

Lecture 1
Introduction to General
Microbiology

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What is a Microbe?

- Smaller than 0.1mm
- Includes viruses, protozoan, bacteria, small suckers, others

Nomenclature

- Carolus Linnaeus (1735)
- *Genus species*
- By custom once mentioned can be abbreviated with initial of genus followed by specific epithet. *E. coli*

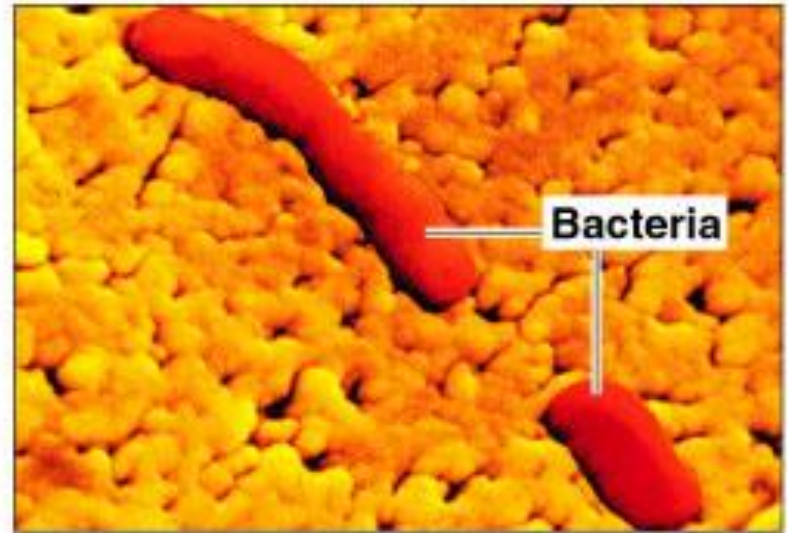
Why study Microbiology

- Microbes are related to all life.
 - In all environments
 - Many beneficial aspects
 - Related to life processes (nutrient cycling)
 - Only a minority are pathogenic.
 - Most of our problems are caused by microbes

Classification of microorganisms

Bacteria

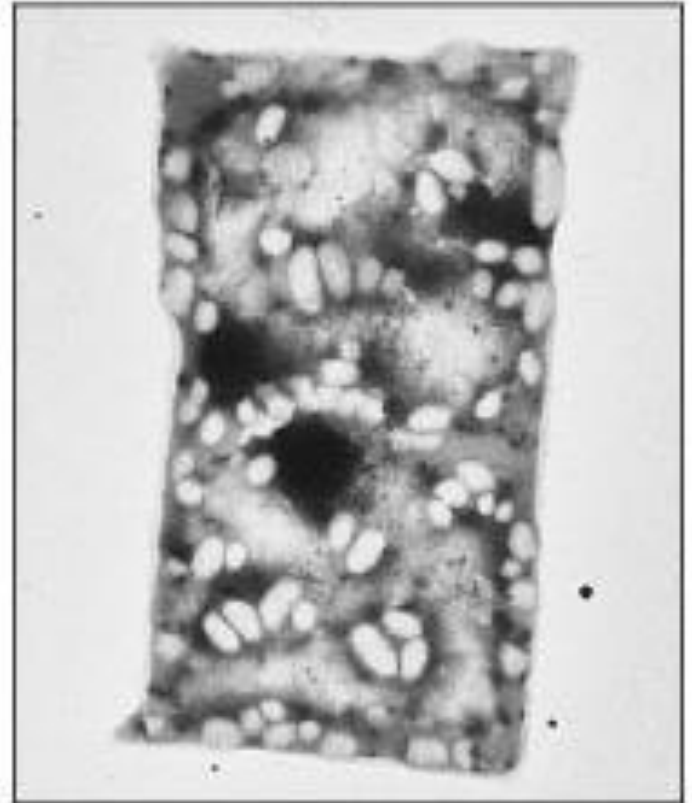
- Prokaryotes
- Peptidoglycan cell walls
- Binary fission
- For energy, use organic chemicals, inorganic chemicals, or photosynthesis



(a)

Archaea:

- Prokaryotic
- Lack peptidoglycan
- Live in extreme environments
- Include:
 - Methanogens
 - Extreme halophiles
 - Extreme thermophiles



Fungi

- Eukaryotes
- Chitin cell walls
- Use organic chemicals for energy
- Molds and mushrooms are multicellular consisting of masses of **mycelia**, which are composed of filaments called **hyphae**
- Yeasts are unicellular

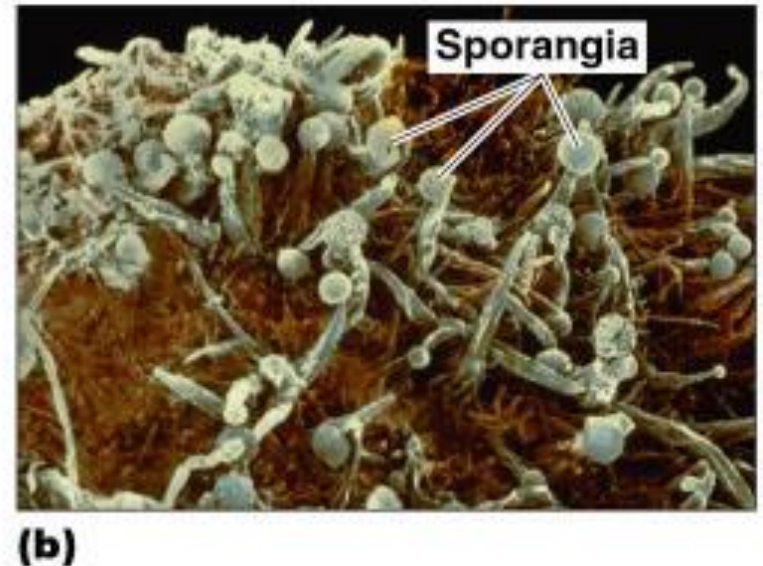
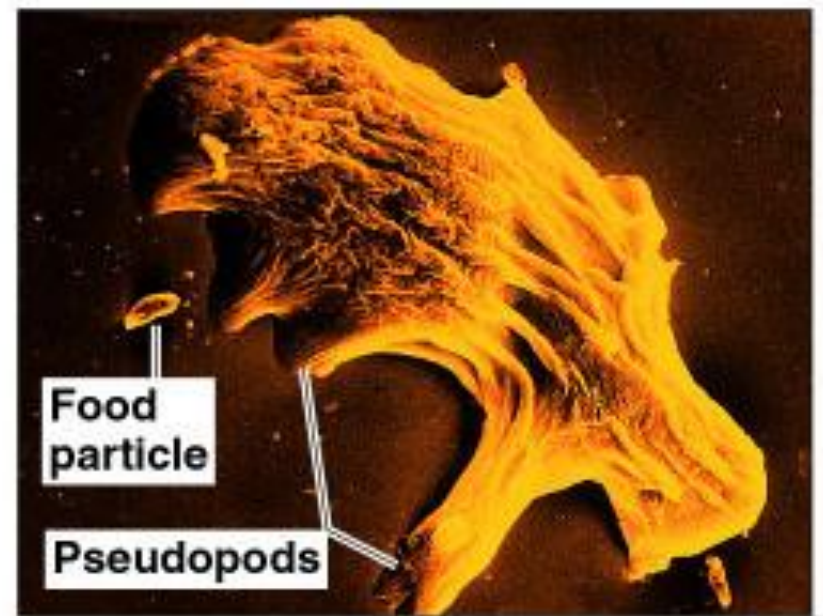


Figure 1.1b

Protozoa

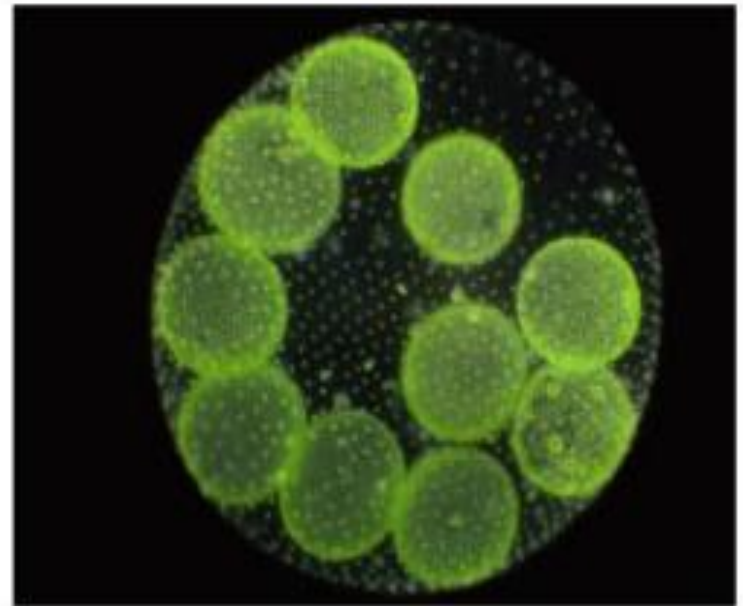
- Eukaryotes
- Absorb or ingest organic chemicals
- May be motile via pseudopods, cilia, or flagella



(c)

Algae

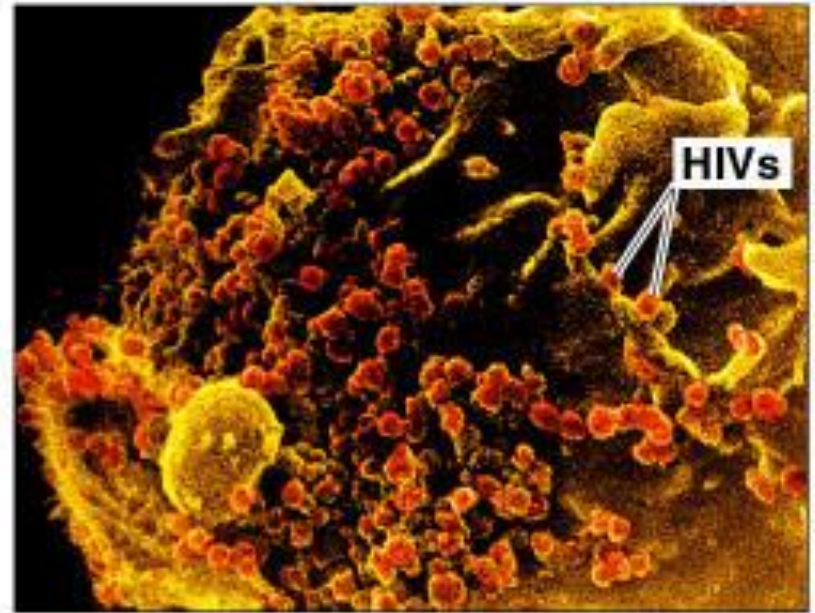
- Eukaryotes
- Cellulose cell walls
- Use photosynthesis for energy (primary producers)
- Produce molecular oxygen and organic compounds



(d)

Viruses

- Acellular
- Consist of DNA *or* RNA core
- Core is surrounded by a protein coat
- Coat may be enclosed in a lipid envelope
- Viruses are replicated only when they are in a living host cell



(e)

Multicellular Animal Parasites

- Eukaryote
- Multicellular animals
- Parasitic flatworms and round worms are called helminths.
- Microscopic stages in life cycles.



Figure fluke

Knowledge of microorganisms:

- Allows humans to
 - Prevent food spoilage
 - Prevent disease occurrence
 - Others?
- Led to aseptic techniques to prevent contamination in medicine and in microbiology laboratories.

The Debate Over Spontaneous Generation

- The hypothesis that living organisms arise from nonliving matter is called **spontaneous generation**. According to spontaneous generation, a “vital force” forms life.
- The Alternative hypothesis, that the living organisms arise from preexisting life, is called **biogenesis**.

Historical background of Microbiology

- Some highlights
 - 1665 Robert Hooke observed fruiting structures of molds and was the first to describe microorganisms
 - 1673 van Leeuwenhoek's microscopes
 - 1735 Linnaeus Nomenclature
 - 1798 Jenner vaccine
 - 1857 Pasteur Fermentation
 - 1876 Koch germ theory of disease

Adjustment

Lens

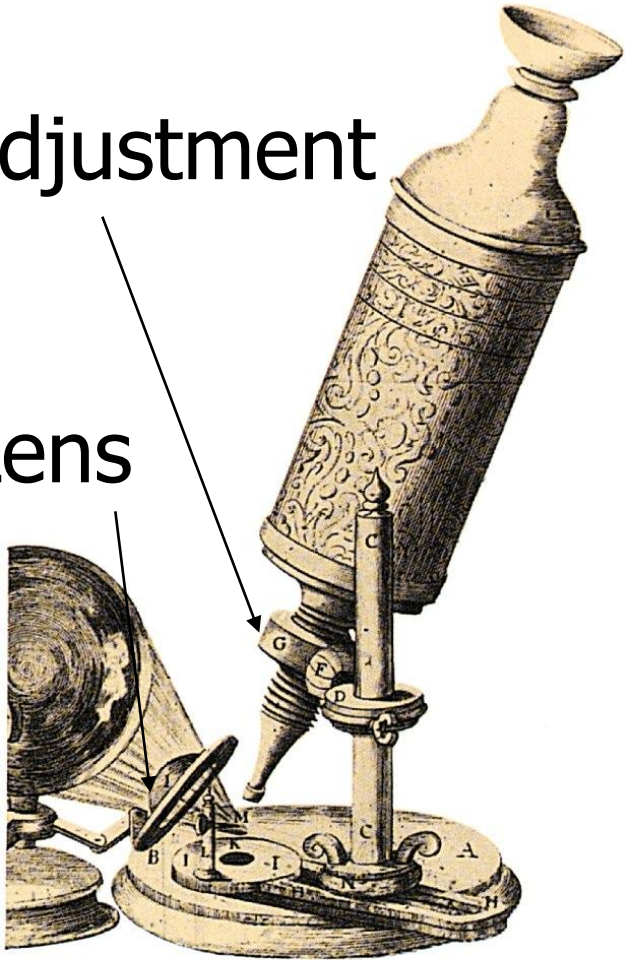


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Van Leeuwenhoek's Microscope



