

Classification of Eukaryotes

5.1 The History of Eukaryotes

- First eukaryotic cells on earth approximately 2 billion years ago
- Evidence points to these eukaryotic cells evolving from prokaryotic organisms through intracellular **symbiosis**
 - Eukaryotic **organelles** originated from prokaryotic cells trapped inside of them
 - First primitive eukaryotes- probably single-celled and independent
 - Eventually formed colonies
 - Cells within colonies became specialized
 - Evolved in to multicellular organisms
- Eukaryotes have many levels of cellular complexity

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TABLE 5.1	Eukaryotic Organisms Studied in Microbiology	
Always Unicellular	May Be Unicellular or Multicellular	Always Multicellular
Protozoa	Fungi Algae	Helminths (have unicellular egg or larval forms)

5.2 Form and Function of the Eukaryotic Cell: External Structures

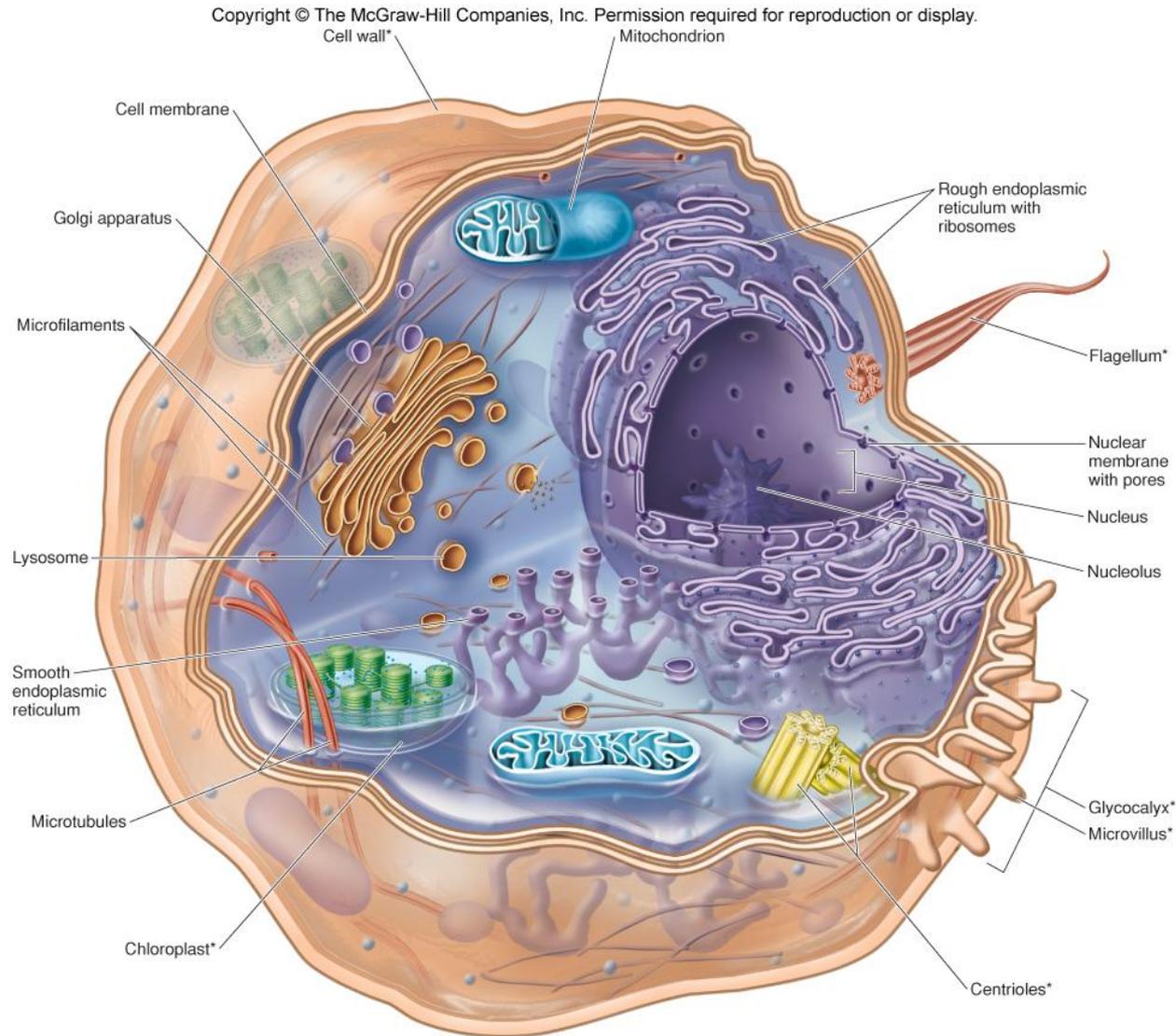


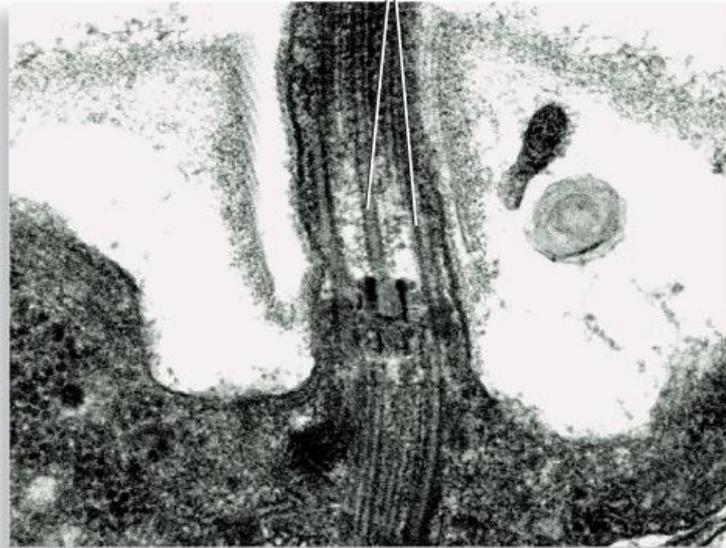
Figure 5.2

*Structure not present in all cell types

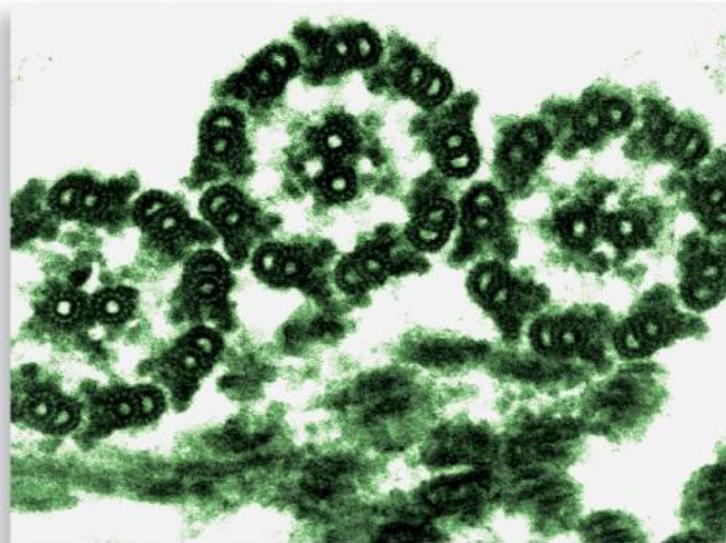
Locomotor Appendages: Cilia and Flagella

- Eukaryotic flagella are much different from those of prokaryotes
 - 10X thicker
 - Structurally more complex
 - Covered by an extension of the cell membrane
- A single flagellum contains regularly spaced microtubules along its length
 - 9 pairs surrounding a single pair
 - The 9 + 2 arrangement

Microtubules



(a)



(b)

Figure 5.3

- Cilia- similar to flagella but some differences
 - Shorter
 - More numerous
 - Can also function as feeding and filtering structures

The Glycocalyx

- Most eukaryotic cells have this outermost boundary that comes into direct contact with the environment
- Usually composed of polysaccharides
- Appears as a network of fibers, a slime layer, or a capsule
- Functions
 - Protection
 - Adhesion
 - Reception of signals
- The layer beneath the glycocalyx varies among eukaryotes
 - Fungi and most algae have a thick, rigid cell wall
 - Protozoa and animal cells do not have this cell wall

Form and Function of the Eukaryotic Cell: Boundary Structures

- Cell Wall
 - Rigid
 - Provide support and shape
 - Different chemically from prokaryotic cell walls
 - Fungi
 - Thick, inner layer of chitin or cellulose
 - Thin outer layer of mixed glycans
 - Algae
 - Varied in chemical composition
 - May contain cellulose, pectin, mannans, and minerals

