most international speakers
190 arrived in Brazil on Saturday, May 18 to have time to recuperate from long flights. They
191 took the opportunity to become better acquainted with each other and São Jose dos
192 Campos with a tour of Vicentina Aranha Park, which features live music, a craft fair, and
193 farmers market on Sunday morning. Amanda Estella Alder Rangel, the organizer's seven-
194 year-old daughter, helped lead the tour and even translate when needed for our foreign
195 guests helping them interact with locals, make purchases, etc. (Figure 4).

196 The Symposium officially began Monday morning with a welcome presentation
197 by Drauzio E.N. Rangel. He explained how the ISFUS series originated and that the
198 motivation for the meetings has been driven throughout by the enthusiasm and hard work
199 of his family. He welcomed the delegation by discussing the joyful nature of science. He
200 talked about happiness with examples from his own life. After requesting that everyone
201 recall their happiest memories, he asked them to stand up and join hands in a circle,
202 reminiscent of a mushroom fairy ring, around the auditorium. Rangel went on to talk
203 about intuition involved in scientific discovery and having an "open heart" during the
204 research process (Figure 5).

205 The Symposium was organized around seven general topics related to fungal
206 stress.

- 207 1. Stress mechanisms and responses in fungi: molecular biology, biochemistry,
208 biophysics, and cellular biology;
- 209 2. Fungal photobiology, clock regulation, and stress;
- 210 3. Fungal stress in industry;
- 211 4. Fungal biology in extreme environments;
- 212 5. Ionizing radiation, heat, and other stresses in fungal biology;
- 213 6. Stress in populations, fungal communities, and symbiotic interactions;
- 214 7. Stress in fungal pathogenesis.

215 The following text provides a synopsis of each topic, arranged in the order
216 presented during the Symposium.

217 **2.1 Stress mechanisms and responses in fungi: molecular biology, biochemistry,**
218 **biophysics, and cellular biology**

219 Representatives of the fungal kingdom occupy almost every conceivable niche on
220 Earth which is a testament to their versatility and evolutionary adaptation to their
221 environment. A broad understanding of how fungi have adapted to diverse environments
222 can come from genetic screening approaches that identify genes responsible for
223 conferring tolerance. Researchers can then drill down for a deeper understanding of how
224 these systems work at the molecular and evolutionary levels to explain the adaptation
225 process. A consequence of this is an appreciation of how environmental fluctuation might
226 challenge the viability of susceptible fungal species. The mechanisms involved in
227 coping/adapting to stress are as diverse as the array of fungal species studied. Regardless
228 of the stress/organism studied, rarely are the identified signaling and other biochemical
229 and physiological pathways and elements unique to one organism. In addition, the

230 function of stress-related pathways often spans growth, developmental, and reproductive
231 networks, which have functions in non-stress conditions (Brown et al., 2017; Rangel et al.,
232 2018).

233 **Martin Kupiec** gave the first presentation at ISFUS-2019. He focused on
234 telomeres, which are the ends of the linear eukaryotic chromosomes. Telomeres are
235 essential for maintaining the integrity of the genome and play important roles in aging
236 and cancer (Mersaoui and Wellinger, 2019). A systematic analysis identified ~500 genes
237 that regulate telomere length in the yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* (Askree et al., 2004;
238 Ungar et al., 2009). Kupiec's group also found that small molecules, such as ethanol,
239 caffeine, and acetic acid, can affect telomere length. Having a full list of genes and
240 physiological actuators enabled research about the interface between the genome and the
241 environment (to address the contributions of nature vs. nurture on physiological
242 outcomes). Kupiec reported finding genes that mediate the environmental signal
243 transduction to the telomere-regulating genes (Harari et al., 2019; Harari and Kupiec,
244 2018; Mersaoui and Wellinger, 2019; Romano et al., 2013).

245 **István Pócsi** talked about the Fungal Stress Response Database (FSRD) (de Vries
246 et al., 2017; Karányi et al., 2013) and Fungal Stress Database (FSD) (de Vries et al., 2017;
247 Orosz et al., 2018). The FSRD accommodates 43,725 stress protein orthologs identified
248 in 41 fully sequenced genomes of 39 fungal species (de Vries et al., 2017). The FSD is a
249 repository of 1,412 photos taken on agar plate colonies of 17 *Aspergillus* species, exposed
250 to oxidative, high-osmolarity, heavy metal, and cell wall integrity stress (de Vries et al.,
251 2017; Orosz et al., 2018). Data in the FSRD were used to identify stress response protein
252 orthologs in *Drechmeria coniospora* (Zhang et al., 2016b) and several *Aspergillus* spp.

253 (de Vries et al., 2017; Emri et al., 2018). Data in the FSRD and FSD were used (i) in
254 evolutionary biological studies in the aspergilli (Emri et al., 2018), and (ii) to shed light
255 on cadmium tolerance of *Aspergillus fumigatus* (Antal et al., 2019; Bakti et al., 2018;
256 Kurucz et al., 2018a).

257 **David E. Levin** discussed how various stresses activate the yeast SAPK Hog1
258 and how the cell mobilizes stress-specific outputs from activated Hog1. In response to
259 hyper-osmotic shock, Hog1 induces the production of glycerol and its accumulation
260 through closure of glycerol channel Fps1. Hog1 activated by the toxic metalloid arsenite
261 similarly induces closure of Fps1, the main entry port for this toxin. However, under
262 conditions of arsenite stress, cells do not accumulate glycerol. This is because *S.*
263 *cerevisiae* uses a methylated metabolite of arsenite to inhibit the first enzymatic step in
264 glycerol biosynthesis. Levin's work provides insight into the mechanisms by which Hog1,
265 as stimulated by two different stresses, can evoke physiologically coherent, but opposite,
266 outputs (Laz et al., 2019; Lee and Levin, 2018, 2019; Lee et al., 2019; Lee et al., 2013).

267 **Oded Yarden** talked about how the Nuclear DBF-related (NDR) kinase colonial
268 temperature sensitive-1 (*cot-1*) plays a role in the regulation of polar growth and
269 development in *Neurospora crassa* and other fungi (Ziv et al., 2009). *Cot-1* is a kinase in
270 the RAM pathway that is widely conserved in cell wall maintenance eukaryotes (Oshero
271 and Yarden, 2010; Saputo et al., 2012). Osmotic, oxidative, and other stresses result in
272 partial phenotypic suppression of the *cot-1* mutant defects (Gorovits and Yarden, 2003).
273 Some of the phenotypic responses involve type 2A phosphatases and the translational
274 regulator GUL1 (Herold et al., 2019; Herold and Yarden, 2017; Shomin-Levi and Yarden,
275 2017).

276 **Michelle Momany** explained that many fungal infections start with the inhalation
277 of spores from the environment. Despite the importance of spores to infection, little is
278 known about how the environment when sporulation occurs impacts fungal spores.
279 Momany's group used RNAseq to examine *A. fumigatus* conidia (asexual spores)
280 produced under several conditions including low Zn, high temperature, and high salt.
281 They found that conidial transcriptomes from differing conditions contain a large set of
282 common transcripts and a much smaller set of condition-enhanced transcripts. Generally,
283 the condition-enhanced transcripts do not appear to be unique, rather they appear to differ
284 mostly in level of expression.

285 **Jesús Aguirre**'s presentation addressed the signaling role of reactive oxygen
286 species (ROS) in the regulation of cell differentiation in *A. nidulans* and other fungi. He
287 showed that in *A. nidulans* NapA, a redox-regulated transcription factor, which is
288 homologous to yeast Yap1, is involved not only in the antioxidant response, but also in
289 the regulation of genes involved in nutrient assimilation, secondary metabolism, and
290 development, and how this is related to peroxiredoxin function (Mendoza-Martínez et al.,
291 2019; Mendoza-Martínez et al., 2017).

