

# **Chapter 5:**

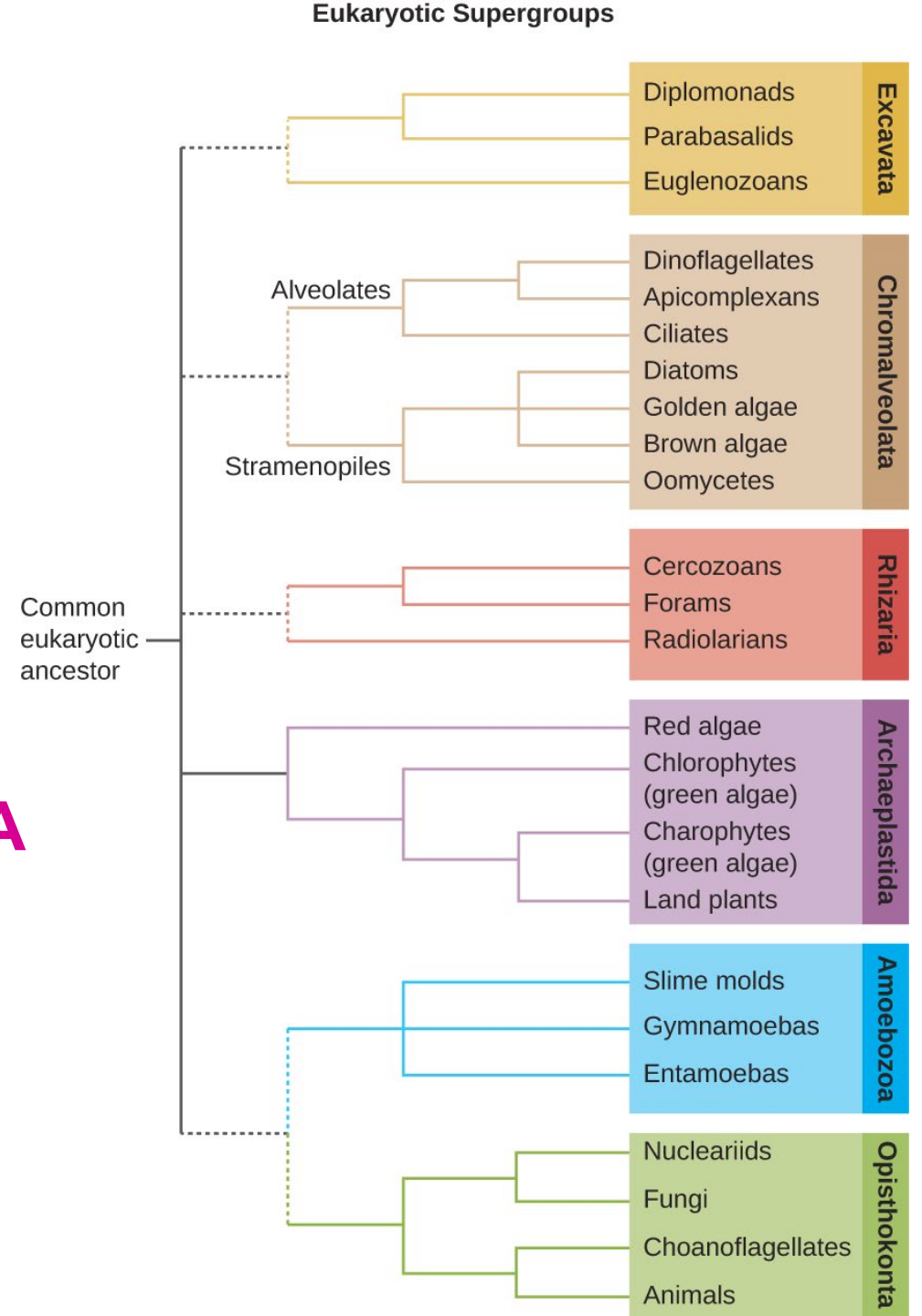
# **THE EUKARYOTES OF MICROBIOLOGY**

- 1. Unicellular Eukaryotic Parasites**
- 2. Parasitic Helminths**
- 3. Fungi**
- 4. Algae & Lichens**

# New Classification of the Domain Eukarya

The domain Eukarya has undergone major reclassification based on 6 supergroups:

EXCAVATA                      ARCHAEPLASTIDA  
 CHROMALVEOLATA              RHIZARIA  
 AMOEBOZOA                      OPISTHOKONTA



# **1. Unicellular Eukaryotic Parasites**

**Members of the supergroups:**

**AMOEBOZOA**

**EXCAVATA**

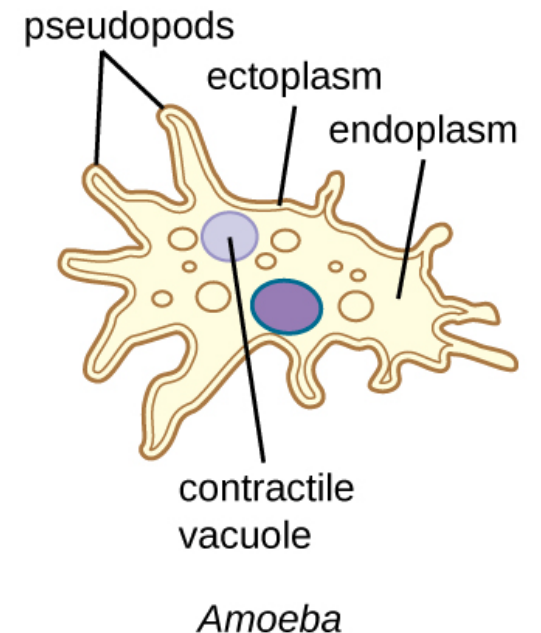
**CHROMALVEOLATA**

# Unicellular Parasites in the Amoebozoa

Members of this supergroup extend pseudopodia and exhibit motility by amoeboid movement, and feed by phagocytosis.

We will look at examples of parasites in the subgroup:

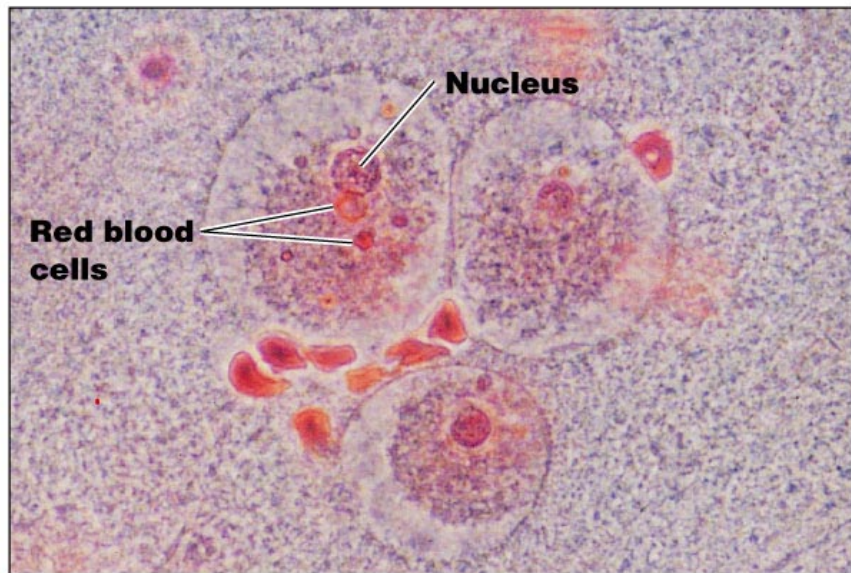
## ENTAMOEBAS



# Entamoebas

## *Entamoeba histolytica*

- typically transmitted by contaminated, untreated water
- leads to amoebic dysentery

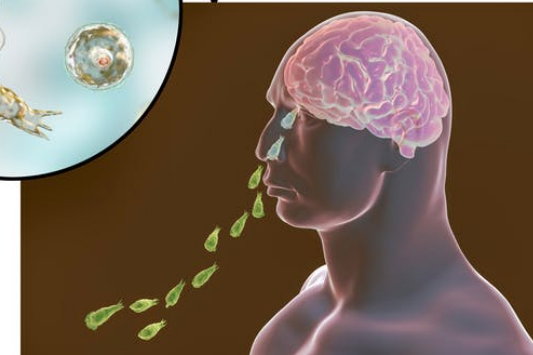


(b) *Entamoeba histolytica*



Naegleriasis

Brain-Eating  
Amoeba Infection



## *Naegleria fowleri*

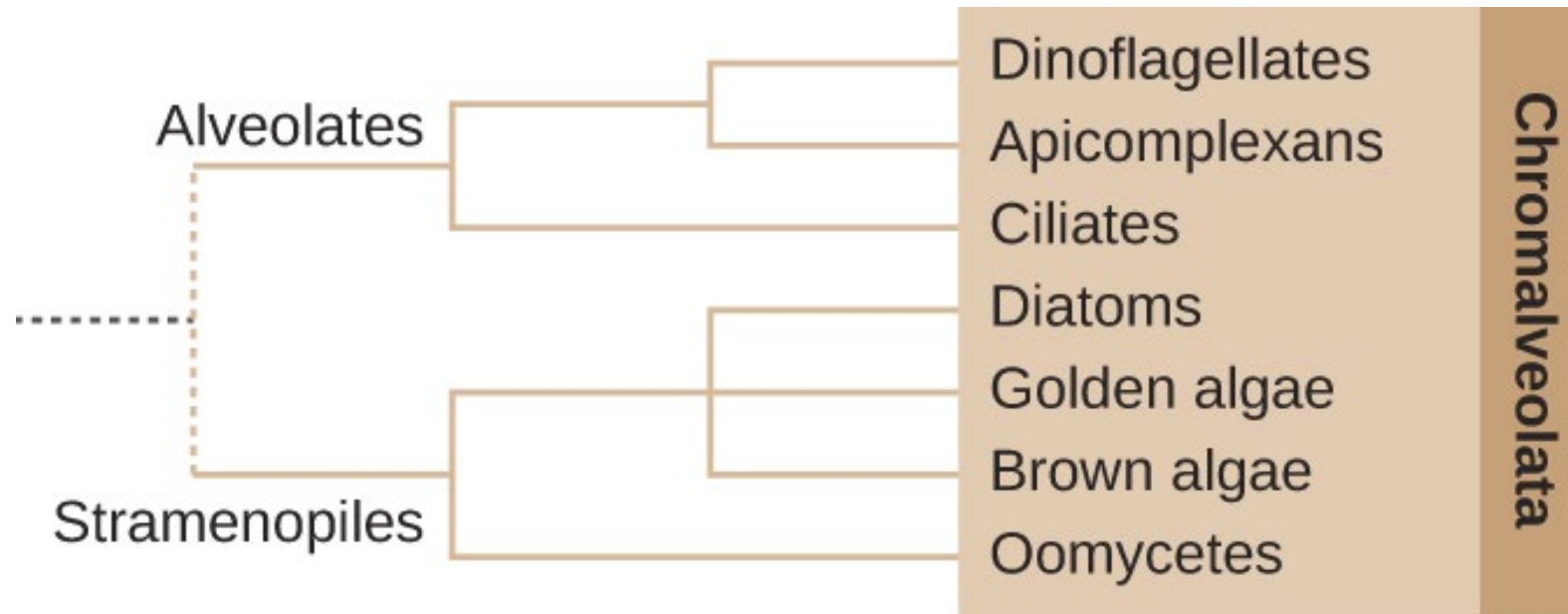
- typically transmitted by contaminated water via nose
- “brain-eating amoeba, almost always fatal

# Unicellular Parasites in the Chromalveolata

We will look at examples of parasites in the subgroups:

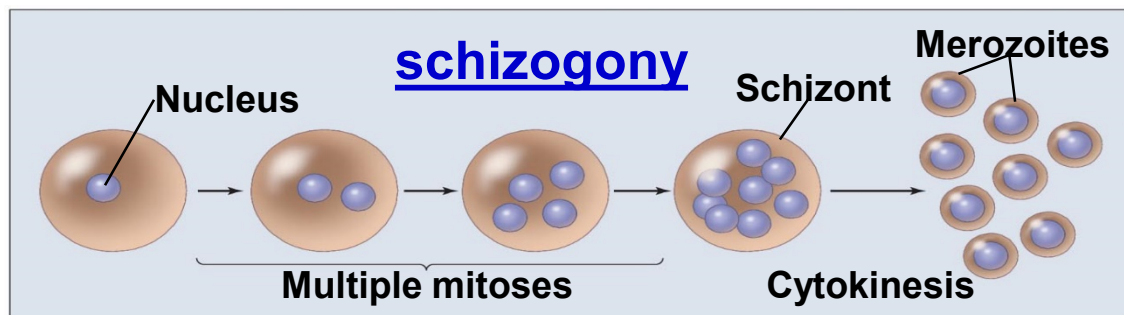
**APICOMPLEXANS**

**CILIATES**

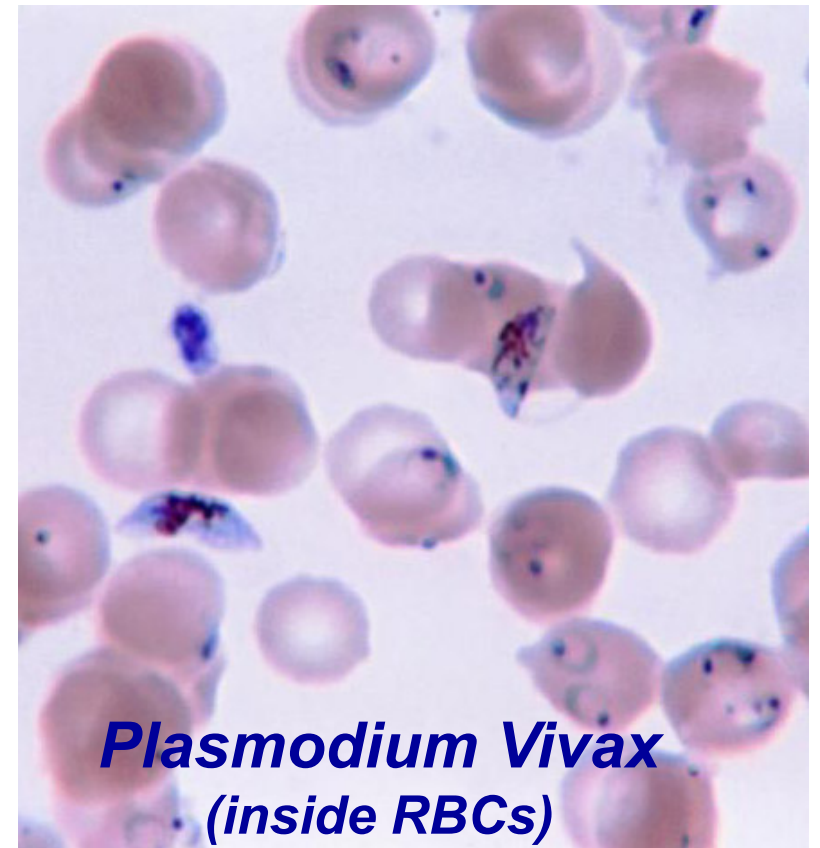


# Apicomplexans

- non-motile obligate intracellular parasites
- have a unique “apical complex” of fibers and vacuoles that release digestive enzymes that aid penetration of animal tissues
- includes species of *Plasmodium* responsible for the disease malaria
  - reproduce asexually by schizogony