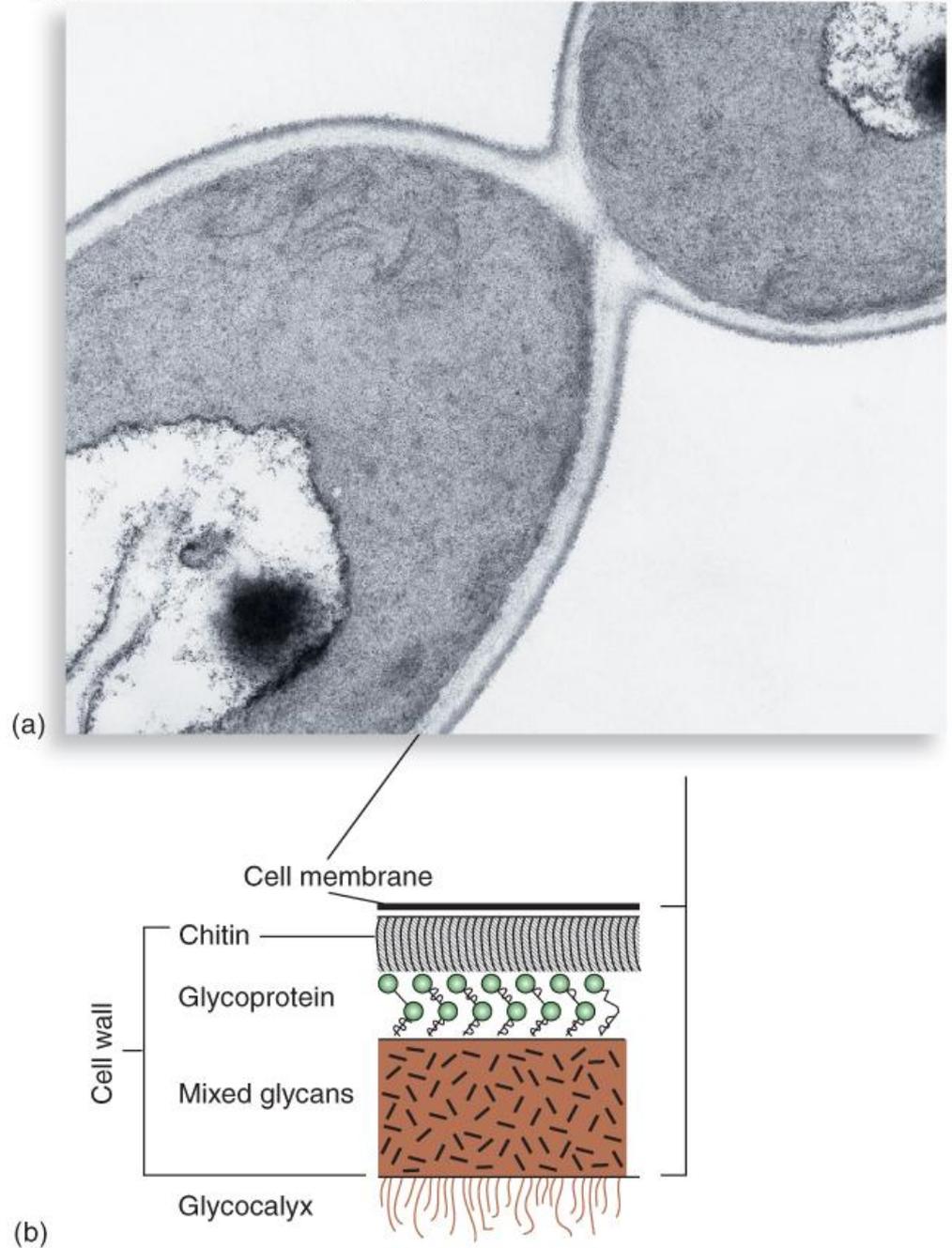


Figure 5.5

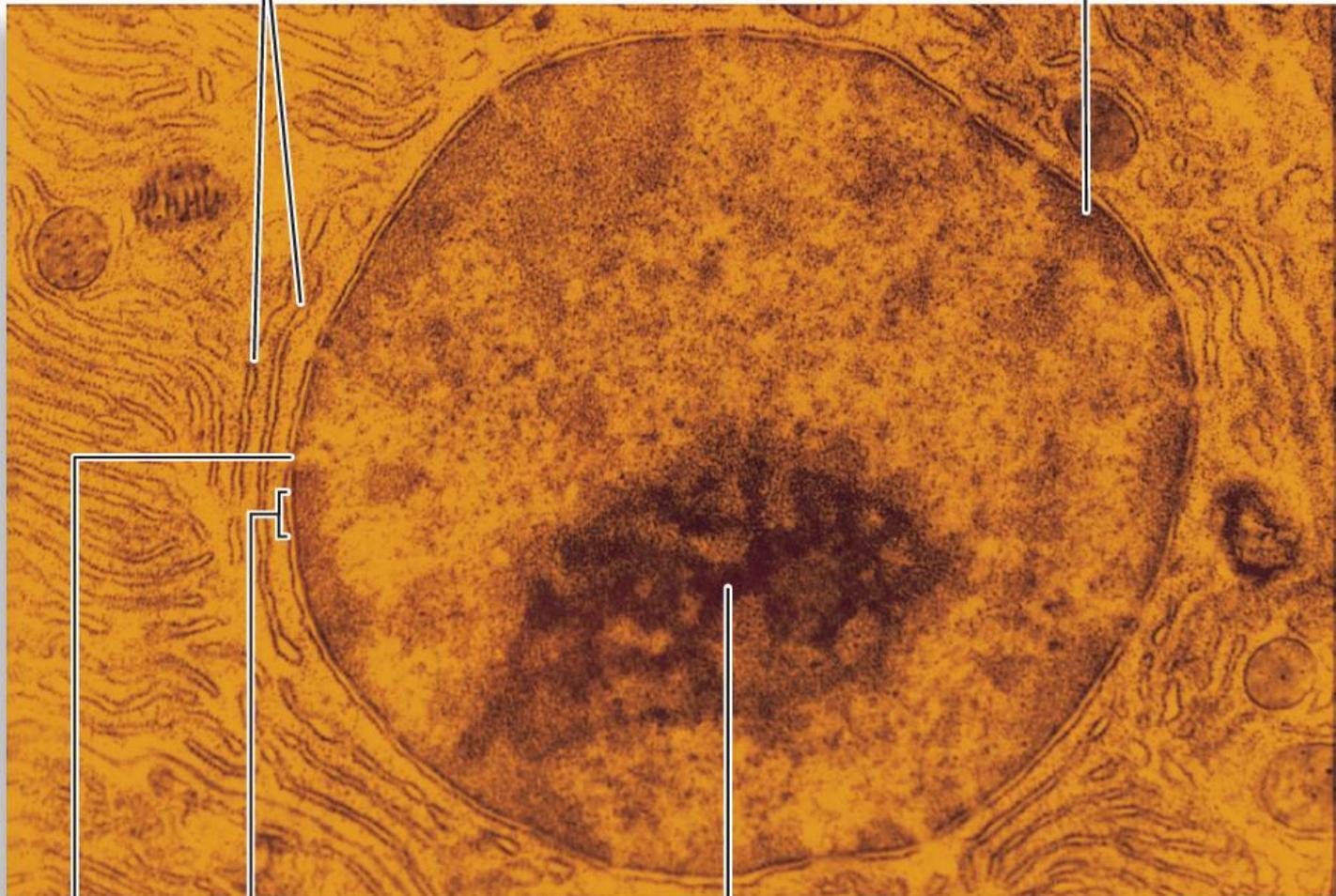
- Cytoplasmic Membrane
 - Bilayer of phospholipids with protein molecules embedded
 - Also contain sterols
 - Gives stability
 - Especially important in cells without a cell wall
 - Selectively permeable

5.3 Form and Function of the Eukaryotic Cell: Internal Structures

- The Nucleus: The Control Center
 - Separated from the cytoplasm by a nuclear envelope
 - Two parallel membranes separated by a narrow space
 - Perforated with nuclear pores
 - Filled with nucleoplasm
 - Contains the **nucleolus**
 - rRNA synthesis
 - Collection area for ribosomal subunits
 - **Chromatin**
 - Comprises the **chromosomes**
 - Long, linear DNA molecules
 - Bound to **histone** proteins
 - Visible during **mitosis**

Endoplasmic reticulum

Chromatin

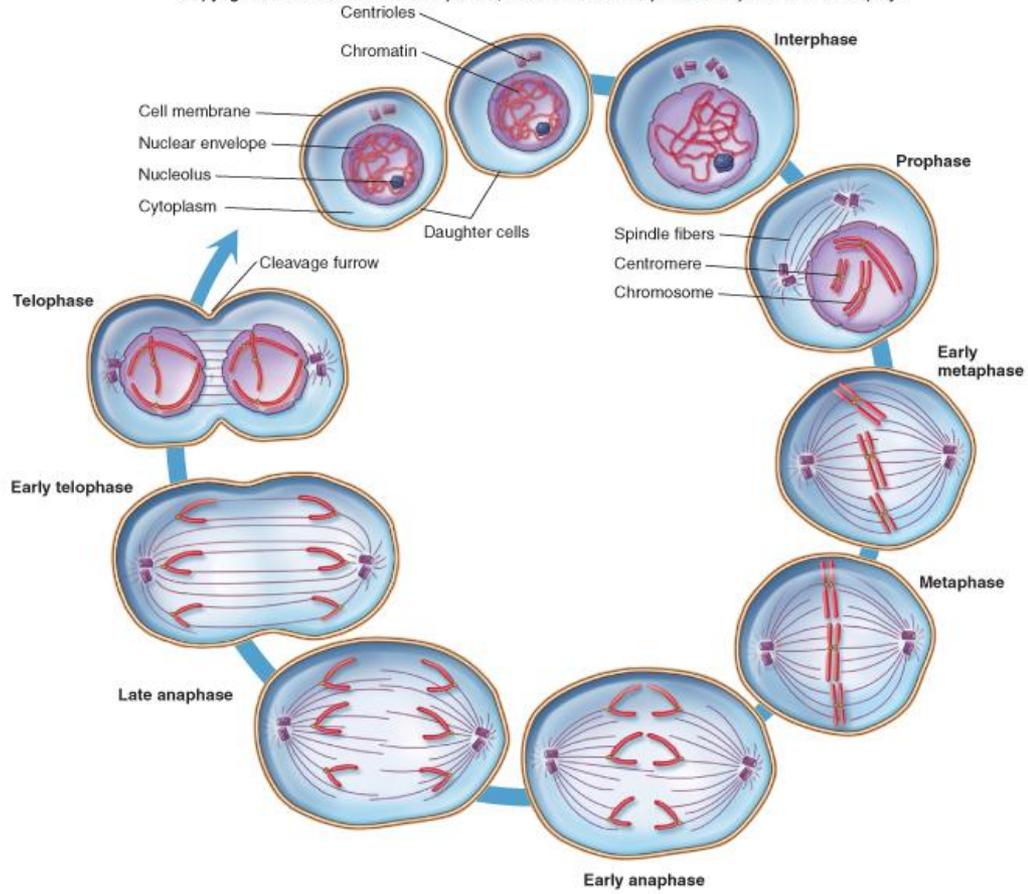


Nuclear
pore

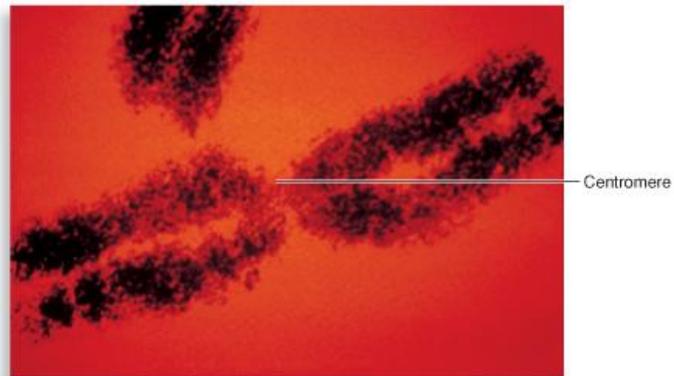
Nuclear
envelope

Nucleolus

Figure 5.6



(a)



(b)

Figure 5.7

Endoplasmic Reticulum (ER): A Passageway in the Cell

- Microscopic series of tunnels
- Used in transport and storage
- Two kinds
 - **Rough endoplasmic reticulum (RER)**
 - Originates from the outer membrane of the nuclear envelope
 - Extends through the cytoplasm
 - Spaces in the RER- cisternae- transport materials from the nucleus to the cytoplasm
 - “Rough” because of ribosomes attached to its surface
 - Proteins synthesized on the ribosomes shunted into the cavity of the RER and held for later packaging and transport

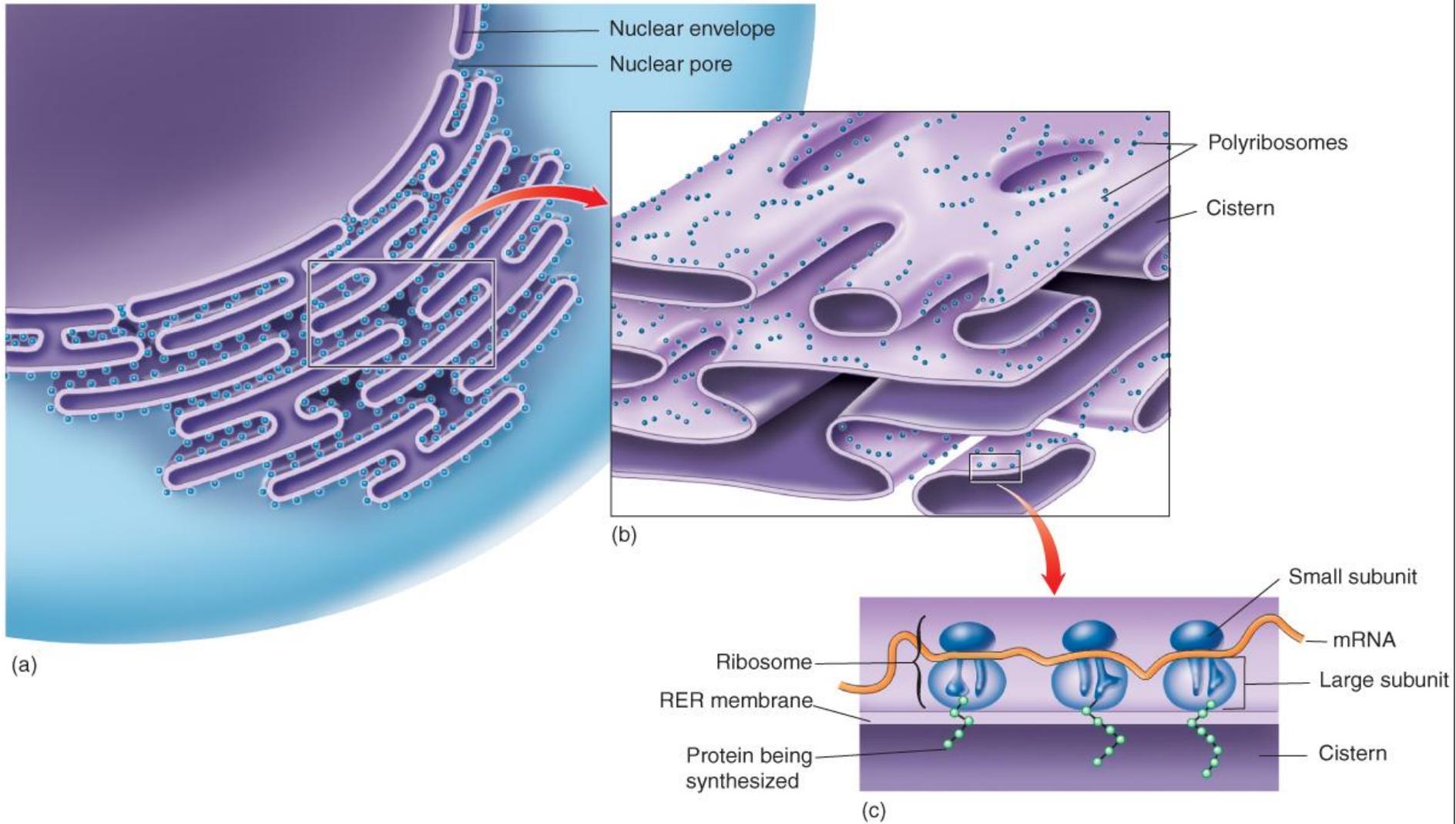


Figure 5.8

- **Smooth endoplasmic reticulum (SER)**
 - Closed tubular network
 - No ribosomes
 - Functions
 - Nutrient processing
 - Synthesis and storage of nonprotein macromolecules

Golgi Apparatus: A Packaging Machine

- Where proteins are modified and sent to their final destinations
- A stack of cisternae
- Do not form a continuous network
- Closely associated with ER both in location and function
 - The ER buds off transitional vesicles (packets of protein) where it meets the Golgi apparatus
 - The Golgi apparatus picks up the transitional vesicles
 - The proteins are often modified by addition of polysaccharides and lipids
 - Then the apparatus pinches off condensing vesicles
 - Sent to **lysosomes**
 - Or transported outside the cell