292 **Gustavo H. Goldman** discussed how the CrzA and ZipD transcription factors are
293 involved in calcium metabolism and the caspofungin paradoxical effect in the human
294 pathogenic species *A. fumigatus* (Ries et al., 2017). At low concentrations of the drug,
295 inhibition occurs, whereas that inhibition is lost at higher concentrations.

296 **John E. Hallsworth** began by explaining that we do not have any term or concept
297 to identify a stress-free state in microorganisms (Hallsworth, 2018). The talk focused on
298 what cellular stress actually is, taking a lucid tour around the logical geography of an

299 otherwise complex topic. The distinction between toxicity and stress was discussed
300 (Hallsworth, 2018), and data were presented relating to the water activity limit-for-life for
301 halophilic bacteria and Archaea (Lee et al., 2018; Stevenson et al., 2015) and the extreme
302 xerophile/halophile *Aspergillus penicillioides* (Stevenson et al., 2017). Hallsworth
303 concluded by summarizing the 20 years of work which led to a new limit-for-life on
304 Earth (Stevenson et al., 2017); this fascinating story revolved around a wooden owl
305 which was the source of the most xerophilic microbe thus-far discovered: a strain of *A.*
306 *penicillioides* (Hallsworth, 2019).

307 **2.2 Fungal photobiology, clock regulation, and stress**

308 The second day of the Symposium was devoted to fungal photobiology. Fungi use
309 light as an environmental signal to regulate developmental transitions, modulate their
310 direction of growth, and modify their metabolism. Fungi often synthesize protective
311 pigments, melanins, and carotenoids, in response to illumination because an excess of
312 light can produce reactive oxygen species and UV radiation can damage DNA (Brancini
313 et al., 2018; Brancini et al., 2019; Corrochano, 2019; Yu and Fischer, 2019). In addition,
314 the presence of light during fungal growth is known to up-regulate a variety of stress
315 genes that induce higher conidial tolerance to UV radiation, heat, and osmotic stress
316 (Dias et al., 2019; Rangel et al., 2015c; Rangel et al., 2011). Many organisms, including
317 fungi, have circadian clocks to anticipate daily changes in illumination, temperature, and
318 water availability/humidity, as well as several environmental signals, including light, that
319 regulate the activity of circadian clocks (Dunlap and Loros, 2017).

320 **Deborah Bell-Pedersen** stated that evidence supporting circadian clock
321 regulation of mRNA translation exists in several organisms (Caster et al., 2016; Jouffe et

322 al., 2013; Robles et al., 2014); however, the underlying mechanisms for translational
323 control are largely unknown. Bell-Pedersen's group discovered that the clock regulates
324 the activity of the *N. crassa* eIF2 α kinase CPC-3. Daytime active CPC-3 promotes
325 phosphorylation and inactivation of the conserved translation initiation factor eIF2 α ,
326 leading to reduced translation of specific mRNAs during the day and likely coordinating
327 mRNA translation with increased energy availability and reduced stress at night.

328 **Luis Larrondo's** thought-provoking talk was about light as a source of
329 information, stress, biotechnological applications, and art. He described how the model
330 species *N. crassa* can be used as a highly sensitive light sensor to record its environment,
331 effectively acting as a photocopier of information or the film in a pin hole camera. The
332 overlap between science and art was reflected in the gift of a *N. crassa* derived image,
333 which was presented to Pope Francis during his visit to Chile.

334 **Reinhard Fischer** focused on *A. nidulans* and *Alternaria alternata*, which are
335 two ascomycetes that are able to adapt to many different environments. Light is a reliable
336 indicator for potential stressful conditions, and light sensing is tightly coupled to stress
337 responses at the molecular level. For instance, the red-light sensor phytochrome uses the
338 HOG pathway for signal transduction. In addition, both fungi use a flavin-containing
339 protein as a blue-light receptor, and *A. alternata* an opsin for green light sensing.

340 Fischer's work focuses on the analysis of the interplay of the different light-sensing
341 systems and their link to stress adaptation (Igbalajobi et al., 2019; Yu and Fischer, 2019;
342 Yu et al., 2016), particularly the link between red light and temperature sensing via the
343 phytochrome FphA (Yu et al., 2019).

344 **Christina M. Kelliher** introduced compensation, a core principle of all circadian

345 clocks where the period of approximately 24 hours is maintained across a range of
346 physiologically relevant environmental conditions (Pittendrigh and Caldarola, 1973). A
347 handful of genes involved in transcriptional regulation are required for the *N. crassa*
348 clock to compensate at both high levels of glucose and in starvation conditions—an RNA
349 helicase *period-1* (Emerson et al., 2015), a co-repressor *rco-1* (Olivares-Yañez et al.,
350 2016), and a transcription factor repressor *csp-1* (Sancar et al., 2012). The full mechanism
351 of nutritional compensation, including upstream signaling pathways and downstream
352 regulation on core circadian clock factors, is not characterized in any eukaryotic model.
353 Kelliher and colleagues leveraged the whole genome knockout collection of *N. crassa*
354 (Colot et al., 2006) in a screen to identify genes that are required for clock compensation
355 under starvation, beginning with canonical carbon source signaling pathways, kinases,
356 and transcriptional regulators. Currently, two kinases and two novel RNA-binding
357 proteins have been identified as effectors required for normal nutritional compensation of
358 the clock at high and no glucose levels in *Neurospora* (Kelliher et al., 2019).

359 **Mikael Molin** highlighted the ability of *S. cerevisiae* to respond to light despite
360 lacking genes homologous to dedicated light receptors. Light sensing in this yeast is
361 intimately connected to oxidative stress resistance and a group of peroxidases and
362 peroxide receptors, peroxiredoxins, which seem to regulate stress-related kinases in a
363 unique manner involving hydrogen peroxide signaling. Utilizing a genome-wide genetic
364 screen, his group has also explored which parts of the cellular network that growth of *S.*
365 *cerevisiae* in the presence of light engages. The data may form a framework for
366 understanding connections between light exposure, protein synthesis, and stress-related
367 kinases such as the MAPKs and PKA in fungi and higher organisms (Bodvard et al., 2013;

368 Bodvard et al., 2017; Bodvard et al., 2011; Nystrom et al., 2012).

369 **Julia Schumacher** explained that fungi sharing light-flooded habitats with
370 phototrophic organisms suffer from light-induced stresses and experience altered light
371 spectra ('green gap') enriched for green and far-red light. The plant pathogenic
372 Leotiomycete *Botrytis cinerea* responds to light qualities covering the entire visible
373 spectrum and beyond and uses light to coordinate stress responses, growth, reproduction,
374 and host infection (Schumacher, 2017). The equally high number of photoreceptors in the
375 rock-inhabiting black Eurotiomycete *Knufia petricola* suggests that photoregulation is
376 equally important in mutualistic interactions of fungi with microbial phototrophs.

377 **Gerhard Braus** described how the coordination of the control of fungal reactions
378 to light is impaired if cellular protein degradation is disturbed. The COP9 signalosome
379 multiprotein complex is necessary for light regulation, stress responses, and development.
380 It also coordinates secondary metabolism in *A. nidulans* (Busch et al., 2007) and controls,
381 together with the protein substrate receptor exchange factor CandA/Cand1, the covalent
382 labeling of substrates with chains of the small modifier ubiquitin for proteasome-
383 mediated protein degradation (Braus et al., 2010). CandA of *A. nidulans* is required for
384 light regulation of development and secondary metabolite formation (Köhler et al., 2019).
385 The COP9 signalosome serves as the platform that interacts with numerous additional
386 proteins, such as the deubiquitinase UspA, which is required to fine-tune light controlled
387 development and secondary metabolism (Meister et al., 2019). Together, the specific
388 control of protein homeostasis plays an important role for light induced stress with
389 consequences in fungal development and secondary metabolism.

