

The roles of Fungi in nature and industry:

- Agricultural industry: 40% of the yearly crop of fruit is consumed not by humans but by fungi → rots
- Pathogen to field plants, e.g. corn, grain, rot harvested fresh produce during shipping and storage e.g. potatoes.
- Beneficial side:
 - a) essential role in decomposing organic matter and returning essential minerals to the soil
 - b) they form association with plant roots e.g. mycorrhizae → increase the ability of roots to absorb water and nutrients.
 - c) Biochemical potential to produce large quantities of ^{biotics} antibiotics, alcohol, organic acids, and vitamins
 - d) Food: the yeast *Saccharomyces*: 1) produces the alcohol in beer and wine 2) the gas that causes bread to rise for baking.

Micro (15)

7/23/04

chap. 8

p. 217

Metabolism of Microorganisms:

Metabolic Task:

① Bringing nutrients into cell:

To transport nutrient across the cytoplasmic membrane to process them.

② Metabolism:

a - Anabolism: Synthesis of new material needed

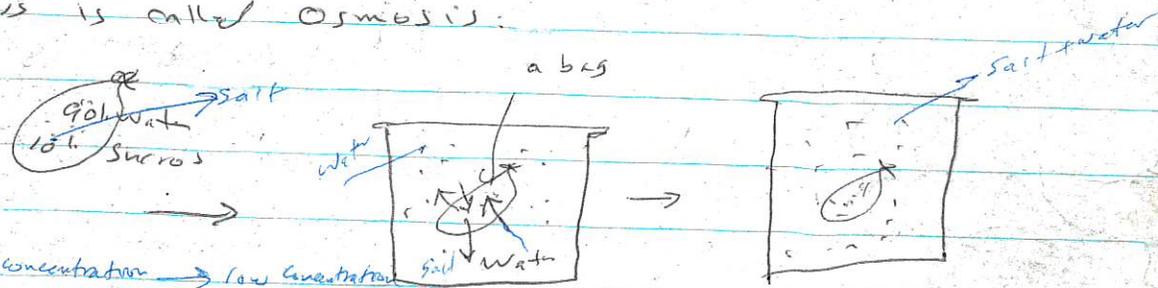
b - Catabolism: Convert nutrients into organic compounds.

Bringing nutrients into the cell:

Methods of transport:

① Simple diffusion:

any molecule that crosses a membrane freely until reaches equal distribution, in case of water, the process is called osmosis:



② Facilitated Diffusion:

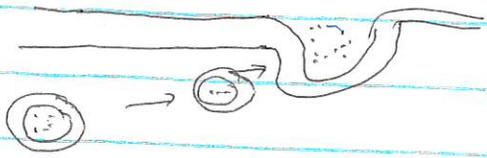
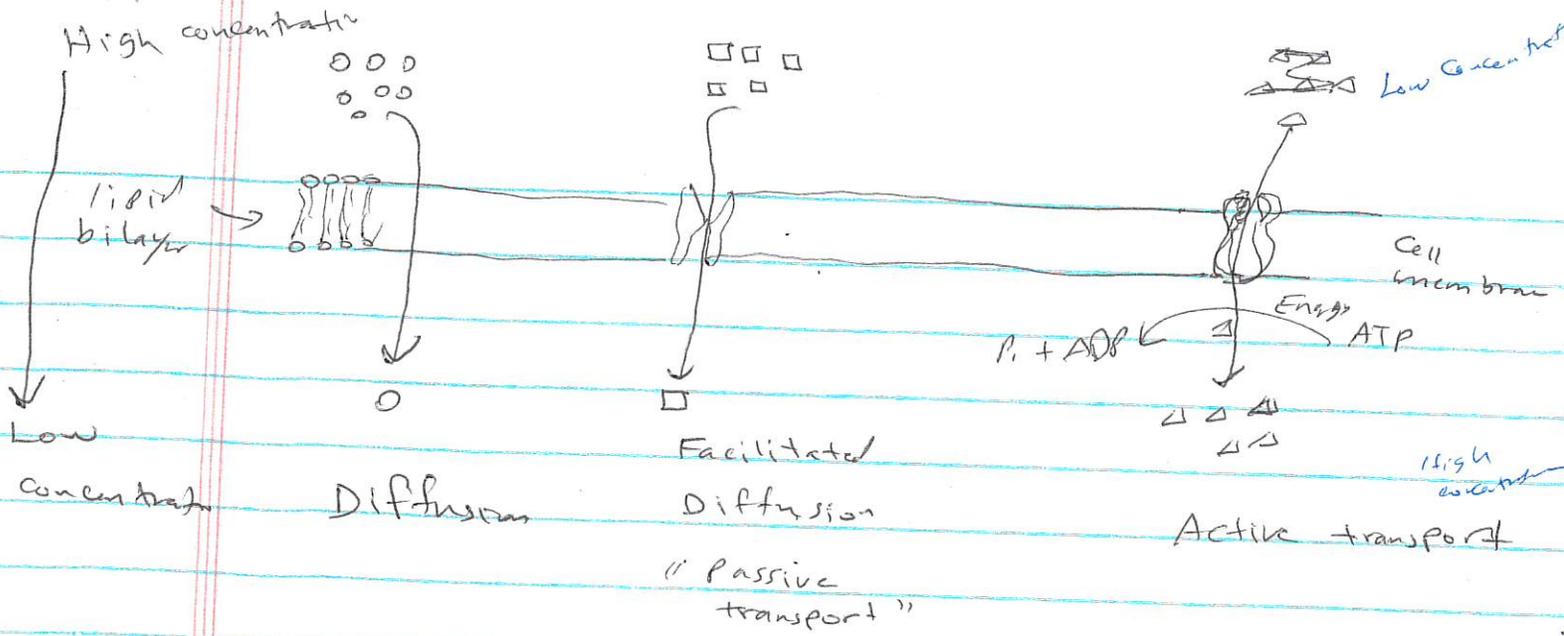
Substances that cannot diffuse across membranes, passage → mediated by carrier proteins embedded in the cell membrane.

③ Active transport.

Bring essential nutrients (sugars, amino acids, vitamins) into cell when concentrations outside are low.

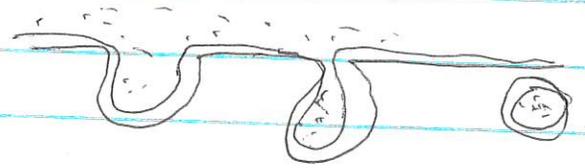
→ movement against concentration gradient

→ requires energy in the form of ATP



Exocytosis

Vesicle moves to plasma membrane, fuses with it, contents released outside

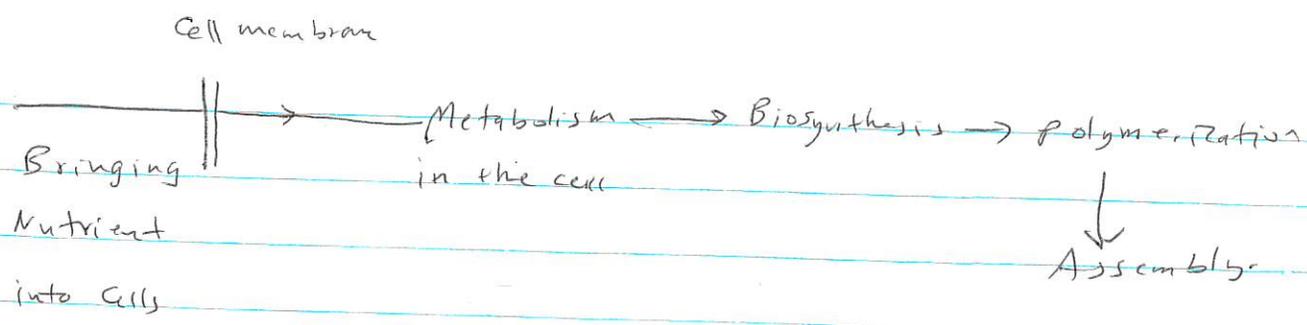


Endocytosis

Vesicle forms at surface of plasma membrane, sinks into cytoplasm

Chemical composition of E. Coli:

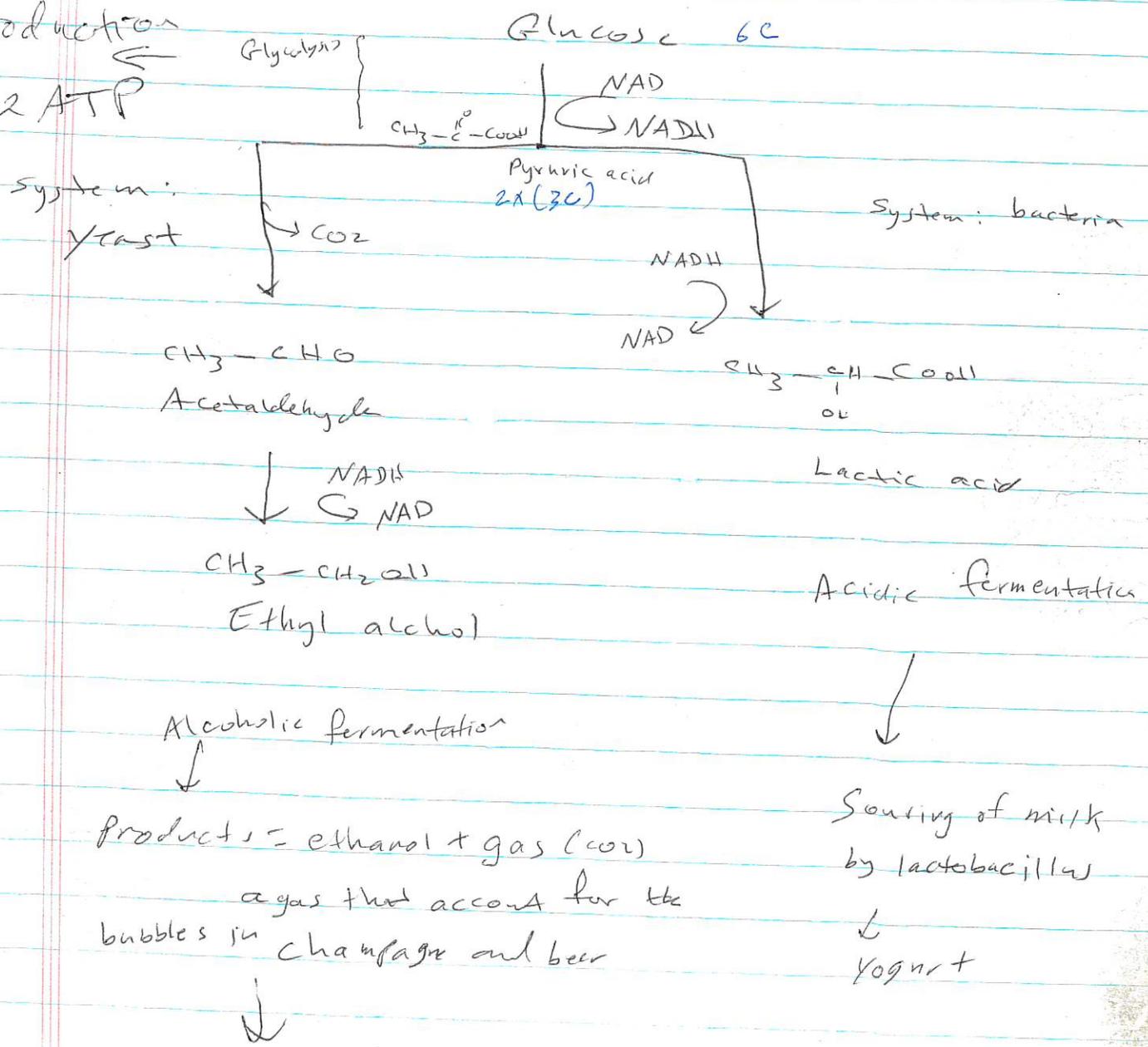
	<u>Percent of dry weight</u>
Proteins	35
RNA	20.5
DNA	3.1
Lipid	9.1
lipopolysaccharide	3.4
Peptidoglycan	2.5
Glycogen	2.5
Small molecules	2.9
ions	1.0
Total	<u>100%</u>