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T. D. Brock

Van Leeuwenhoek's
drawing on various
organisms

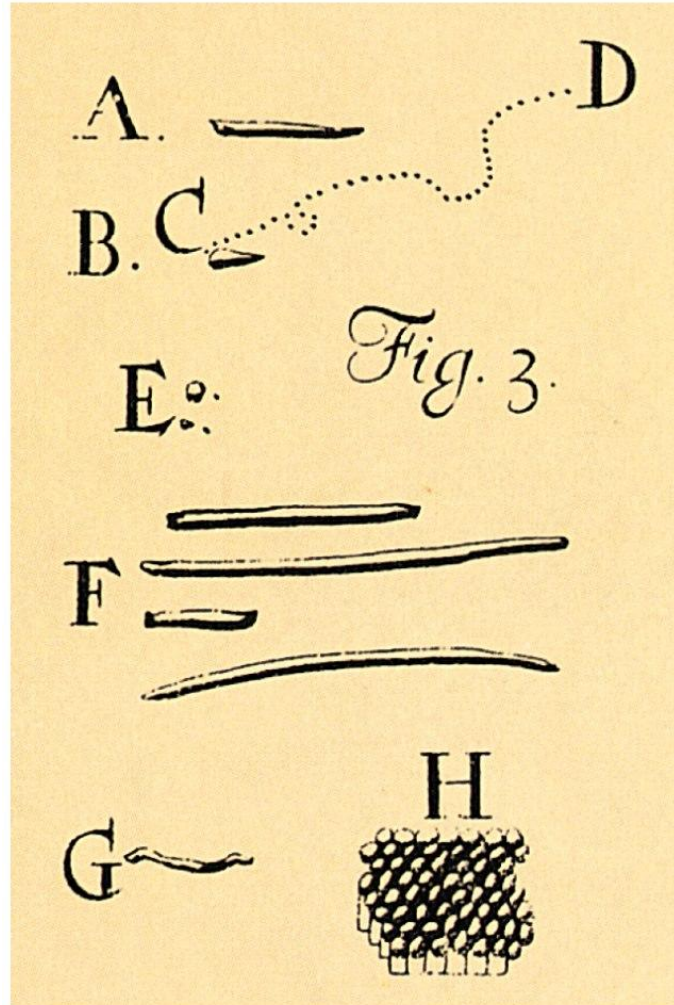


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The Golden Age of Microbiology

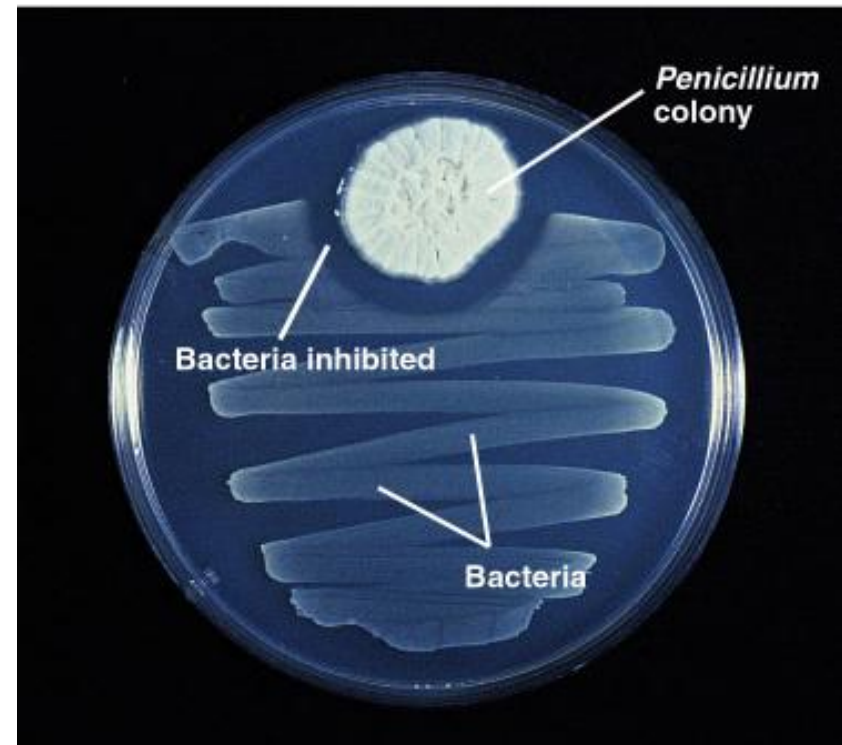
- 1857-1914
- Beginning with Pasteur's work, discoveries included the relationship between microbes and disease, immunity, and antimicrobial drugs

The Germ Theory of Disease

- 1860s: Joseph Lister used **a chemical disinfectant to prevent surgical wound infections** after looking at Pasteur's work showing microbes are in the air, can spoil food, and cause animal diseases.
- 1876: **Robert Koch provided proof that a bacterium causes anthrax** and provided the experimental steps, Koch's postulates, used to prove that a specific microbe causes a specific disease.

The Birth of Modern Chemotherapy

- 1928: Alexander Fleming discovered the first antibiotic.
- He observed that *Penicillium* fungus made an antibiotic, penicillin, that killed *S. aureus*.
- 1940s: Penicillin was tested clinically and mass produced.



Modern Developments in Microbiology

- Bacteriology is the study of bacteria.
- Mycology is the study of fungi.
- Parasitology is the study of protozoa and parasitic worms.
- Virology is the study of virus
- Recent advances in genomics, the study of an organism's genes, have provided new tools for classifying microorganisms.
- Proteomics is looking at the gene products

Taxonomy

- Taxonomy: the Science of Classification
 - The science of Provides a classifying organisms
 - Provides universal names for organisms
 - reference for identifying organisms
 - Groupings of organisms
 - WHY Classify?
 - Establish criteria for ID
 - Arrange related organisms into groups
 - Provide information about evolution of organisms

Levels of Classification

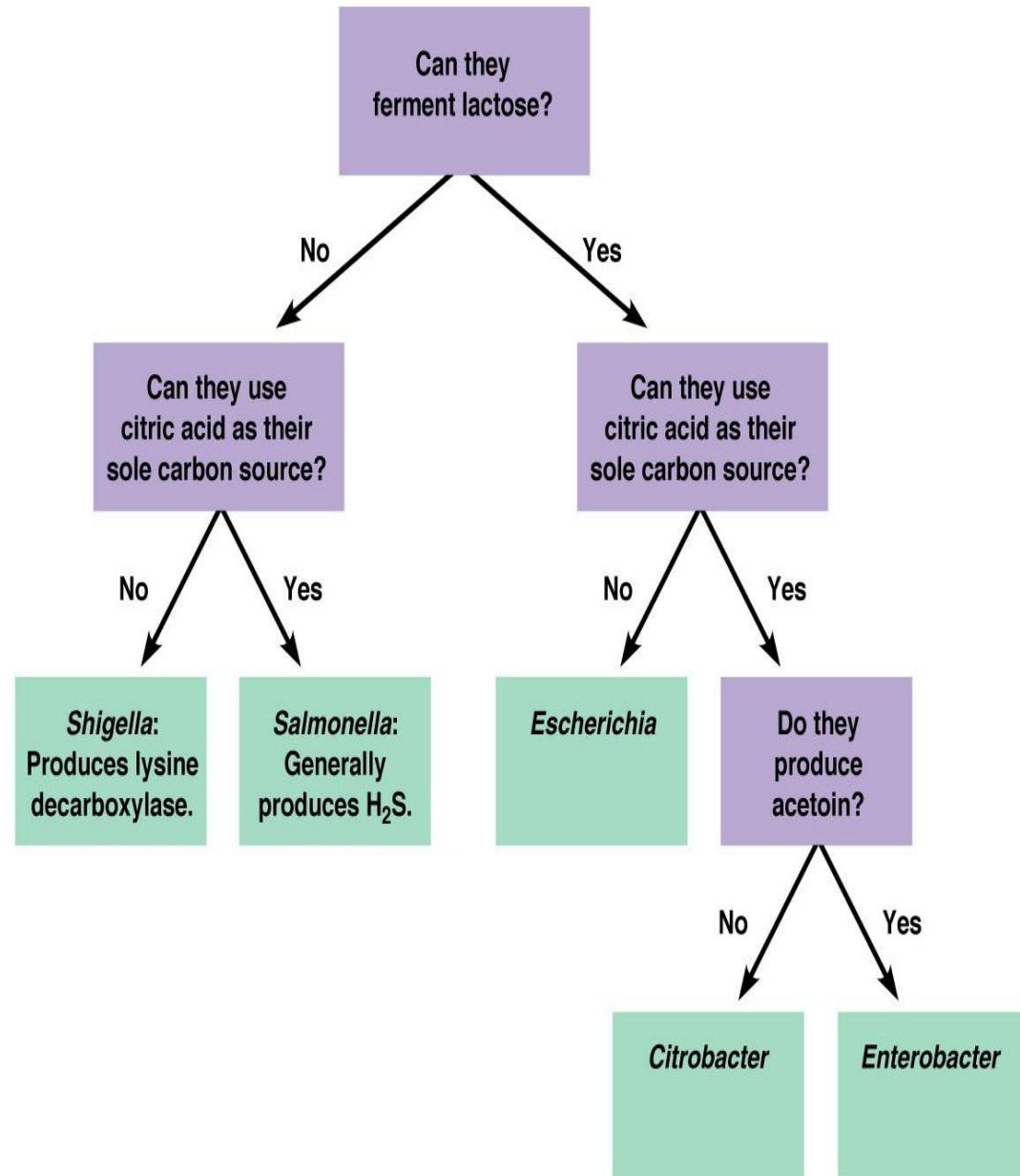
- Kingdom
- Division/Phyta/Phylum
- SubPhylum
- Class
- Order
- Family
- Genus
- Species/Specific Epithet
- Subspecies/Strain

Classification Systems in the Procaryotae

1. Microscopic morphology
2. Macroscopic morphology – colony appearance
3. Physiological / biochemical characteristics
4. Chemical analysis
5. Serological analysis
6. Genetic and molecular analysis
 - G + C base composition
 - DNA analysis using genetic probes
 - Nucleic acid sequencing and rRNA analysis

Identification Methods

- Morphological characteristics: Useful for identifying eukaryotes
- Differential staining: Gram staining, acid-fast staining
- Biochemical tests: Determines presence of bacterial enzymes