390 **Luis Corrochano** discussed how light regulates developmental pathways in most

391 fungi. Whereas the roles of light in the ecophysiology of plants and other primary
392 producers, or the neurology and physiology of animal systems, is widely appreciated; it
393 may seem counter-intuitive that heterotrophic fungi are controlled by this environmental
394 signal. Development and secondary metabolism are often coordinated through the activity
395 of the velvet protein complex (Bayram and Braus, 2012). In *N. crassa*, the velvet protein
396 VE-1 interacts in vegetative hyphae with the velvet protein VE-2 and the
397 methyltransferase LAE-1. This velvet complex regulates the growth of aerial hyphae and
398 the accumulation of carotenoids after light exposure in vegetative mycelia (Bayram et al.,
399 2019). Corrochano's group observed that VE-1 is unstable and proposed that the
400 regulation of VE-1 degradation is a relevant aspect of conidiation and its regulation by
401 light in *N. crassa*.

402 **Guilherme T. P. Brancini**'s talk focused on how transcriptomics and proteomics
403 can be combined to elucidate light responses in the entomopathogenic fungus
404 *Metarhizium acridum*. Exposing *M. acridum* mycelium to light resulted in changes at the
405 mRNA level for 1,128 genes or 11.3% of the genome (Brancini et al., 2019). High-
406 throughput proteomics revealed that the abundance of only 57 proteins changed
407 significantly under the same conditions. Light downregulated proteins involved in
408 translation, including subunits of the eukaryotic translation initiation factor 3, the eIF5A-
409 activating enzyme deoxyhypusine hydroxylase, and ribosomal proteins. As reducing and
410 reprogramming translational activity are known cellular responses to stress (Crawford
411 and Pavitt, 2019; Spriggs et al., 2010; Yamasaki and Anderson, 2008), this result
412 indicates that light acts as both a signal and a source of stress in *M. acridum*. The reduced
413 translational activity is thus a potential explanation for the small number of light-

414 regulated proteins. Therefore, measuring protein levels is essential to fully understand
415 light responses in fungi (Brancini et al., 2019).

416 **Gilberto U. L. Braga** examined how recent increases in consumer awareness
417 about and legislation regarding environmental and human health, as well as the urgent
418 need to improve food security, are driving increased demand for safer antimicrobials. A
419 step-change is needed in the approaches for controlling pre- and post-harvest diseases and
420 food-borne human pathogens. The use of light-activated antimicrobial substances for the
421 so-called photodynamic treatment of diseases is known to be effective in a clinical
422 context (Brancini et al., 2016; Tonani et al., 2018). They could be equally effective for
423 use in agriculture to control plant-pathogenic fungi and bacteria, and to eliminate food-
424 borne human pathogens from seeds, sprouted seeds, fruits, and vegetables (Fracarolli et
425 al., 2016; Gonzales et al., 2017). Braga took a holistic approach in reviewing recent
426 findings on (i) the ecology of naturally-occurring, (ii) photodynamic processes including
427 the light-activated antimicrobial activities of some plant metabolites, and (iii) fungus-
428 induced photosensitization of plants, against the backdrop of existing knowledge. The
429 inhibitory mechanisms of both natural and synthetic light-activated substances, known as
430 photosensitizers, were discussed in the contexts of microbial stress biology and
431 agricultural biotechnology.

432 **2.3 Fungal stress in industry**

433 Wednesday began with presentations linking fungi, industrial applications, and
434 stress in several ways. Notably, fungi are a continuous concern in the food industry as
435 they spoil numerous products. To discourage fungi from proliferating on nutrient-rich
436 food stuffs, several strategies are employed including pretreatments, storage conditions,

437 and preservatives. However, fungi can circumvent many of the obstacles used in food
438 production to prevent this. A small subset of fungi, “spoil” food, but others can enhance
439 the properties of food, make it more digestible, add vitamins, and protect against other
440 fungi that can form toxic compounds. Alternatively, fungi are used widely in industry to
441 produce metabolites, such as antibiotics and other drugs, organic acids, vitamins, and
442 enzymes. This can be by either liquid fermentation or solid-state fermentation, in which
443 the fungi are grown on grain or other solid material(s). Because of heat production, low
444 water activity, drying, cold-storage, freezing, and anoxia, fungi encounter several stresses
445 when present in food or during fermentation. As fungal strains used in biotechnology are
446 selected for their ability to potentially synthesize commercial amounts of product,
447 metabolic routings inside the cells make the desired product heavily burdened, far above
448 the “normal” level. This might lead to very specific stresses due to accumulation of
449 intermediates inside the cell. Further, expression of heterologous protein in a fungus may
450 result in the “unfolded protein response” (Guillemette et al., 2011). The following
451 contributions deal with these stresses with yeast cells, that have long been used as a
452 microbial workhorse for fermentation and other applications.

453 **Graeme M. Walker** discussed how during industrial yeast fermentation
454 processes, cells of *S. cerevisiae* are subjected to several physical, chemical, and
455 biological stress factors that can detrimentally affect ethanol yields and overall efficiency
456 of production. These stresses include ethanol stress osmostress, pH, low water activity,
457 and temperature shock, as well as biotic stress due to contaminating microorganisms.
458 Several physiological cell engineering approaches to mitigate stress during industrial
459 fermentations are available with beneficial impact not only for yeast, but more generally

460 for industrial fungal bioprocesses (Birch and Walker, 2000; Trofimova et al., 2010;
461 Walker, 1998; Walker and Basso, 2019; Walker and Walker, 2018).

462

463 **Thiago Olitta Basso** stated that during industrial fermentations, yeasts face a myriad of
464 stress factors (Della-Bianca et al., 2013). Additional obstacles arise in the second-
465 generation ethanol production process, where lignocellulosic residues are the substrates
466 for fermentation (Klinke et al., 2004). He discussed effects of major lignocellulosic
467 compounds on important quantitative physiological parameters of *S. cerevisiae* strains,
468 the organism of choice for ethanol production. Basso's group has also investigated how
469 the growth of *S. cerevisiae* under full anaerobiosis depends on the widely used anaerobic
470 growth factors, ergosterol and oleic acid (da Costa et al., 2018). For that purpose, a
471 continuous cultivation setup was employed. The lipid (fatty acid and sterol) composition
472 dramatically altered when cells were grown anaerobically without anaerobic growth
473 factors. These lipid alterations are probably related to the decreased fitness of cells when
474 exposed to typical stresses encountered in industry, e.g. low pH and chaotropicity caused
475 by high ethanol concentration (Walker and Basso, 2019)

476

477 **2.4 Fungal biology in extreme environments**

478 The next session of ISFUS-2019 focused on fungi in extreme environments. Very
479 few microbes, given the dynamic nature of their habitats and environmental events,
480 experience biophysically stable conditions or avoid hostile environmental challenges.
481 Stress and events that are biophysically or physicochemically extreme (or, at least,
482 challenging) are the norm for living systems (Araújo et al., 2018; Araújo et al., 2019;

483 Hallsworth, 2018; Lovett and St. Leger, 2015). However, some microbes seem to thrive
484 under conditions that are more extreme than those tolerated by most taxa. These include
485 the fungi that inhabit niches within the cryosphere, and those on rock surfaces or the
486 walls of artificial structures such as buildings and space craft.