Metabolic Strategies among Microorganisms -

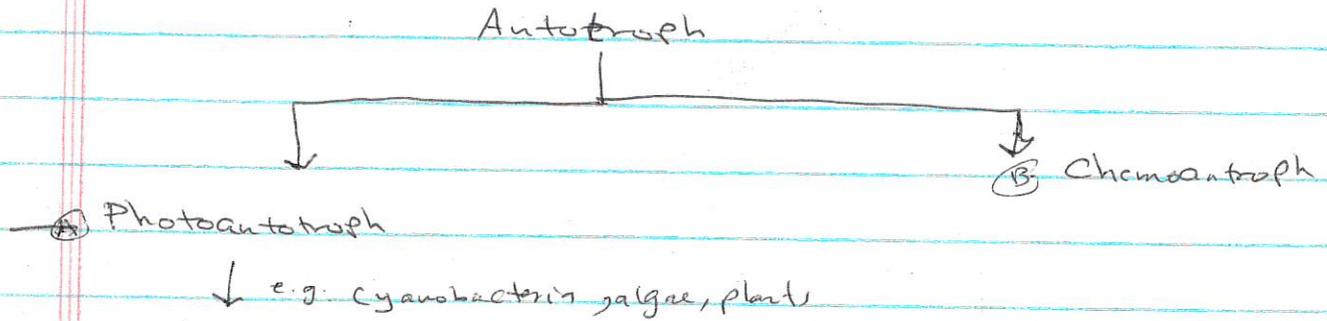
⊙ Anaerobic metabolism
(Fermentation)

production of 2 ATP

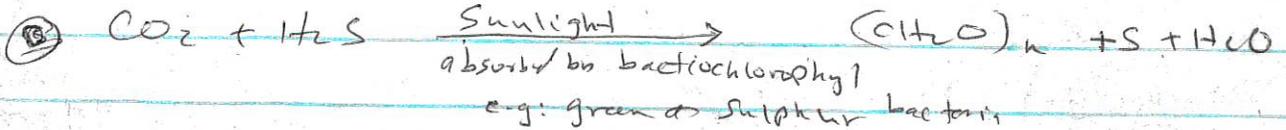
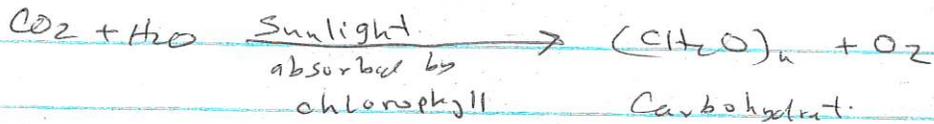


Microbial nutritional types:

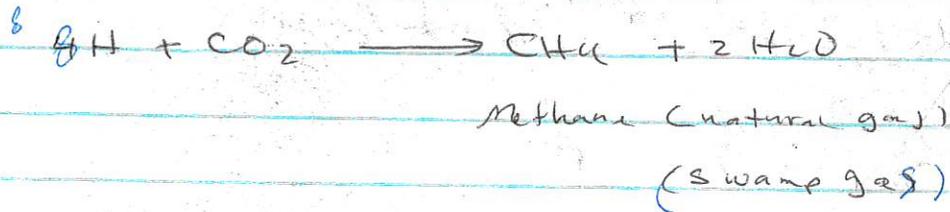
- ① Autotrophs: primary carbon source is inorganic CO_2
- ② Heterotrophs: dependent on organic carbon compounds.