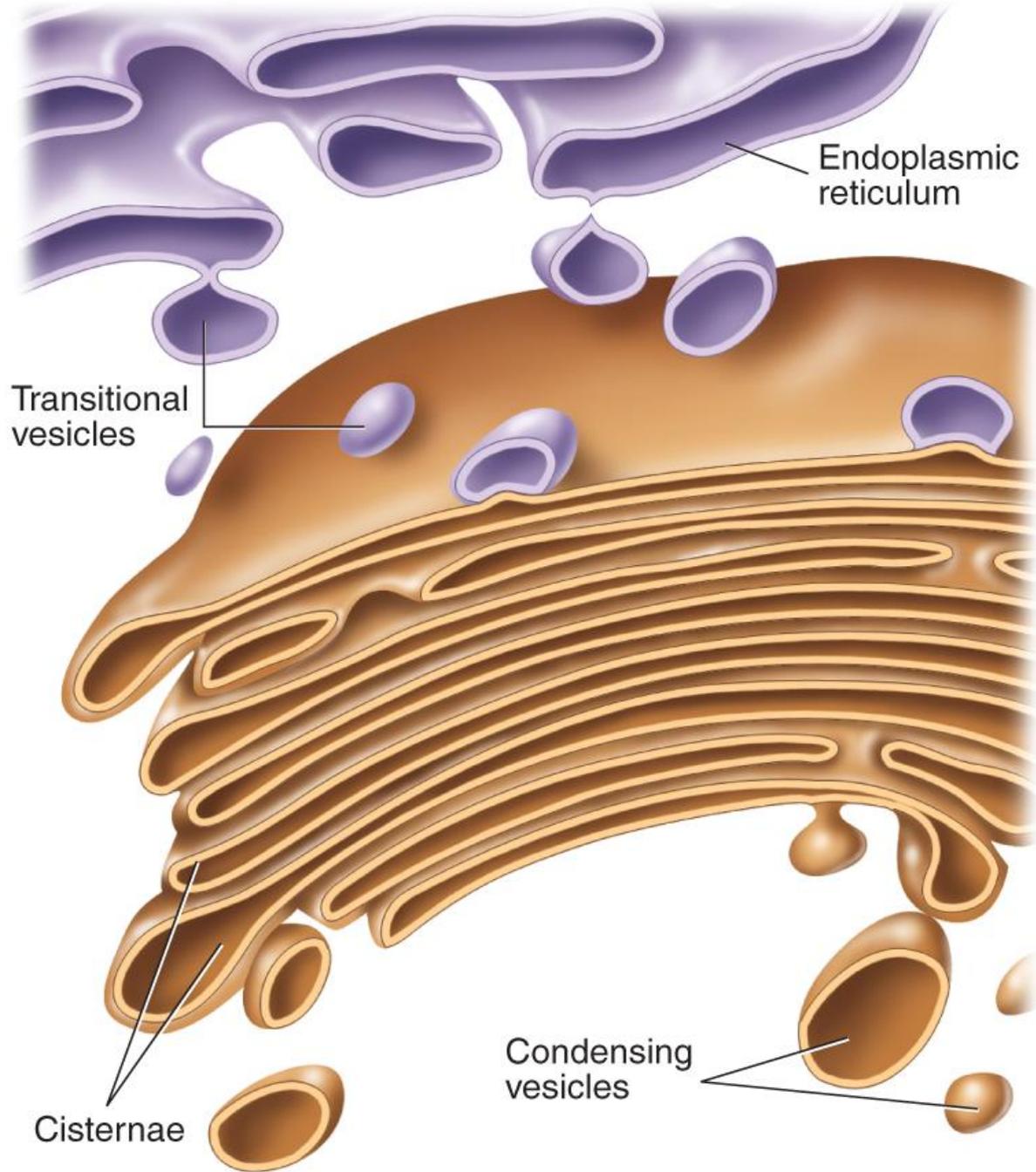


Figure 5.9

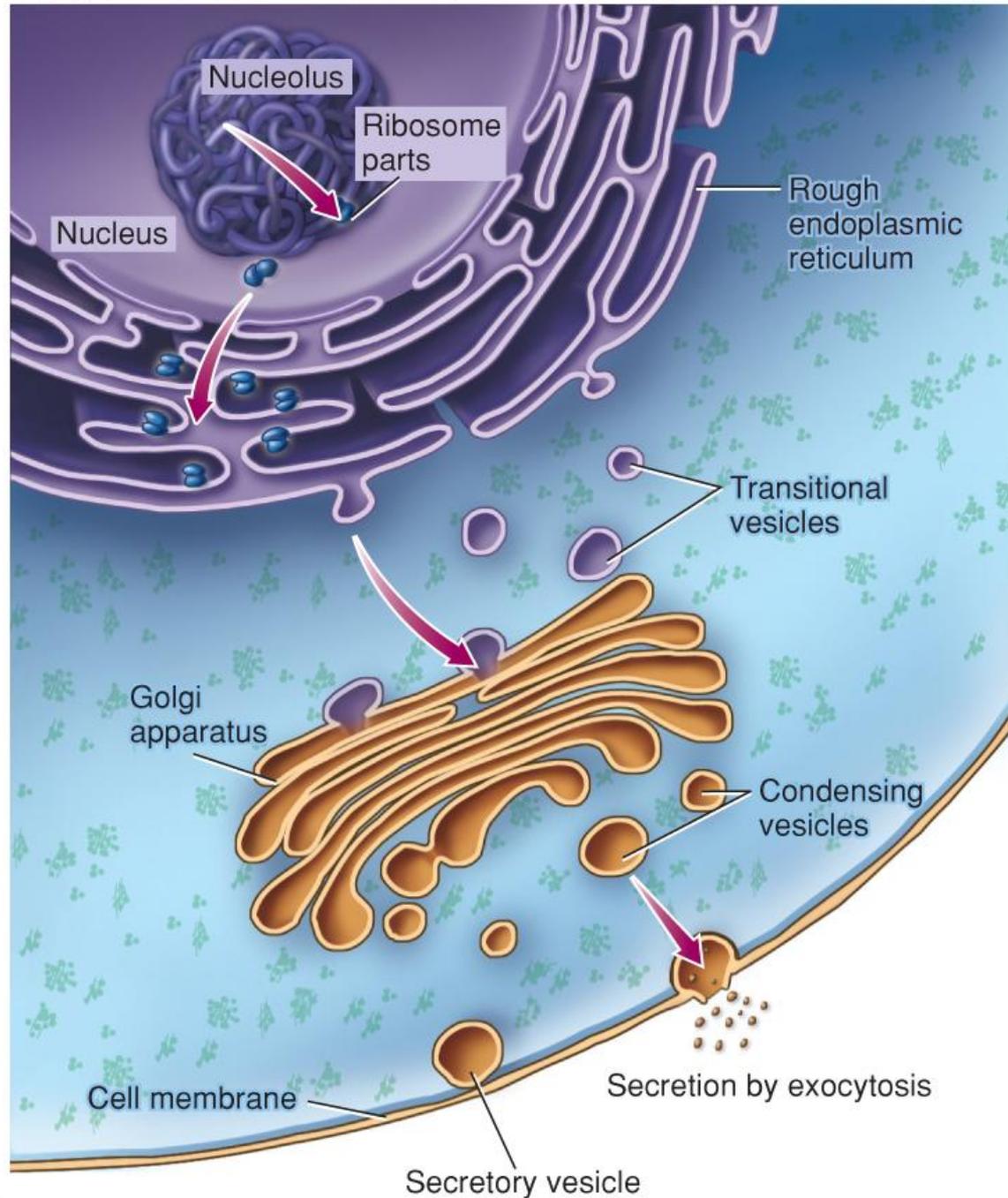


Figure 5.10

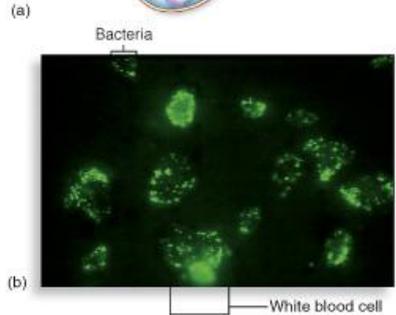
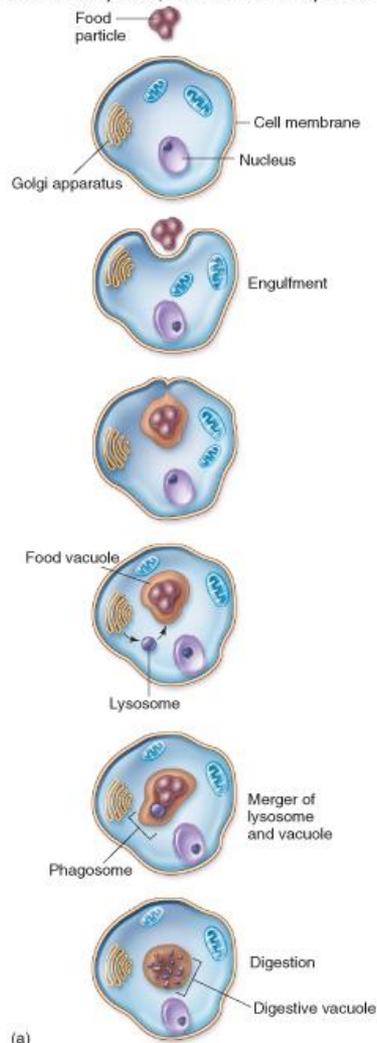


Figure 5.11

Mitochondria: Energy Generators

- Cellular activities require a constant supply of energy
- The bulk of this energy generated by mitochondria
- Smooth, continuous outer membrane
- Inner folded membrane (folds are **cristae**)
 - Cristae hold enzymes and electron carriers of aerobic respiration
 - Spaces around cristae filled with a **matrix**
 - Ribosomes
 - DNA
 - Enzymes and other compounds involved in the metabolic cycle
- Divide independently of the cell
- Contain circular strands of DNA
- Contain prokaryotic-sized 70S ribosomes

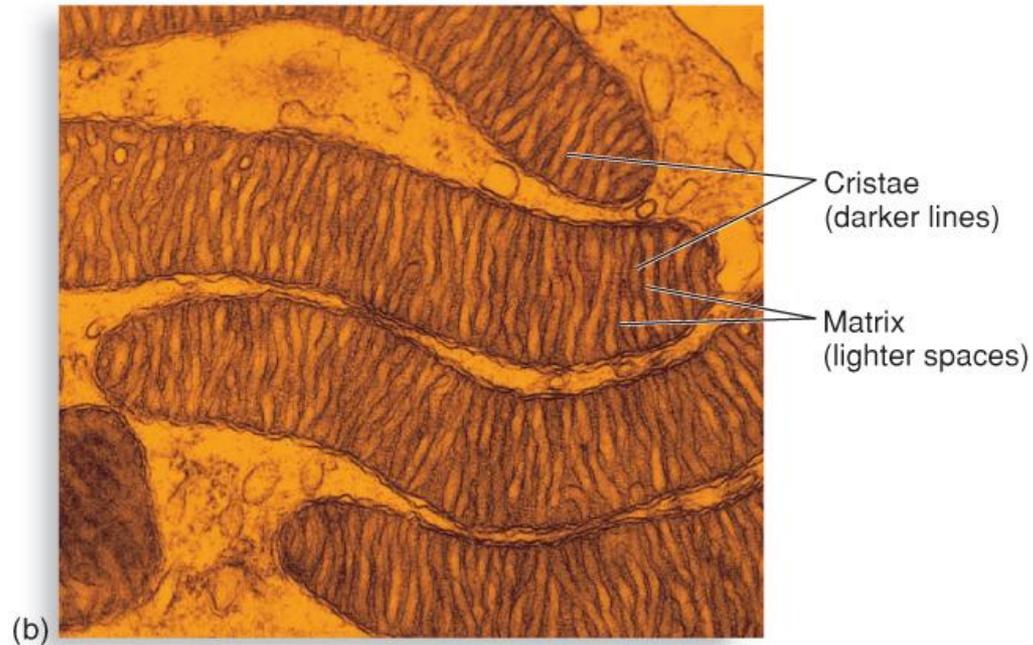
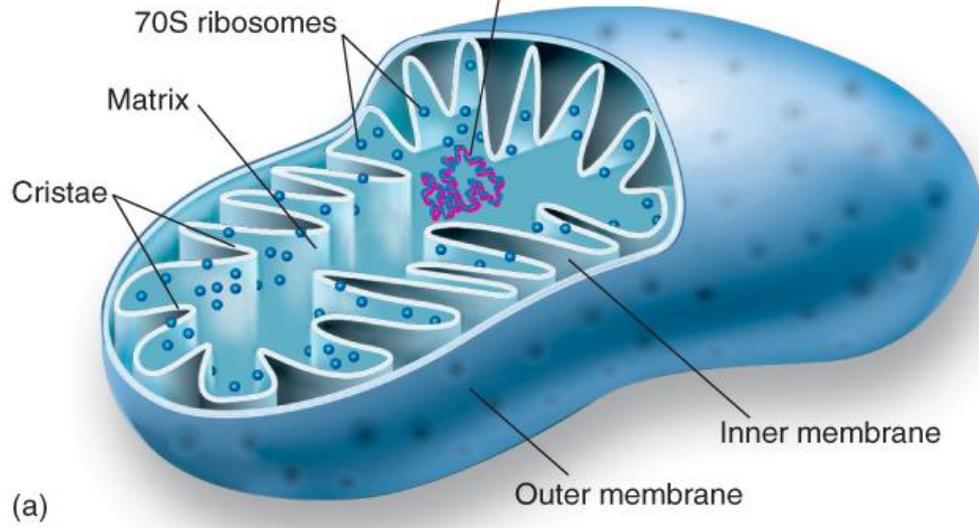


Figure 5.12

Chloroplasts: Photosynthesis Machines

- Organelles found in algae and plant cells
- Convert energy of sunlight into chemical energy through photosynthesis
- Two membranes
 - Smooth outer membrane
 - Inner membrane folded in to **thylakoids**
 - Thylakoids stacked upon one another into **grana**
 - Contain chlorophyll and sometimes other pigments
- **Stroma** surrounds the thylakoids