487 **Laura Selbmann** works with *Friedmanniomyces endolithicus*, which is the most
488 widespread black fungus from the endolithic communities of the ice-free areas of
489 Victoria Land, Antarctica, (Selbmann et al., 2005), accounted as the closest Martian
490 analogue on Earth (Nienow and Friedmann, 1993; Onofri et al., 2004), indicating the
491 highest degree of adaptation and stress tolerance (Pacelli et al., 2018). Selbmann
492 presented the first comparative genomic study to highlight the peculiar traits of this
493 fungus to elucidate the genetic base of its success under extreme conditions. More than
494 60% of genes were duplicated in *F. endolithicus*, and among the other extremophiles used
495 as comparison, it had the highest number of unique protein-encoding genes, not shared
496 with others. Many of these over expressed genes were involved in meristematic growth
497 and cold adaptation, both characteristics fundamental for the success in a hyper-stressing
498 and hyper-cold environment.

499 **Anna Gorbushina** studies the interface between the atmosphere and mineral
500 substrates, which is the oldest terrestrial habitat (Gorbushina, 2007). Gorbushina and
501 colleagues isolated novel black fungi from desert rock surfaces (Nai et al., 2013) and
502 anthropogenic habitats such as building materials and solar panels (Martin-Sanchez et al.,
503 2018). Their studies revealed that microbial biofilms on solid subaerial surfaces are
504 dominated by highly stress-resistant microcolonial black fungi. Using one of them
505 (*Knufia petricola* strain A95) as a model (Nai et al., 2013; Noack-Schönmann et al.,

506 2014), Gorbushina's group conduct experiments to clarify interactions of black fungi
507 with inorganic substrates. Available mutants were used to determine the functional
508 consequences of changes in the outer cell wall envelopes – from excreted extracellular
509 polymeric substances (EPS) (Breitenbach et al., 2018) to layers of protective pigments. A
510 genetic toolbox to manipulate this representative of Chaetothyriales is in further
511 development. Gorbushina's long-term goal is to understand the fundamental mechanisms
512 of how black fungi are able (i) to adhere to dry atmosphere-exposed surfaces, (ii) to
513 survive multiple stresses, and (iii) to change the underlying substrates including rocks.

514 **Rocco L. Mancinelli** explained that Earth's biosphere has evolved for more than
515 3 billion years shielded by the atmosphere and magnetosphere that has protected
516 terrestrial life from the hostile outer space environment. Within the last 50 years, space
517 technology has provided tools for transporting terrestrial life beyond this protective shield
518 to study, *in situ*, their responses to selected conditions of space. Microbes have flown in
519 space since the early 1960s and nearly all organisms exposed to the space environment
520 were killed except *Bacillus subtilis* spores. Recent studies show that UV radiation and not
521 space vacuum is the primary cause of cell death in the short term. Within a spacecraft, the
522 immediate and primary physical factor organisms need to contend with is microgravity.
523 Data from the International Space Station and *Mir* illustrate that space station habitats are
524 conducive to fungal growth, especially *Aspergillus* and *Penicillium*. Data gathered from
525 space experiments provide a better understanding of the physiology of organisms and
526 their stress responses (De Middleler et al., 2019; Horneck et al., 2010; Mancinelli, 2015;
527 Nicholson et al., 2011; Onofri et al., 2012).

528

529 **2.5 Ionizing radiation, heat, and other stresses in fungal biology**

530 Confronting multiple stresses simultaneously is the norm for any living organism
531 and fungi are no exception to this (Rangel et al., 2018). Survival and pathogenesis depend
532 on the ability of fungi to overcome environmentally imposed stress factors or host
533 defenses, while successful fungal cultivation in industry depends on optimal conditions
534 for growth, physiology, and metabolite production. For simplicity, fungal stress factors
535 are often dealt with in isolation, but this often obscures the complexity of the different
536 stresses that can be experienced simultaneously and possible differences and/or
537 similarities between them and the stress responses involved. More attention should be
538 paid to the mechanisms involved in mitigating against multiple simultaneous stresses.
539 Furthermore, stress factors can induce specific or general cellular responses, while
540 intrinsic structural properties of fungi may also be effective against a range of stress
541 factors. A good example is fungal melanin which can play an important protective role
542 against irradiation, desiccation, and toxic metals, as well as others (Cordero et al., 2017;
543 Gorbushina, 2007). Multiple mechanisms exist for toxic metal tolerance, both intrinsic
544 and specific, with some leading to metal immobilization within and outside cells, and
545 external deposition as mineral forms (Gadd, 2017b). Such mechanisms have a key
546 significance in geomycology (Gadd, 2007). Several speakers discussed how the ability of
547 fungi to react to single and multiple stresses under a wide range of conditions is key to
548 their survival and participation in a range of important environmental and applied
549 processes.

550 The goal of **Ekaterina Dadachova's** study was to develop radiation adaptive
551 fungal strains through a protracted exposure to ²²⁵Actinium - a mixed α -, β -, and γ -emitter.

552 Dadachova's group aimed to develop strains that would be more sensitive to low levels of
553 radiation, and possibly develop the ability to discern between qualitatively different
554 forms of radiation. Their results demonstrated that a radio-stimulatory response in fungus
555 is due not only to direct interaction with ionizing radiation but is also a result of
556 interaction with some by-product of the ionizing radiation with the environment (Turick
557 et al., 2011). This response suggests that the adaptation positions the fungus to sense
558 radiation in its environment even in the absence of direct contact and respond to it in a
559 melanin-dependent fashion. Melanin pigment could be acting as a signaling molecule
560 through its redox capacity (Turick et al., 2011), and possibly like chlorophyll, it could
561 harness the energy generated by ionizing radiation if it is sensing and adjusting fungal
562 growth response (Malo and Dadachova, 2019).

563 **Geoffrey M. Gadd** described the impact of fungi on geological processes in the
564 context of geomycology. Fungi are important geoactive agents in soil, rock, and mineral
565 surface layers, whether free-living or in symbioses with phototrophs, and significant
566 biodeteriogens of rock and mineral-based substrates in the built environment, all these
567 processes involving metal and mineral transformations (Gadd, 2016; Gadd, 2017a; Gadd,
568 2017b). The abilities of fungi to mediate changes in metal mobility underpin a variety of
569 tolerance mechanisms and are also important in rock and mineral dissolution and
570 bioweathering, element cycling, and biomineralization (Gadd, 2016; Gadd, 2017a; Gadd,
571 2017b). Metal and mineral transformations by fungi are also of applied potential for
572 bioremediation, element biorecovery, and the production of useful micro- and nanoscale
573 biomineral products (Gadd, 2010; Liang and Gadd, 2017).

574 **Radamés J. B. Cordero** explained that melanins are polymeric pigments capable

575 of trapping much of the sunlight that reaches the Earth's surface. The absorbed radiation
576 energy is translated in the form of heat, and many organisms rely on pigments like
577 melanin to maintain comfortable body temperatures in cold environments. This
578 mechanism of pigment-mediated thermoregulation is also known as thermal melanism
579 and is observed in ectothermic animals, including arthropods and reptiles (Clusella
580 Trullas et al., 2007). Cordero discussed the first evidence that thermal melanism is also
581 relevant in microbiology (Cordero et al., 2018). A database of yeast isolates around the
582 globe revealed that, on average, dark-colored species are common at high latitudes. A
583 comparison between melanized and non-melanized clones of the yeast *Cryptococcus*
584 *neoformans* demonstrated that fungal melanin increases heat capture from sunlight and
585 provides a growth advantage under cold stress. A recent study on mushroom assemblages
586 confirmed the relevance of thermal melanism in microbiology (Krah et al., 2019). These
587 studies suggest that melanization is an ancient mechanism for harvesting energy and
588 introduce fungi as a new eukaryotic model system to study thermal biology.