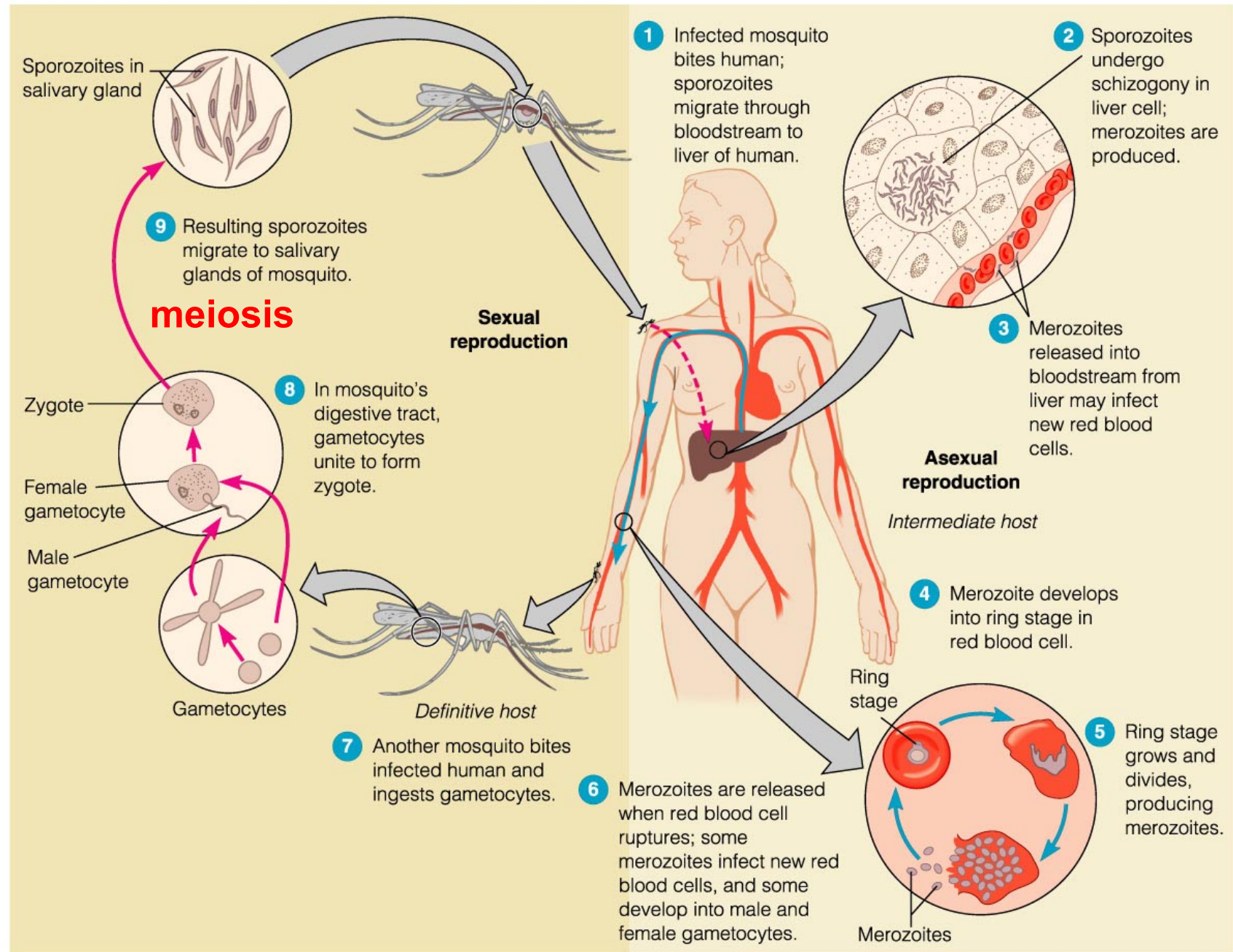


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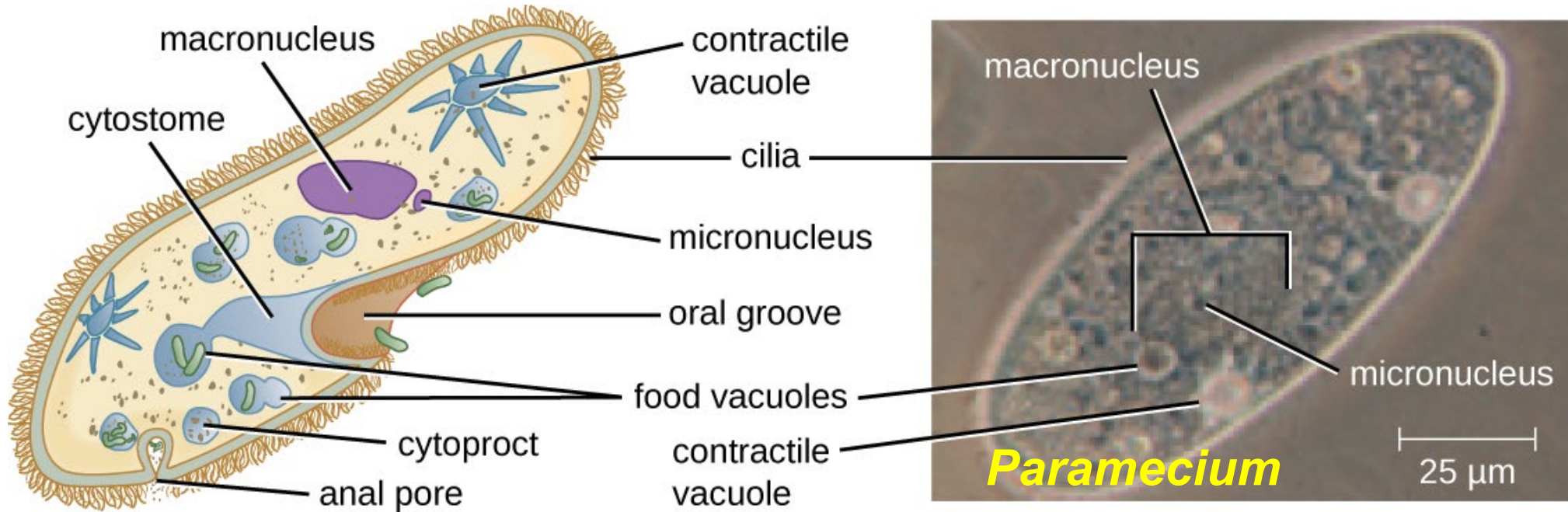
# Plasmodium Life Cycle (malaria)

- definitive host (sexual reproduction) is the mosquito
- intermediate host (asexual reproduction) is *Homo sapiens*





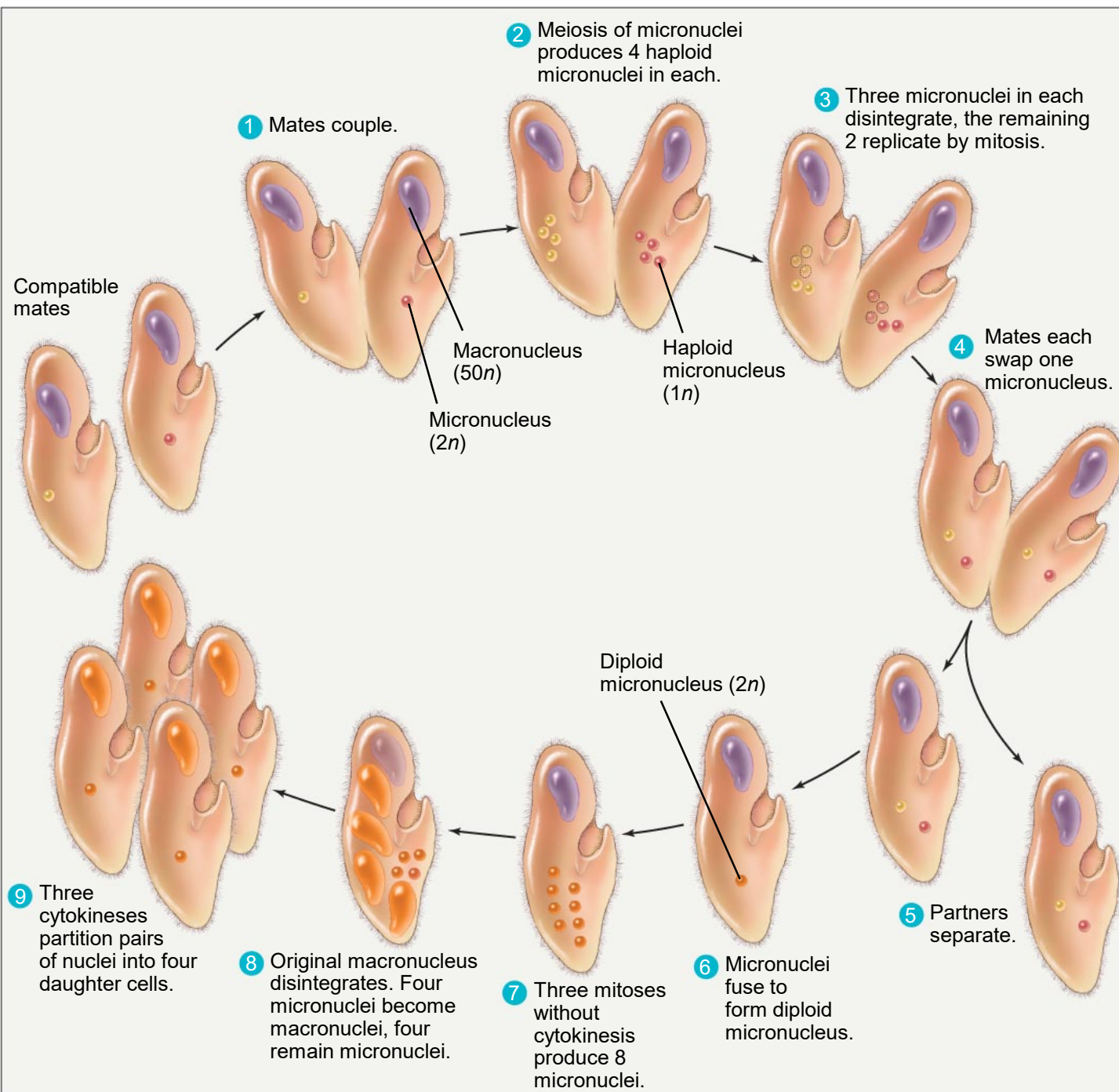
# Ciliates



All have many small projections called cilia used for locomotion & to direct food into the cytostome (“mouth”)

- have contractile vacuole to expel excess water taken in by osmosis (expelled by exocytosis)
- some have multiple nuclei

# Conjugation in Ciliates



# Unicellular Parasites in the Excavata

We will look at examples of parasites in the subgroups:

**DIPLOMONADS**

**PARABASALIDS**

**EUGLENOZOA**



# Parabasalids & Diplomonads

Do NOT have mitochondria, have an analogous mitosome

- most have multiple flagella, Diplomonads have 2 nuclei
- several parasitic genera can cause human disease:

*Trichomonas* Flagella



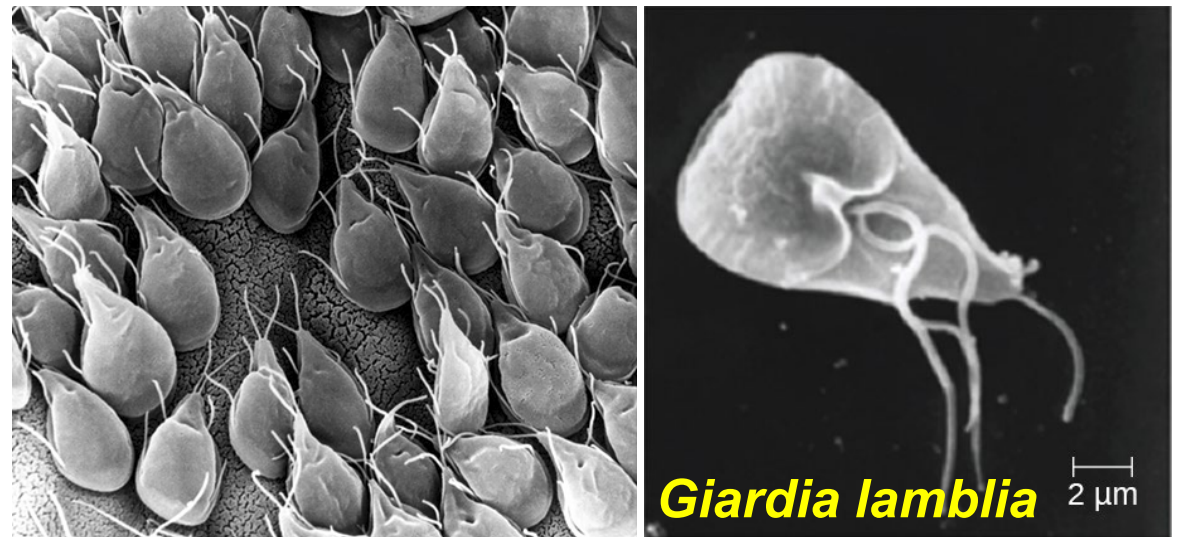
(b) *Trichomonas vaginalis*

SEM 10  $\mu$ m

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a “Parabasalid”