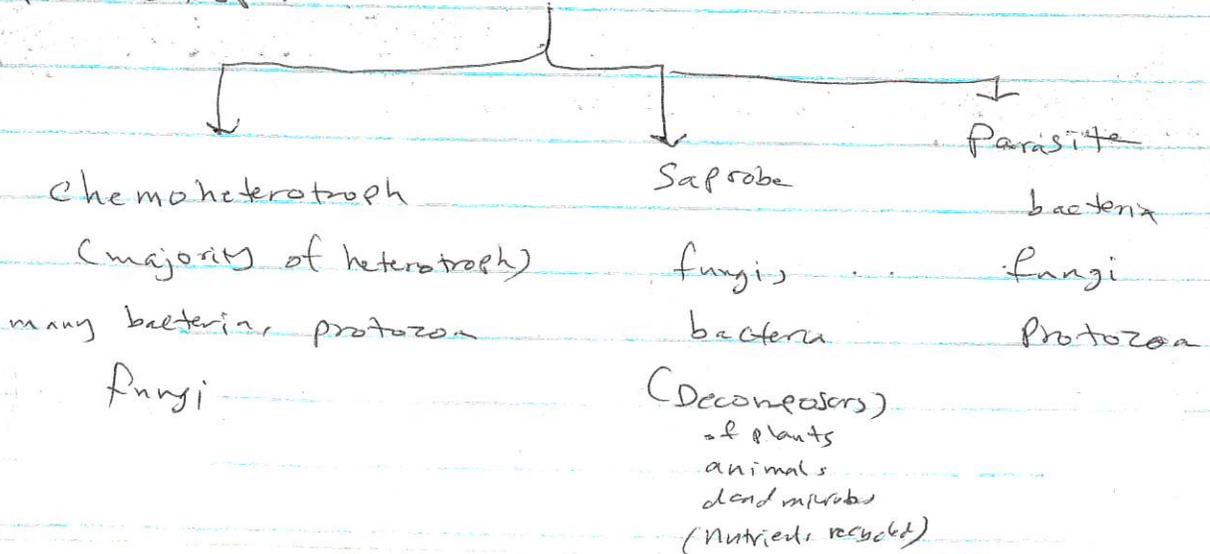
①



Chemoautotroph: e.g. methanogenic bacteria



Heterotroph



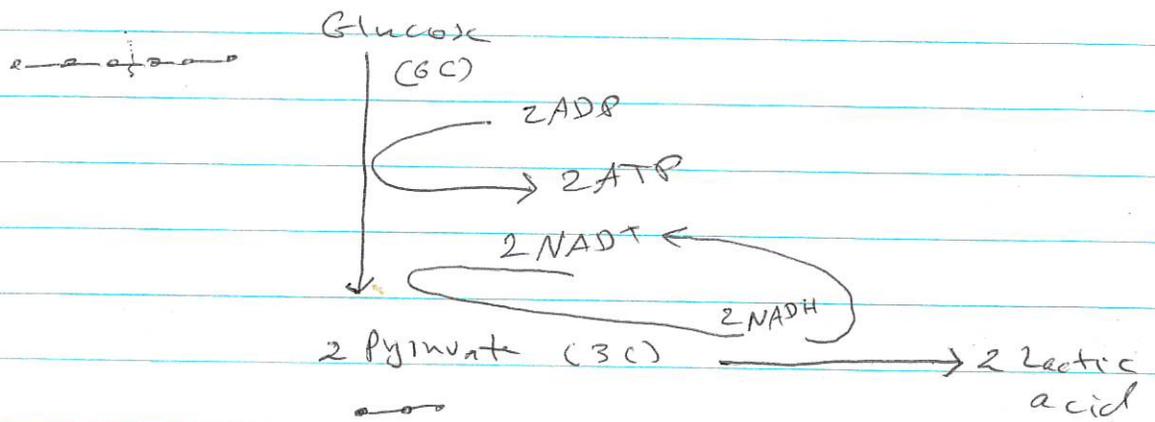
Chemoheterotrophy:

Derive carbon and energy from organic compounds.

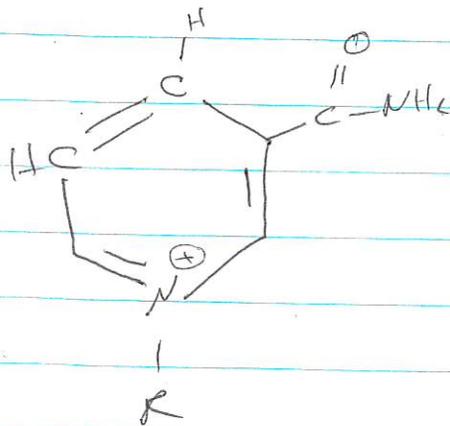


e.g. aerobic respiration or fermentation

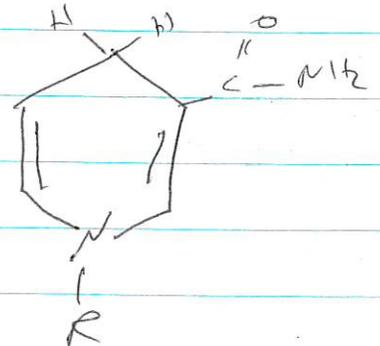
Fermentation: anaerobic metabolism: Glycolytic pathway