589 **Tamás Emri** stated that the survival of fungi in an environment such as the
590 human body depends on how they can cope with the combination of stresses occurring
591 there rather than on how efficiently they can respond to a single stress. Combined stress
592 experiments demonstrated that even a relatively modest level of stress, which has no
593 detectable effect on cultures, can significantly modify the behavior of fungi
594 concomitantly suffering from another stress (Brown et al., 2014; Kurucz et al., 2018b).
595 Hence, the stress tolerance attributes determined *in vitro* in single stress experiments,
596 drug susceptibility values, and even the Achilles' heels of the fungal stress response
597 systems can change markedly when fungi grow *in vivo* under combined stress conditions.

598 Revealing and understanding the interplays and cross-talks between the responses to
599 various types of environmental stress may help us to set up new *in vitro* experimental
600 systems mimicking better *in vivo* conditions for fungi. Such experimental arrangements
601 would help us to understand the behavior and adaptation of fungi in their natural habitats
602 and, hence, to control their growths more effectively.

603 **Drauzio E. N. Rangel** stated that exposure of *Metarhizium robertsii* during
604 mycelial growth to one type of abiotic stress (e.g. nutritive stress, osmotic stress, heat
605 shock stress, or oxidative stress) induces higher conidial tolerance to many other stress
606 conditions (Rangel et al., 2006; Rangel et al., 2008), a phenomenon called cross-
607 protection (Rangel, 2011). The higher tolerance of conidia produced under abiotic stress
608 is due to high trehalose and mannitol accumulation inside conidia (Rangel et al., 2008;
609 Rangel and Roberts, 2018). However, there is a paucity of information about whether
610 growth under biotic stress can confer cross-protection against abiotic stresses. Rangel's
611 presentation focused on the implications of biotic stress caused by *Trichoderma*
612 *atroviride* in *M. robertsii*. *T. atroviride* causes nutritive, osmotic, and oxidative stresses in
613 its fungal opponents (Delgado-Jarana et al., 2006; Druzhinina et al., 2011). Therefore, his
614 research analyzed the stress tolerance of *M. robertsii* conidia produced under dual culture
615 with *T. atroviride* (Medina et al., 2020).

616 **2.6 Stress in populations, fungal communities, and symbiotic interactions**

617 Competition for limited resources is the most common mode of interaction in
618 fungal communities. Consequently, fungi have evolved a multitude of defense
619 mechanisms that allow them to protect their habitat from aggressive invaders. Above this,
620 the obligate (mycoparasitism) and facultative fungivory appear to be essentially more

621 widespread than previously considered. The increasing numbers of genome-wide studies
622 evidence the long evolutionary history of interfungal relations (Druzhinina et al., 2011;
623 Ujor et al., 2018).

624 **Irina Druzhinina** presented her investigation about the competitive interaction
625 between the two environmentally opportunistic biotrophic hypocrealean fungi. Contrary
626 to numerous cases of a 'deadlock' reaction when the growth of contacted fungi remains
627 arrested, fungi such as *Trichoderma guizhouense* can overgrow *Fusarium oxysporum*,
628 cause sporadic cell death, and inhibit its growth (Zhang et al., 2016a). Transcriptomic
629 analysis of this interaction found that *T. guizhouense* underwent a succession of
630 metabolic stresses while *F. oxysporum* responded relatively neutrally but used the
631 constitutive expression of several toxin-encoding genes as a protective strategy. Because
632 of these toxins, *T. guizhouense* could not approach this competitor on the substrate
633 surface and attacked *F. oxysporum* from above. The success of *T. guizhouense* was
634 secured by excessive production of hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂), which was stored in
635 microscopic bag-like guttation droplets hanging on the contacting hyphae. The deletion
636 of NADPH oxidase *nox1* and its regulator, *nor1*, in *T. guizhouense* led to a substantial
637 decrease in H₂O₂ formation with concomitant loss of antagonistic activity (Zhang et al.,
638 2019).

639 **Florian F. Bauer** explained that stress responses in microorganisms have
640 primarily been investigated with regards to physical or chemical factors, and impressive
641 data sets have been accumulated. In *S. cerevisiae*, these data provide one of the most
642 systematic and widest evaluation of stress responses of any biological system. Yet, it can
643 be argued that the evolutionary relevance of stresses imposed by environmental is less

644 significant than stresses that are due to the presence of competing microorganisms. An
645 integrated approach, including the analysis of multispecies consortia (Bagheri et al.,
646 2018), laboratory-based evolution with biotic selection pressures, synthetic ecology
647 (Naidoo et al., 2019), genome sequencing, and transcriptome analysis (Shekhawat et al.,
648 2019), suggested several mechanisms by which yeast respond to biotic stresses and
649 challenges in multispecies systems, including metabolic adaptations to optimize resource
650 utilization (Bagheri et al., 2018), modulation of cell wall composition and properties
651 (Rossouw et al., 2018), and the importance of direct physical contact (Rossouw et al.,
652 2018) between cells in regulating the response to the presence of other species.

653 **Natalia Requena** explained that microorganisms are permanently challenged
654 with hazardous environmental conditions that restrict their potential for survival and
655 reproduction. To overcome this, many of them evolutionarily opted for a life in symbiosis.
656 Fungi from the Glomeromycotina engage in mutualistic interaction with plant roots
657 starting more than 450 million years ago. Since then, plants have provided fungi with
658 carbohydrates and lipids in return for improved water uptake, drought tolerance, and
659 inorganic fertilization, especially phosphate. The arbuscular mycorrhizal (AM) symbiosis
660 is a fine-tuned regulated process where fungal colonization is limited to the root cortex,
661 contrasting with fungal parasitic interactions that usually invade the vascular cylinder.
662 This is remarkable considering that AM fungi are obligate symbionts and need to feed on
663 photoassimilates during their *in planta* growth to complete their life cycle. To do that,
664 AM fungi must first sort out the defense barriers of the host during colonization and then
665 use carbon resources allocated to the root without provoking a parasitic invasion.
666 Uncovering the molecular mechanisms of how plant and AM fungi recognize each other

667 to achieve an almost perfect relationship is the focus of this work (Heck et al., 2016;
668 Helber et al., 2011; Kloppholz et al., 2011; Tisserant et al., 2013)

669 **Jan Dijksterhuis** explained that spores are excellent structures for distribution of
670 fungi, and are omnipresent in air, water, soil, and on surfaces. Their shape, mode of
671 formation, dormancy, and stress resistance are highly variable between the species.
672 Airborne spores encounter different types of stress including those caused by transient
673 dehydration, UV radiation, and heat. These spores often contaminate and spoil food, and
674 knowledge of variation in the stress resistance between strains of the same fungal species
675 is important for risk assessment. The causes of heterogeneity in stress resistance of spores
676 include age of the colony or the spore and the conditions during spore formation.
677 Furthermore, such variation occurs even within one colony. His group used the biobank
678 of the Westerdijk Institute, one of the world's largest culture collections of fungi, to
679 select over a hundred strains of the food spoilage fungus *Paecilomyces variotii*. The
680 fungal strains were cultivated on a standard malt extract medium, asexual spores (conidia)
681 were harvested, and the heterogeneity of heat resistance evaluated. The results found that
682 D_{60} values (time needed to kill 90% of the spores at a temperature of 60 °C) vary
683 approximately seven-fold. Some of these strains produce conidia with the highest heat
684 resistance ever reported for conidia. Other characteristics such as cell size, conidia
685 formation, and compatible solute levels vary within and between the fungal strains
686 (Teertstra et al., 2017; van den Brule et al., 2019).