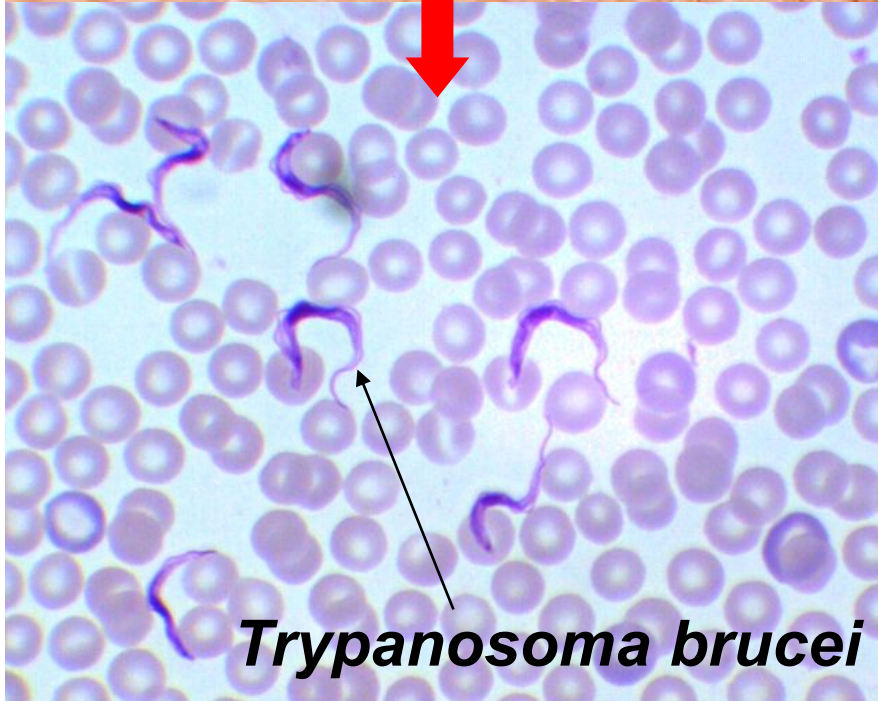
*Giardia*



*Giardia lamblia* 2  $\mu$ m

a “Diplomonad”

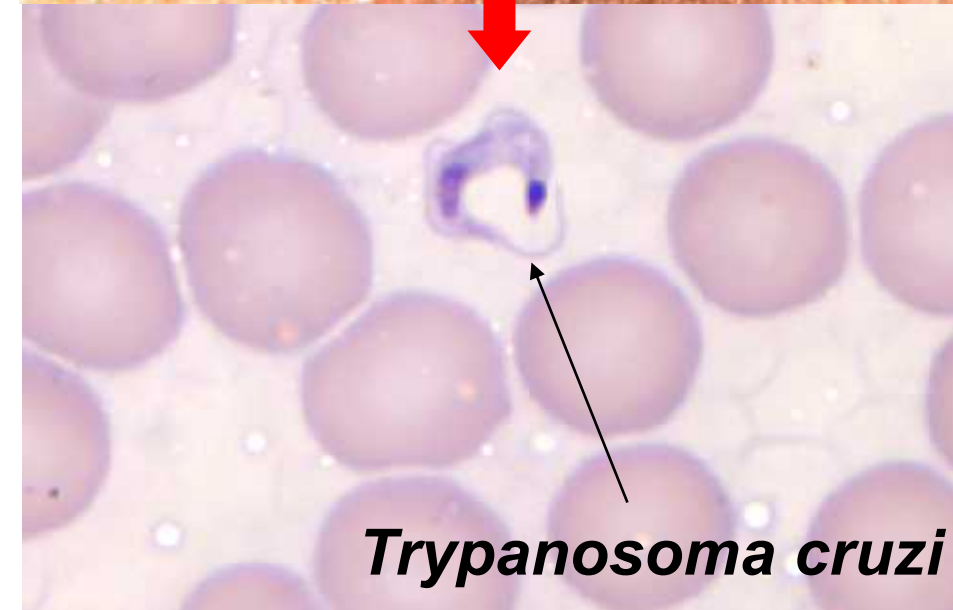
## Sleeping Sickness



# Euglenozoa

Includes the hemoflagellates (*Trypanosoma*) such as those that cause “sleeping sickness” and “Chagas Disease”

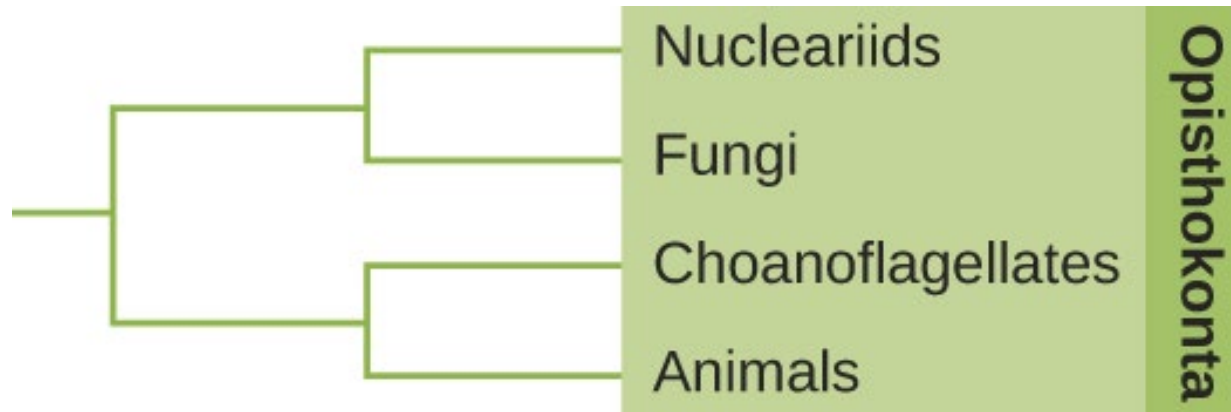
## Chagas Disease



## 2. Parasitic Helminths

From of the supergroup:

**OPISTHOKONTA**  
(animals)



# Overview of the Helminths

Helminths are parasitic worms found in 2 animal phyla, the Platyhelminthes (flatworms) and the Nematodes (roundworms).

- multicellular eukaryotic heterotrophs
- have complex life cycles frequently involving multiple hosts
- contain distinct organ systems
  - some may be reduced or absent due to dependence on host (e.g., no digestive system, no locomotion)

## Platyhelminthes (flatworms):

- typically hermaphroditic (monoecious)
- have a proctostome (single opening, no anus)
- we will look at 2 classes:

Trematodes (flukes) & Cestodes (tapeworms)

## Nematodes (roundworms):

- typically dioecious (2 sexes)
- have complete digestive system (mouth & anus)
- we will look at 1 example: **pinworms**



# Trematodes (flukes)

Members of this class of flatworms are all parasites associated w/particular host tissues (liver, blood, lung)

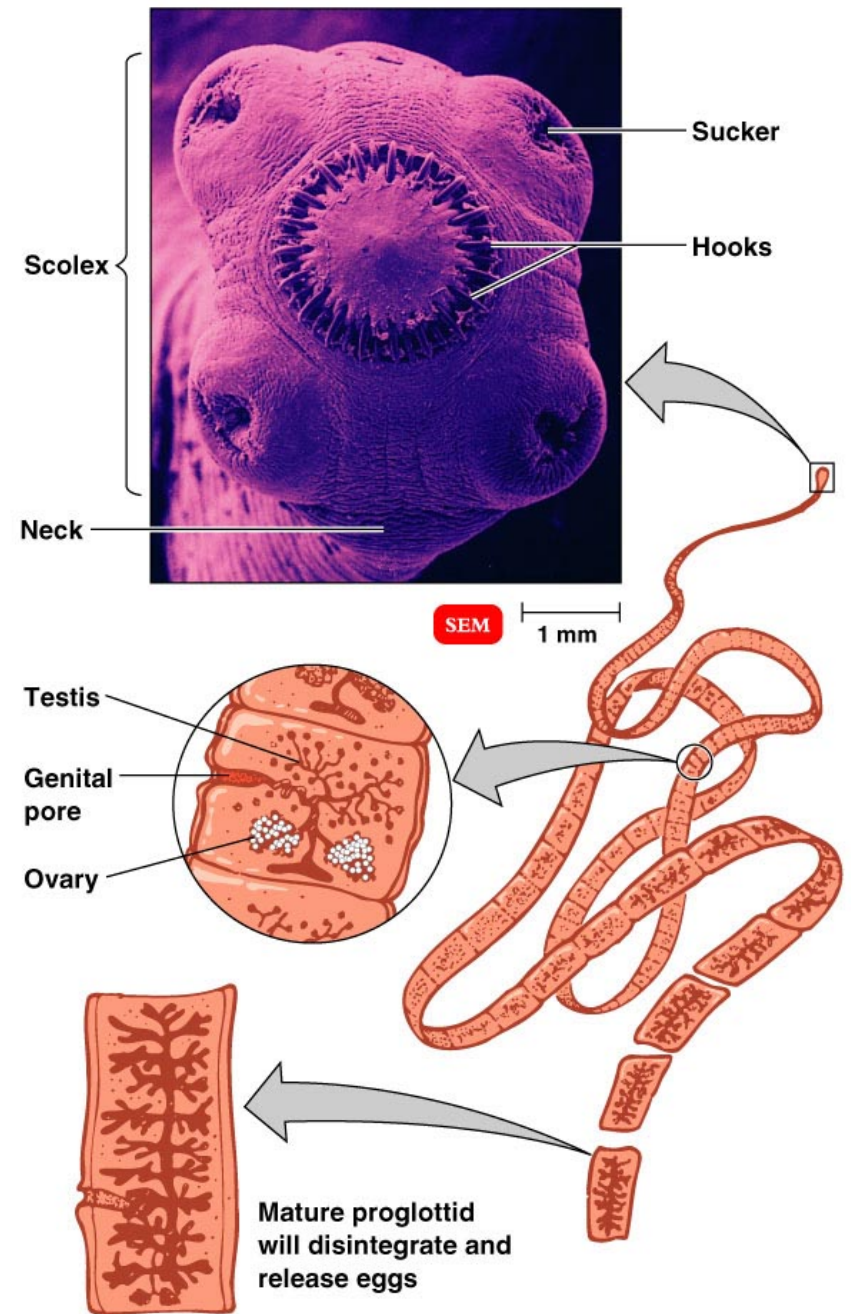
- can have multiple larval stages and hosts
- hermaphroditic (monoecious)
- attach to host tissue via oral and ventral suckers
- absorb nutrients through outer cuticle



(liver fluke)

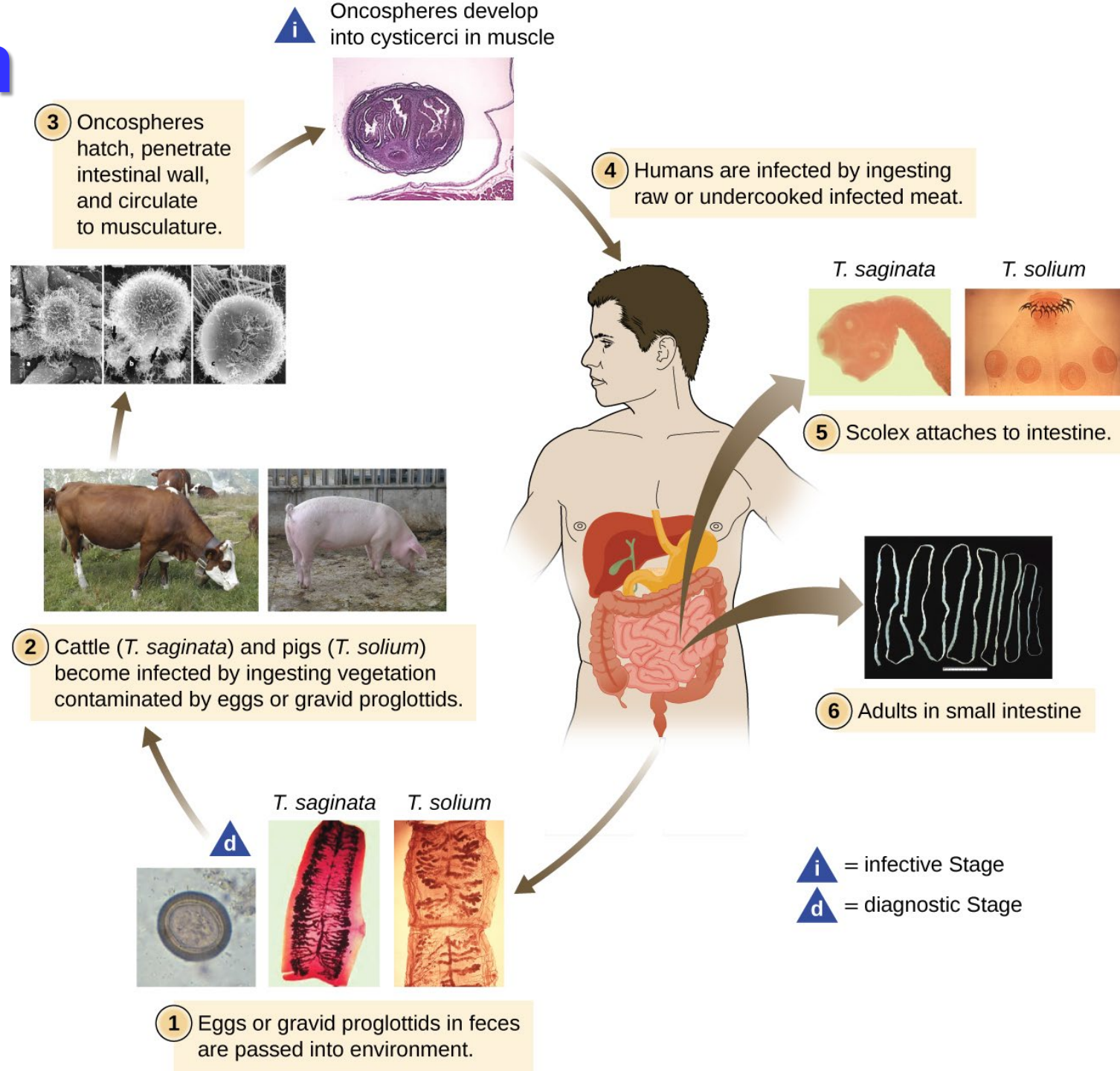
# Tapeworms (cestodes)