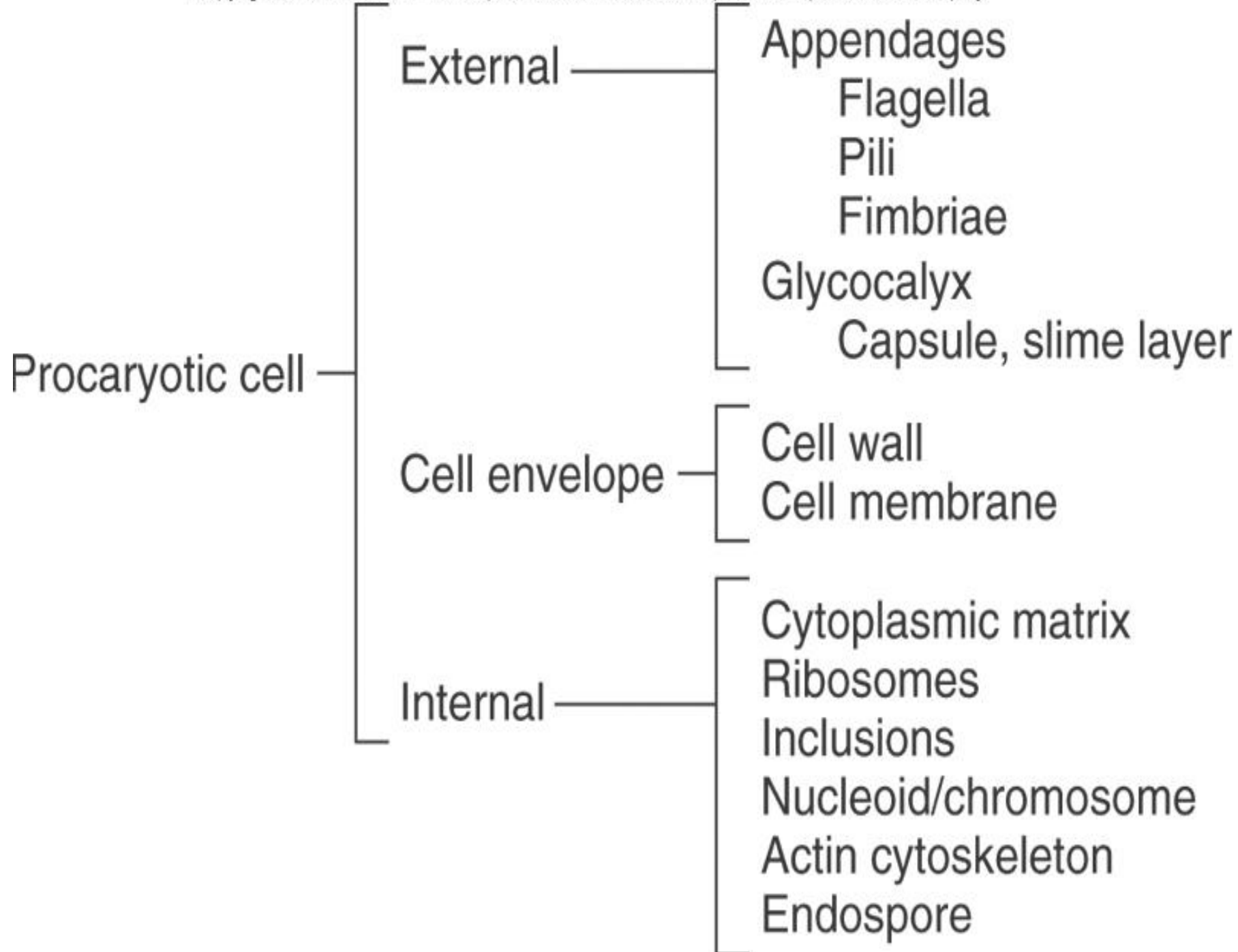


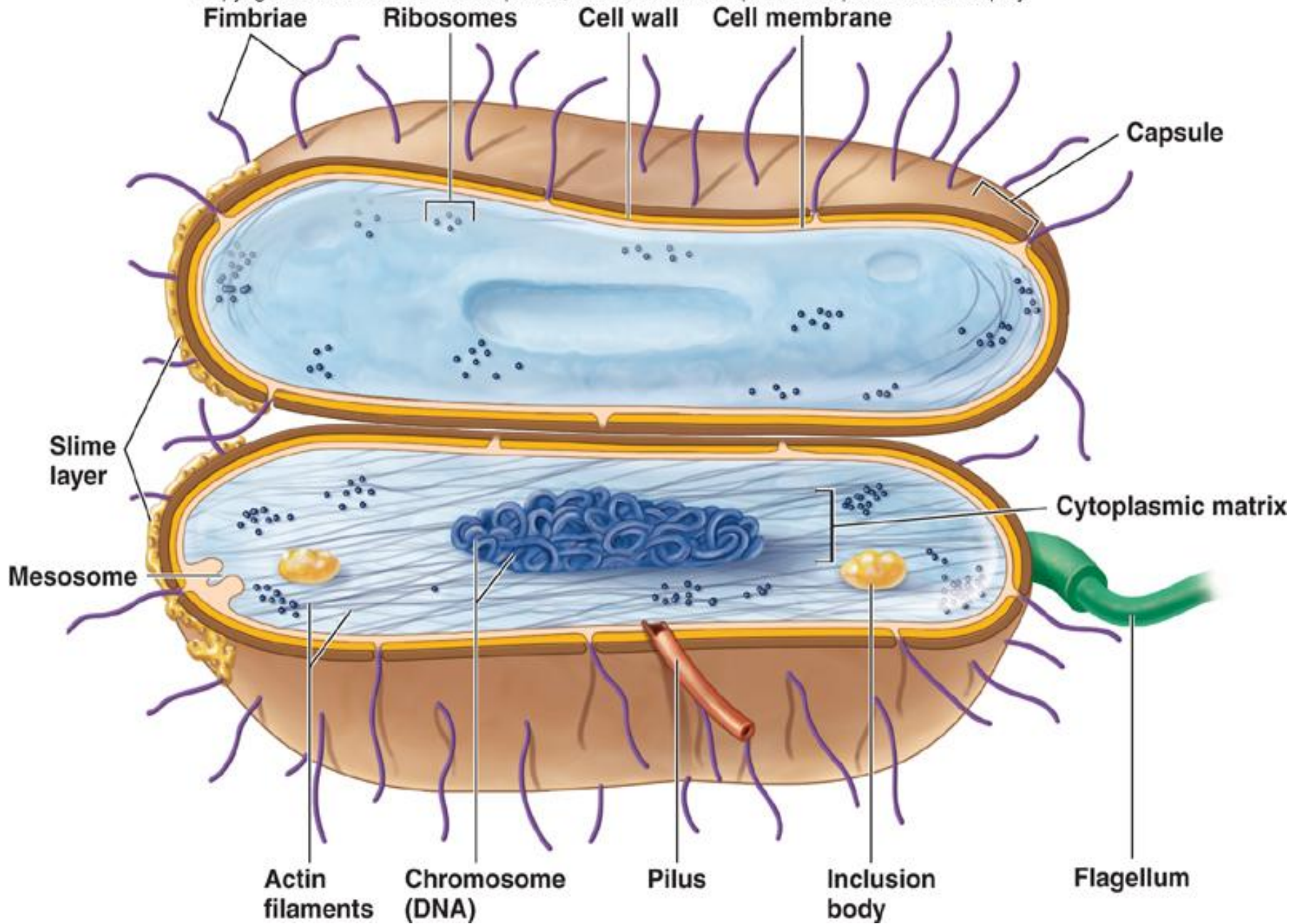
Lecture 2

Morphology / Bacterial Structures

Dr Amin Aqel

Morphology / Bacterial Structures





External Structures

- Appendages
 - two major groups of appendages:
 - Motility – flagella and axial filaments (periplasmic flagella)
 - Attachment or channels – fimbriae and pili
- Glycocalyx – surface coating

Flagella

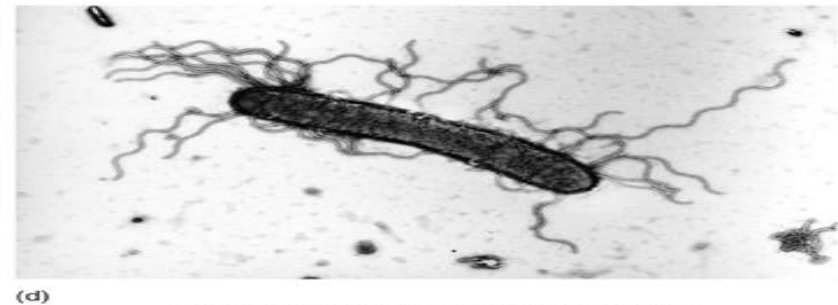
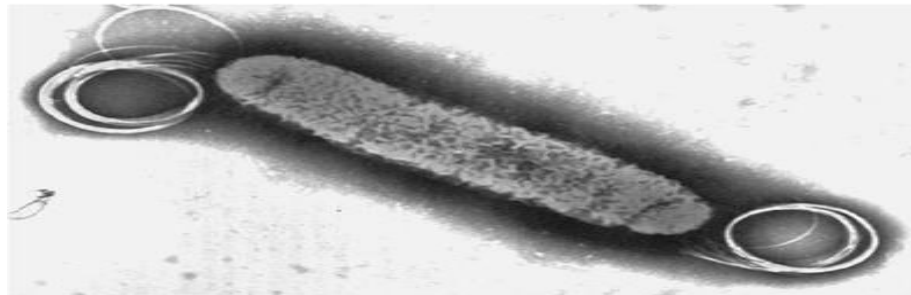
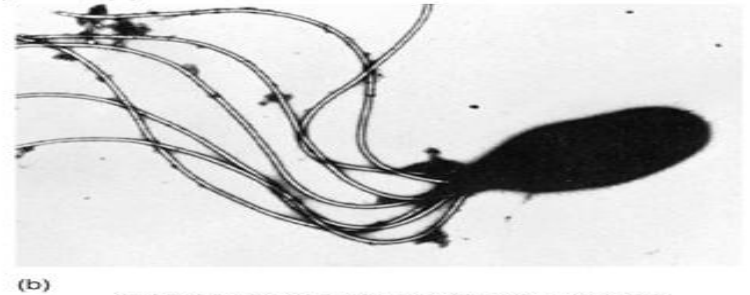
- 3 parts:
 - **filament** – long, thin, helical structure composed of protein **flagellin**
 - **hook**- curved sheath
 - **basal body** – stack of rings firmly anchored in cell wall

Flagellar Function

- Functions in motility of cell through environment
- Guide bacteria in a direction in response to external stimulus:

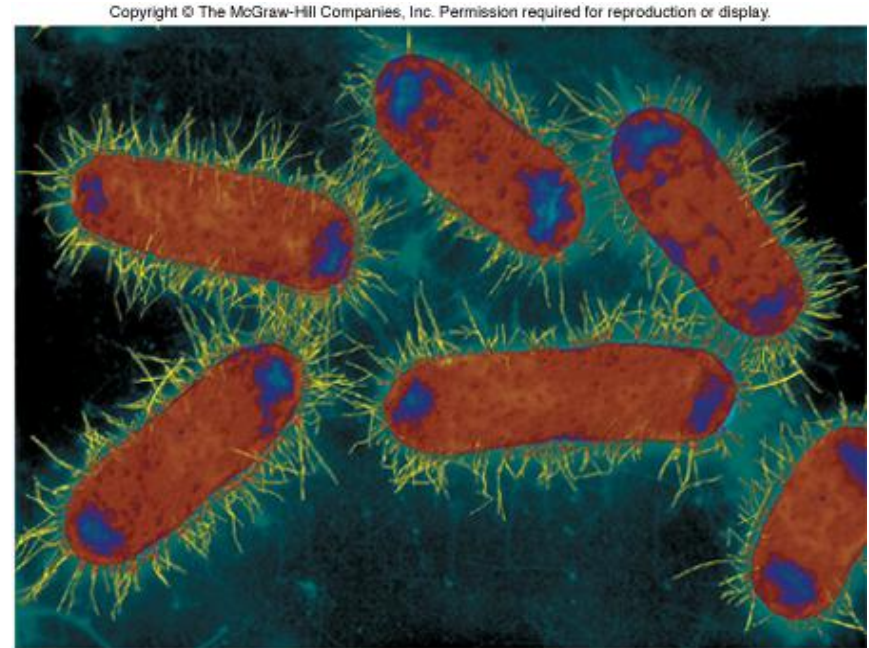
Flagellar Arrangements

1. Monotrichous – single flagellum at one end
2. Lophotrichous – small bunches arising from one end of cell
3. Amphitrichous – flagella at both ends of cell
4. Peritrichous – flagella dispersed over surface of cell; slowest

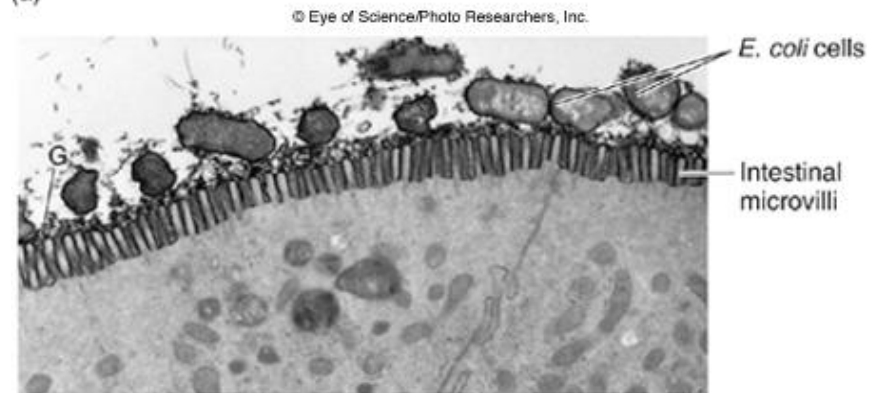


Fimbriae

- Fine, proteinaceous, hairlike bristles from the cell surface
- Function in adhesion to other cells and surfaces



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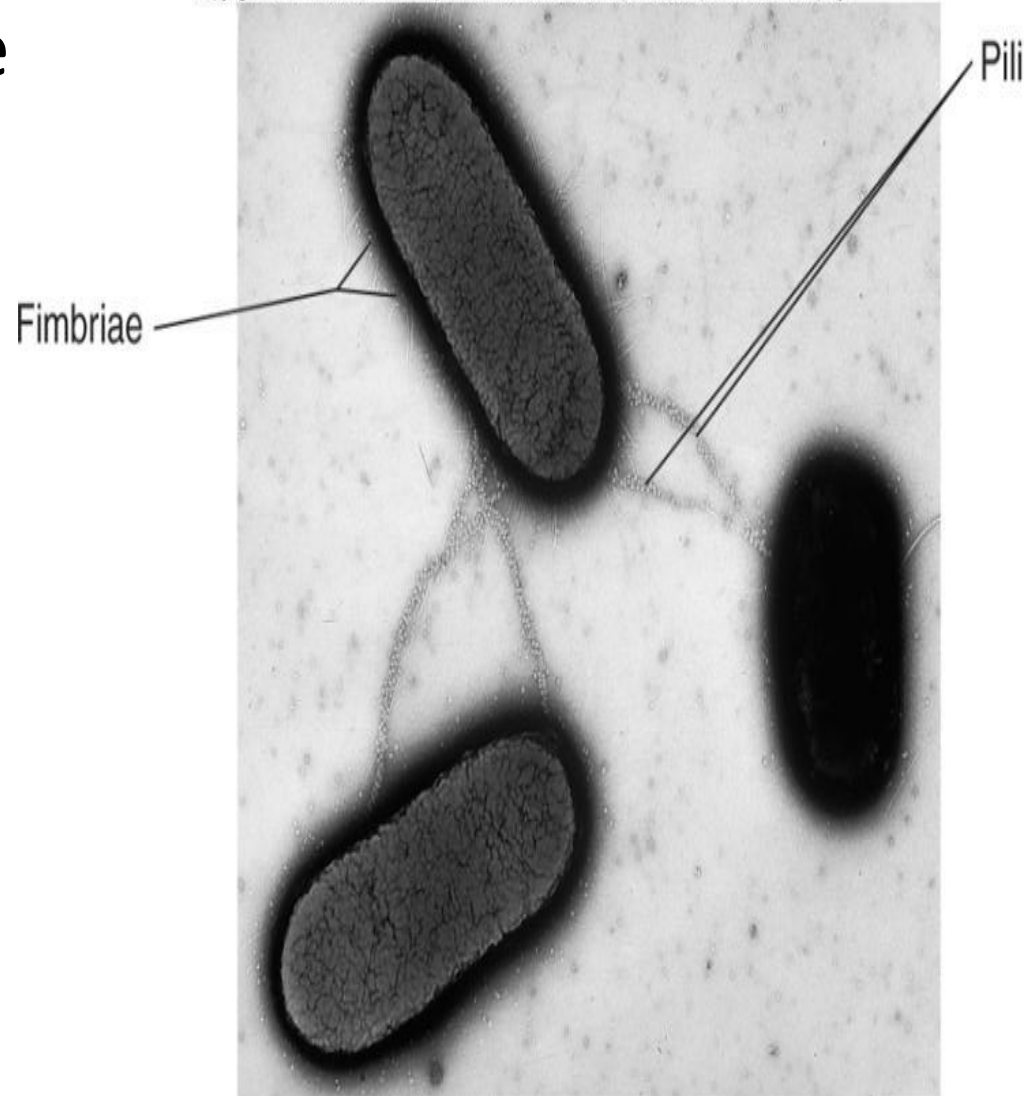
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Pili