687 **2.7 Stress in fungal pathogenesis**

688 The final topic focused on how stress responses play critical roles in fungal
689 pathogenesis. In general, whether they are animals or plants, hosts impose stresses on

690 fungal invaders in an effort to prevent colonization or fight an established infection.
691 Therefore, to thrive, fungal pathogens must acclimate to, circumvent, and/or detoxify
692 these host-imposed stresses. At the same time, pathogenic fungi must tune their
693 metabolism to the available nutrients in their immediate microenvironment. This nutrient
694 adaptation is tightly linked with stress adaptation, partly because growth control is
695 intimately linked with stress adaptation, and partly because metabolism provides the
696 requisite energy for stress adaptation and detoxification mechanisms for some stressors.
697 These links were illustrated by several speakers who described signaling pathways that
698 coordinate stress and nutrient responses in evolutionarily divergent fungal pathogens.

699 **Alexander Idnurm** outlined how fungi are subjected to high levels of stress when
700 exposed to antifungal chemicals, restricting their growth or, in severe cases, killing them.
701 Fungicides are used widely as therapies against human mycoses and in agriculture against
702 plant diseases, but a number of molecular mechanisms can alter fungi to confer resistance
703 to fungicides and therefore reduce the stress (Fisher et al., 2018). A commonly-used class
704 of fungicide, the azoles, target the ergosterol biosynthesis enzyme Erg11 (also known as
705 Cyp51). Mutations can occur within the coding region of the gene to change protein
706 structure. Another system for increasing resistance is to change the promoter region of
707 *erg11*. Isolation of azole-resistant mutants of the plant pathogenic fungus *Leptosphaeria*
708 *maculans* was achieved using a screen on plants exposed to fungicides (Van de Wouw et
709 al., 2017). This revealed a number of potential changes in the genome of the fungus,
710 including in the *erg11* promoter, which are linked to altered responses to agricultural
711 fungicides. The research extends beyond *L. maculans* in two ways. First, a current
712 limitation to testing for the efficacy of antifungal agents is that the assays use growth

713 under *in vitro* conditions, which may not reflect what occurs during disease. Second, the
714 property of large AT-rich DNA regions in the *L. maculans* genome may contribute to the
715 evolution of resistance, and such structures are found in many filamentous ascomycete
716 species (Testa et al., 2016).

717 **Alistair J. P. Brown** explained that some fungi have evolved anticipatory
718 responses that enhance their fitness by protecting them against impending environmental
719 challenges (Brown et al., 2019; Mitchell et al., 2009). The major fungal pathogen
720 *Candida albicans* exploits specific host signals to activate defenses against our innate
721 immune defenses. Glucose enhances oxidative stress resistance and protects the fungus
722 against phagocytic killing (Rodaki et al., 2009). Meanwhile, lactate and hypoxia trigger
723 the masking of β -glucan (a major pathogen-associated molecular pattern at the fungal cell
724 surface), thereby reducing phagocytic recognition and engulfment (Ballou et al., 2016;
725 Pradhan et al., 2018). Therefore, as *C. albicans* adapts to the nutrients and stresses in host
726 niches, the fungus triggers anticipatory responses that promote immune evasion as well as
727 its fitness *in vivo* (Brown et al., 2019).

728 **Alexandra C. Brand** discussed how opportunistic fungal pathogens generally
729 rely on mechanisms that otherwise underpin normal cell homeostasis to persist and cause
730 disease in immune-deficient patient groups. Calcium-calmodulin signaling, which acts
731 via calcineurin and its transcription factor, Crz1, is one such pathway (Brand et al., 2007;
732 Chen et al., 2014; Karababa et al., 2006; Kraus and Heitman, 2003; Pianalto et al., 2019).
733 Laboratory methods for studying stress responses employ commonly-used compounds,
734 including hydrogen peroxide, NaCl, and the surfactant sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS), to
735 generate oxidative, osmotic, and membrane stress, respectively. To understand the link

736 between cell stress and calcium-flux, Brand's group has adapted a genetically-encoded,
737 intracellular calcium reporter in *C. albicans* and tested its output in the presence of
738 compounds that induce well-characterized cell responses. A key finding was that each
739 stress condition induced a unique calcium-flux response and recovery signature, which
740 distinguish between short and longer-term stress adaptation mechanisms. This new work
741 paves the way for a better understanding of calcium flux and its interaction with stress
742 signaling pathways in *C. albicans*.

743 **Koon Ho Wong** studies the opportunistic fungal pathogen *Candida glabrata*
744 (Fidel et al., 1999), which can survive and multiply inside macrophage (Kaur et al., 2007;
745 Otto and Howard, 1976; Roetzer et al., 2010; Seider et al., 2011) This ability is essential
746 for its virulence. Details on the immediate *C. glabrata* response to macrophage
747 phagocytosis and how it survives and multiplies within macrophage are not well
748 understood. He presented a systematic analysis on genome-wide transcription changes of
749 *C. glabrata* in high temporal resolution upon macrophage phagocytosis and the
750 regulatory mechanisms underlying specific transcription responses to macrophage.

751 **Elis C. A. Eleutherio** examined the use of *S. cerevisiae* to investigate the
752 molecular mechanisms of human diseases. A considerable number of yeast and human
753 genes perform the same roles in both organisms, meaning that the expression of a human
754 gene can be replaced for that of the yeast. One of those conserved genes is *SOD1*, which
755 codes for Cu, Zn superoxide dismutase. Around 20% of familial Amyotrophic Lateral
756 Sclerosis (fALS) cases are attributed to heterozygotic mutations in the *SOD1* gene.
757 Consequently, the *S. cerevisiae* cell has long served as an effective research model for
758 studies of oxidative stress response. Exponential-phase glucose-grow yeast cells only

759 ferment and, consequently, show low levels of reactive oxygen species (ROS), which
760 increase in chronologically-aged cells. This study sheds light into the effects of fALS
761 Sod1 mutations on inclusion formation, dynamics, and antioxidant response, opening
762 novel avenues for investigating the role of fALS Sod1 mutations in pathogenesis.

763 **Renata C. Pascon** emphasized that fungal infections can be life threatening and
764 difficult to treat. Only a few antifungal options exist for treatment. Cryptococcosis is one
765 of these invasive fungal infections caused by *C. neoformans*, a fungal pathogen of clinical
766 importance and used as a biological model for virulence and pathogenesis studies. Her
767 research is about the regulatory circuit that governs sulfate uptake and sulfur amino acid
768 biosynthesis aiming to identify a novel target for antifungal development. Pascon's group
769 deleted a major transcription factor (Cys3) that governs sulfur amino acid biosynthesis
770 and found it to be essential for virulence (Calvete et al., 2019; de Melo et al., 2019;
771 Fernandes et al., 2015; Martho et al., 2019; Martho et al., 2016).