- intestinal parasites
- scolex (head) has hooks & suckers for attachment
- no digestive system, absorb nutrients
- repeating proglottids have male & female reproductive organs (monoecious)
- mature proglottids detach & pass w/feces allowing transmission to other hosts



# Typical Tapeworm Life Cycle

- humans are the definitive or primary host
- cows or other grazing animals are a secondary or intermediate host



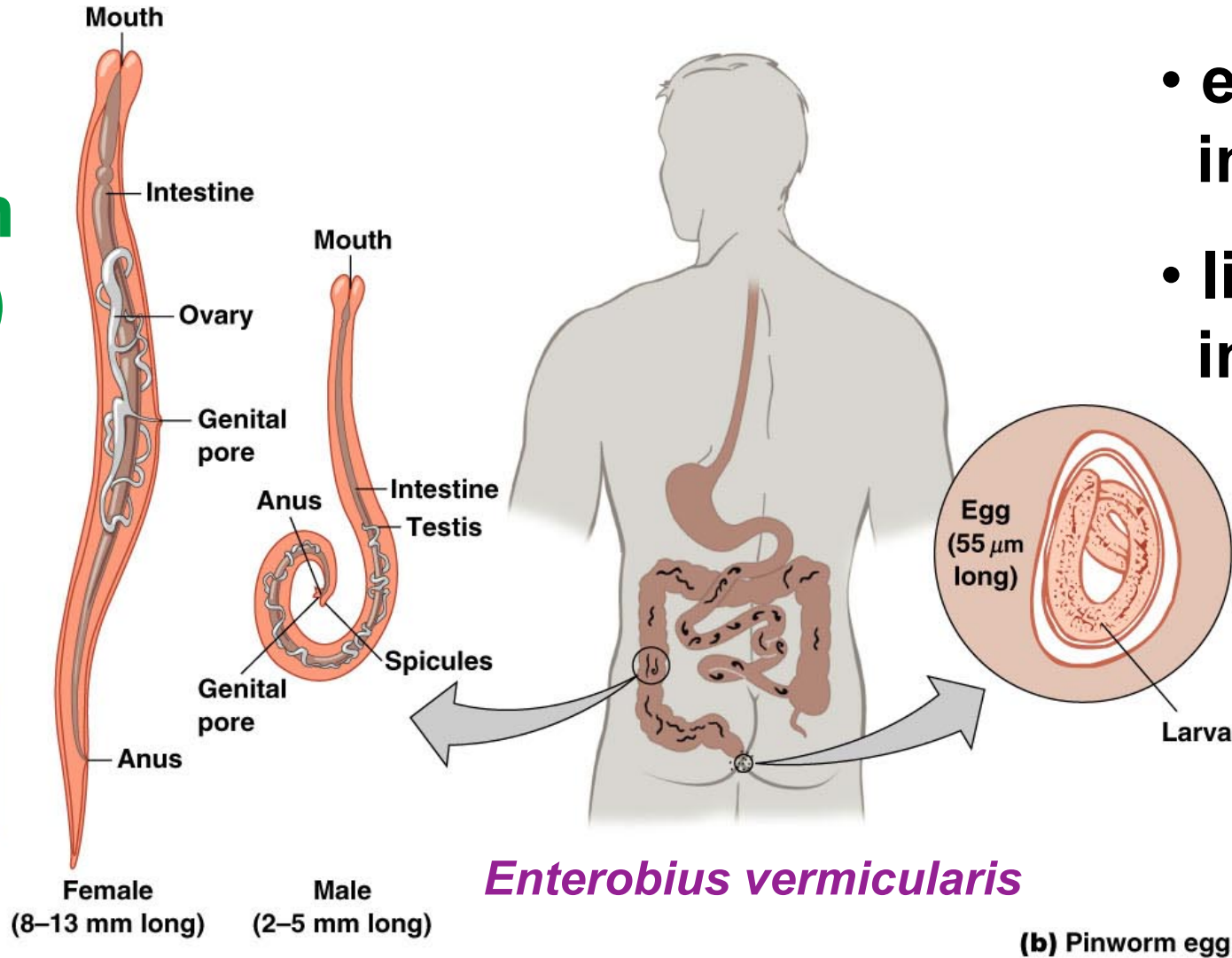
# Pinworms

Dioecious  
parasitic  
roundworm  
(nematode)



LM 3 mm

(a) Adult pinworm



*Enterobius vermicularis*

(b) Pinworm egg

- entire life cycle in human hosts
- live in large intestine

- females lay eggs on anus

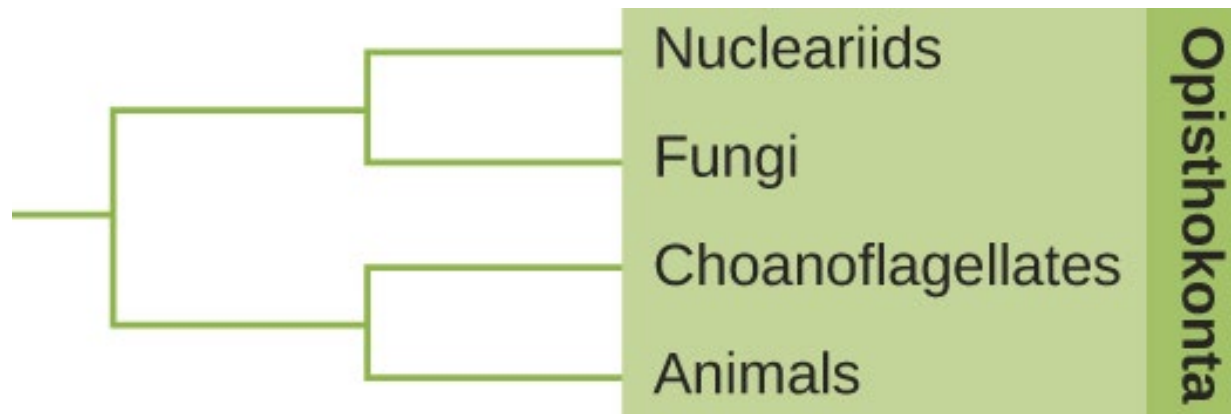
- leads to itching & scratching

transmitted to new hosts via eggs

# 3. Fungi

From of the supergroup:

**OPISTHOKONTA**



# Overview of the Fungi

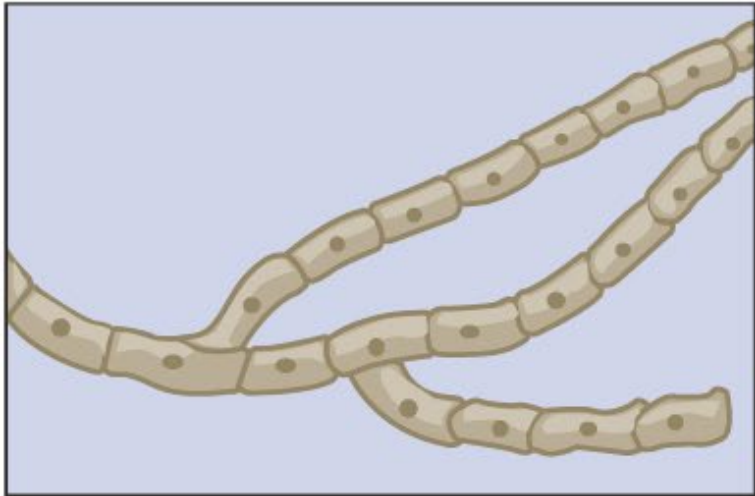
## General characteristics:

- **terrestrial eukaryotic absorptive heterotrophs**
- **ecologically important decomposers**
- **unicellular (yeasts) or multicellular (molds, club fungi)**
- **cells are haploid and have cell walls made of chitin**
- **all fungi develop from haploid spores (no embryos)**
- **do NOT have flagella (spores are immotile)**

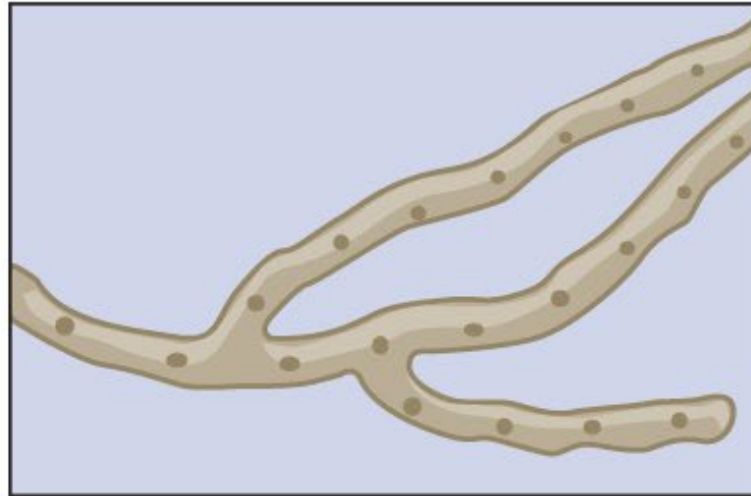
**\*\*study of fungi is known as mycology \*\***

# Structure of Multicellular Fungi

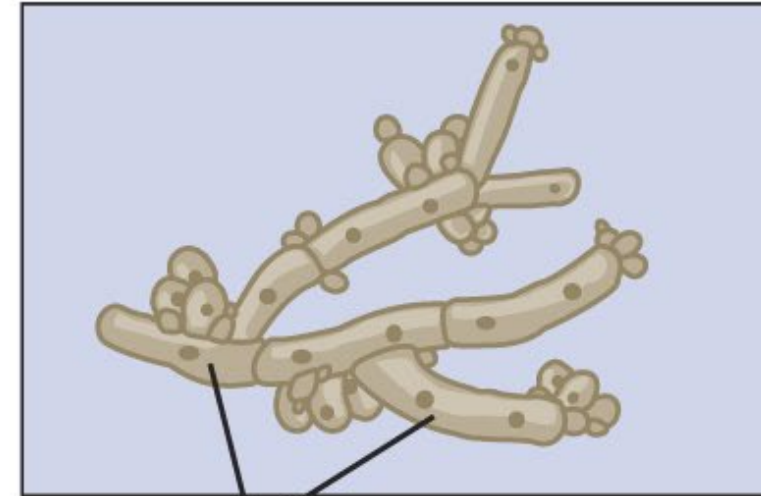
septate hyphae



coenocytic (nonseptate) hyphae



pseudohyphae



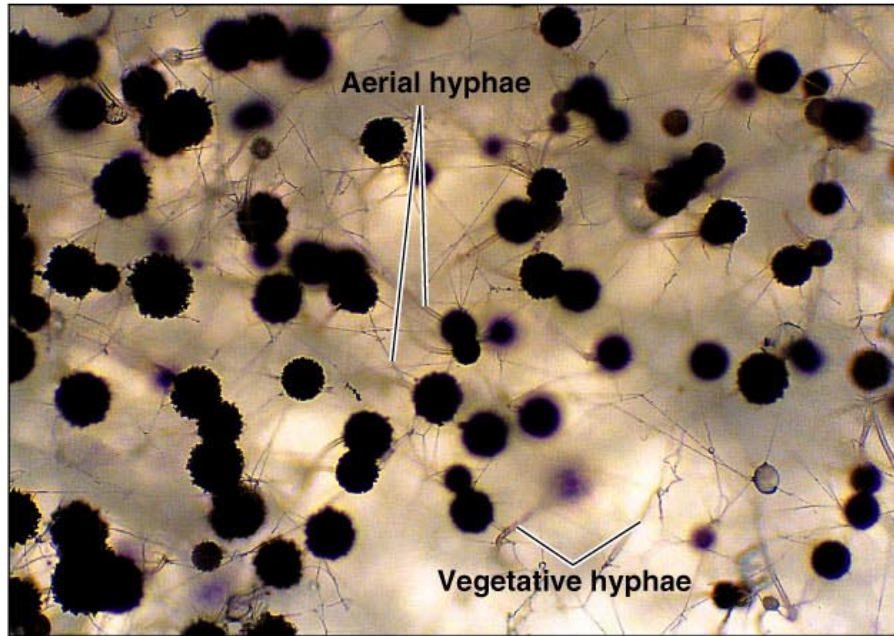
molds

yeast cells

The thallus (“body”) of a fungus consists largely of filamentous chains of cells called hyphae:

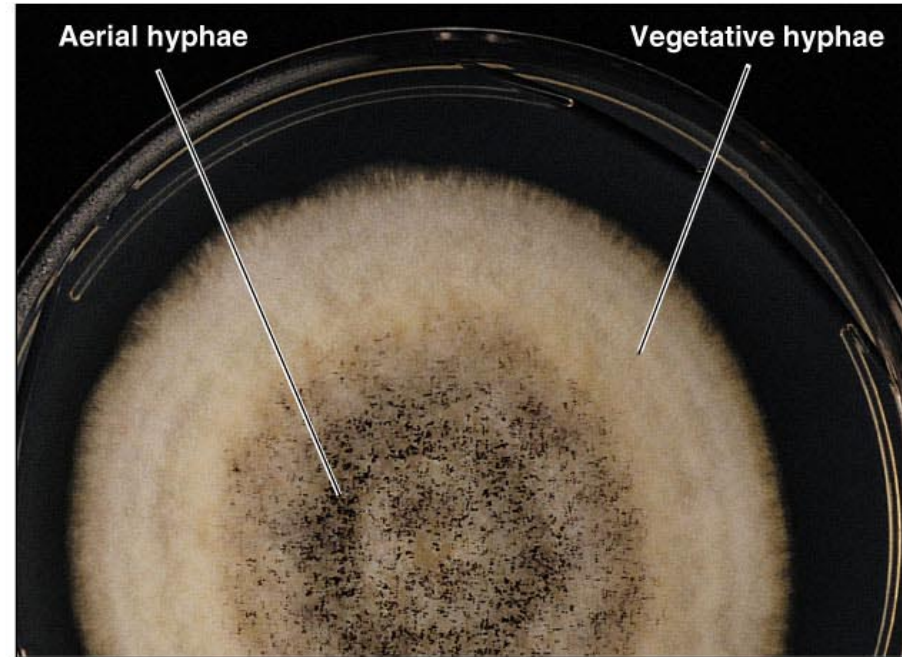
- vegetative (non-reproductive) or aerial (reproductive)
- some have septa (septate), some don't (coenocytic)

# Hyphae form a Mycelium



(a) *Aspergillus niger*

LM 20  $\mu$ m



(b) *A. niger* on agar

On a rich source of nutrients, many hyphae can be produced to form a continuous mass called a mycelium.