- Rigid tubular structure made of **pilin** protein
- Found only in Gram negative cells
- Function to join bacterial cells for partial DNA transfer called **conjugation**

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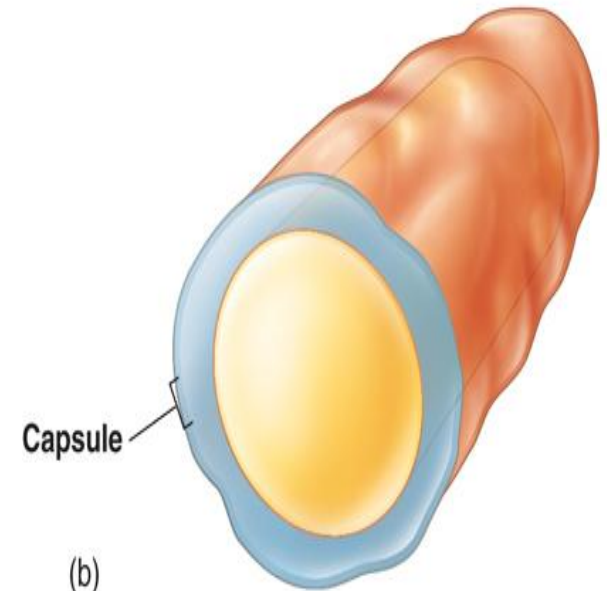
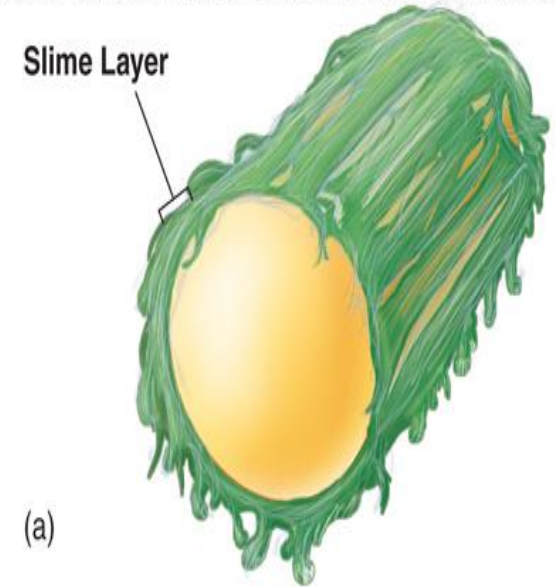


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Glycocalyx

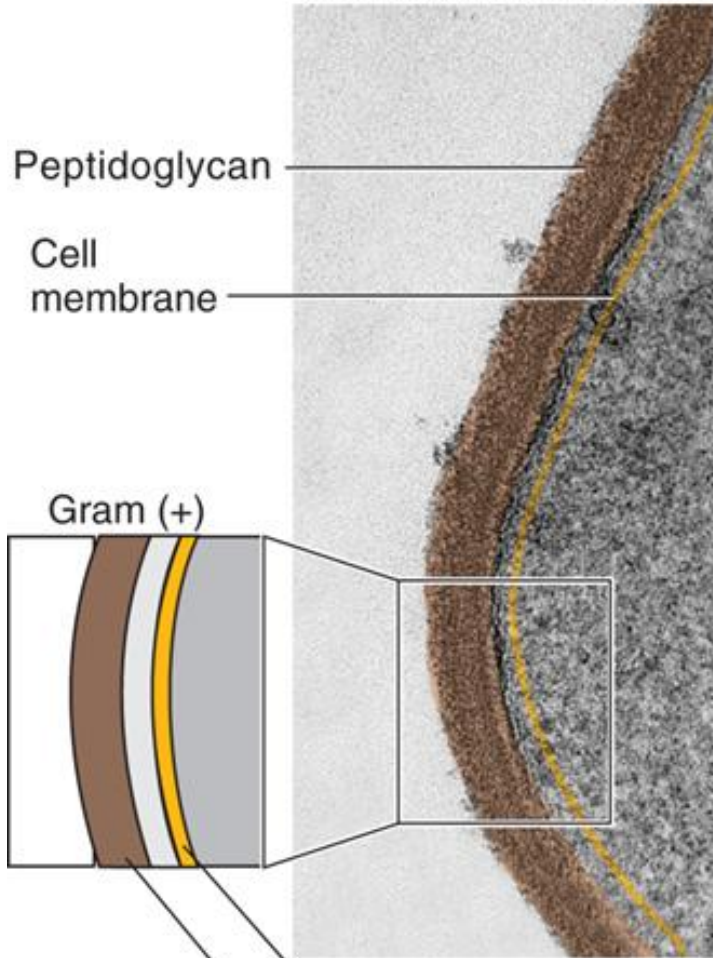
- Coating of molecules external to the cell wall, made of sugars and/or proteins
- Two types:
 - 1-slime layer : loosely organized and attached
 - 2-capsule : highly organized, tightly attached
- Functions:
 - protect cells from dehydration and nutrient loss
 - inhibit killing by white blood cells by phagocytosis contributing to pathogenicity
 - o attachment - formation of **biofilms**

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The Cell Envelope

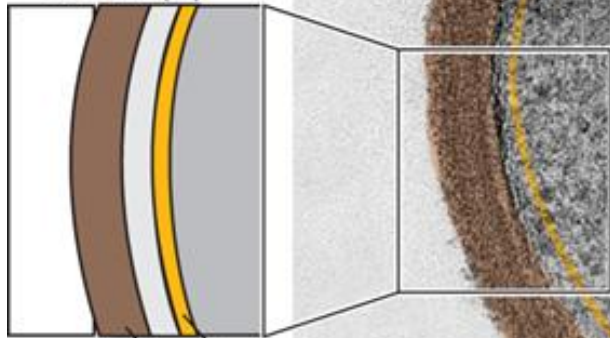
- External covering outside the cytoplasm
- Composed of two basic layers:
 - cell wall and cell membrane
- Maintains cell integrity
- Two generally different groups of bacteria demonstrated by **Gram stain**:
 - **Gram-positive bacteria**: thick cell wall composed primarily of peptidoglycan and cell membrane
 - **Gram-negative bacteria**: outer cell membrane, thin peptidoglycan layer, and cell membrane



Peptidoglycan

Cell membrane

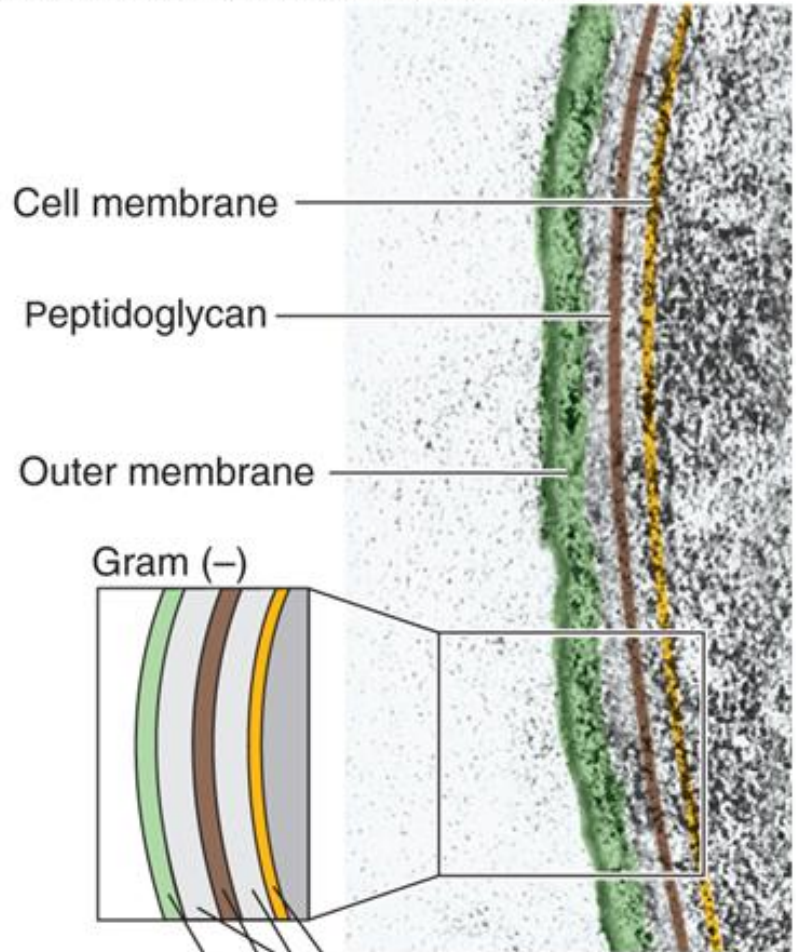
Gram (+)



Cell membrane
Cell wall (peptidoglycan)

(a)

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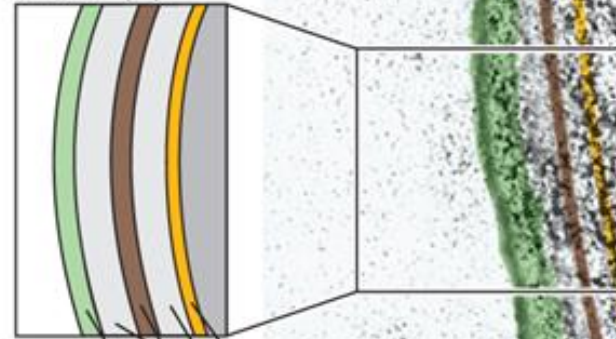


Cell membrane

Peptidoglycan

Outer membrane

Gram (-)



Cell membrane
Periplasmic space
Peptidoglycan
Outer membrane

} Cell wall

(b)

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Bacterial Internal Structures

- Cell cytoplasm:
 - dense gelatinous solution of sugars, amino acids, and salts
 - 70-80% water
 - serves as solvent for materials used in all cell functions
- Chromosome
 - single, circular, double-stranded DNA molecule that contains all the genetic information required by a cell
 - DNA is tightly coiled around a protein, aggregated in a dense area called the **nucleoid**

Bacterial Internal Structures

- Plasmids
 - small circular, double-stranded DNA
 - free or integrated into the chromosome
 - duplicated and passed on to offspring
 - not essential to bacterial growth and metabolism
 - may encode antibiotic resistance, tolerance to toxic metals, enzymes and toxins
 - used in genetic engineering- readily manipulated and transferred from cell to cell

Bacterial Internal Structures

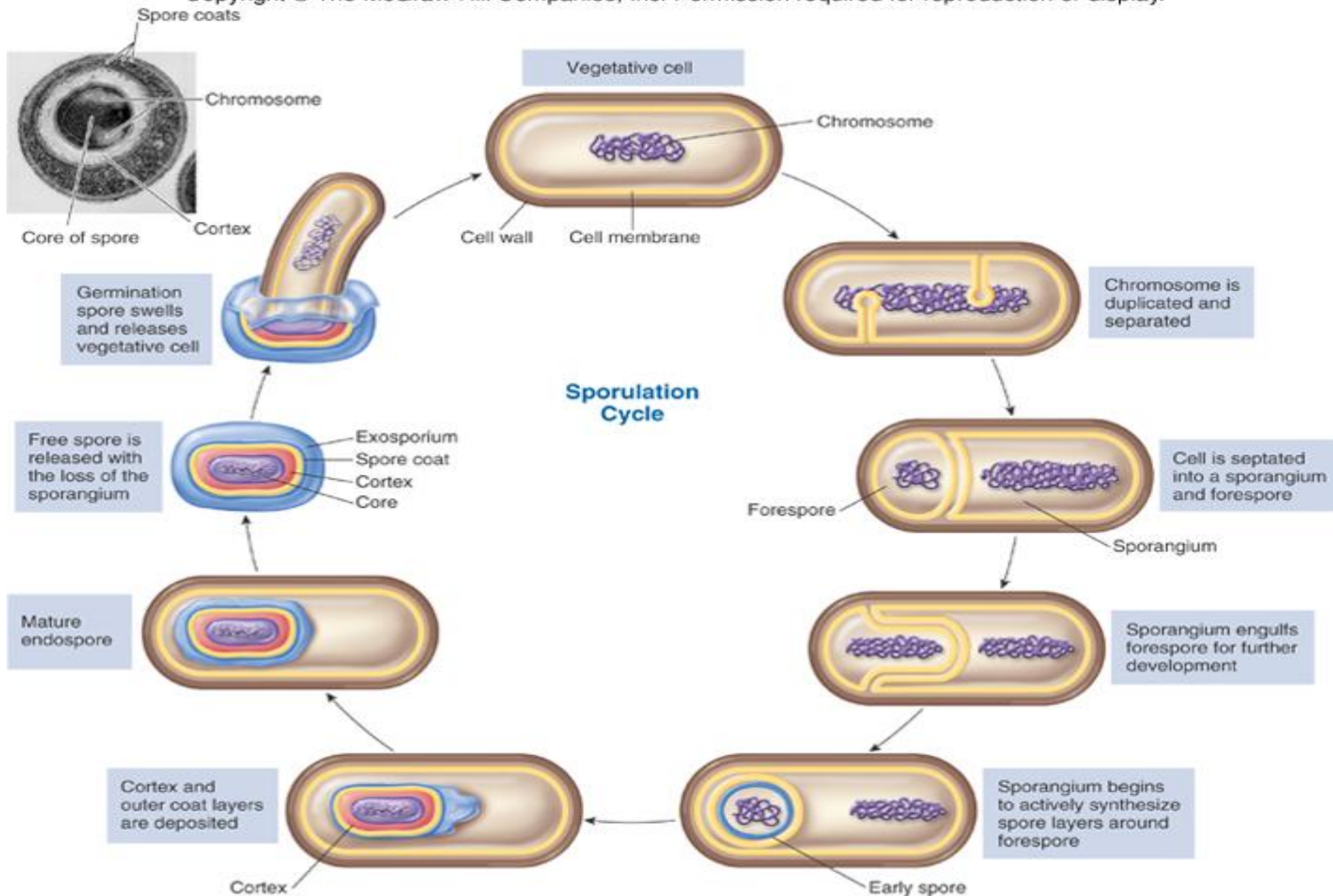
- Ribosomes
 - made of 60% ribosomal RNA and 40% protein
 - consist of two subunits: large and small
 - procaryotic differ from eucaryotic ribosomes in size and number of proteins
 - site of protein synthesis
 - present in all cells