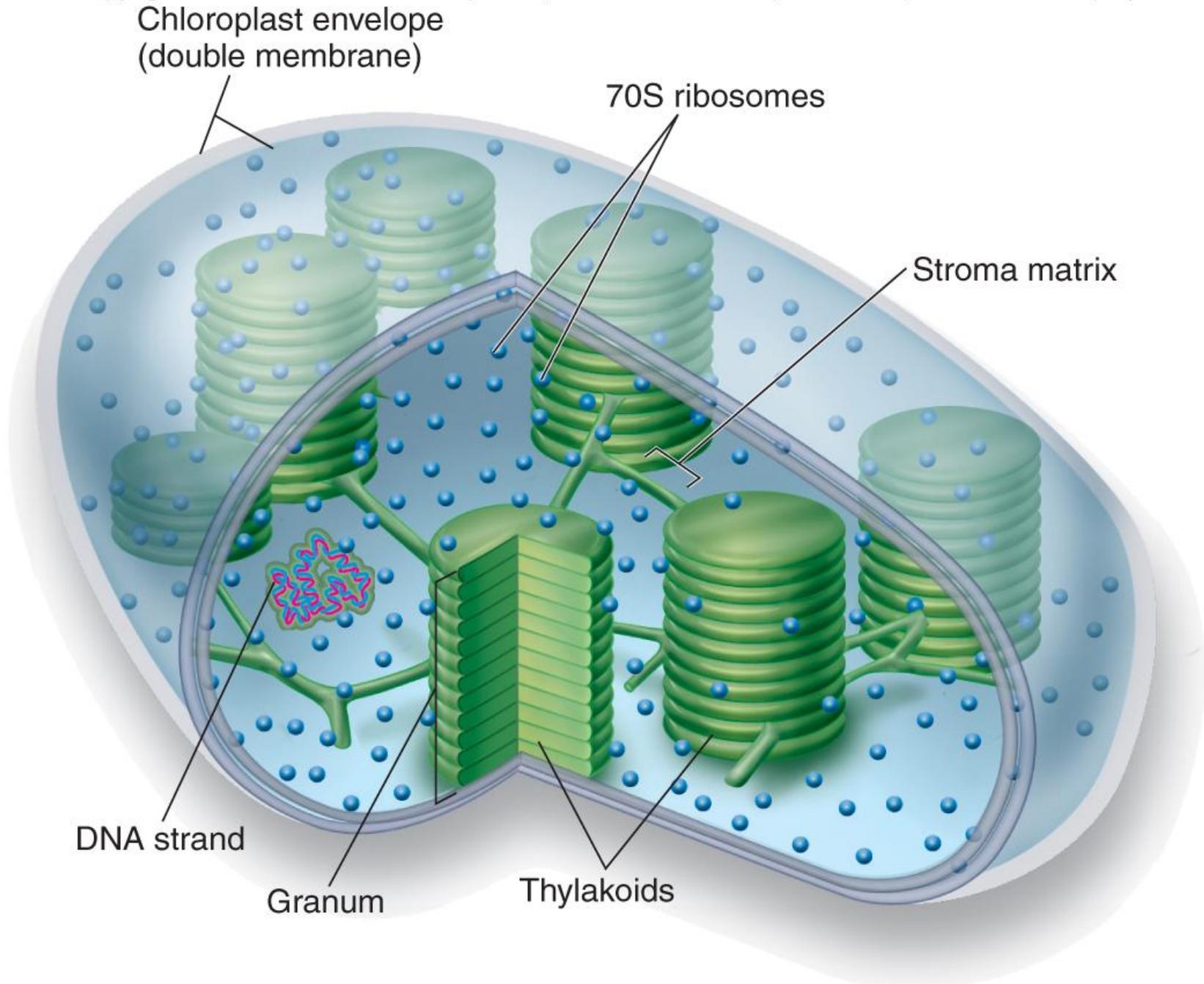


Figure 5.13

Ribosomes: Protein Synthesizers

- Some scattered in the cytoplasm and cytoskeleton
- Others associated with RER
- Often found in chains of polyribosomes (polysomes)
- Composed of large and small subunits of ribonucleoprotein
- Larger 80S variety, composed of 60S and 40S subunits

The Cytoskeleton: A Support Network

- Flexible framework of molecules criss-crossing the cytoplasm
- Several functions
 - Anchoring organelles
 - Moving RNA and vesicles
 - Permitting shape changes and movement in some cells
- Two types: Microfilaments and microtubules

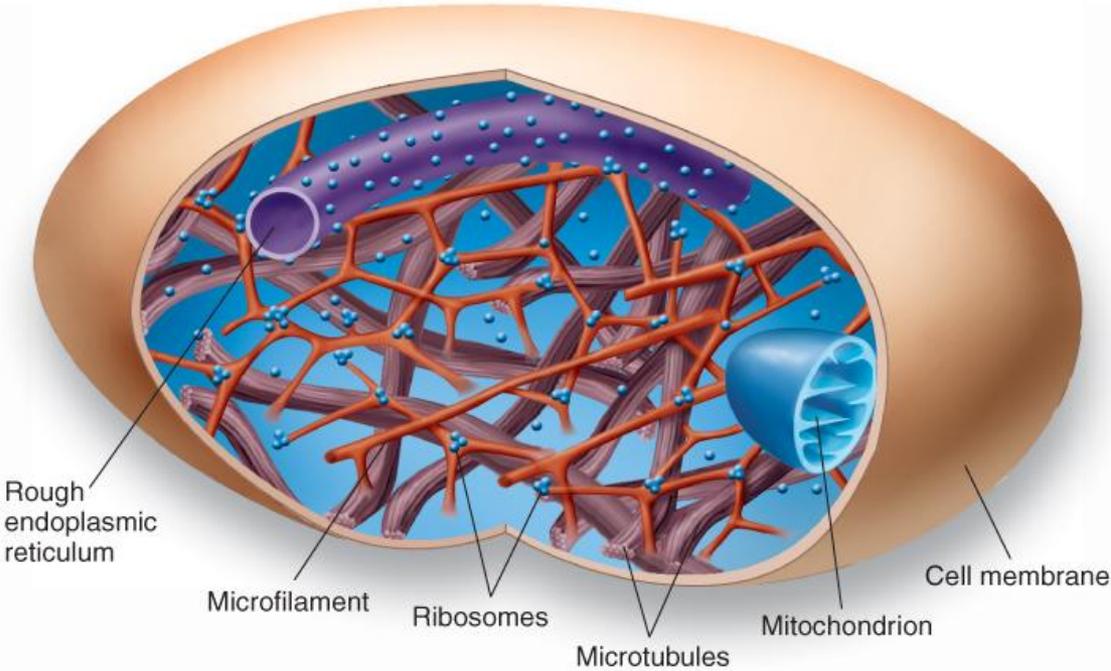
Microfilaments

- Thin protein strands
- Attach to the cell membrane
- Some responsible for movements of the cytoplasm
- Some active in amoeboid motion

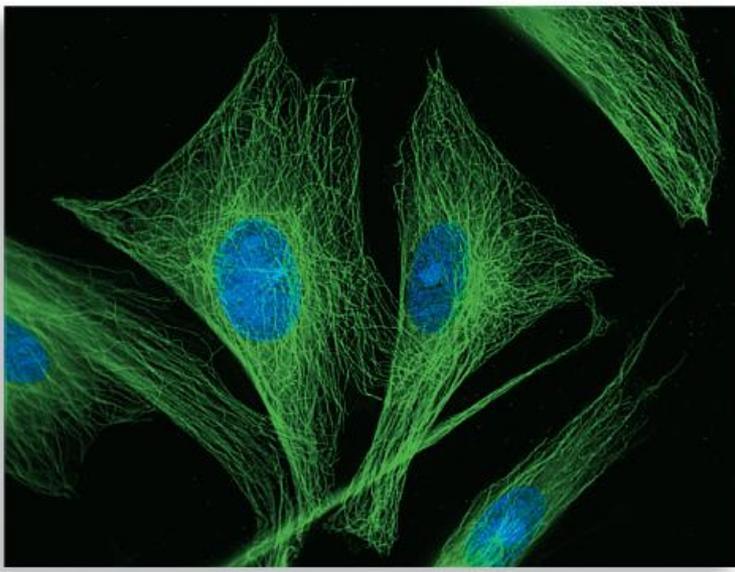
Microtubules

- Long, hollow tubes
- Maintain the shape of eukaryotic cells without walls
- Transport substances
- Responsible for the movement of cilia and flagella

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(a)



(b)

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Figure 5.14

TABLE 5.2 A General Comparison of Prokaryotic and Eukaryotic Cells and Viruses*

Function or Structure	Characteristic	Prokaryotic Cells	Eucaryotic Cells	Viruses**
Genetics	Nucleic acids	+	+	+
	Chromosomes	+	+	–
	True nucleus	–	+	–
	Nuclear envelope	–	+	–
Reproduction	Mitosis	–	+	–
	Production of sex cells	+ / –	+	–
	Binary fission	+	+	–
Biosynthesis	Independent	+	+	–
	Golgi apparatus	–	+	–
	Endoplasmic reticulum	–	+	–
	Ribosomes	+***	+	–
Respiration	Enzymes	+	+	–
	Mitochondria	–	+	–
Photosynthesis	Pigments	+ / –	+ / –	–
	Chloroplasts	–	+ / –	–
Motility/locomotor structures	Flagella	+ / –***	+ / –	–
	Cilia	–	+ / –	–
Shape/protection	Membrane	+	+	+ / –
	Cell wall	+***	+ / –	– (have capsids instead)
	Capsule	+ / –	+ / –	–
Complexity of function		+	+	+ / –
Size (in general)		0.5–3 μm ****	2–100 μm	< 0.2 μm

*+ means most members of the group exhibit this characteristic; – means most lack it; + / – means some members have it and some do not.

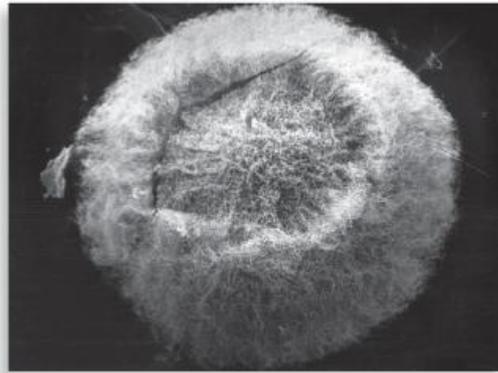
**Viruses cannot participate in metabolic or genetic activity outside their host cells.

***The prokaryotic type is functionally similar to the eukaryotic, but structurally unique.

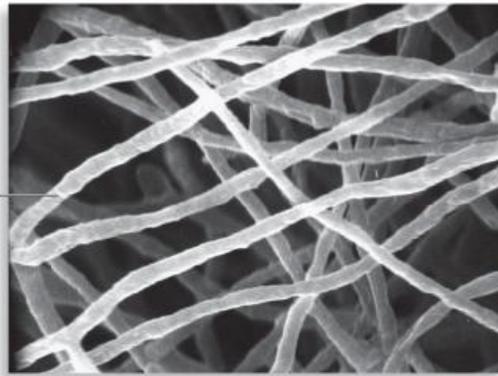
****Much smaller and much larger bacteria exist; see Insight 4.3.

5.4 The Kingdom of the Fungi

- Myceteae
- Great variety and complexity
- Approximately 100,000 species
- Can be divided into two groups:
 - Macroscopic fungi
 - Microscopic fungi:
 - Yeasts
 - Round or oval shape
 - Unique mode of asexual reproduction
 - Some form pseudohyphae (false filaments)
 - Molds
 - Long, threadlike cells
 - Filamentous arrangement (hyphae)
 - Some are dimorphic (yeast-like and filamentous forms exist)
- Majority are unicellular or colonial

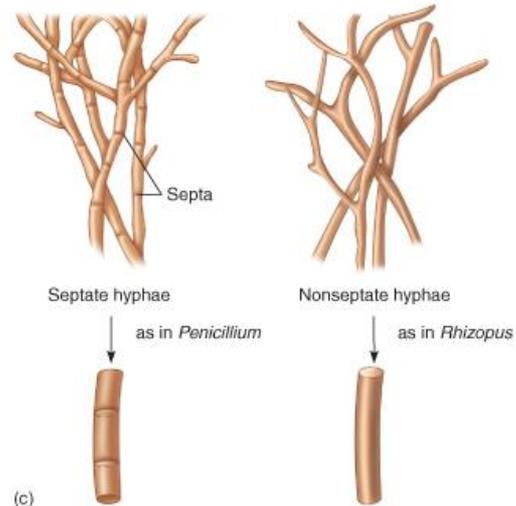


(a)