- vegetative hyphae spread across food source & “absorb”
- aerial hyphae grow vertically & produce spores



# Reproduction in Filamentous Fungi

Can reproduce asexually by fragmentation:

- fragments of hyphae grow by mitosis in to a new thallus

**Asexual spore production**

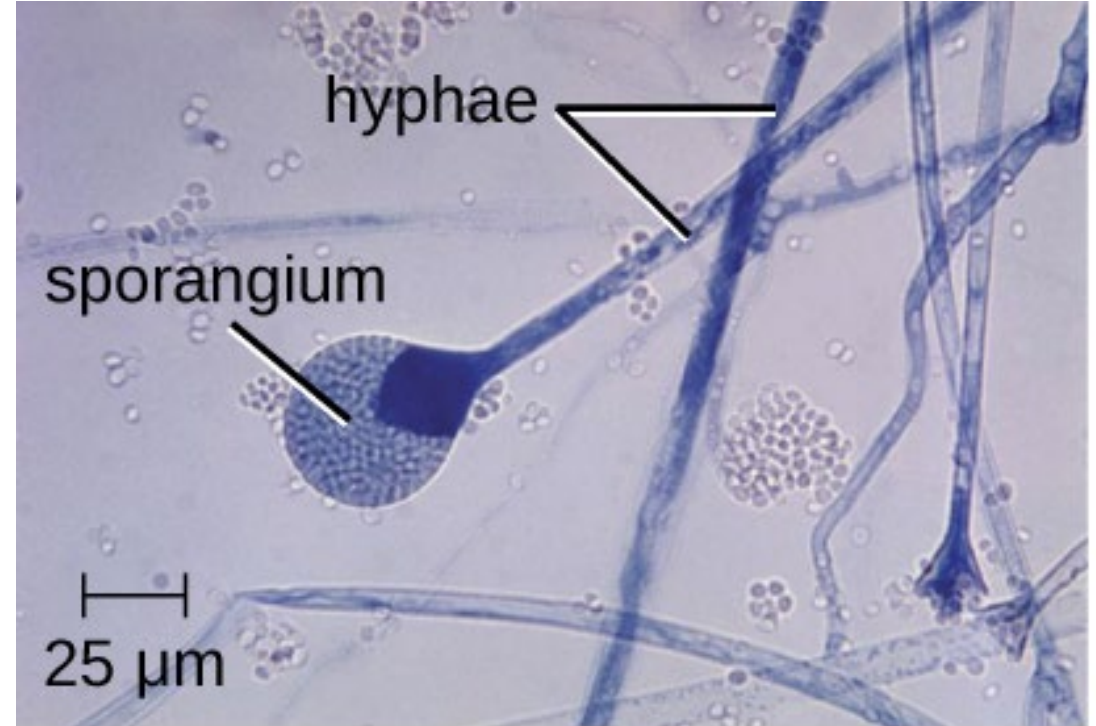
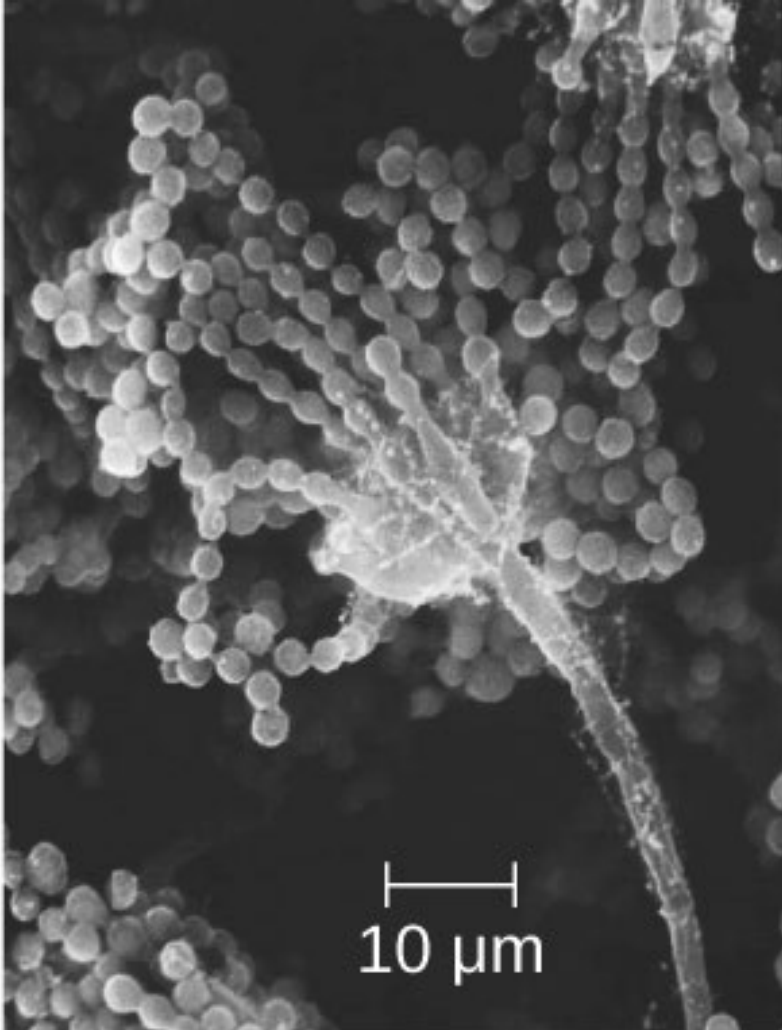
- occurs at the tip of aerial hyphae
- derived from single parent fungus by mitosis

**Sexual spore production**

- involves a partner of opposite mating type, meiosis

# Asexual Spore Production

Some types of fungi produce conidiospores or “conidia” that are not enclosed sac in any type of sac:



Other types of fungi produce sporangiospores are produced within an enclosed sac called a sporangium:

# Sexual Spore Production

**Sexual spores in fungi require 3 phases not seen in the production of asexual spores:**

- 1) PLASMOGAMY:** transfer of a haploid nucleus to a cell of the opposite mating type producing a dikaryon (cell w/2 nuclei)
- 2) KARYOGAMY:** fusion of the haploid nuclei to form a diploid zygote nucleus
  - haploid nuclei may reproduce by mitosis before fusing
  - this is the **ONLY** occasion when fungal cells are diploid
- 3) MEIOSIS:** produce haploid, genetically unique sexual spores

# Important Subgroups of Fungi

**We will look at examples of fungi in the subgroups:**

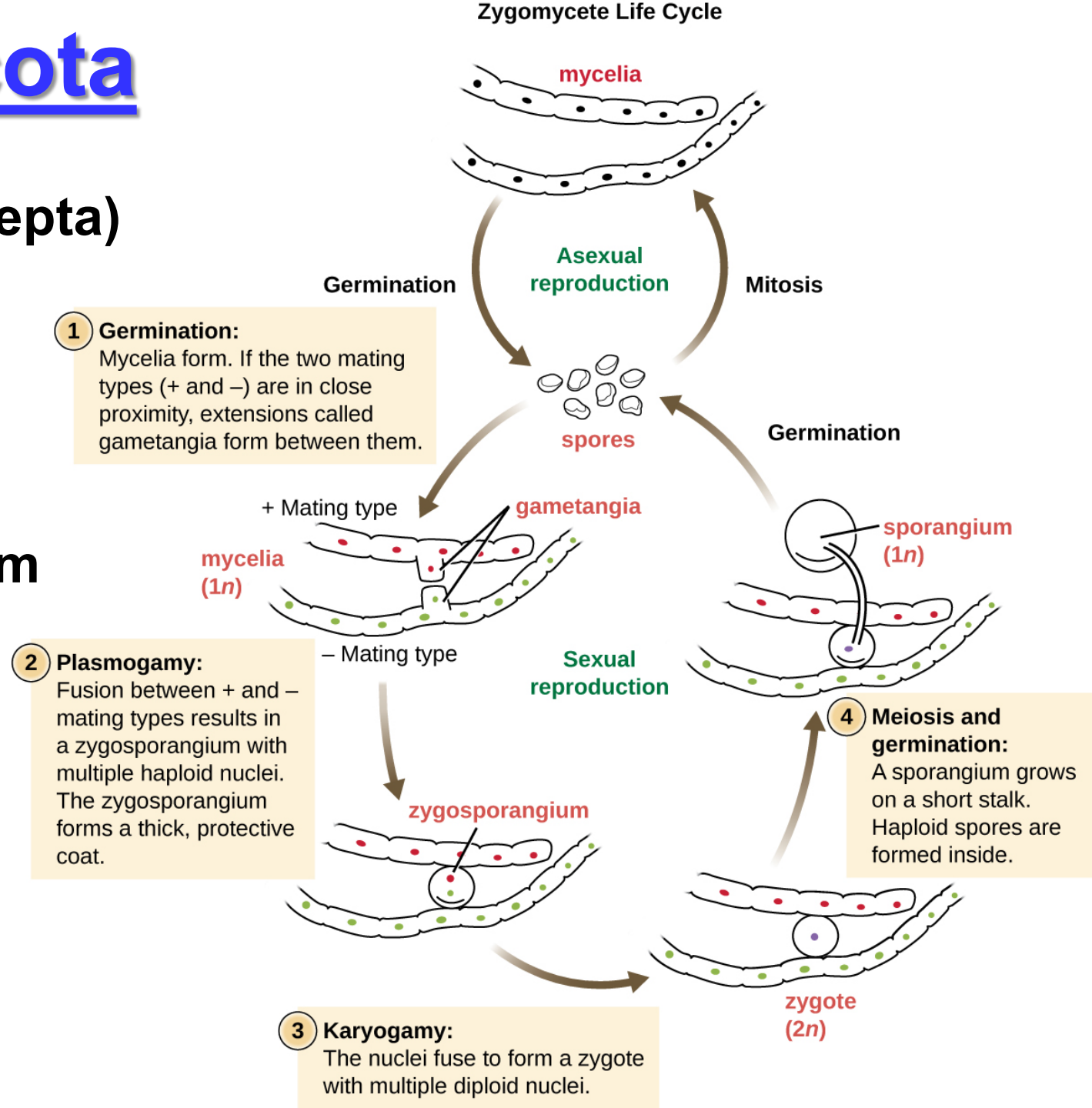
**ZYGOMYCOTA**

**BASIDIOMYCOTA**

**ASCOMYCOTA**

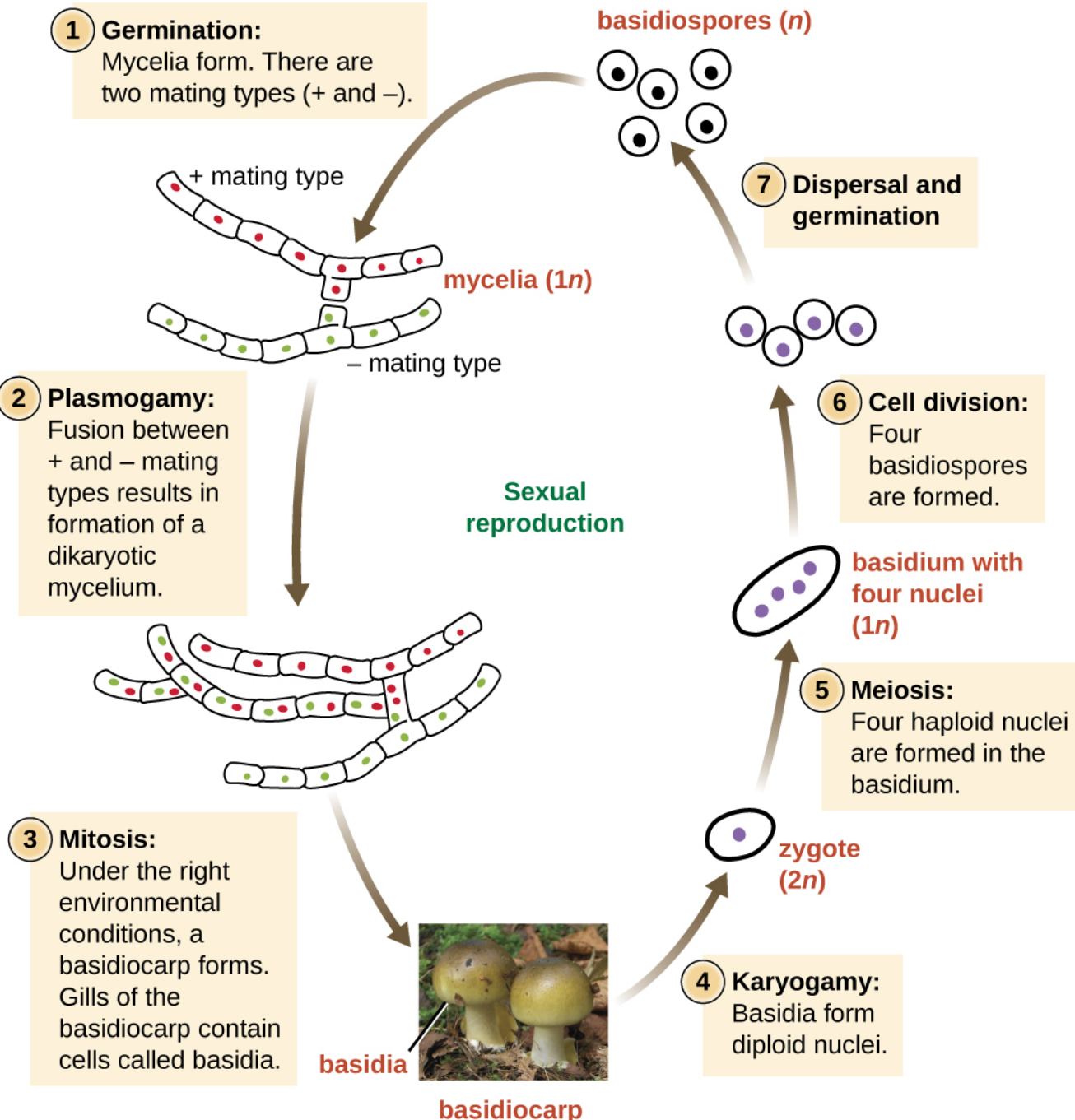
# Zygomycota

- have *coenocytic* hyphae (no septa)
- asexually produced spores are in sporangia
- sexually produced spores are derived from a zygosporangium