Bacterial Internal Structures

- Inclusions and granules
 - intracellular storage bodies
 - vary in size, number and content
 - Bacterial cell can use them when environmental sources are depleted.
 - examples: glycogen, poly- β -hydroxybutyrate, gas vesicles for floating, sulfur and phosphate granules (metachromatic granules)

Bacterial Internal Structures

- Endospores
 - Inert ,resting, cells produced by some G+ genera:
Clostridium, Bacillus and Sporosarcina
 - have a 2-phase life cycle:
 - vegetative cell – metabolically active and growing
 - endospore – when exposed to adverse environmental conditions; capable of high resistance and very long-term survival
 - **sporulation** : formation of endospores
 - hardiest of all life forms
 - withstands extremes in heat, drying, freezing, radiation and chemicals
 - not a means of reproduction
 - **germination**- return to vegetative growth



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Shapes of Bacteria

- Coccus
 - Chain = Streptococcus
 - Cluster = Staphylococcus
- Bacillus
 - Chain = Streptobacillus
- Coccobacillus
- Vibrio = curved
- Spirillum
- Spirochete
- Square
- Star



Coccus



Coccobacillus



Vibrio



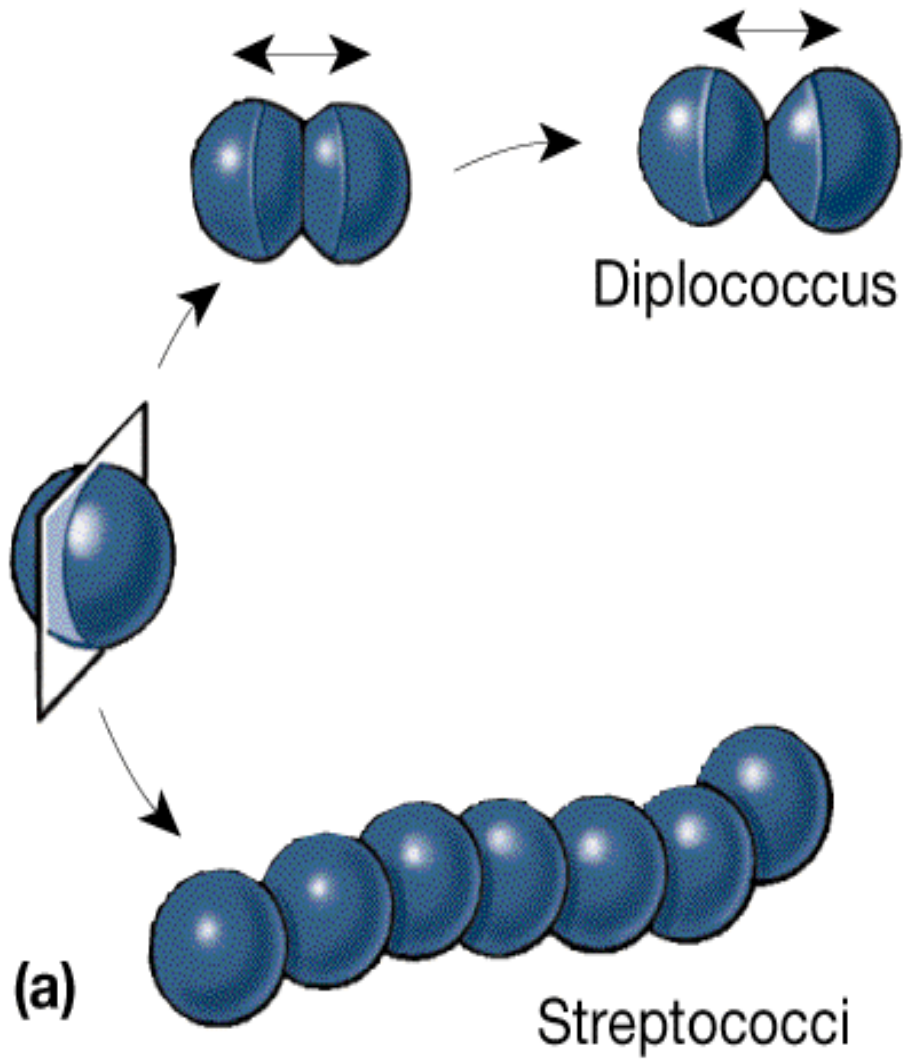
Bacillus



Spirillum

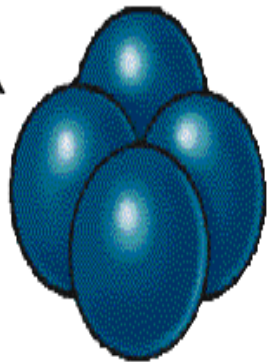


Spirochete

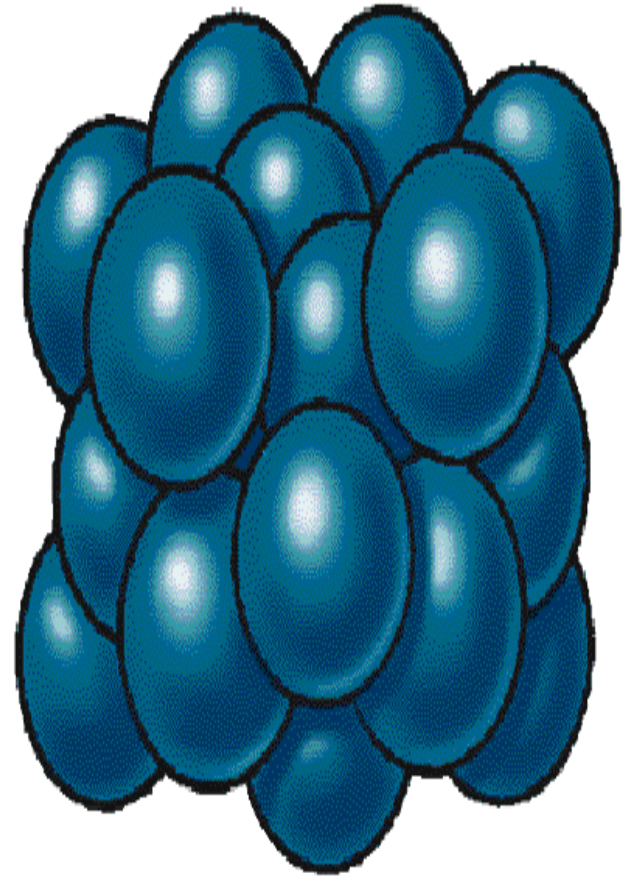




(b)



Tetrad



(d)

Staphylococci

Lecture 3
Bacterial Physiology
Dr Amin Aqel

Bacterial physiology

Cell Structure

- Two structural types of cells are recognized: the **prokaryote** and the **eukaryote**.

Prokaryotic cells have a simpler internal structure than eukaryotic cells, lacking membrane-enclosed organelles.