Septum

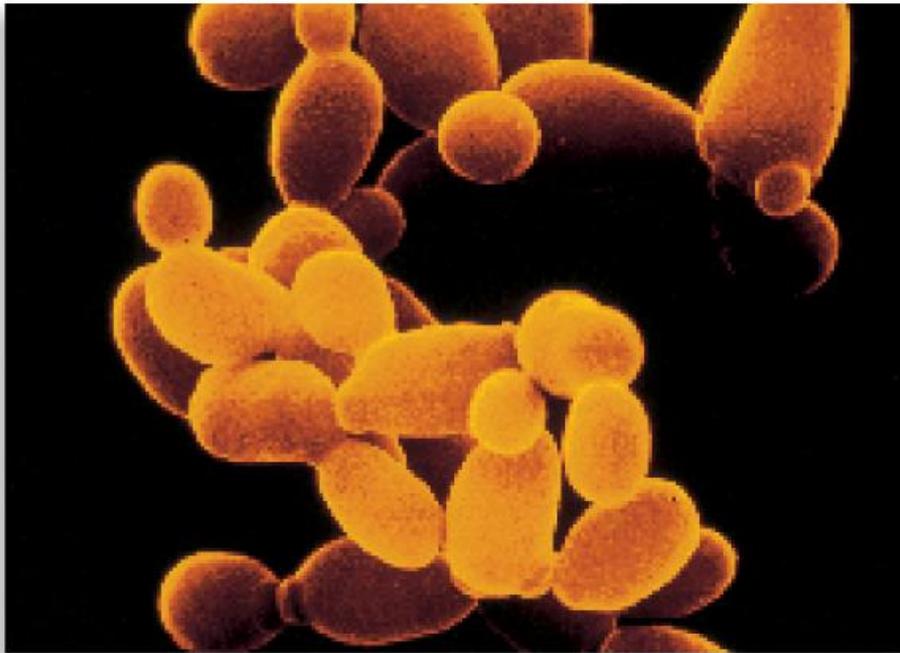
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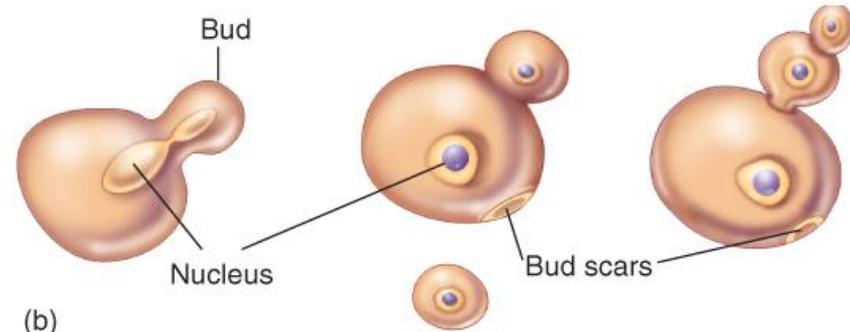
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Figure 5.15

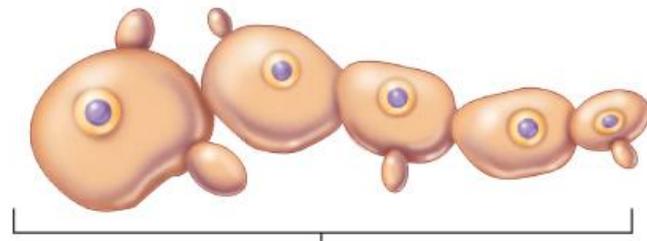
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(a)



(b)



(c)

Pseudohypha

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Figure 5.16

Fungal Nutrition

- Heterotrophic
- Acquire nutrients from **substrates**
- Most fungi are **saprobies**
- Can also be **parasites**
- General method of obtaining nutrition
 - Penetrates the substrate
 - Secretes enzymes
 - Breaks down the enzymes into small molecules
 - Absorbs the molecules
- Can absorb a wide variety of substrates
- Large medical and agricultural importance



(a)



(b)

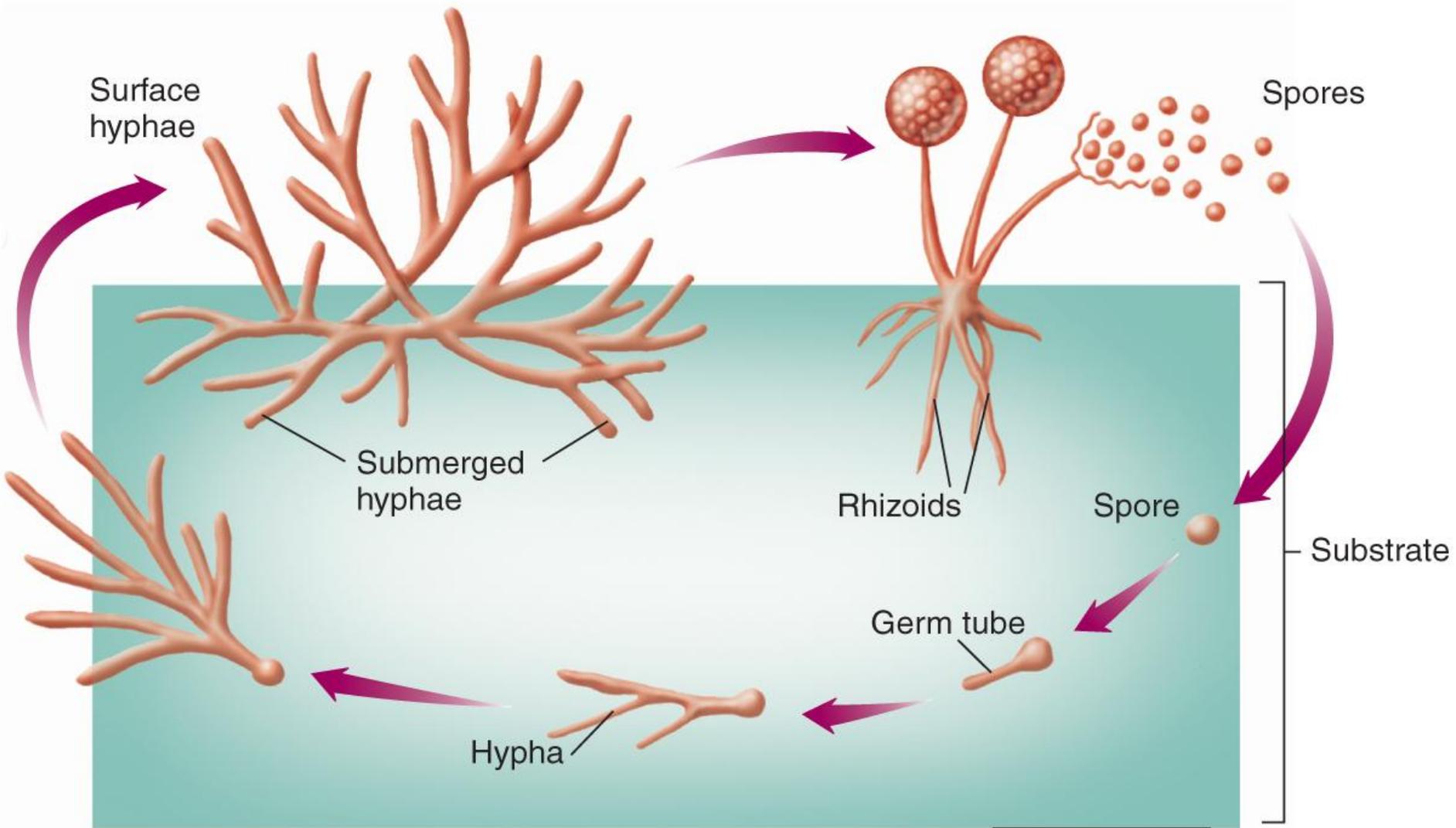
Figure 5.17

Organization of Microscopic Fungi

- Most grow in loose associations or colonies
- Yeasts- soft, uniform texture and appearance
- Filamentous fungal colonies- cottony, hairy, or velvety textures
- **Mycelium**- the woven, intertwining mass of hyphae that makes up the body or colony of a mold
- Unique organizational features of hyphae
 - **Septa**- divide the hyphae into segments (most fungi have septate hyphae)
 - Nonseptate hyphae- one long, continuous, multinucleate cell
- Functions of hyphae
 - Vegetative hyphae (mycelia)- visible mass of growth on the substrate surface; penetrates the substrate to digest and absorb nutrients
 - Reproductive (fertile) hyphae- from vegetative hyphae; responsible for the production of **spores**

(a) **Vegetative Hyphae**

(b) **Reproductive Hyphae**



(c) **Germination**

Figure 5.18

Reproductive Strategies and Spore Formation

- Most can propagate by growth of hyphae or fragmentation
- Primary reproductive mode- the production of spores
- Function of spores
 - Multiplication
 - Survival
 - Producing genetic variation
 - Dissemination
- Large diversity in spores among the fungi
 - General grouping of spores- asexual and sexual

Asexual Spores

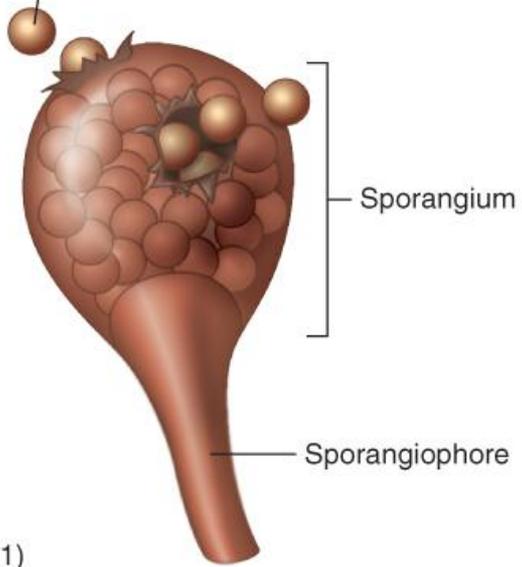
- **Sporangiospores**

- Formed by successive cleavages within the **sporangium**
- Sporangium attached to the sporangiophore
- Released when the sporangium ruptures

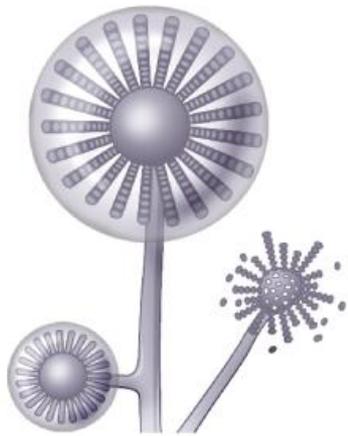
- **Conidiospores**

- Aka **conidia**
- Free spores
- Develop either by pinching off the tip of fertile hypha or by segmentation of a vegetative hypha

(a) **Sporangiospores**



(1)

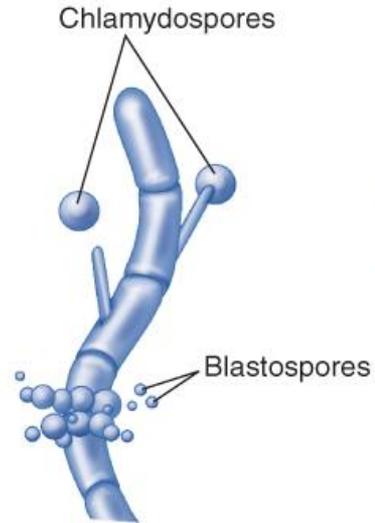


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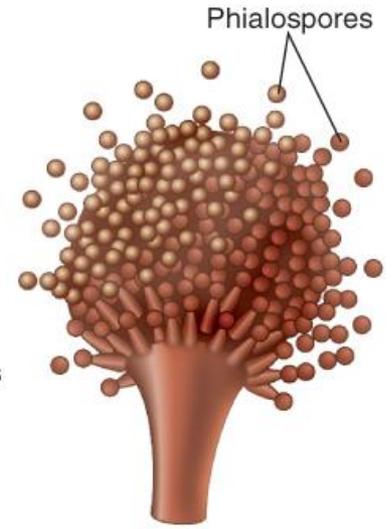
(b) **Conidia**



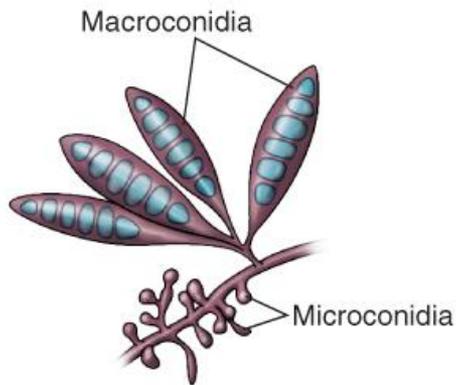
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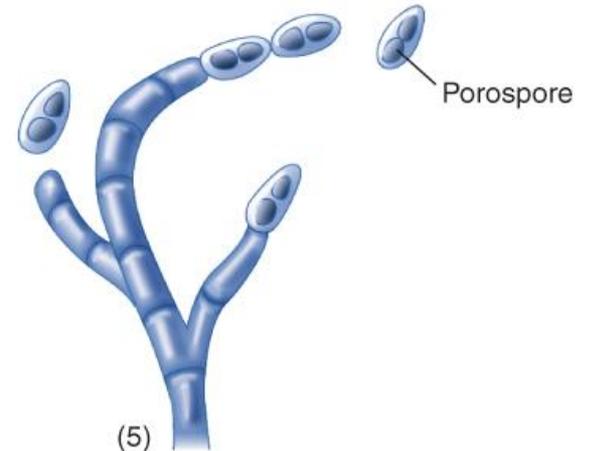
(2)



(3)



(4)



(5)

Figure 5.19

Sexual Spores

- Increases genetic variation
- Majority of fungi produce sexual spores at some point

Fungal Identification and Cultivation

- Medical specimens
 - Isolated on special types of media
 - Observed macroscopically and microscopically
- Usually use sexual spore-forming structures and spores
- Other characteristics that contribute to identification
 - Hyphal type
 - Colony texture and pigmentation
 - Physiological characteristics
 - Genetic makeup

The Roles of Fungi in Nature and Industry

- Nearly all fungi are free-living and don't need a host
- Human infection by pathogenic fungi usually occurs through accidental contact
- Humans are generally resistant to fungal infection, except for two main types
 - Primary pathogens
 - Opportunistic pathogens
- Mycoses vary in the way the agent enters the body and the degree of tissue involvement