# Basidiomycota

- hyphae are septate
- sexual spores are in a club-shaped basidium (basidiospores), hence the term for this group – “club fungi”
- includes mushrooms, rusts, puffballs, stinkhorns



**includes the yeasts**

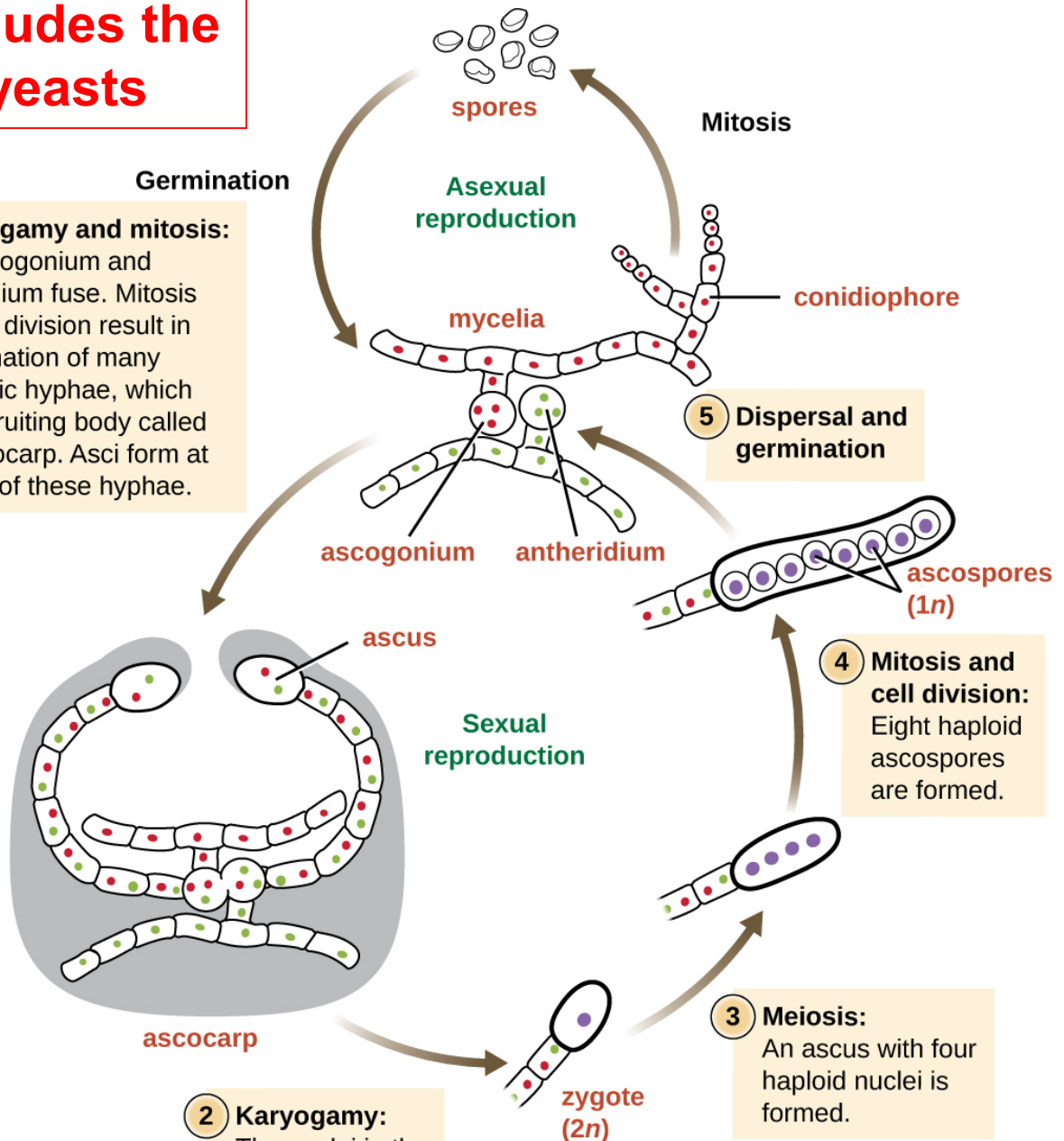
**1 Plasmogamy and mitosis:**  
The ascogonium and antheridium fuse. Mitosis and cell division result in the formation of many dikaryotic hyphae, which form a fruiting body called the ascocarp. Asci form at the tips of these hyphae.

**2 Karyogamy:**  
The nuclei in the asci fuse to form a diploid zygote.

**3 Meiosis:**  
An ascus with four haploid nuclei is formed.

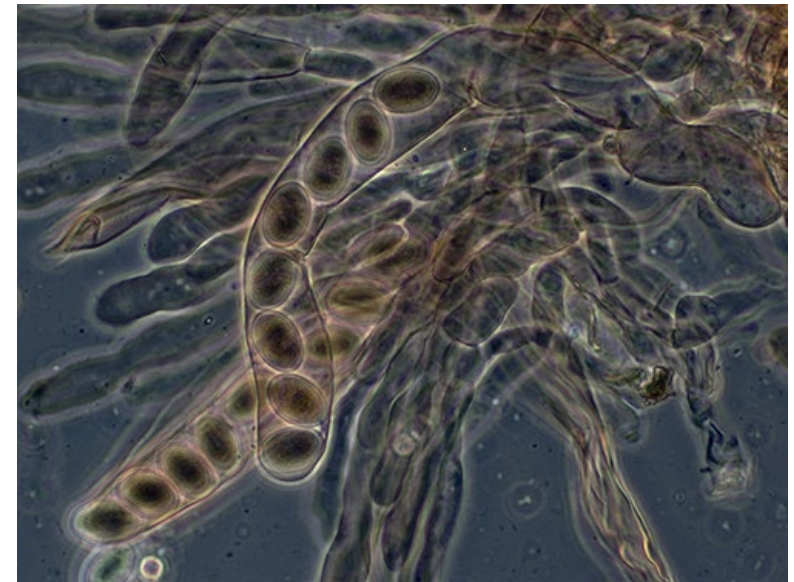
**4 Mitosis and cell division:**  
Eight haploid ascospores are formed.

**5 Dispersal and germination**



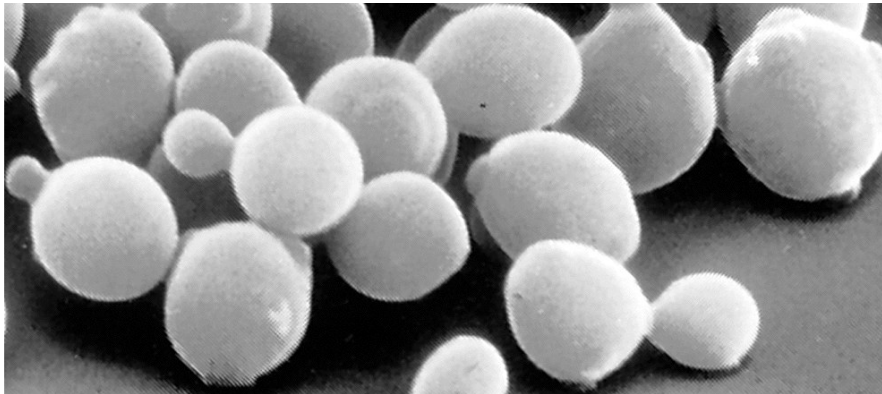
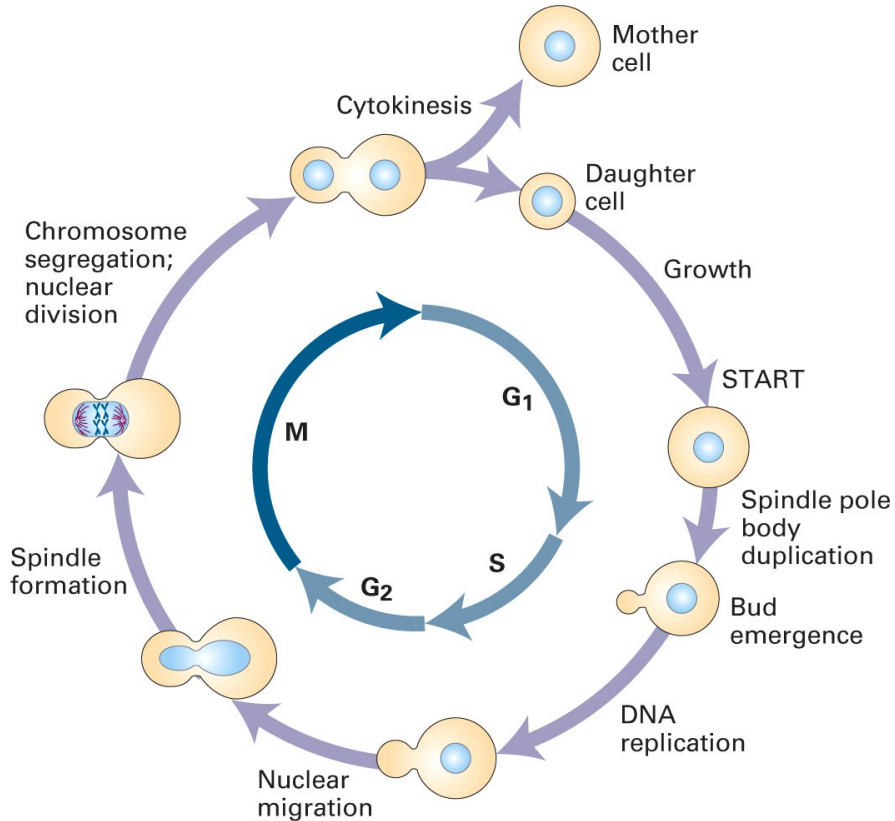
# Ascomycota

- hyphae are septate
- produce asexual conidiospores
- sexual spores are in an ascus (ascospores)



# Budding Yeasts

## Spherical unicellular fungi:



*Saccharomyces cerevisiae*

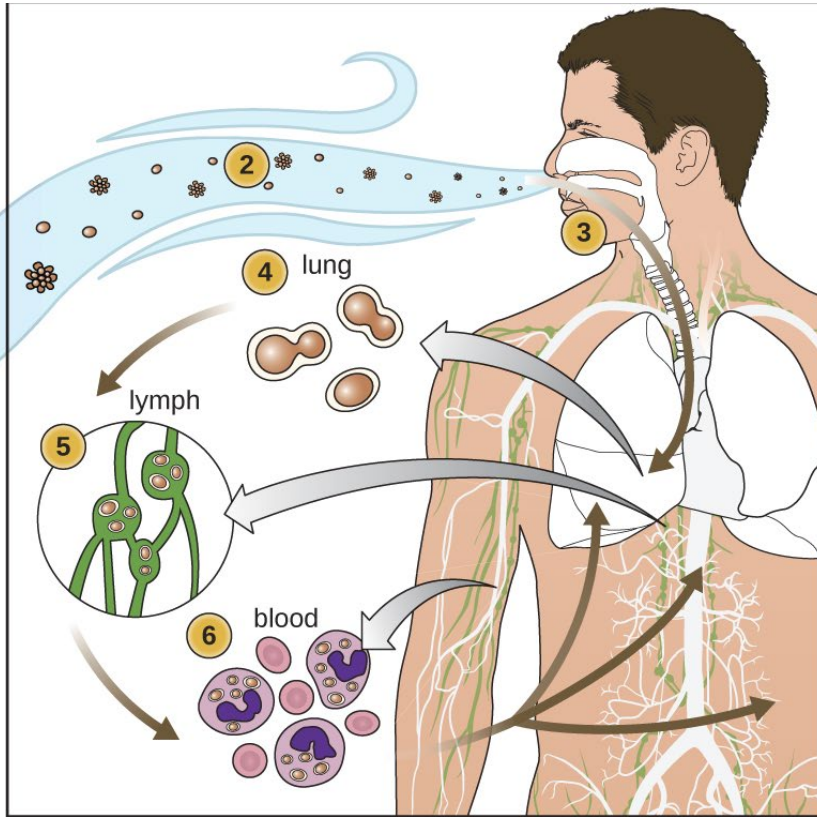
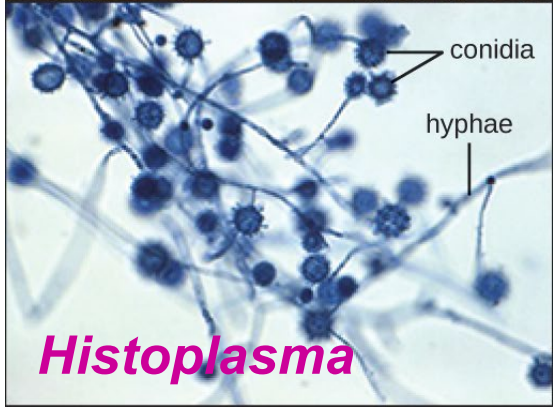
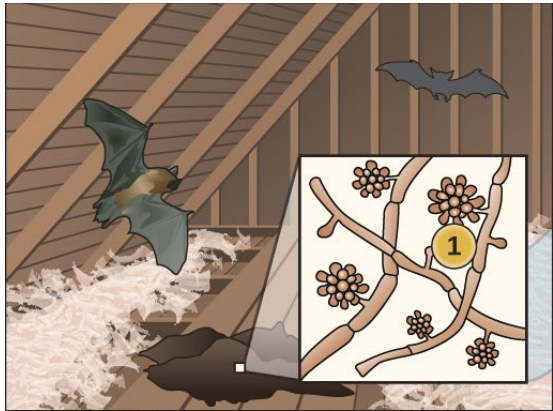
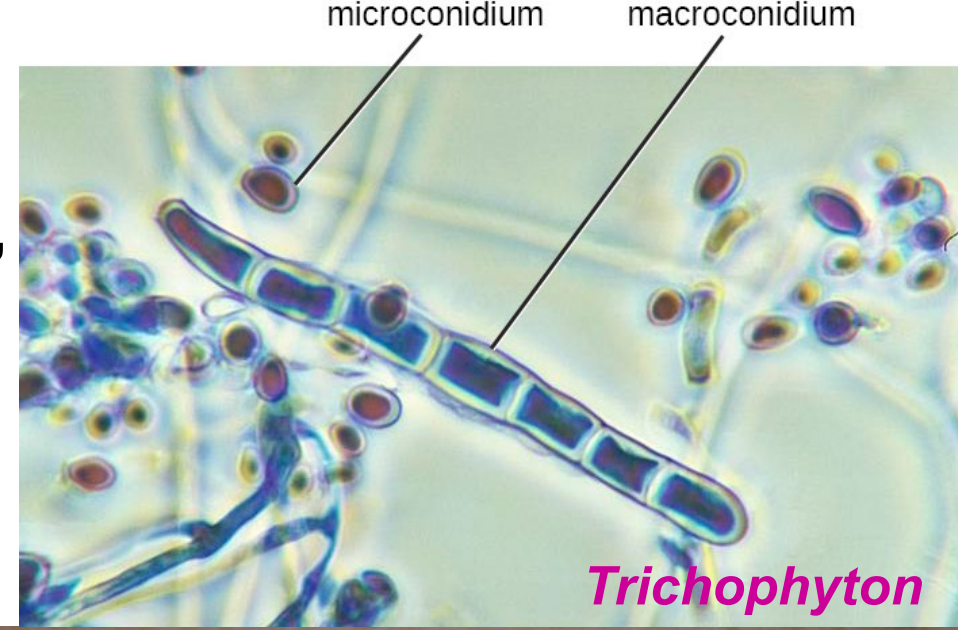
- reproduce asexually by budding
- facultative anaerobes used in producing fermented beverages (beer, wine) and bread
- important in biological research
- production of insulin & other biologics