Prokaryote cell

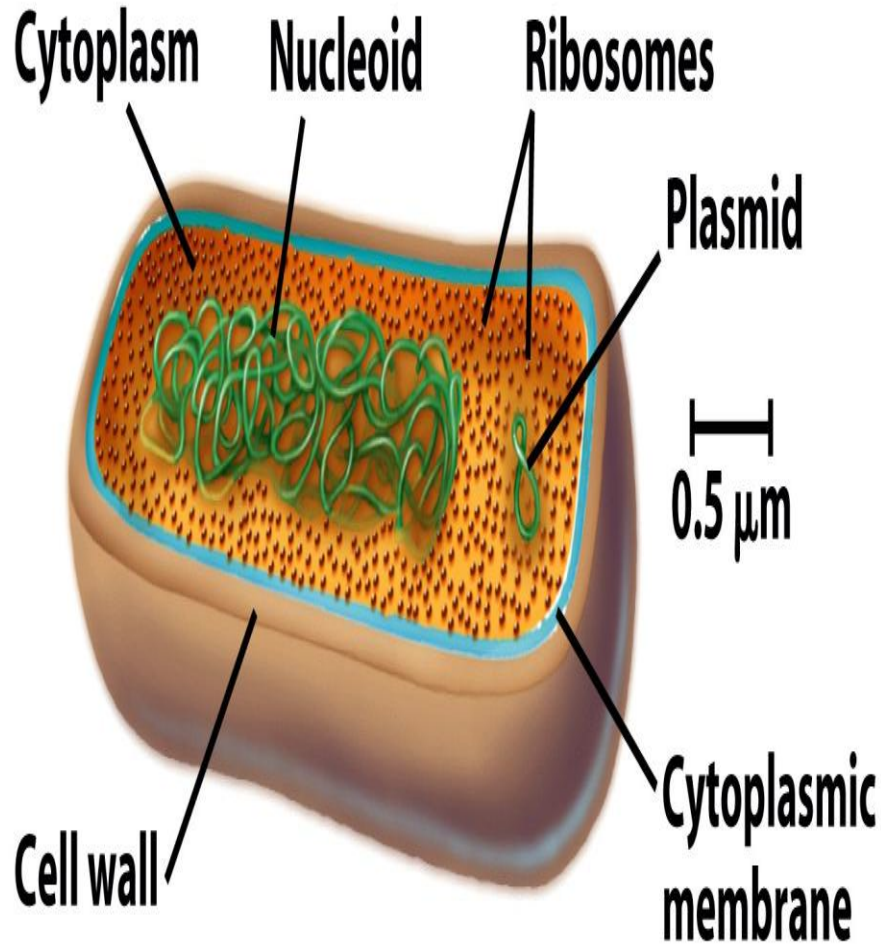


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Eukaryote cell

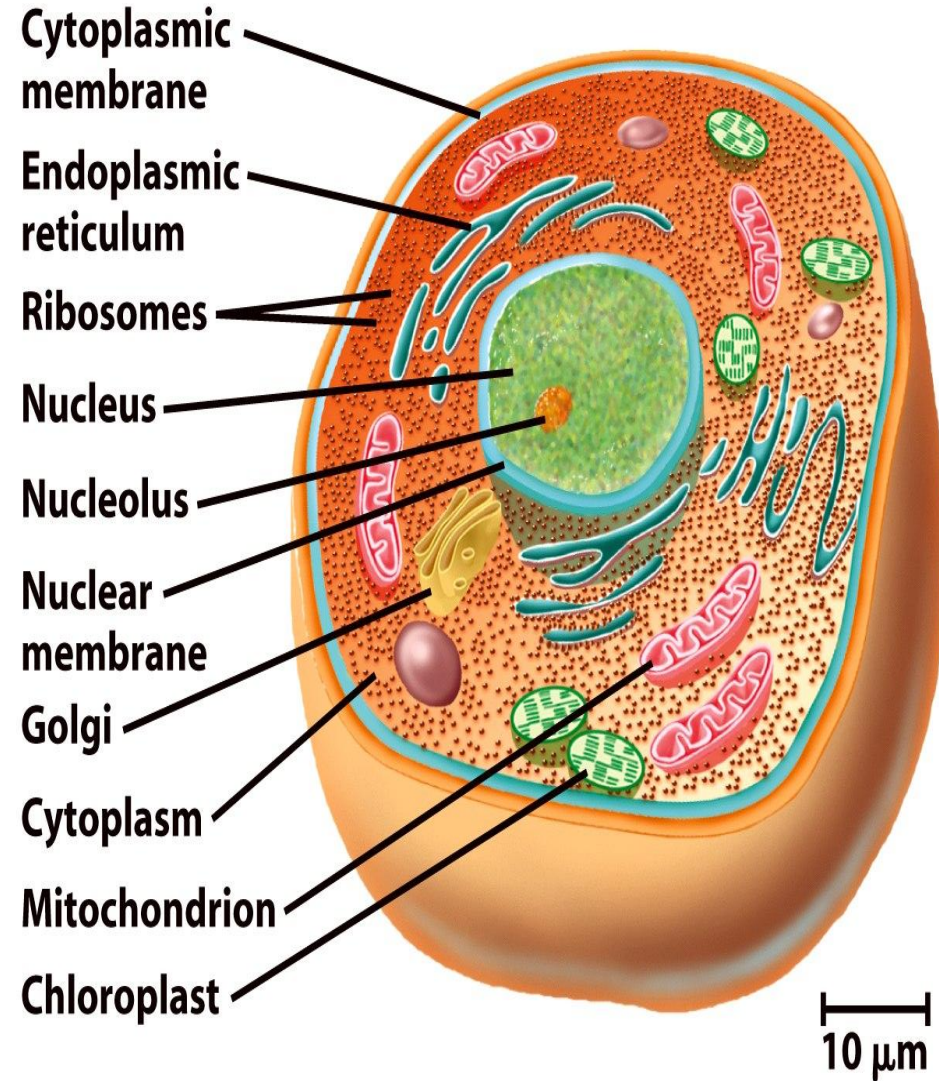
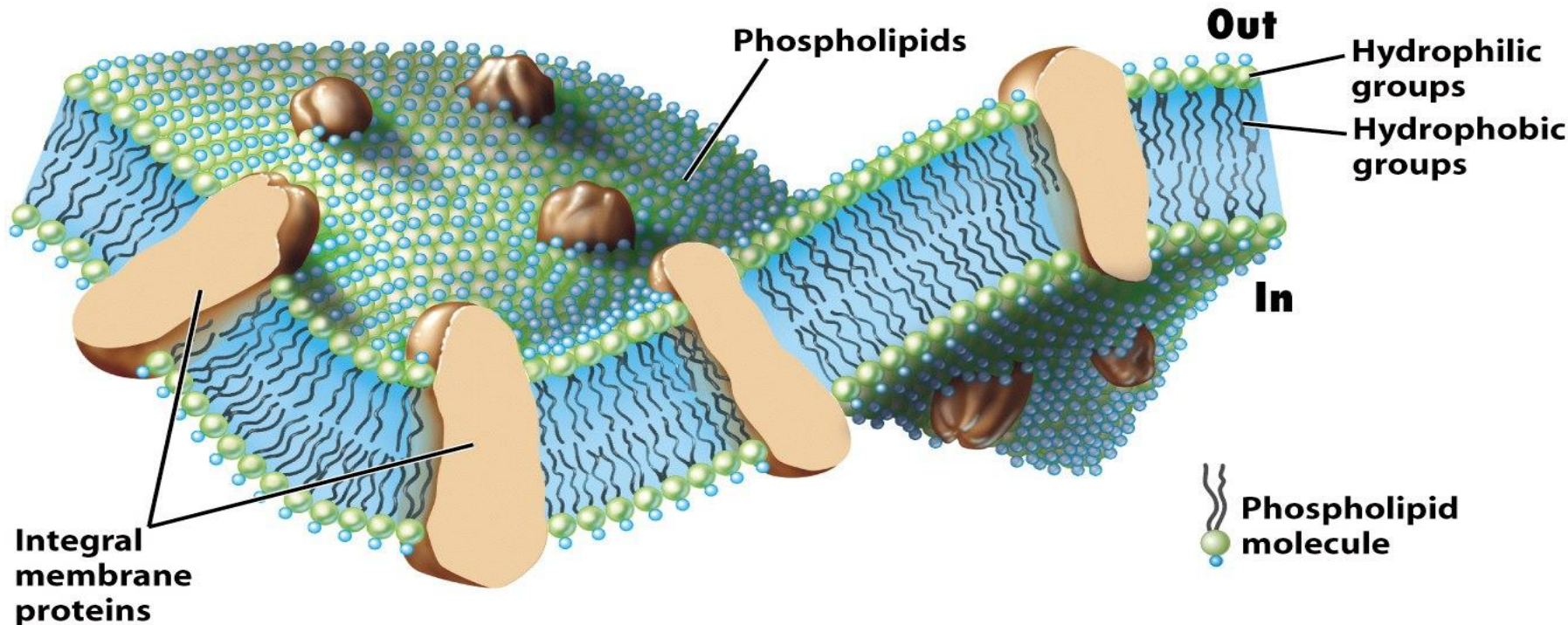


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Cytoplasmic Membrane

The **cytoplasmic membrane** is a highly selective permeability barrier constructed of lipids and proteins that forms a bi-layer with hydrophilic exteriors and a hydrophobic interior.



Movement of Molecules through Cytoplasmic Membrane

- The major function of the cytoplasmic membrane is to act as a permeability barrier, preventing leakage of cytoplasmic metabolites into the environment.
- Several ways for molecules to move through membrane
 1. Simple Diffusion
 2. Osmosis
 3. Facilitated Diffusion
 4. Active Transport

Simple Diffusion

- Does not require expenditure of energy
- Process by which some molecules move freely into and out of the cell
- Small molecules such as carbon dioxide and oxygen

Transport proteins (or transporters) responsible for: Facilitated Diffusion, Active Transport

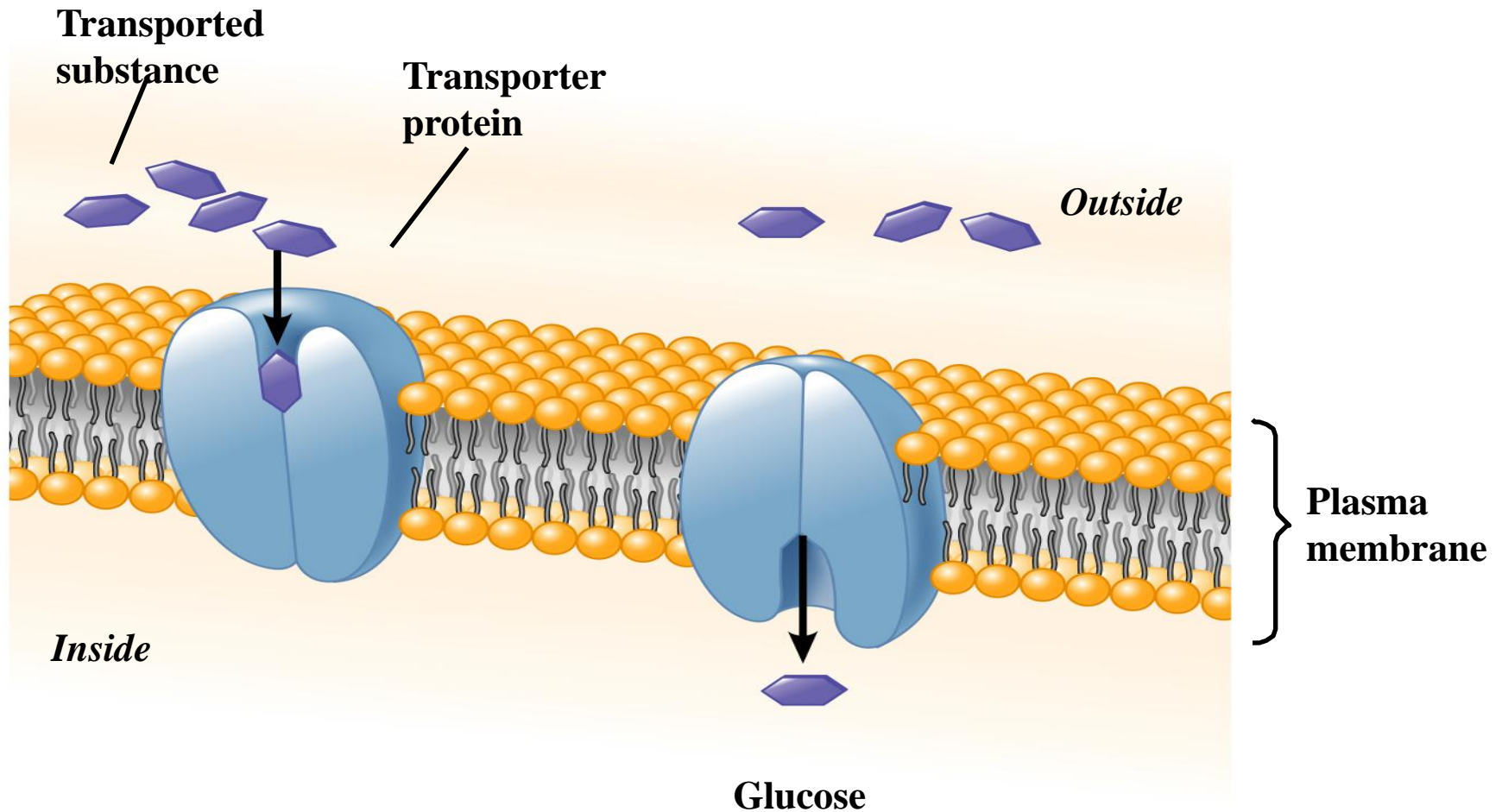


Figure 4.17: Facilitated diffusion.

Cell Wall

- **Gram-negative *Bacteria*** have only a few layers of peptidoglycan , but **Gram-positive *Bacteria*** have several layers.
- In addition to peptidoglycan, gram-negative *Bacteria* contain an **outer membrane** consisting of **lipopolysaccharide (LPS)**, protein, and lipoprotein.

Gram-positive

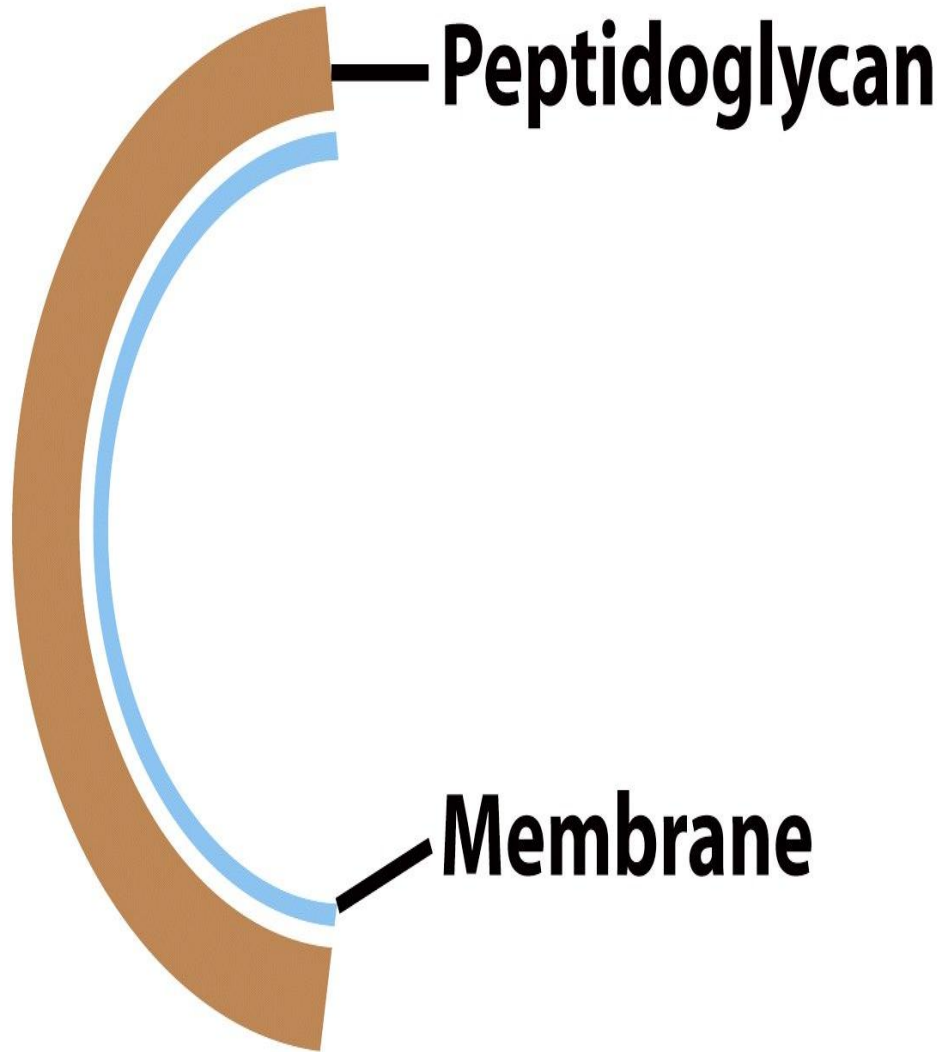


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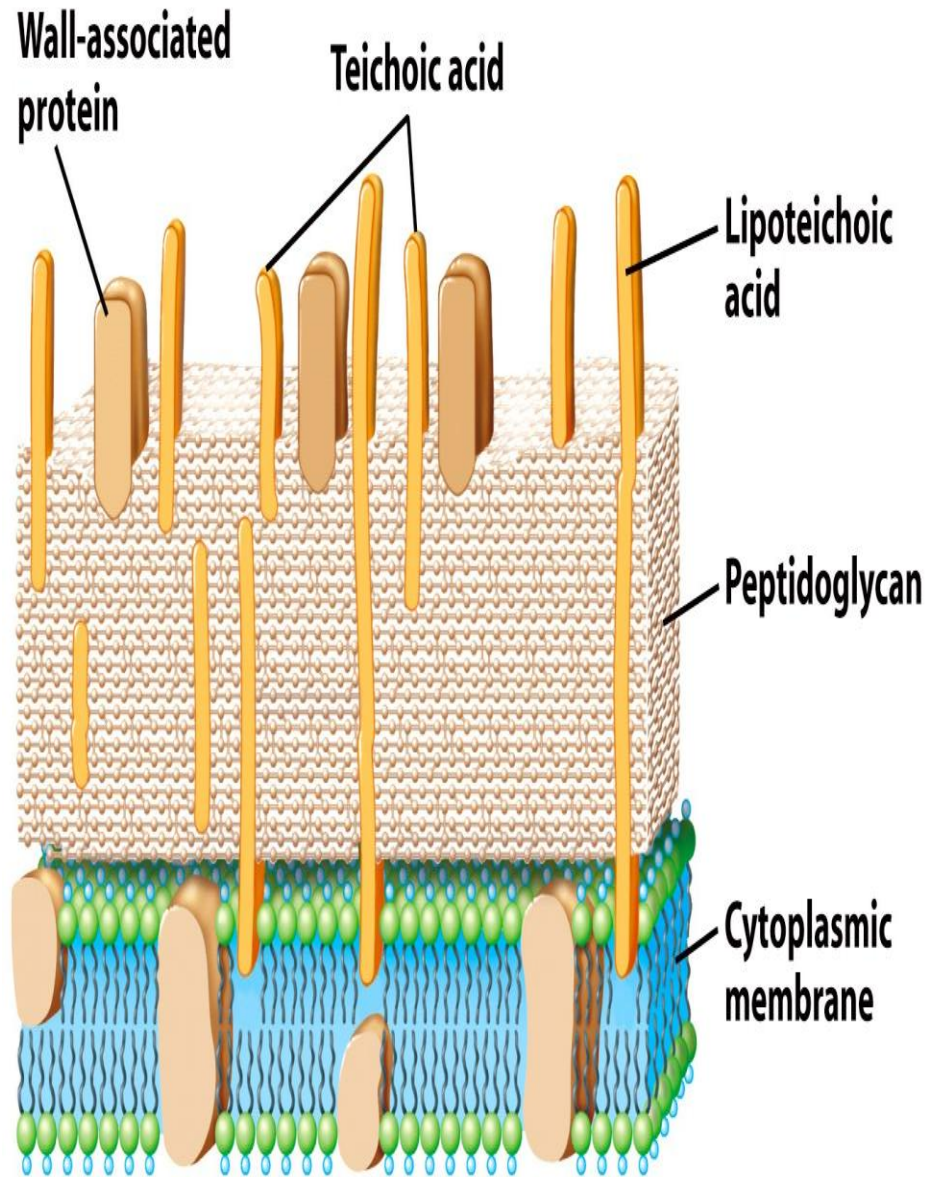