TABLE 5.3 Major Fungal Infections of Humans

Degree of Tissue Involvement and Area Affected	Name of Infection	Name of Causative Fungus
Superficial (not deeply invasive)		
Outer epidermis	Tinea versicolor	<i>Malassezia furfur</i>
Epidermis, hair, and dermis can be attacked.	Dermatophytosis, also called tinea or ringworm of the scalp, body, feet (athlete's foot), toenails	<i>Microsporum</i> , <i>Trichophyton</i> , and <i>Epidermophyton</i>
Mucous membranes, skin, nails	Candidiasis, or yeast infection	<i>Candida albicans</i>
Systemic (deep; organism enters lungs; can invade other organs)		
Lung	Coccidioidomycosis (San Joaquin Valley fever)	<i>Coccidioides immitis</i>
	North American blastomycosis (Chicago disease)	<i>Blastomyces dermatitidis</i>
	Histoplasmosis (Ohio Valley fever)	<i>Histoplasma capsulatum</i>
	Cryptococcosis (torulosis)	<i>Cryptococcus neoformans</i>
Lung, skin	Paracoccidioidomycosis (South American blastomycosis)	<i>Paracoccidioides brasiliensis</i>

- Not only involved in infections
 - Allergies
 - Poisoning
 - Agricultural damage
- Benefits of fungi
 - Decomposing organic matter and returning essential minerals to the soil
 - Mycorrhizae increase the ability of plant roots to absorb water and nutrients
 - Production of
 - Antibiotics
 - Alcohol
 - Organic acids
 - Vitamins
 - Food flavorings

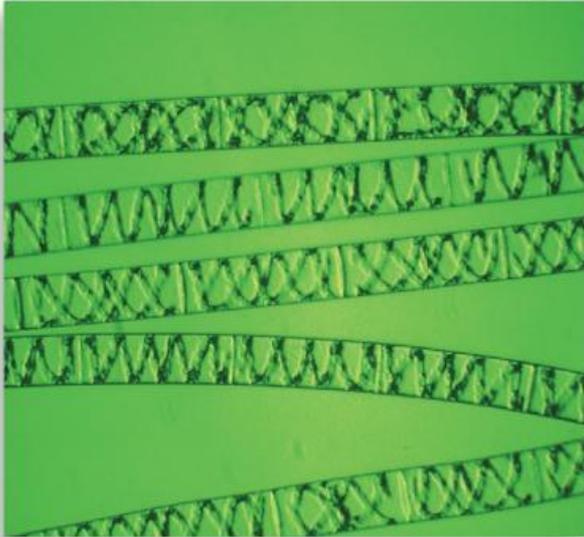
5.5 The Protists

- Traditionally contains the algae and protozoa
- Two major taxonomic categories
 - Subkingdom Algae
 - Subkingdom Protozoa
- Any unicellular or colonial organism that lacks true tissues

The Algae: Photosynthetic protists

- Vary in length from a few micrometers to 100 meters
- Unicellular, colonial, and filamentous forms
- Larger forms can possess tissues and simple organs
- Exhibit all eukaryotic organelles
- Chloroplasts contain chlorophyll as well as other pigments
- One of the main components of **plankton**
- Rarely infectious
- Primary medical threat: shellfish exposed to red tide

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(a)



(b)



(c)

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Biology of the Protozoa

- About 65,000 species
- Most are harmless, free-living inhabitants of water and soil
- Few are parasites

Protozoan Form and Function

- Most are single cells
- Contain major eukaryotic organelles except chloroplasts
- Cytoplasm usually divided
 - **Ectoplasm:** clear outer layer involved in locomotion, feeding, and protection
 - Endoplasm: granular inner region housing the nucleus, mitochondria, and food and contractile vacuoles
- Some ciliates and flagellates have organelles working like a primitive nervous system
- No cell wall- so some flexibility
- Cell shape can remain constant or can change constantly (amoebas)
- Size between 3 to 300 μm

Nutritional and Habitat Range

- Heterotrophic
- Usually require their food in a complex organic form
- Free-living species scavenge or graze
- Some have special feeding structures such as oral grooves; some absorb food directly through the cell membrane
- Parasitic species live on the fluids of their host; or can actively feed on tissues
- Predominant habitats
 - Fresh and marine water
 - Soil
 - Plants
 - Animals
- Many can convert to a resistant, dormant stage called a cyst

Styles of Locomotion

- All but the Apicomplexa are motile by means of **pseudopods**, **flagella**, or **cilia**
- Some unusual species move by gliding or twisting
- Pseudopods
 - Amoeboid motion
 - Can serve as feeding structures
- Flagella
 - From one to several
 - Some attached along the length of the cell by the undulating membrane
- Cilia
 - Mostly distributed over the entire surface of the cell
 - Form characteristic patterns

Life Cycles and Reproduction

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Trophozoite
(active, feeding stage)

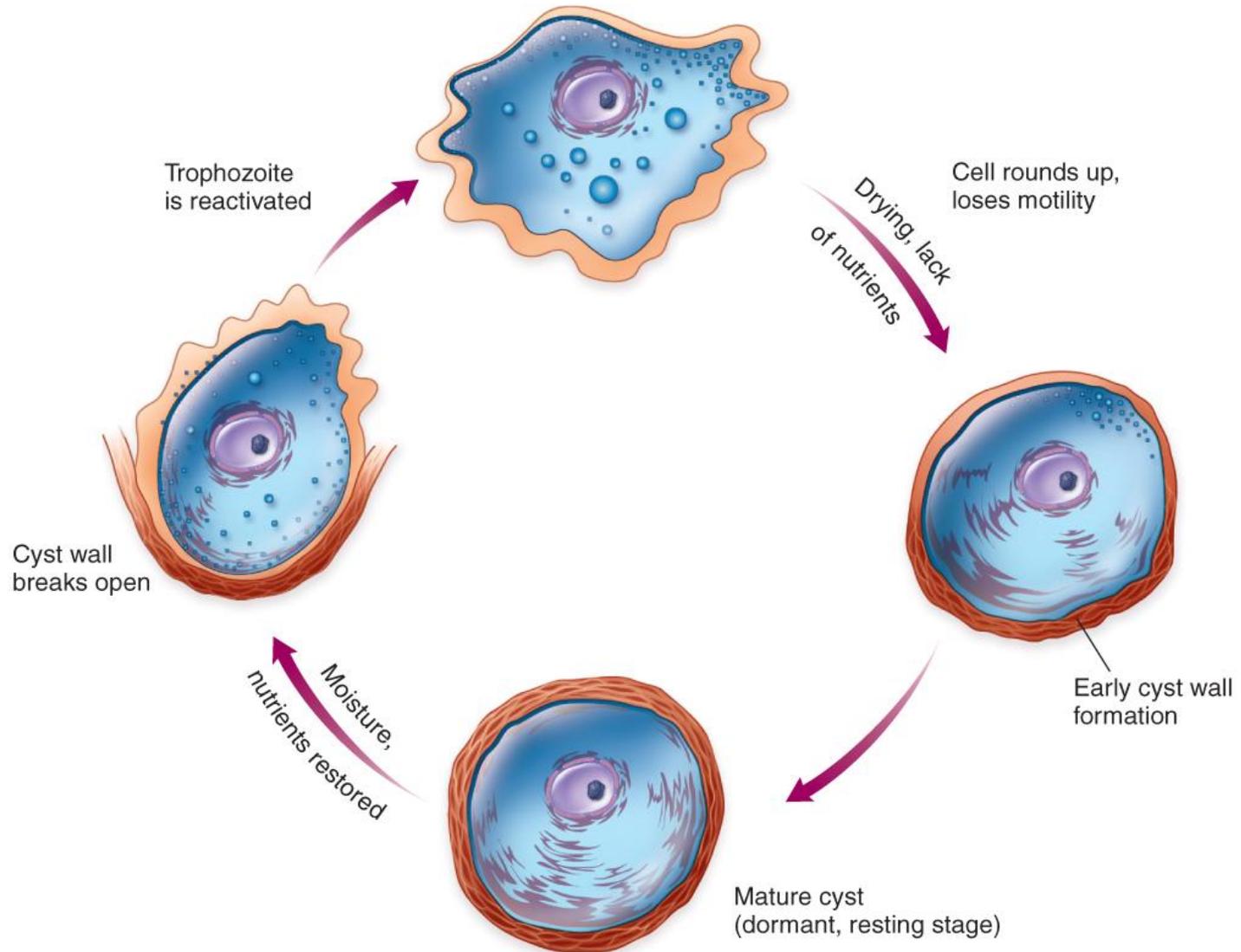


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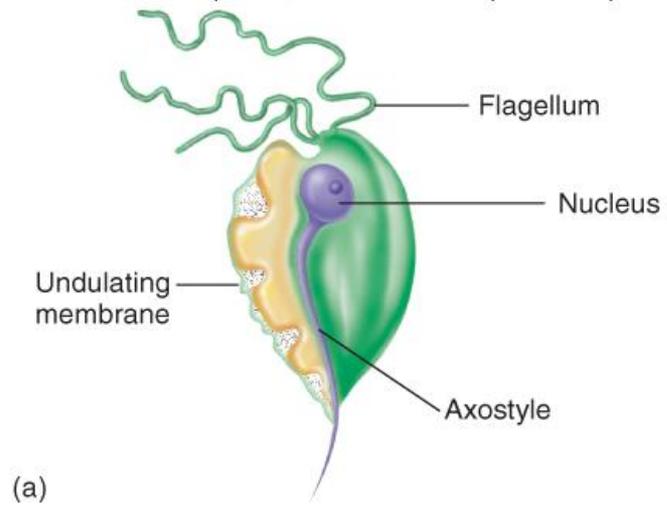
- Vary from simple to complex
- Some exist only in **trophozoite** stage
- Others alternate between trophozoite and **cyst**
- Life cycle of a parasitic protozoan determines the mode of transmission to hosts
- All reproduce by asexual methods
 - Usually mitotic cell division
 - Some by multiple fission
- Sexual reproduction occurs during the life cycle of most protozoa
 - Ciliates participate in **conjugation**

Classification of Selected Medically Important Protozoa

- Four groups
- Based on:
 - Method of motility
 - Mode of reproduction
 - Stages in the lifecycle

Mastigophora (Flagellated)

- Motility primarily by flagella
- Single nucleus
- Sexual reproduction by syngamy
- Division by longitudinal fission
- Parasitic forms tend to lack mitochondria and Golgi apparatus
- Most form cysts and are free-living
- Most are solitary
- Examples
 - *Trypanosoma*
 - *Leishmania*
 - *Giardia*
 - *Trichomonas*



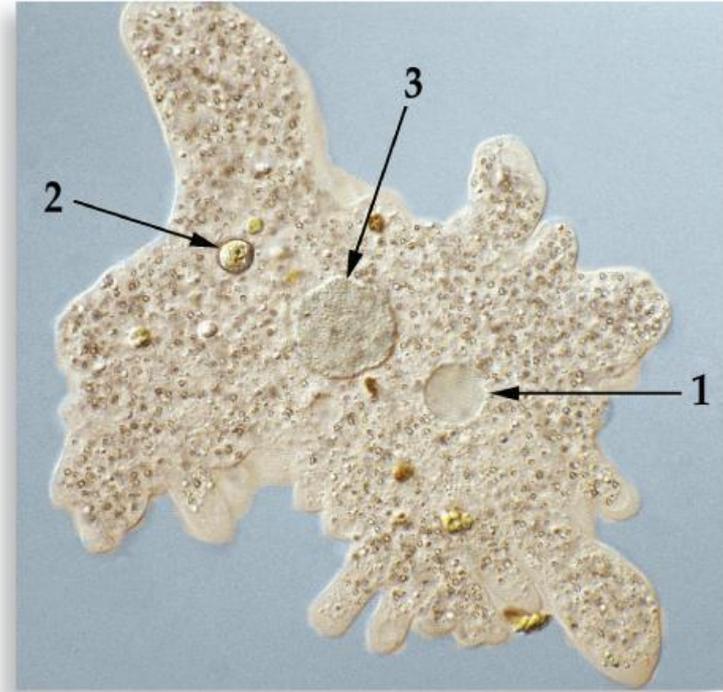
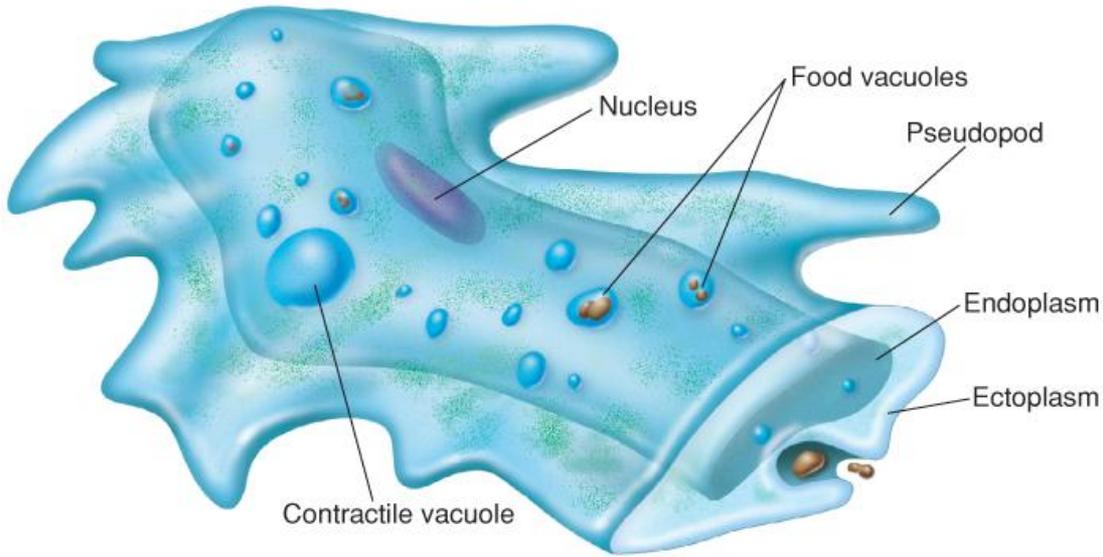
(b)