772 **Claudia B. L. Campos** was the final speaker at the Symposium. She works with
773 *Paracoccidioides* spp., which are the agents of paracoccidioidomycosis, a systemic
774 mycosis found in Brazil and other South American countries. Calcineurin, a Ca²⁺-
775 calmodulin-dependent phosphatase, regulates processes related to cell dimorphism and
776 proliferation in *Paracoccidioides brasiliensis* through a yet unknown mechanism.
777 Campos' group found that calcineurin inhibition in yeast cells induces enlargement of
778 lipid bodies, which prevents cells from uptaking or oxidizing glucose. The proteomic
779 profile of yeast cells revealed that inhibition of calcineurin for 24 h leads to an overall
780 reprogramming of the metabolism, with an increase in protein degradation while protein
781 synthesis is resting, alteration in beta-oxidation, and synthesis of lipids, an apparent

782 stimulation of gluconeogenesis and glyoxylate cycle, followed by an extensive change in
783 mitochondrial function. Their work aims to understand how calcineurin regulates
784 fundamental processes that are behind its role on cell fitness to environmental changes
785 in *Paracoccidioides* spp. (Matos et al., 2013; Ribeiro et al., 2018).

786 **3 Awards**

787 **3.1 Elsevier student awards**

788 To apply for the Elsevier awards at ISFUS 2019, students had to submit a
789 manuscript about their research. Two students were selected based on their articles,
790 receiving certificates in the categories: Silver (US \$ 300) and Bronze (US \$ 200). The
791 Silver Award was given to Vitor Martins de Andrade, a PhD student advised by Katia
792 Conceição from the Universidade Federal de São Paulo in São José dos Campos, SP,
793 Brazil. Vitor was selected based on his manuscript “Antifungal and anti-biofilm activity
794 of designed derivatives from Kyotorphin” (Martins de Andrade et al., 2019). The Bronze
795 Award was given to Brigida de Almeida Amorim Spagnol for her work titled “Maturity
796 favors longevity and downregulation of aging genes in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*
797 submitted to high hydrostatic pressure” (Spagnol et al., 2019). Brigida is doing her PhD
798 with Patricia M.B. Fernandes at the Universidade Federal do Espírito Santo, Vitória, ES,
799 Brazil (Figure 6).

800 **3.2 *Journal of Fungi* student award**

801 The winner of the *Journal of Fungi* Award for the best poster was Marlene
802 Henríquez Urrutia from Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile, Santiago, Chile. She is
803 a PhD student of Dr. Luis Larrondo and presented a poster titled “Circadian regulation of

804 a mycoparasitic interaction between *Botrytis cinerea* and *Trichoderma atroviride*”
805 (Figure 7).

806 3.3 Award to Drauzio Eduardo Naretto Rangel

807 At the closing ceremony of ISFUS-2019, and on behalf of the Organizing
808 Committee, John E. Hallsworth and Luis M. Corrochano gave an overview of the ISFUS
809 series. These meetings have been convivial gatherings, bringing together international
810 and Brazilian scientists for a shared scientific (as well as cultural and social) experience.
811 Thus far, there have been 81 ISFUS speakers, coming from 24 countries. Hallsworth
812 highlighted the world-leading mycological research endeavors of Brazilian science in
813 relation to entomopathogens (biological control), biodiversity, trehalose metabolism, UV
814 stress, and bioethanol by explaining how important it is for international delegates to
815 interact with Brazilian students, academics, and industry. He detailed how the ISFUS
816 special issues of 2015 (*Current Genetics*) and 2018 (*Fungal Biology*) have been
817 successful. For example, ISFUS special-issue papers make up 9 out of 10 most-cited
818 papers in *Current Genetics* for 2015, and all 10 of the most-cited papers in *Fungal*
819 *Biology* for 2018 (Web of Science, on 20 May 2019). ISFUS has also generated new
820 collaborations between participants, new funding streams, and new lines of scientific
821 inquiry, joint publications, and exchange of students between participants to support joint
822 research projects. This exemplifies how the fungal stress meetings can generate impacts
823 beyond the immediate field. Furthermore, these impacts can be as varied as they are
824 indeterminate. Hallsworth also explained that each ISFUS appears to be even more
825 convivial and scientifically stimulating than the last.

826 Drauzio E. N. Rangel, he went on to say, has acted as an ambassador for Brazil,

827 and for Brazilian mycology, through the ISFUS series of symposia. Rangel also has his
828 own innovative way of doing science, is scholastic in his research style, is highly
829 collaborative, and has a series of unique research outputs that also stimulate new lines of
830 experimentation in other research groups. Hallsworth stated that Rangel has made a
831 consistent, unique, and profound contribution to field of fungal stress. On behalf of the
832 Committee, Corrochano and Hallsworth then surprised Rangel by presenting him with an
833 award, in the form of a glass globe, inscribed with the words: “Awarded for Outstanding
834 Contribution to Mycology to Professor Drauzio E. N. Rangel at III International
835 Symposium on Fungal Stress & conferred by the Organizing Committee, May 2019, (São
836 José dos Campos, SP, Brazil).” Rangel responded to the award with gratitude and tears
837 (Figure 8).

838 **4 Excursion**

839 The weekend after ISFUS-2019 most of the speakers traveled to São Sebastião for
840 a scientific retreat at the beach. On Saturday, they partook of a traditional Brazilian
841 barbeque on a chartered boat. This was an exquisite opportunity for the participants to
842 become better acquainted with each other, form new collaborations and friendships while
843 thoroughly enjoying another aspect of Brazilian hospitality (Figure 9).

844

845 **5 The next ISFUS in 2021**

846 Rangel already began planning the fourth ISFUS, even before the third ISFUS
847 was completed and eleven speakers have already confirmed their presence
848 <https://isfus2021.wordpress.com/>. During ISFUS-2019, Jesús Aguirre proposed a join

849 meeting combining ISFUS-2021 with the International Fungal Biology Conference
850 (IFBC). This international conference began in 1965 and has taken place in several
851 different countries: UK 1965, USA 1973, Switzerland 1980, UK 1987, USA 1991,
852 Germany 1996, The Netherlands 1999, Mexico 2002, France 2006, Mexico 2009,
853 Germany 2013, and South Korea 2017, but this will be the first edition in South America.
854 Therefore, we cordially invite you to São José dos Campos, Brazil, for the IV ISFUS and
855 XIII IFBC in June of 2021. We are confident that a joint ISFUS-IFBC meeting will bring
856 together complementary and exciting cutting-edge fields of fungal biology that should be
857 attractive to many researchers young and old, from all over the world.

858

859 **6 Conclusions**

860 The presentations at ISFUS-2019, which covered approximately 30 fungal species,
861 collectively highlight the diversity of responses that fungi can trigger to protect
862 themselves. What general themes emerged? The first was the challenge in providing a
863 clear definition of what stress would mean to a species. The second was the extensive use
864 of genomic-level methods to analyze the impact of stress on fungi. The third was how
865 fungi relate to time, and fourth about interactions with the lithosphere. Fifth, novel
866 stresses and stress responses were identified. Finally, it is clear that there is substantially
867 more to uncover about how fungi sense and respond to stress in their environment.

868

869

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1573 FIGURE LEGENDS

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1576 Figure 1. Speakers of the third ISFUS in 2019 held in São José dos Campos, SP, Brazil.
1577 Front row from left to right: Drauzio E. N. Rangel, Amanda E. A. Rangel, Alene Alder-
1578 Rangel. Second row from left to right: Thiago Olitta Basso (Brazil), Graeme M. Walker
1579 (UK), David E. Levin (USA), Gilberto U.L. Braga (Brazil), Irina Druzhinina
1580 (Russia/China), Julia Schumacher (Germany), Rocco L. Mancinelli (USA), Anna
1581 Gorbushina (Russia/Germany), Natalia Requena (Spain/Germany), Laura Selbmann
1582 (Italy), and Luis Corrochano (Spain). Third row from left to right: Alexander Idnurm
1583 (Australia), Jesús Aguirre (Mexico), Gustavo H. Goldman (Brazil), Chris Koon Ho Wong
1584 (Macau), Claudia B. L. Campos (Brazil), Oded Yarden (Israel), Martin Kupiec (Israel),
1585 Deborah Bell-Pedersen (USA), Christina M. Kelliher (USA), Michelle Momany (USA),
1586 Alexandra C. Brand (UK), and Jan Dijksterhuis (The Netherlands). Fourth row from left
1587 to right: Tamás Emri (Hungary), Ekaterina Dadachova (Russia/Canada), István Pócsi
1588 (Hungary), Alistair J. P. Brown (UK), Geoffrey M. Gadd (UK), Reinhard Fischer
1589 (Germany), Luis Larrondo (Chile), Guilherme T. P. Brancini (Brazil), Gerhard Braus
1590 (Germany), Florian F. Bauer (South Africa), Mikael Molin (Sweden), Radamés J.B.
1591 Cordero (USA), and John E. Hallsworth (UK).