# Pathogenic Fungi

*Trichophyton* species are the cause of “ringworm”, “athlete’s foot” and other fungal skin infections.

*Histoplasma capsulatum* is the cause of histoplasmosis – a chronic lung disease.



## **4. Algae and Lichens**

**Members of the supergroups:**

**ARCHAEPLASTIDA**

**CHROMALVEOLATA**

# Overview of the Algae

## General characteristics of algae:

- unicellular or multicellular eukaryotes
- photoautotrophs (photosynthetic)
- all are essentially aquatic (live in fresh or saltwater)
- all are capable of asexual reproduction

**\*\*produce an estimated 80% of O<sub>2</sub> in the atmosphere!\*\***

# Algal Subgroups of the Chromalveolata

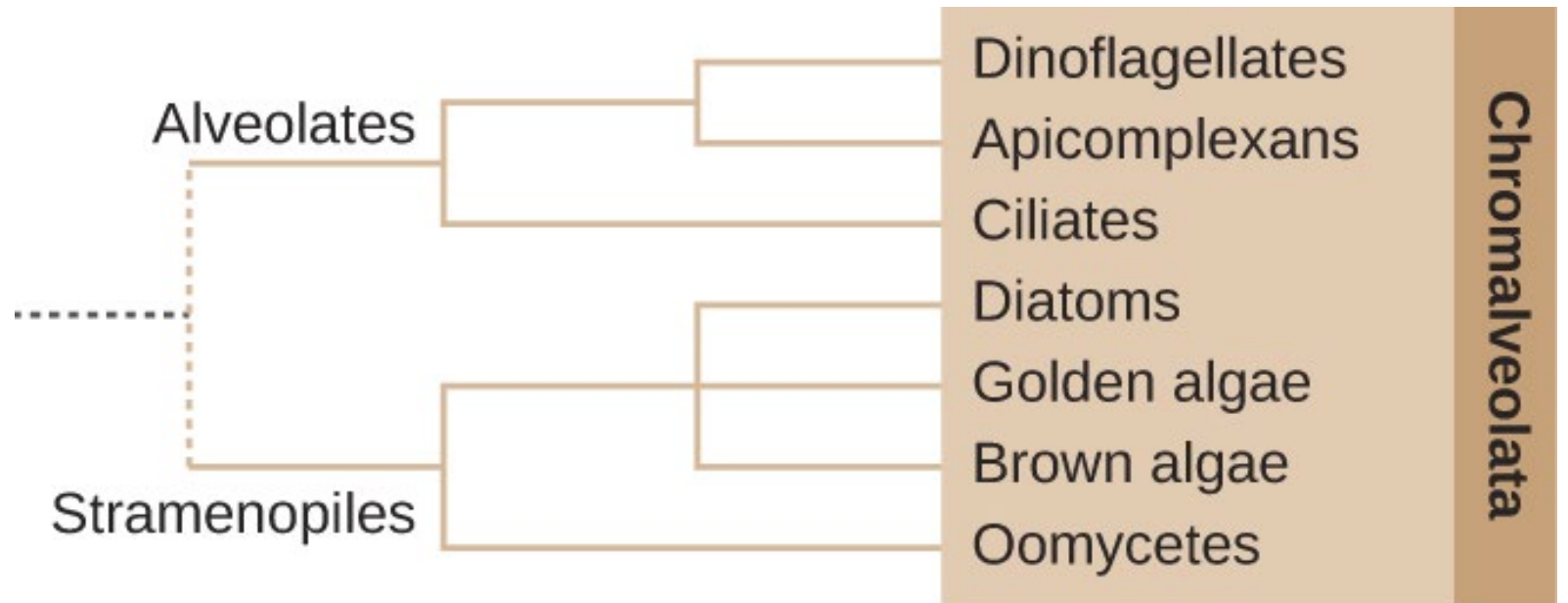
We will be concerned with the following subgroups that contain photosynthetic organisms that qualify as:

**DINOFLAGELLATES**

**DIATOMS**

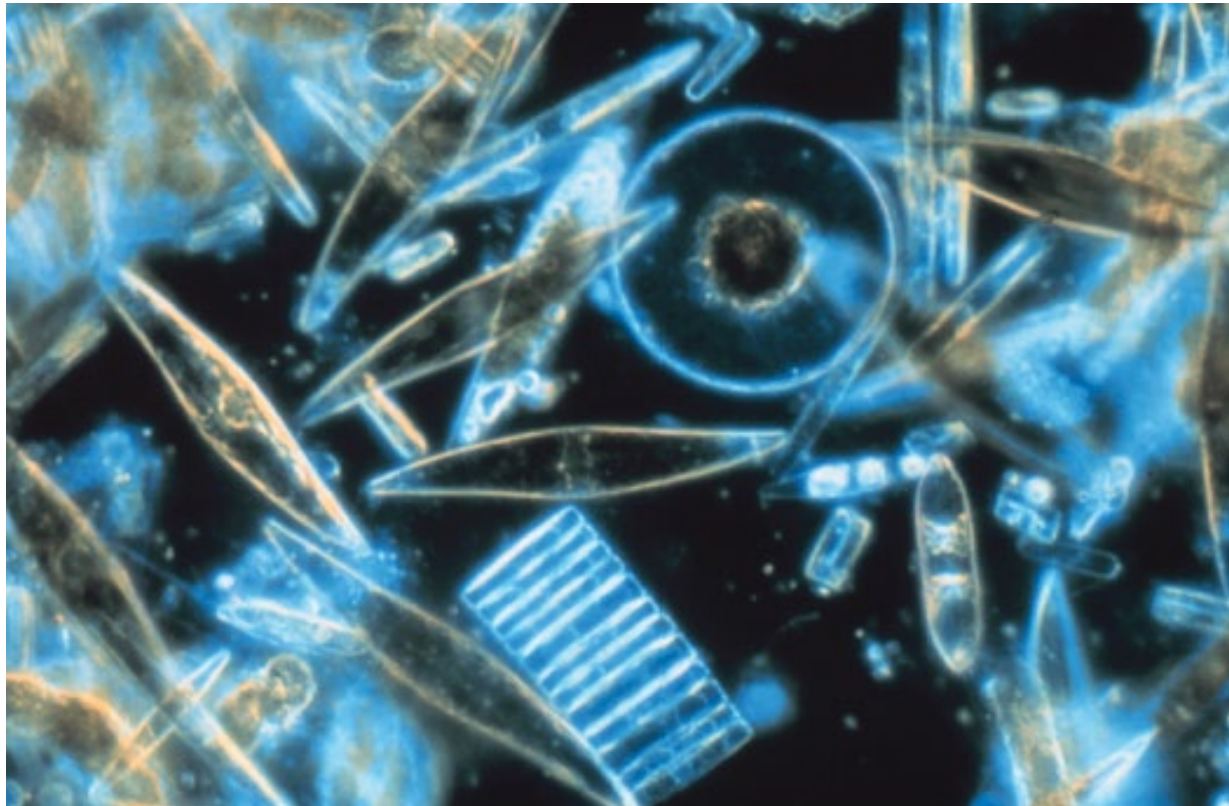
**BROWN ALGAE**

**GOLDEN ALGAE**



# Diatoms

**Unicellular or filamentous and have a unique cell wall structure composed of a carbohydrate called pectin & silica which gives them their glass-like geometric appearance.**

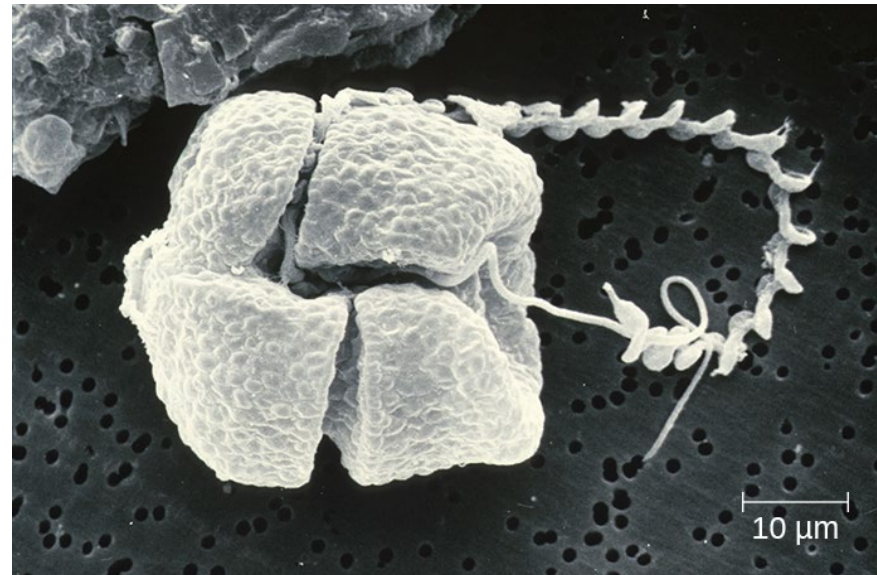
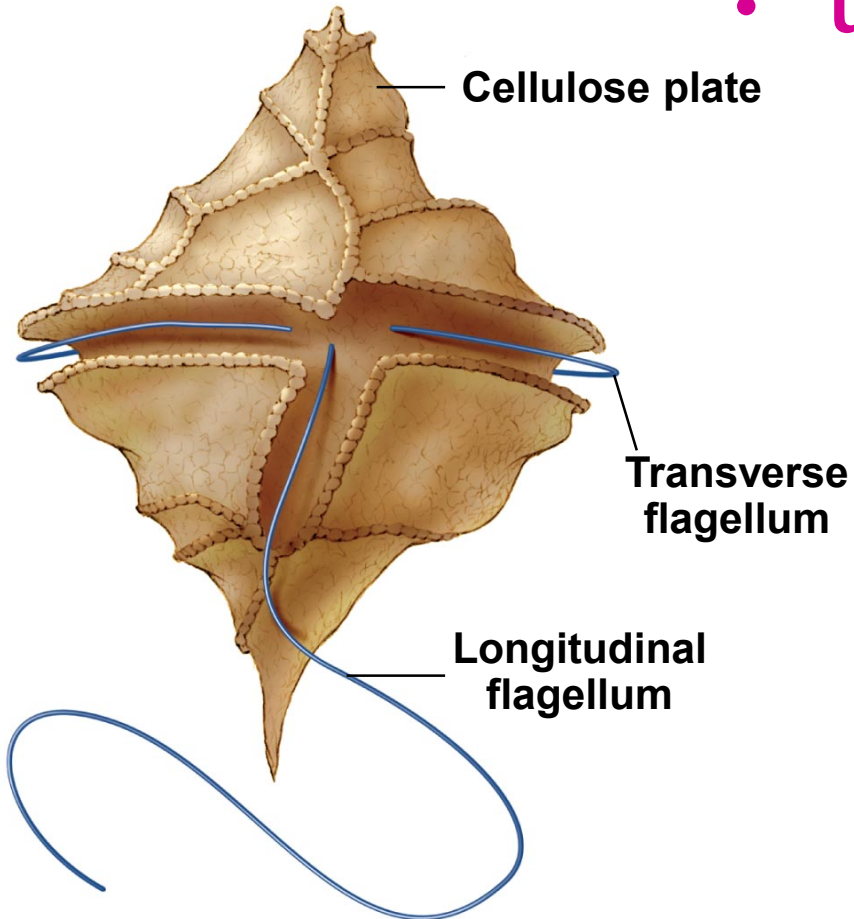


- major portion of “phytoplankton” and important part of oceanic food webs

# Dinoflagellates

A significant portion of “phytoplankton” and important part of the oceanic food web.