Figure 5.23

Sarcodina (Amoebas)

- Pseudopods
- Some have flagellated reproductive states
- Asexual reproduction by fission
- Two groups have an external shell
- Mostly uninucleate
- Usually encyst
- Most free-living
- Examples
 - *Entamoeba*
 - Foraminifera
 - Radiolarians

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Figure 5.24

Ciliophora (Ciliated)

- Trophozoites mobile by cilia
- Some have cilia in tufts for feeding and attachment
- Most develop cysts
- Both macronuclei and micronuclei
- Division by transverse fission
- Most have definite mouth and feeding organelle
- Show relatively advanced behavior
- Majority are free-living and harmless



(a)



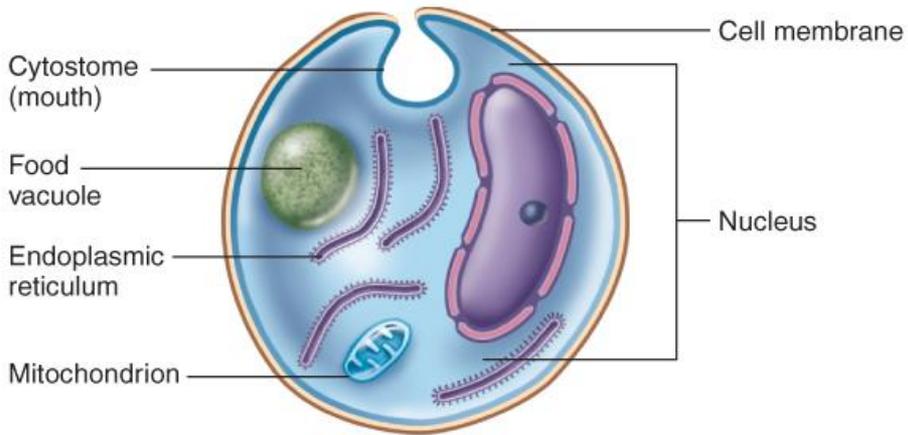
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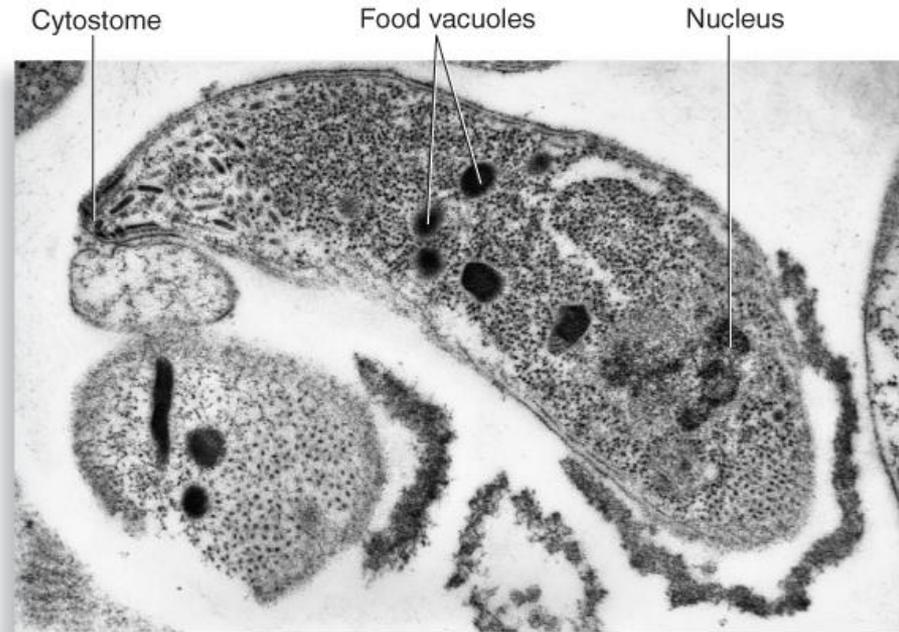
Apicomplexa (Sporozoa)

- Most not motile except male gametes
- Complex life cycles
- Produce **sporozoites** following sexual reproduction
- Important in transmission of infections
- Most form oocysts
- Entire group is parasitic
- Examples
 - *Plasmodium*
 - *Toxoplasma gondii*

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(a)



(b)

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Figure 5.26

Protozoan Identification and Cultivation

- Shape and size of cell
- Type, number, and distribution of locomotor structures
- Presence of special organelles or cysts
- Number of nuclei
- Can be cultivated on artificial media or in laboratory animals

Important Protozoan Pathogens

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TABLE 5.4 Major Pathogenic Protozoa, Infections, and Primary Sources

Protozoan/Disease	Reservoir/Source
Amoeboid Protozoa	
Amoebiasis: <i>Entamoeba histolytica</i>	Human/water and food
Brain infection: <i>Naegleria</i> , <i>Acanthamoeba</i>	Free-living in water
Ciliated Protozoa	
Balantidiosis: <i>Balantidium coli</i>	Zoonotic in pigs
Flagellated Protozoa	
Giardiasis: <i>Giardia lamblia</i>	Zoonotic/water and food
Trichomoniasis: <i>T. hominis</i> , <i>T. vaginalis</i>	Human
Hemoflagellates	
Trypanosomiasis: <i>Trypanosoma</i> <i>brucei</i> , <i>T. cruzi</i>	Zoonotic/ vector-borne
Leishmaniasis: <i>Leishmania</i> <i>donovani</i> , <i>L. tropica</i> , <i>L. brasiliensis</i>	Zoonotic/ vector-borne
Apicomplexan Protozoa	
Malaria: <i>Plasmodium vivax</i> , <i>P. falciparum</i> , <i>P. malariae</i>	Human/vector-borne
Toxoplasmosis: <i>Toxoplasma gondii</i>	Zoonotic/vector-borne
Cryptosporidiosis: <i>Cryptosporidium</i>	Free-living/water, food
Cyclosporiasis: <i>Cyclospora</i> <i>cayetanensis</i>	Water/fresh produce

Pathogenic Flagellates: Trypanosomes

- Genus *Trypanosoma*
- *T. brucei* causes sleeping sickness
- *T. cruzi* causes Chagas disease

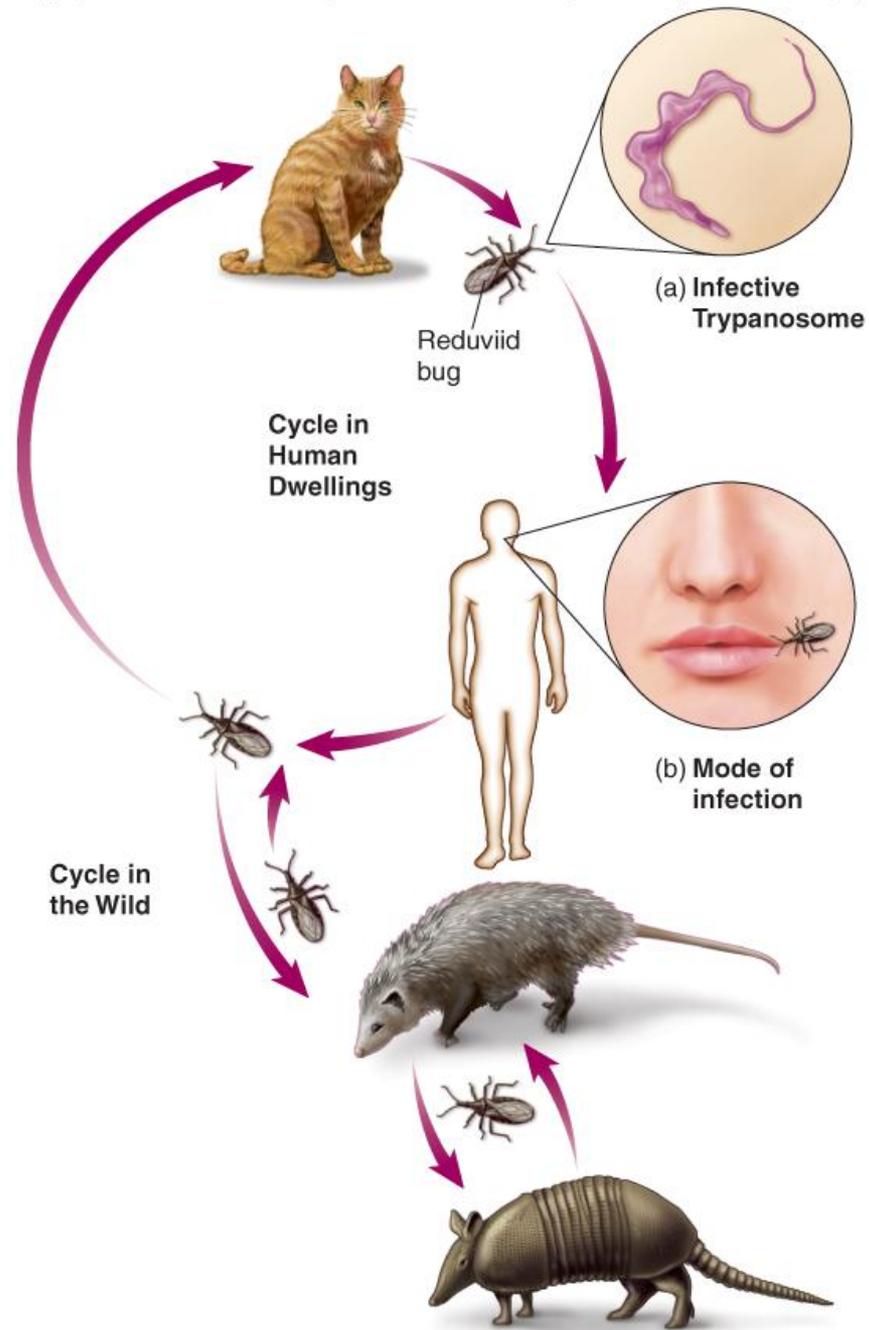


Figure 5.27

Infective Amoebas: *Entamoeba*

- Amoebiasis caused by *Entamoeba histolytica*
- Fourth most common protozoan infection in the world
- Aka amoebic dysentery