1592

1593 Figure 2. Meet the speakers banner. This banner was printed on a poster and placed in the
1594 auditorium so everyone could remember their preferred speaker's names for future
1595 scientific discussion. Below the speakers' pictures are the logos of the grant agencies and
1596 sponsors.

1597

1598

1599 Figure 3. Logo of the third International Symposium on Fungal Stress (ISFUS-2019).
1600 This figure illustrates some of the stress parameters that fungi are subjected to such as
1601 ionizing radiation, acidic and alkaline environments, hypoxic or anoxic conditions,
1602 poisons in general such as genotoxic and oxidative products, UV radiation from the sun,
1603 pollution from industry and agriculture, salt stress, nutritive stress, and heat from solar
1604 radiation and other sources.

1605

1606 Figure 4. Speakers at the Vicentina Aranha Park, São José dos Campos, SP, Brazil.

1607

1608 Figure 5. Speakers and participants holding hands and sharing their happy moments.

1609

1610 Figure 6. Elsevier Student Awards. From left to right: Alene Alder-Rangel, Vitor Martins
1611 de Andrade, Brigida de Almeida Amorim Spagnol, and Drauzio E. N. Rangel

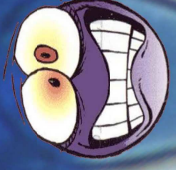
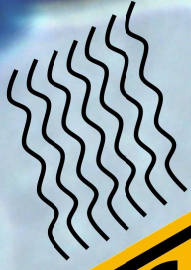
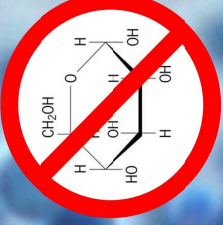
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- 1613 Figure 7. Journal of Fungi Student Award. From left to right: Alene Alder-Rangel,
1614 Drauzio E. N. Rangel, Marlene Henríquez Urrutia, and Luis Larrondo
1615
- 1616 Figure 8. Award given to Drauzio E. N. Rangel during the closing ceremony of the III
1617 International Symposium on Fungal Stress. A) Drauzio E. N. Rangel, John Hallsworth,
1618 and Luis Corrochano. B) Drauzio E. N. Rangel, Alene Alder-Rangel, and Luis
1619 Corrochano. C) Glass globe inscribed with the words: “Awarded for Outstanding
1620 Contribution to Mycology to Professor Drauzio E. N. Rangel at III International
1621 Symposium on Fungal Stress & conferred by the Organizing Committee, May 2019, (São
1622 José dos Campos, SP, Brazil)”.
- 1623
- 1624 Figure 9. Participants and speakers of the III ISFUS in the excursion to the beach in São
1625 Sebastião, São Paulo, Brazil: A) outside the excursion bus and B) on the boat.
1626



International Symposium on Fungal Stress

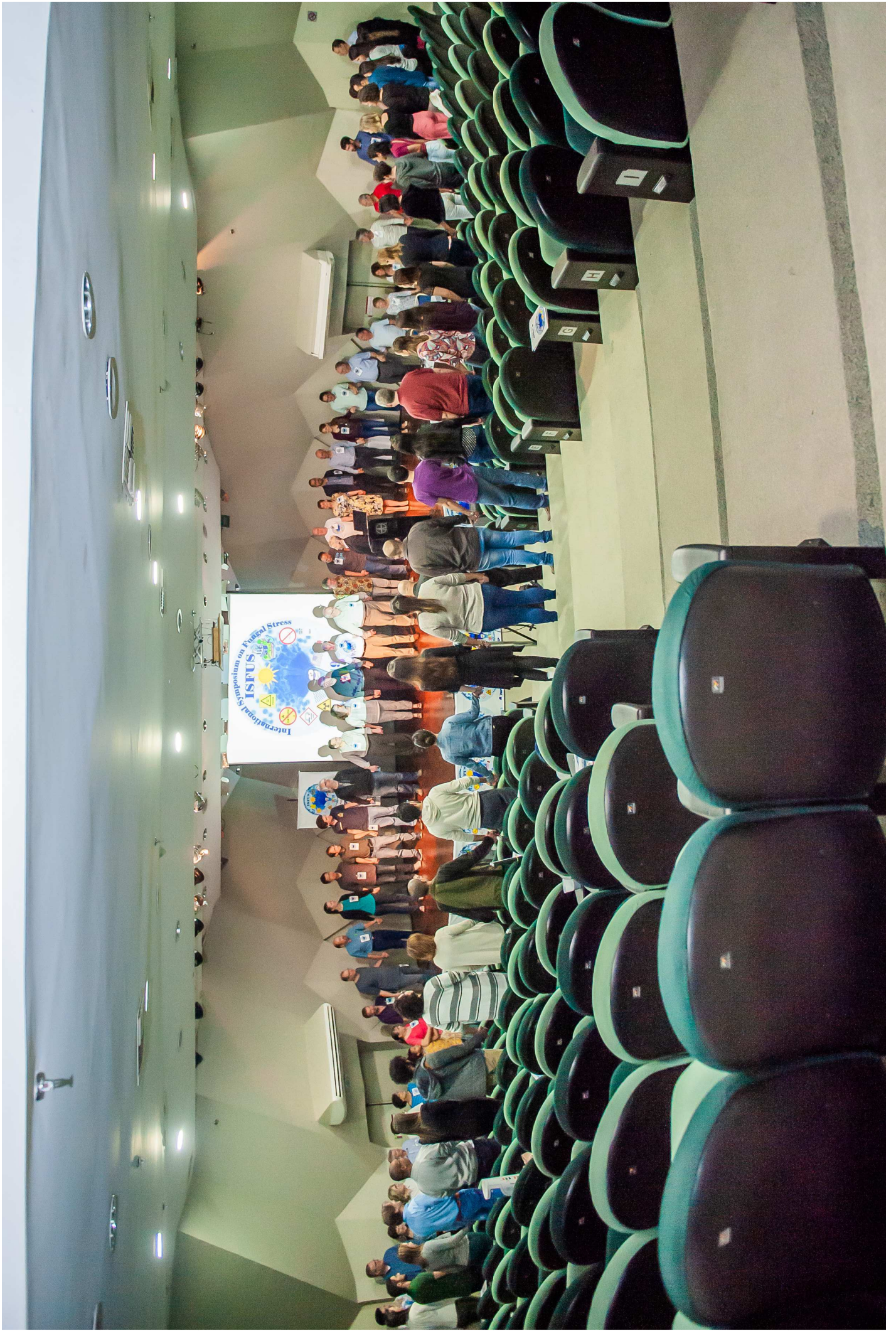
ISEFUS



2019

São José dos Campos, SP, Brazil







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Meet the Speakers

Certificate