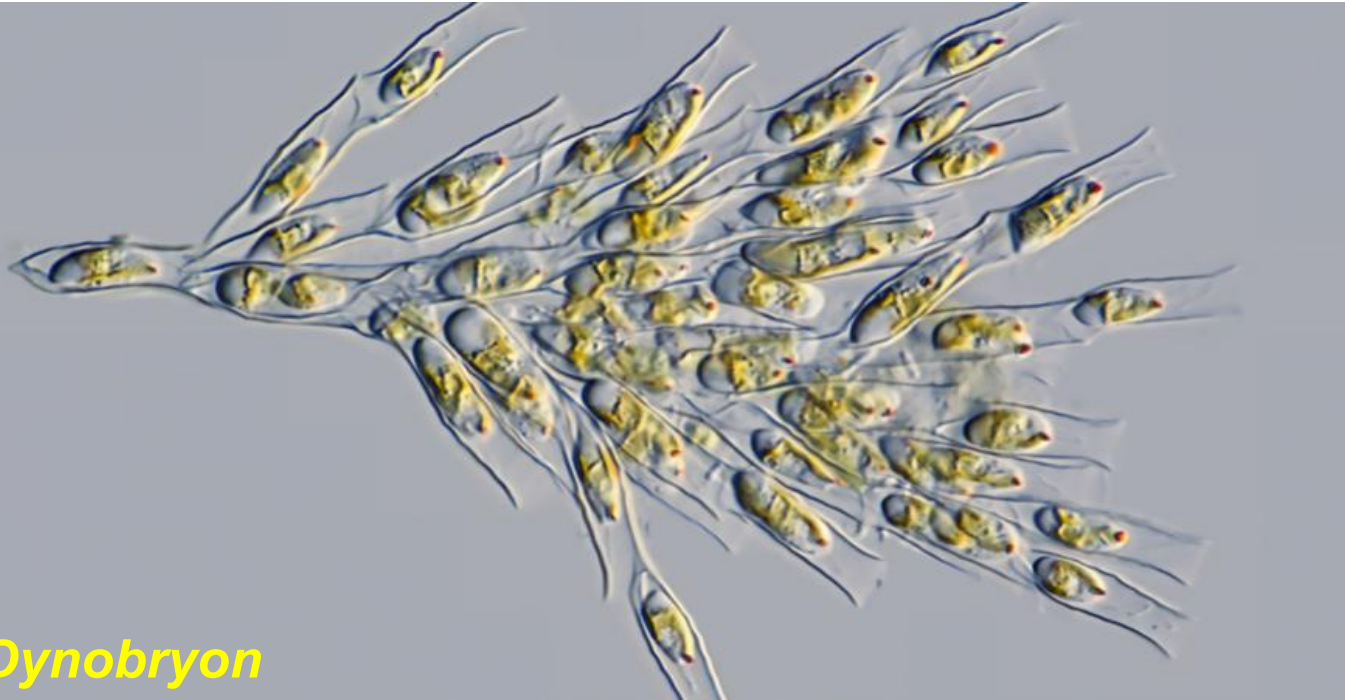
- unicellular algae with 2 perpendicular flagella
- some produce potent neurotoxins and are the basis of toxic “red tide” algal blooms



# Golden and Brown Algae

An important example of Brown Algae is the “giant kelp” the basis of a very unique marine ecosystem.

Most types of Golden Algae are unicellular flagellates, though some are colonial.



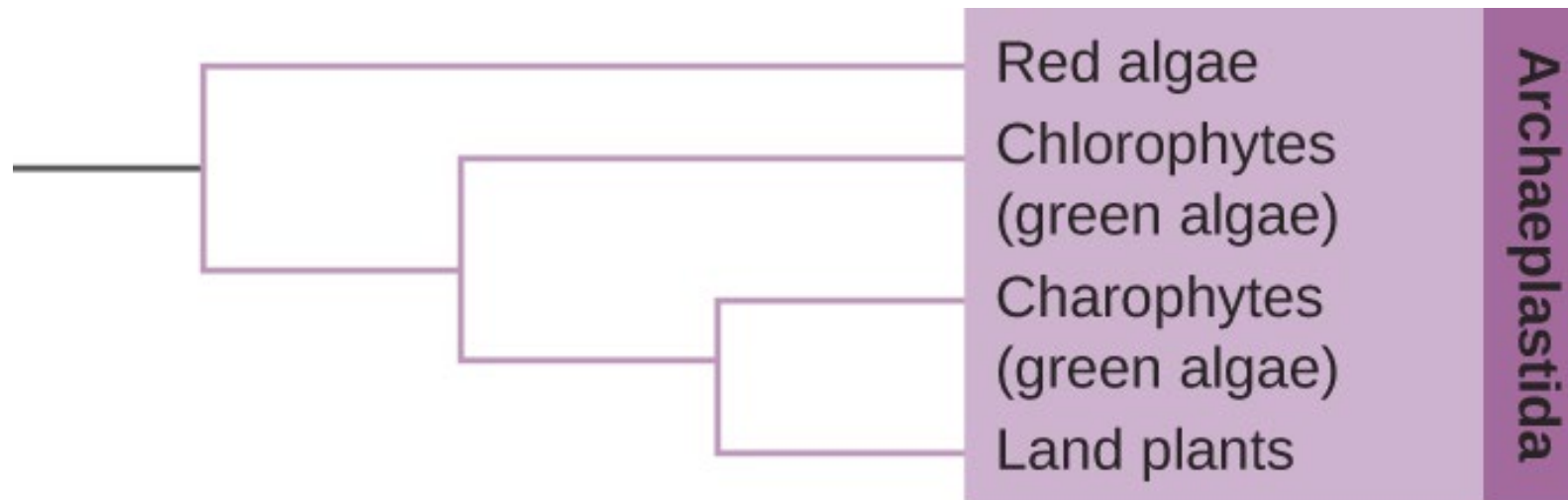
# Algal Subgroups in the Archaeplastida

Members of this supergroup are unicellular or multicellular and photosynthetic.

We will look at examples from the following subgroups:

**GREEN ALGAE**

**RED ALGAE**





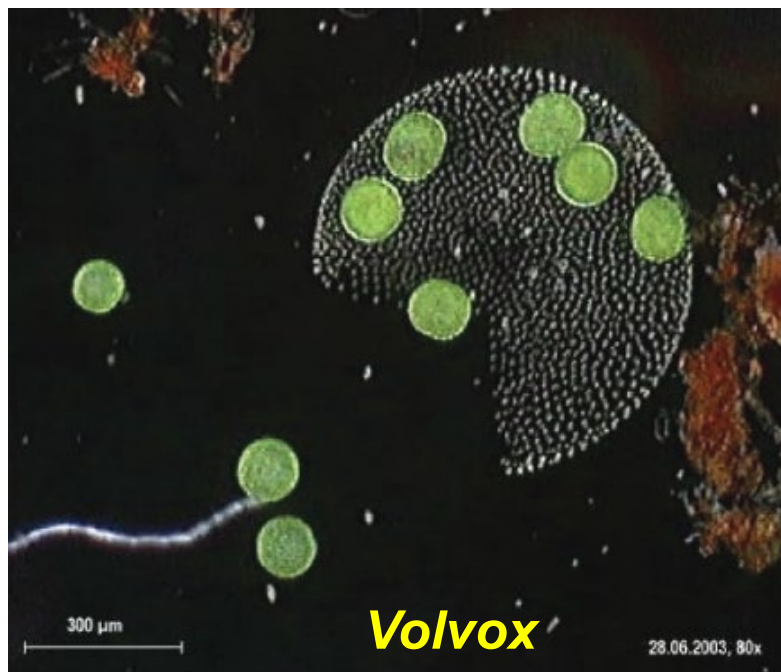
# Green & Red Algae

Species of Green Algae are unicellular (*Chlamydomonas*), colonial (*Volvox*) or multicellular (*Ulva*).

Red Algae are multicellular, live in deeper water where red light does not penetrate, and are an important source of food and agar!



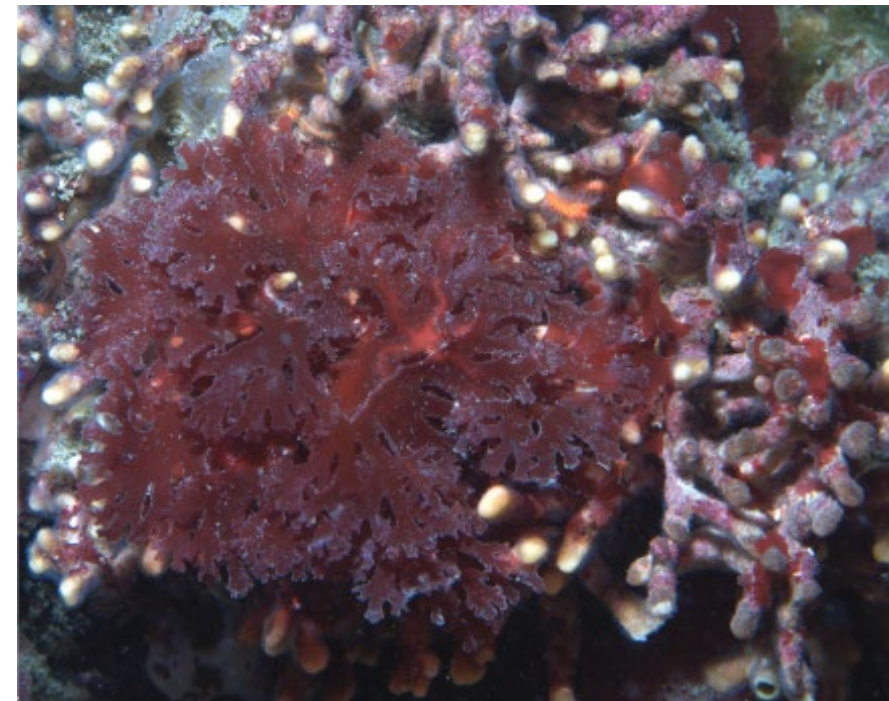
*Ulva*



*Volvox*



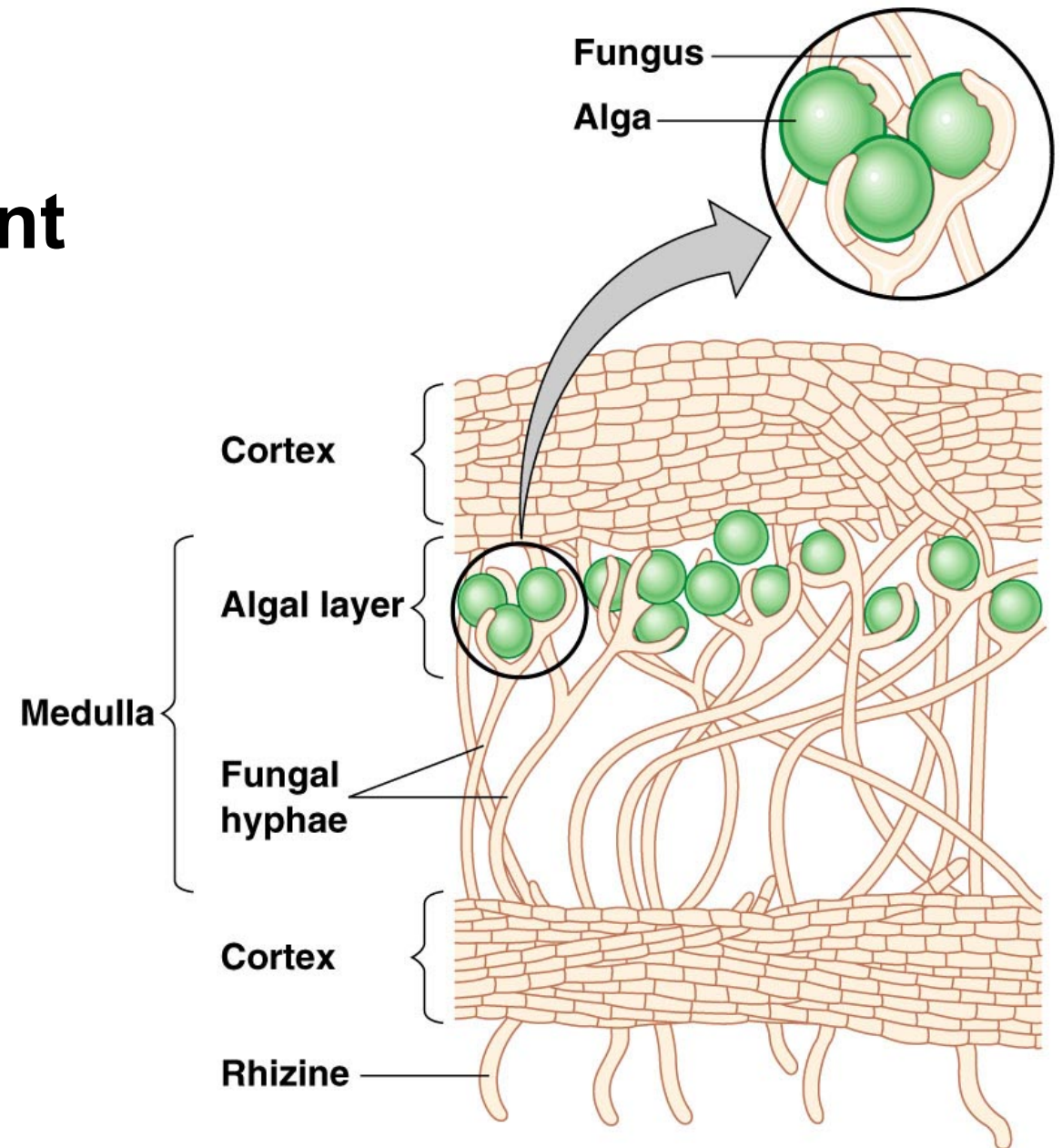
*Chlamydomonas*



# Lichens

Lichens are actually 2 different organisms in a mutualistic symbiosis:

- cyanobacteria OR green algae living among the hyphae of an ascomycete



**(b) Lichen thallus**

# Ecological Importance of Lichens

Lichens are important pioneers in nature, being able to grow on inorganic surfaces and thus begin the process of succession after catastrophic events that kill all life in a region (e.g., volcanic eruption).



# Key Terms for Chapter 5

- **thallus, hyphae, mycelium**
- **septate, aseptate, coenocytic**
- **conidia, sporangia**
- **plasmogamy, karyogamy, dikaryon**
- **zygospore, basidium, ascus**
- **proctostome, monoecious, dioecious**
- **mitosome, cytostome, pseudopods**
- **scolex, proglottids**
- **definitive vs intermediate host**