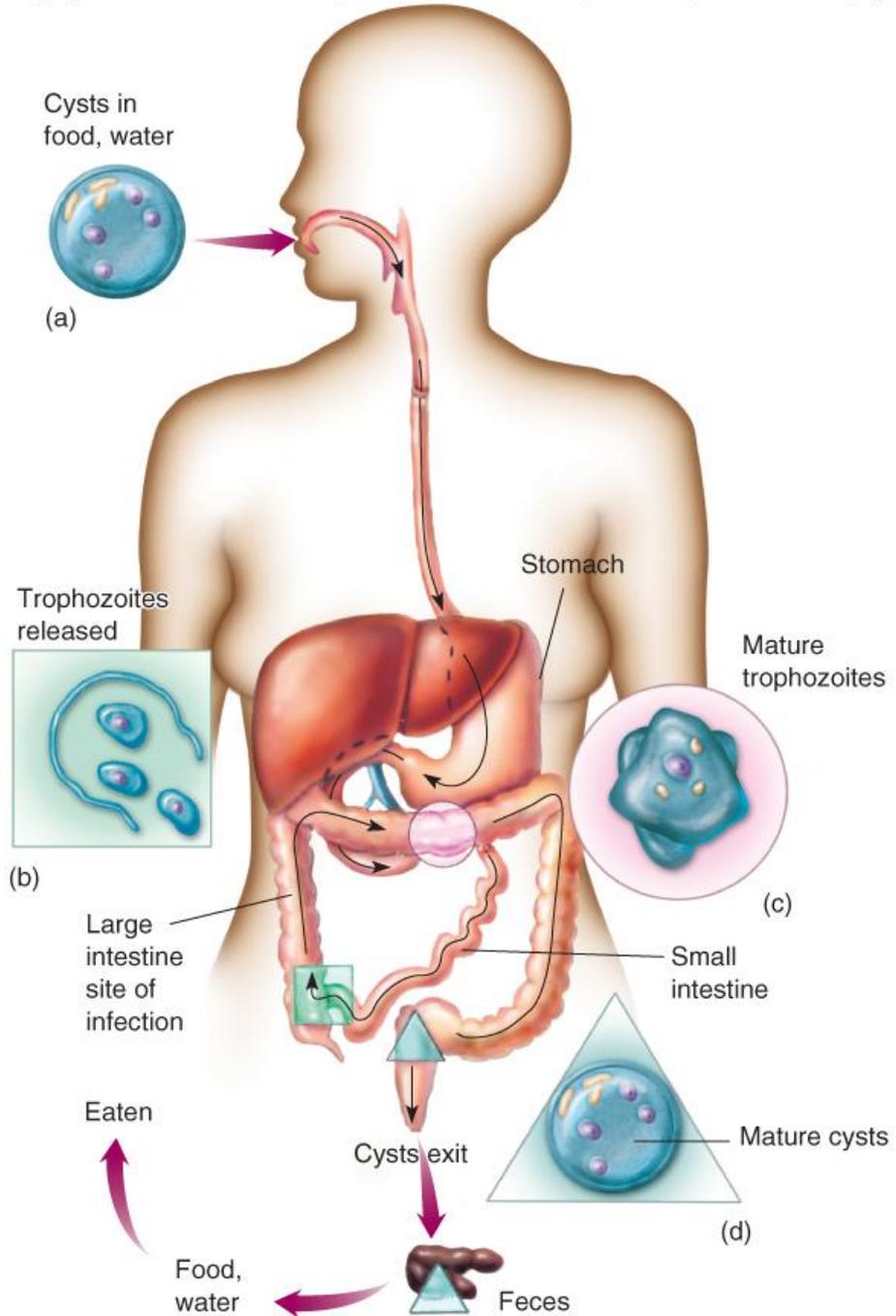


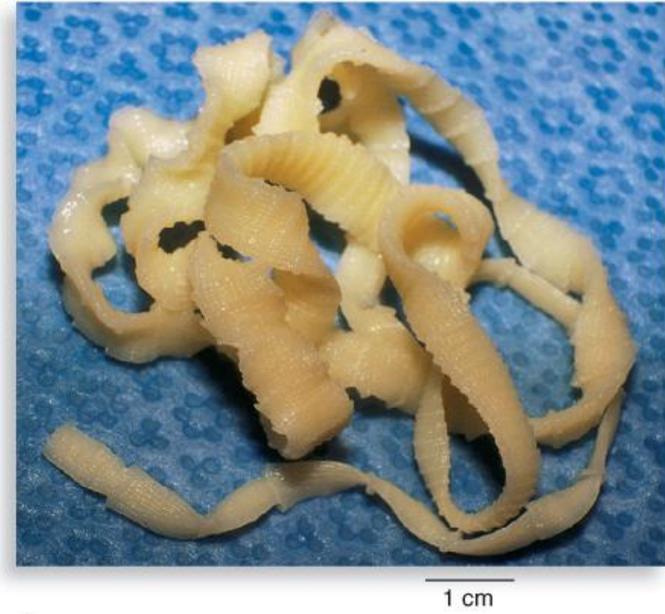
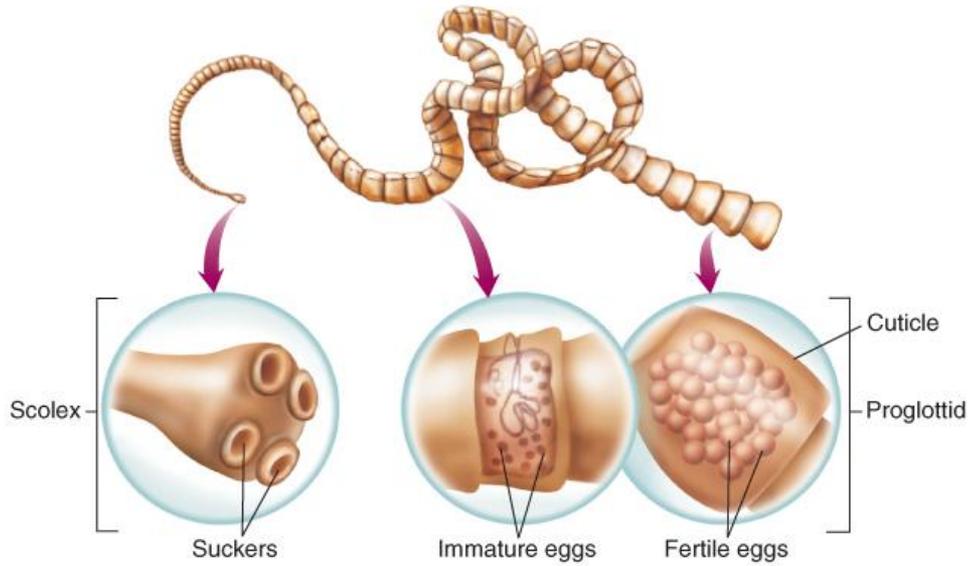
Figure 5.28

5.6 The Parasitic Helminths

- Tapeworms, flukes, and roundworms
- Adults large enough to be seen with the naked eye
- From 1 mm to 25 m in length
- Microscope is necessary to identify eggs and larvae
- Two major groups: Flatworms and Roundworms

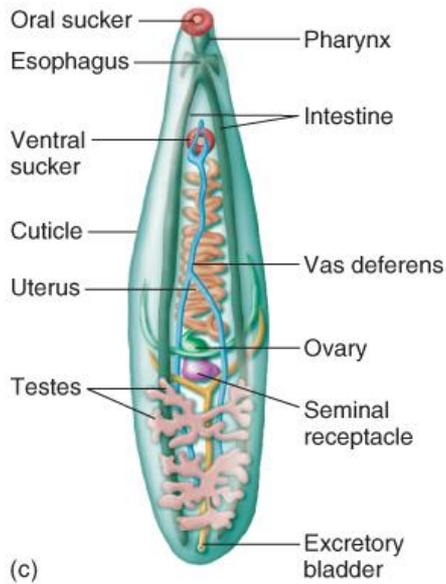
Flatworms

- Phylum Platyhelminthes
- Thin
- Often segmented
- Subdivisions
 - **Cestodes** (tapeworms)
 - **Trematodes** (flukes)

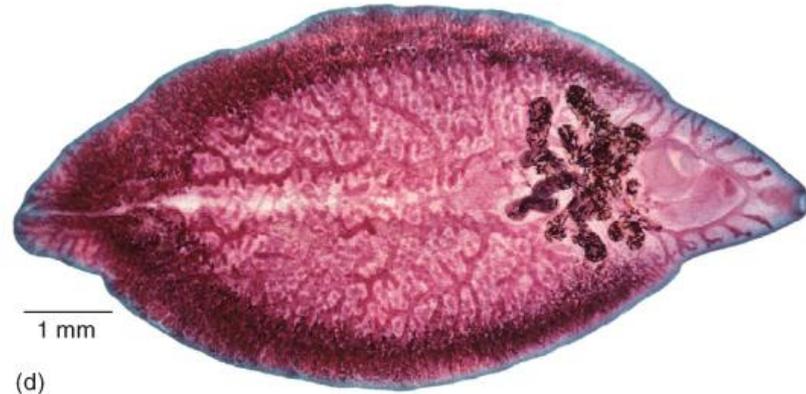


(a)

(b)



(c)



(d)

Figure 5.29

Roundworms

- Phylum Aschelminthes
- Aka **nematodes**
- Elongate
- Cylindrical
- Unsegmented

Adults

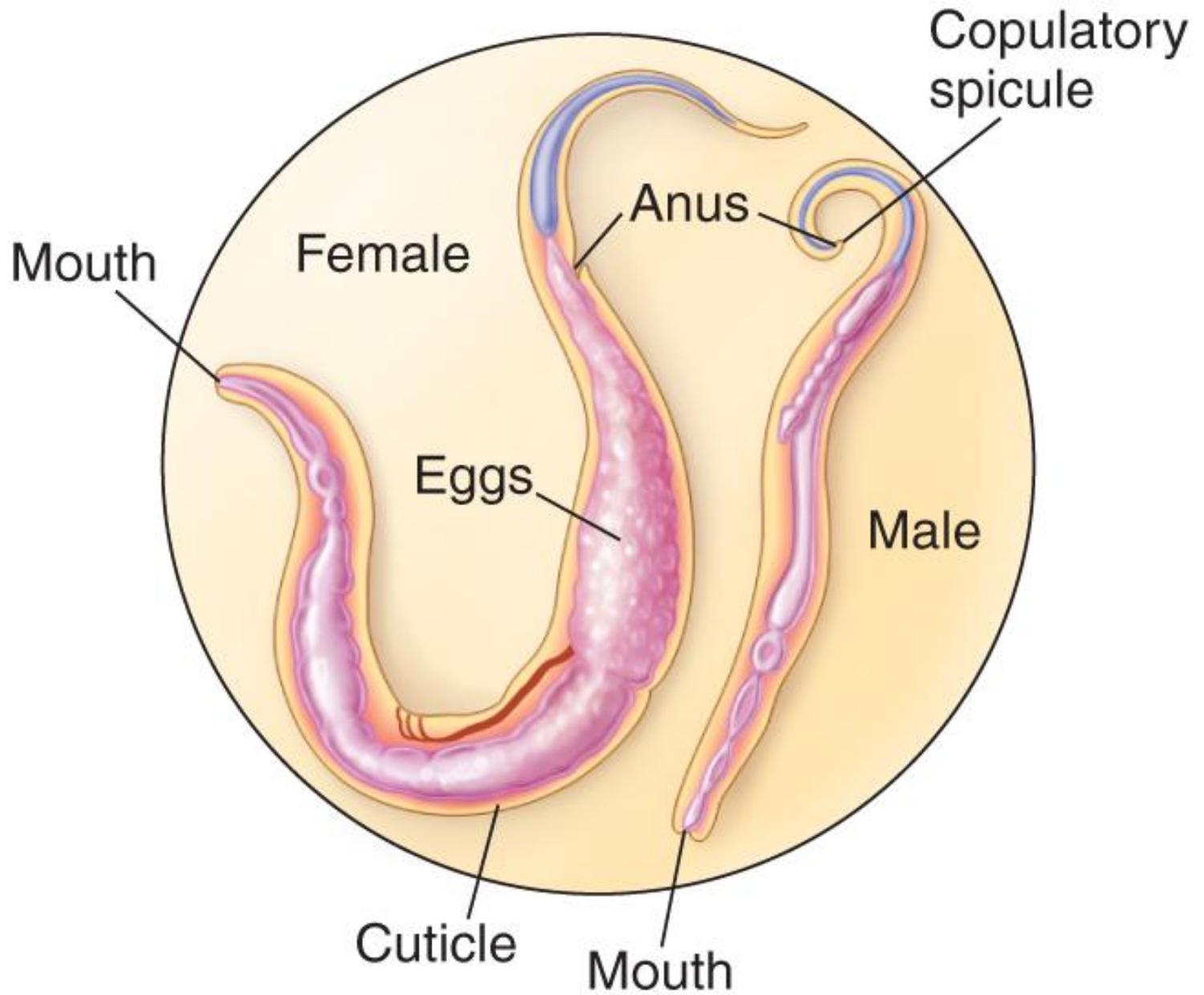


Figure 5.30

General Worm Morphology

- Most developed organs are those of the reproductive tract
- Some degree of reduction in digestive, excretory, nervous, and muscular systems
- Most have thick cuticles for protection and mouth glands for breaking down the host's tissue

Life Cycles and Reproduction

- Fertilized egg (embryo), larval, and adult stages
- In most, adults derive nutrients and reproduce sexually in a host's body
 - Nematodes- separate sexes
 - Trematodes- separate sexes or **hermaphroditic**
- Must complete the life cycle by transmitting an infective form to the body of another host
 - Larval development- intermediate (secondary) host
 - Adulthood and mating- **definitive (final) host**

TABLE 5.5 Examples of Helminths and Their Modes of Transmission

Classification	Common Name of Disease or Worm	Life Cycle Requirement	Spread to Humans By
Roundworms			
Nematodes			
Intestinal Nematodes			Ingestion
Infective in egg (embryo) stage			
<i>Ascaris lumbricoides</i>	Ascariasis	Humans	Fecal pollution of soil with eggs
<i>Enterobius vermicularis</i>	Pinworm	Humans	Close contact
Infective in larval stage			
<i>Trichinella spiralis</i>	Trichina worm	Pigs, wild mammals	Consumption of meat containing larvae
Tissue Nematodes			Burrowing of larva into tissue
<i>Onchocerca volvulus</i>	River blindness	Humans, black flies	Fly bite
<i>Dracunculus medinensis</i>	Guinea worm	Humans and <i>Cyclops</i> (an aquatic invertebrate)	Ingestion of water containing <i>Cyclops</i>
Flatworms			
Trematodes			
<i>Schistosoma japonicum</i>	Blood fluke	Humans and snails	Ingestion of fresh water containing larval stage
Cestodes			
<i>T. solium</i>	Pork tapeworm	Humans, swine	Consumption of undercooked or raw pork
<i>Diphyllobothrium latum</i>	Fish tapeworm	Humans, fish	Consumption of undercooked or raw fish

A Helminth Cycle: The Pinworm

- Person swallows microscopic eggs
 - Picked up from another infected person by direct contact
 - Or by touching articles an infected person has touched
- Eggs hatch in the intestine
- Release larvae that mature in to adult worms (about 1 month)
- Male and female worms mate
- Female migrates out of the anus to deposit eggs
 - Causes intense itchiness
 - Relieved by scratching
 - Scratching contaminates the fingers which transfer the eggs
- Eggs spread to others or the original host reinfects him or herself

Helminth Classification and Identification

- Shape
- Size
- Degree of development of various organs
- Presence of hooks, suckers, or other special structures
- Mode of reproduction
- Kinds of hosts
- Appearance of eggs and larvae

Distribution and Importance of Parasitic Worms

- About 50 species parasitize humans
- Distributed in all areas of the world
- Yearly estimate of worldwide infections- in the billions

SUMMARY

- History of Eukaryotic cell
- Fungi
- Algae
- Protozoa
- Helminths