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Gram-negative

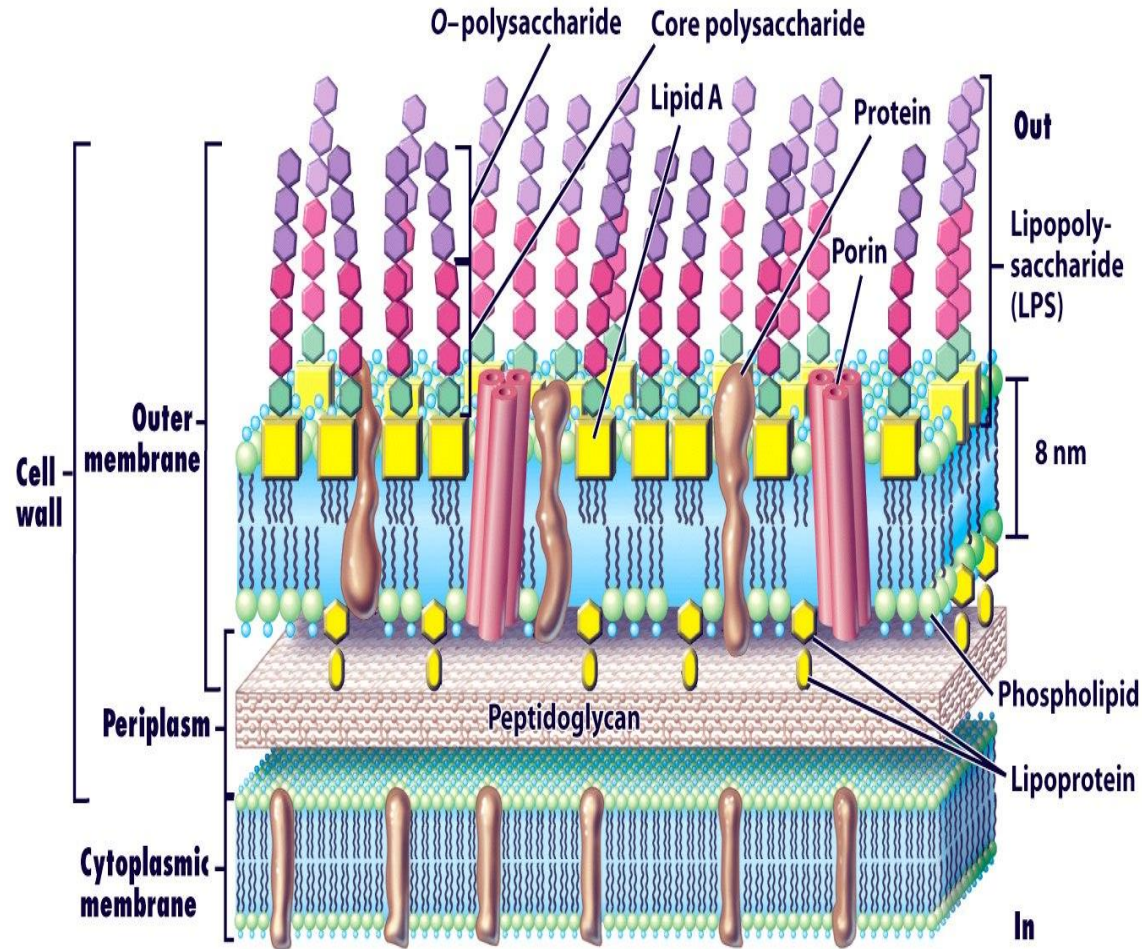
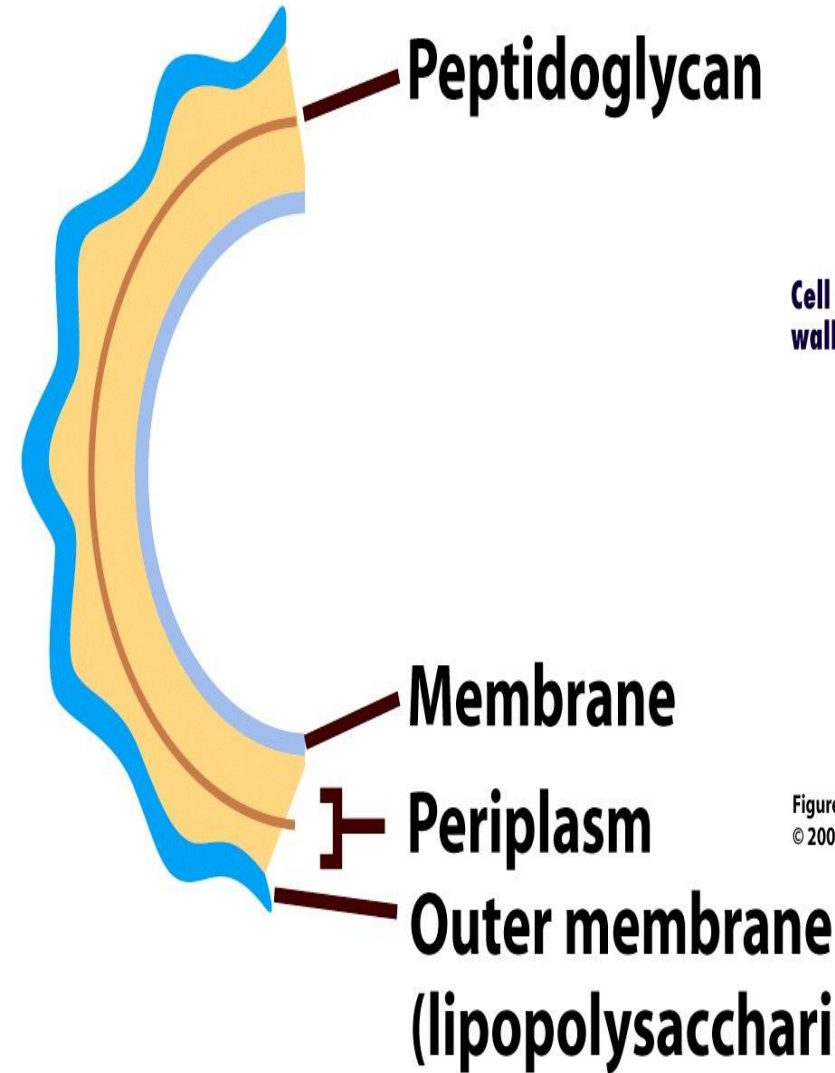


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Bacterial growth

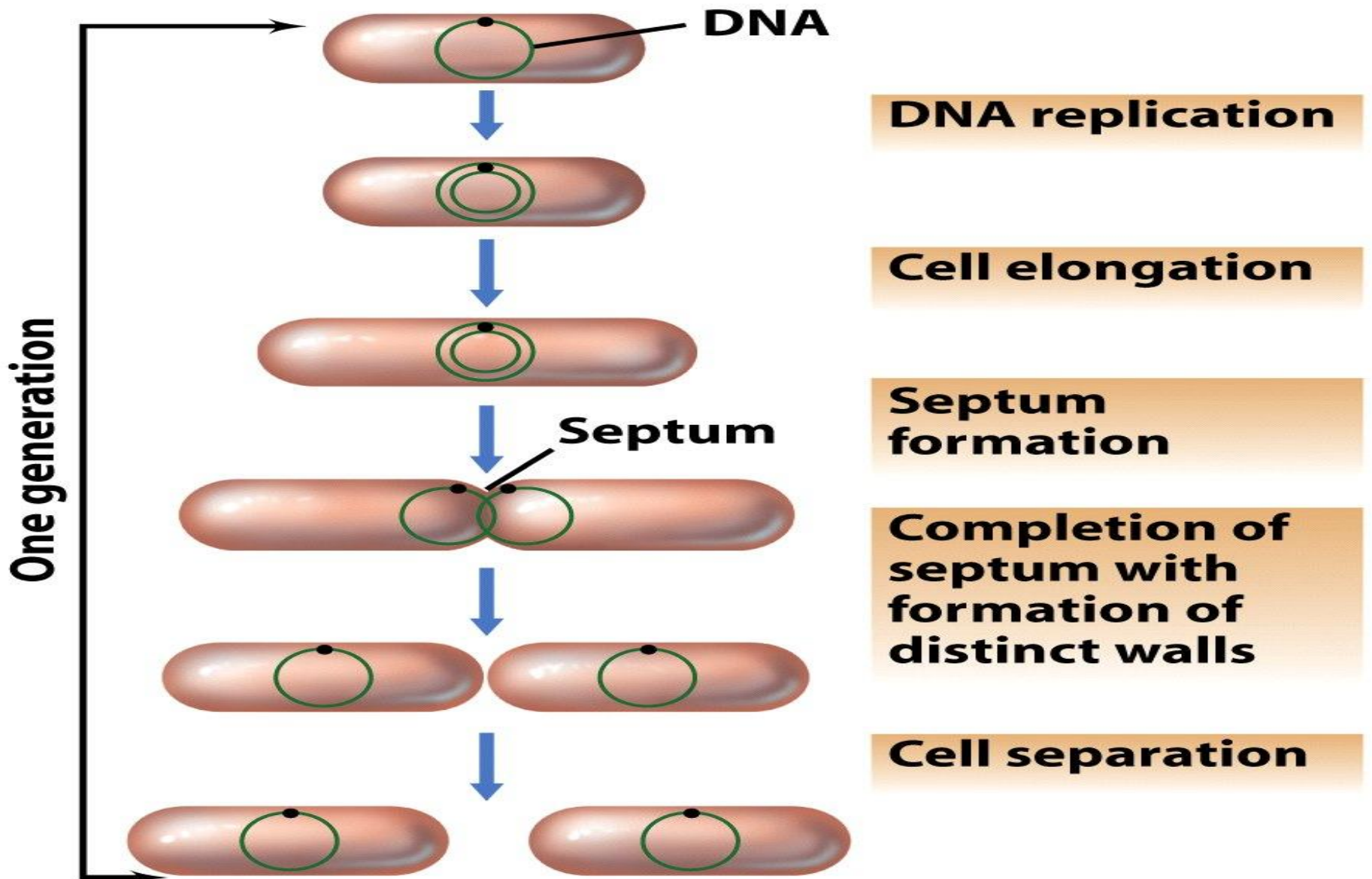


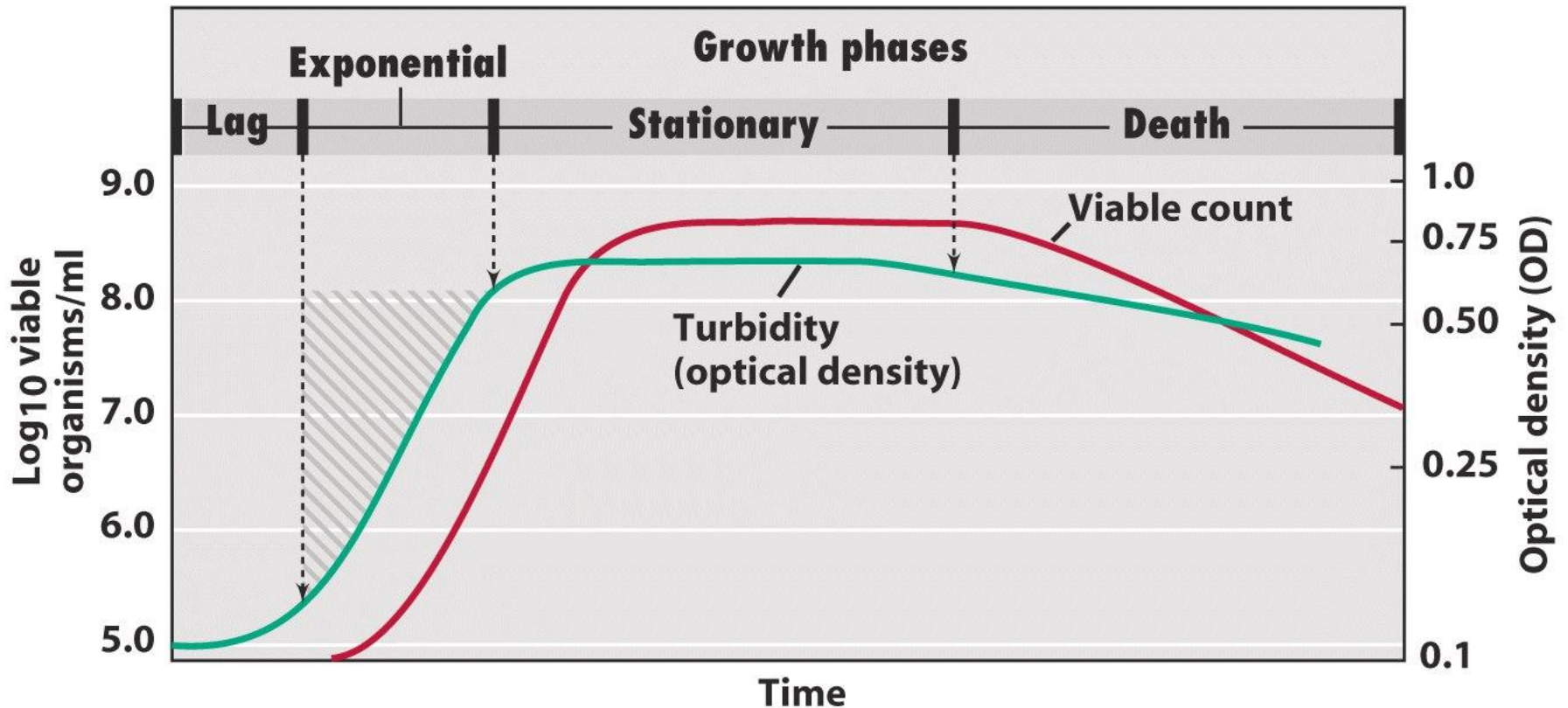
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Bacterial growth curve

- Lag phase
- Exponential phase
- Stationary phase
- Death phase

The Growth Cycle

- Microorganisms show a characteristic growth pattern when inoculated into a fresh culture medium.



Factors affecting growth

- 1- Temperature
- 2- pH
- 3- Salinity
- 4- Oxygen
- 5- Nutrition
- 6- Osmotic Pressure

Temperature

- Temperature is a major environmental factor controlling microbial growth. The **cardinal temperatures** are the minimum, optimum, and maximum temperatures at which each organism grows.

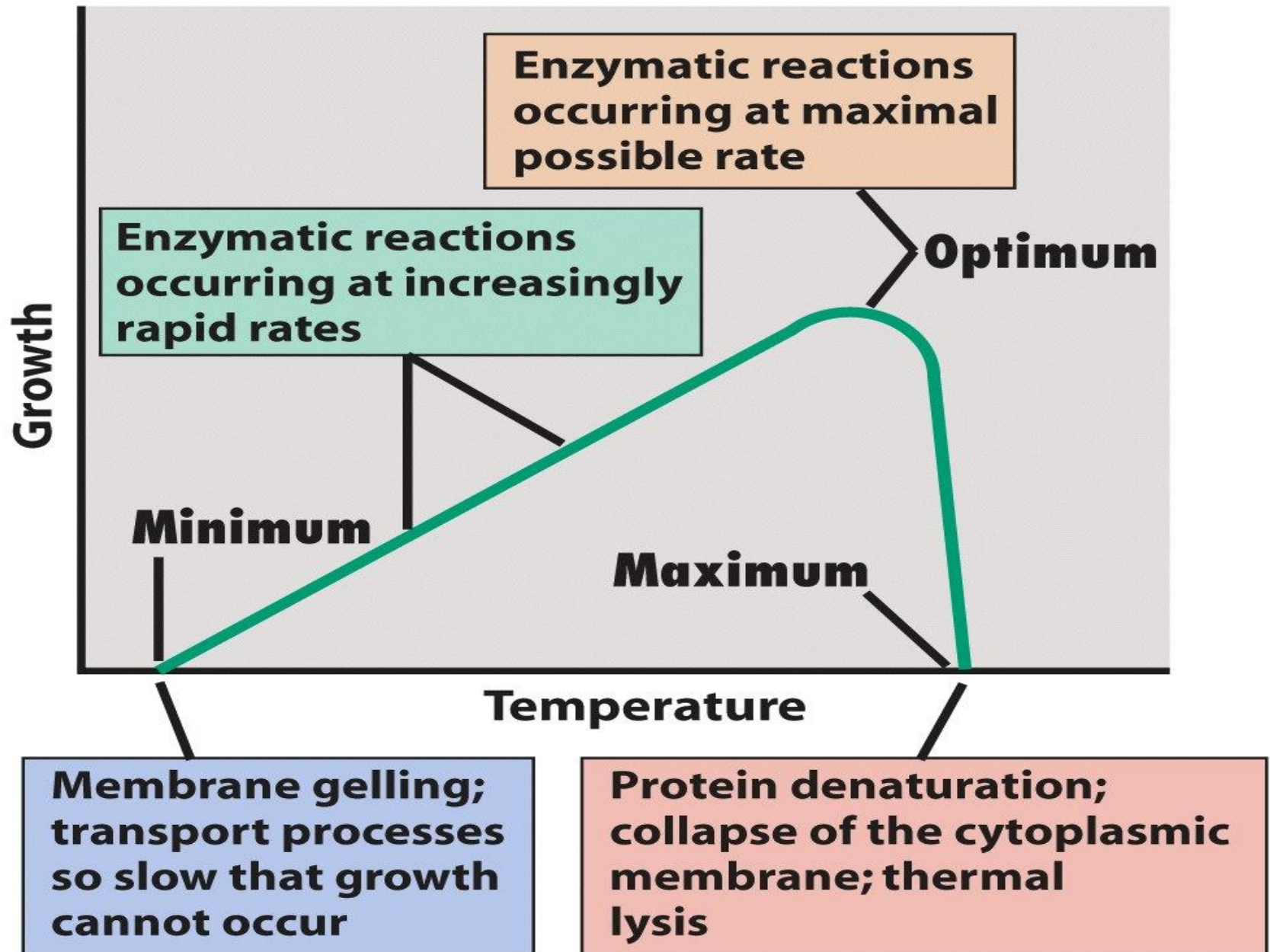


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Microorganisms can be grouped by the temperature ranges they require.

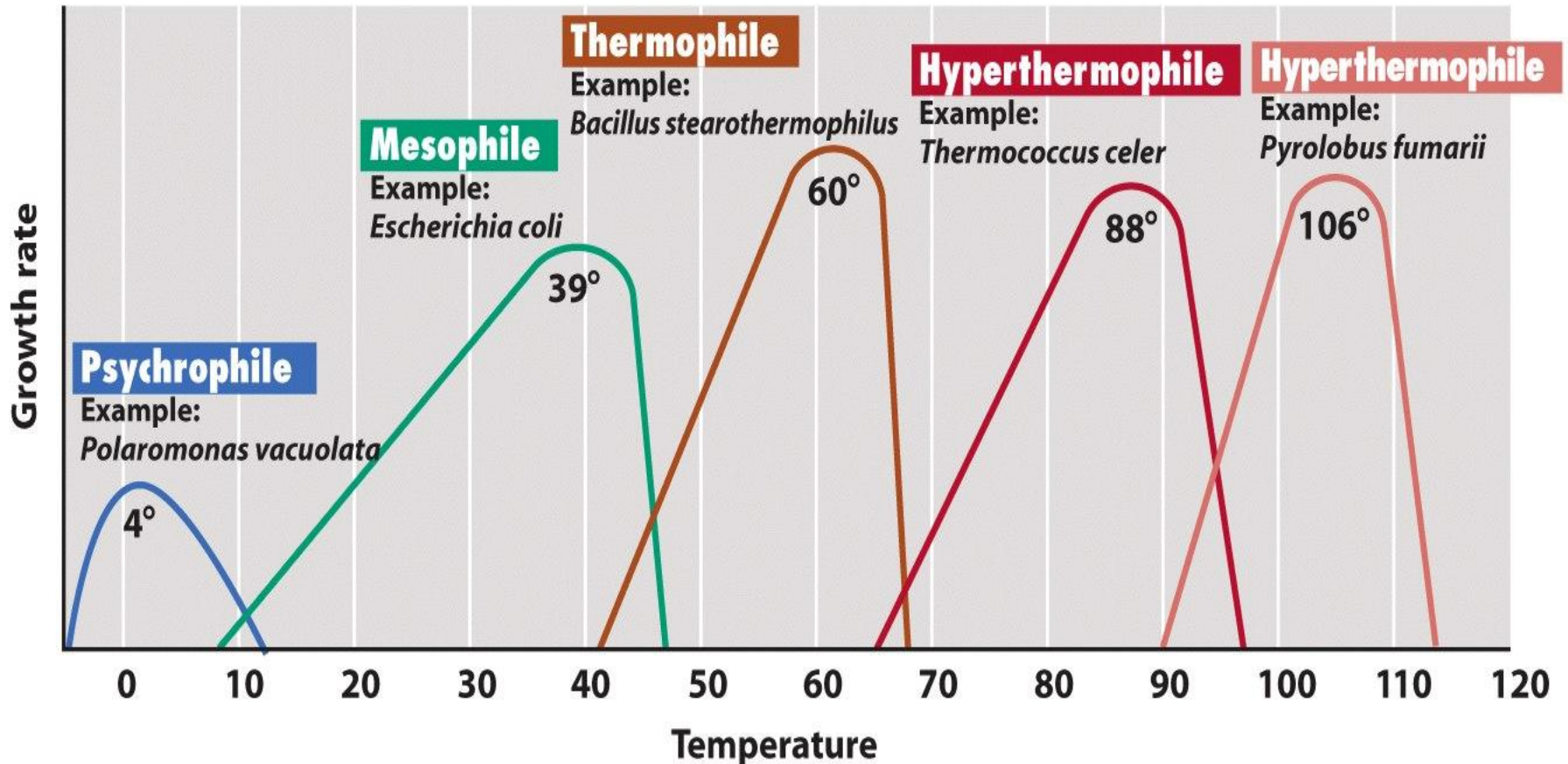


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Low or High pH

- The acidity or alkalinity of an environment can greatly affect microbial growth.
- Organisms that grow best at low pH are called **acidophiles**; those that grow best at high pH are called **alkaliphiles**.

Salinity

- Some microorganisms (**halophiles**) have evolved to grow best at reduced water potential, and some (**extreme halophiles**) even require high levels of salts for growth.

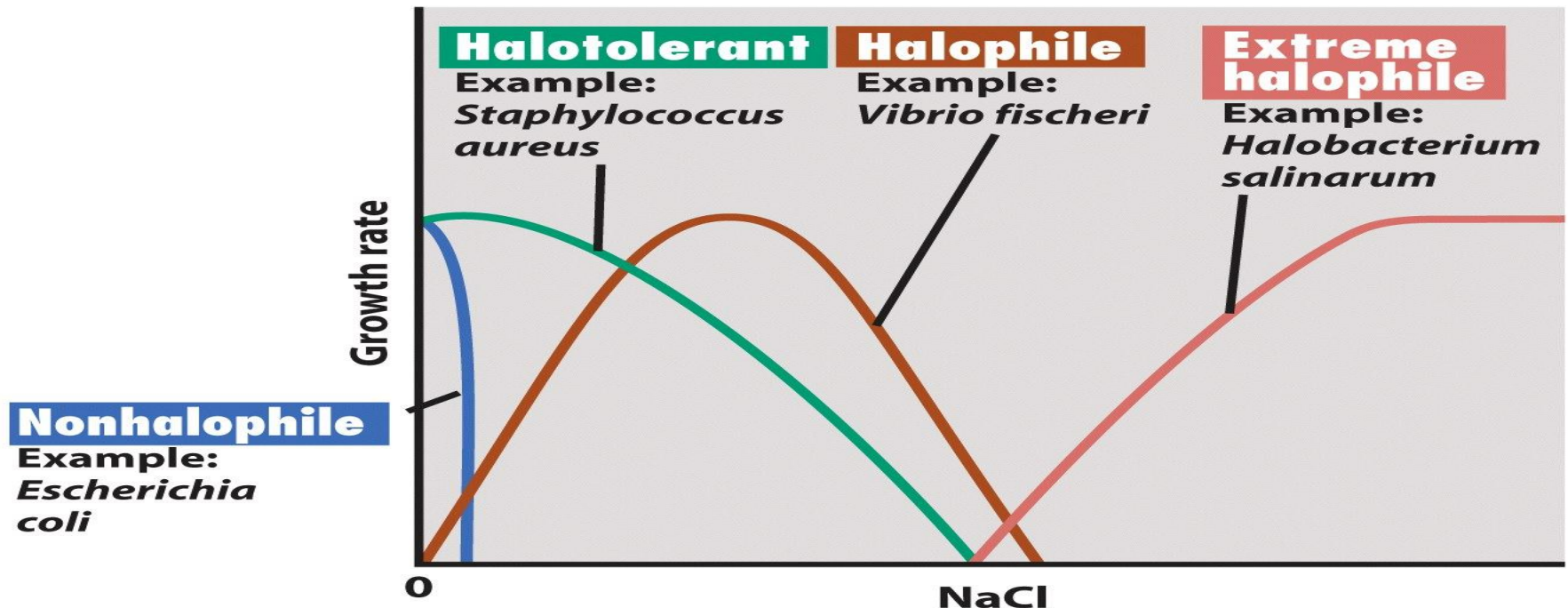


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Oxygen

- **Aerobes** require oxygen to live, whereas **anaerobes** do not and may even be killed by oxygen.
- **Facultative:** organisms can live with or without oxygen.
- **Aerotolerant anaerobes:** can tolerate oxygen and grow in its presence even though they cannot use it.
- ***Microaerophiles:** are aerobes that can use oxygen only when it is present at levels reduced from that in air.

Bacterial metabolism

Catabolism: substrate breakdown and conversion into usable energy

- * Anabolism: synthesis of cellular constituents (cell wall, proteins, fatty acids, nucleic acids)
- Bacterial growth requires; a source of energy & raw materials
- * To build the proteins, structures and membranes
- * That make up the structure and biochemical machines of the cell
- Bacteria should obtain or synthesize:
 - aminoacids, carbohydrates, lipids as building blocks of the cell

The minimum requirement for growth

- Carbon
- Nitrogen
- Energy source
- Water
- Various ions