Reducing power:

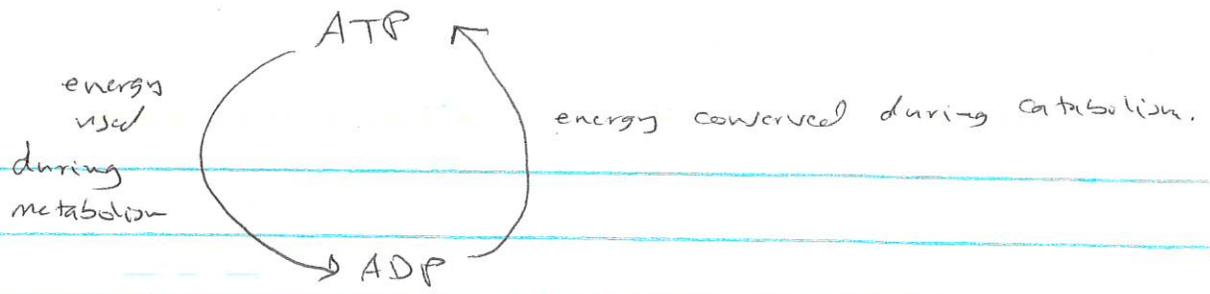


oxidized
NAD(P)⁺



Reduced
NAD(P)H

either NADH or NADPH → produces 3 ATP

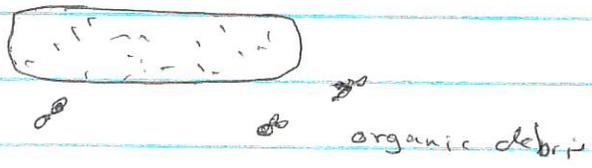


Saprobic Microorganisms:

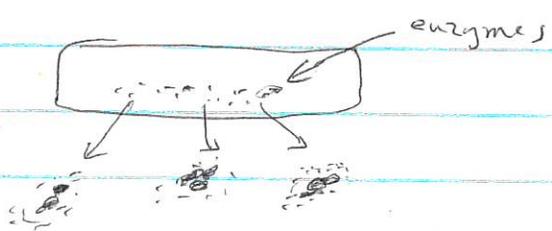
Without it earth would gradually filled up with organic materials and nutrients would not be recycled.

Most saprobes: bacteria + fungi

— have a rigid cell wall and cannot engulf large particles of food. To compensate, they release enzymes to extracellular environment and digest the food particles into smaller molecules that can pass freely into cells.



a) walled cell is inflexible



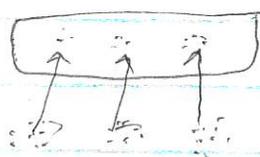
b) Enzymes are transported across the wall



c) Enzymes hydrolyze the bonds on nutrients



d) smaller molecules are transported into the cytoplasm of cell



Environmental Factors that Influence Microbes:

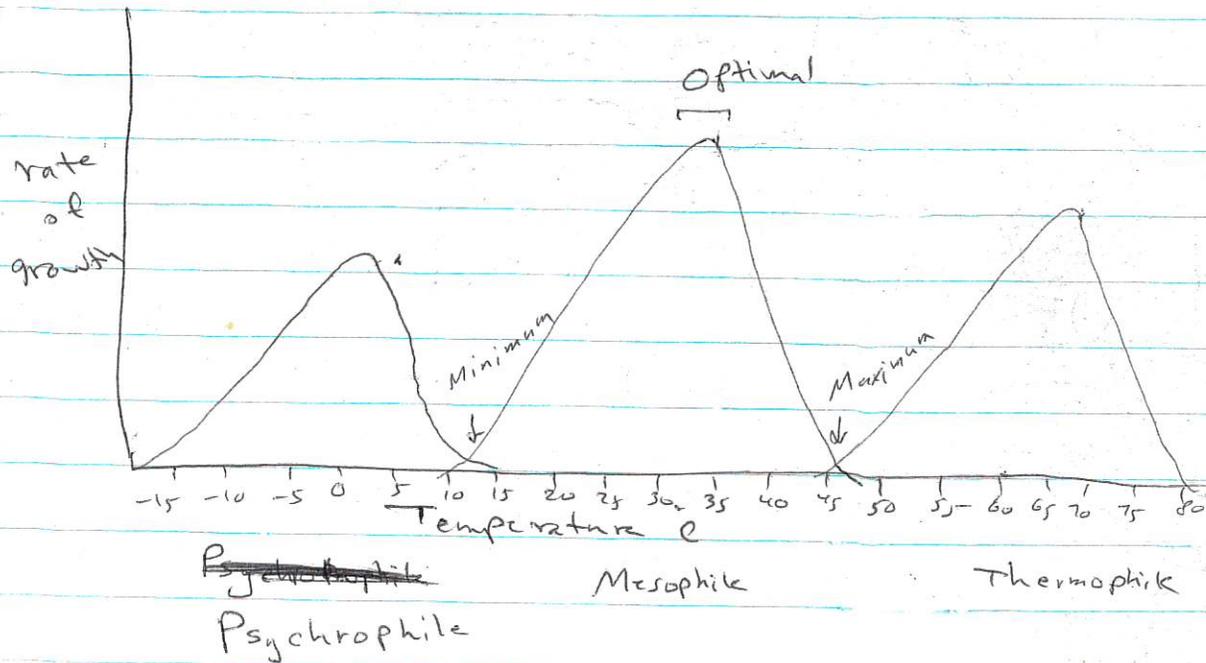
Temperature Adaptations

Bacterial (Microbial) cells are dependent ⁱⁿ adapting to whatever temperature variations of their natural habitats.

3 - kinds range temperatures;

- 1) Minimal T: is the lowest T that permits continued growth and metabolism
- 2) Maximum T: is the highest at which growth and metabolism can proceed.
- 3) Optimal T: promotes the fastest rate of growth and Metabolism

Ecological groups of T:



a) Psychrophile: has T_{opt} below $5^{\circ}C$, is capable to grow at $0^{\circ}C$, cannot grow above $20^{\circ}C$
 bacteria, algae, & bacteria \rightarrow snowfields & polar ice & deep ocean.

Facultative Psychrophiles: grow slowly in cold, e.g. *Staphylococcus aureus* & *Listeria monocytogenes* are a concern because they can grow in refrigerated food & cause food-borne illness.

b) Mesophiles : $T_{opt} = 20-40^{\circ}C$

Most human pathogens have $T_{opt} = 30-40^{\circ}$,
human $T = 37^{\circ}C$.

c) Thermophiles :: groups can grow:

- $45-80^{\circ}C$

- $80-110^{\circ}C$

there is intense interest in thermal microorganisms
by biotechnology companies;

- 1965 : thermus aquaticus was isolated from
Yellowstone, pool park.

- 1984 : Development of the polymerase chain
reaction (PCR), a versatile tool for making
multiple copies of DNA fragments by using

thermal DNA copying enzyme = Taq polymerase
which was isolated from thermophilic bacteria

$T_{opt} = 72^{\circ}C$, withstand $T = 95^{\circ}C$, such
 T is needed to denature DNA for the
process of PCR reaction.

PCR is a revolution in modern science.

Yellowstone park has over 10,000 hot springs,
biotech companies discovered other enzymes

for = application in dairy, brewing,
baking - for high T processing.

Others are being considered for waste
treatment and bioremediation.

Ecological Associations among microorganisms:

association between a) similar e.g. bacteria & bacteria
b) dissimilar : e.g. bacteria & plant or animal

Microbial associations

Symbiotic

Organisms live close nutritional relationships: required ^{one or} by both members

Non-Symbiotic

organisms are free-living; relationships not required for survival

Mutualism
~~Antitism~~

obligatory;
both members benefit

Commensalism

the commensal benefits;
other member not harmed

Paritism

host harmed

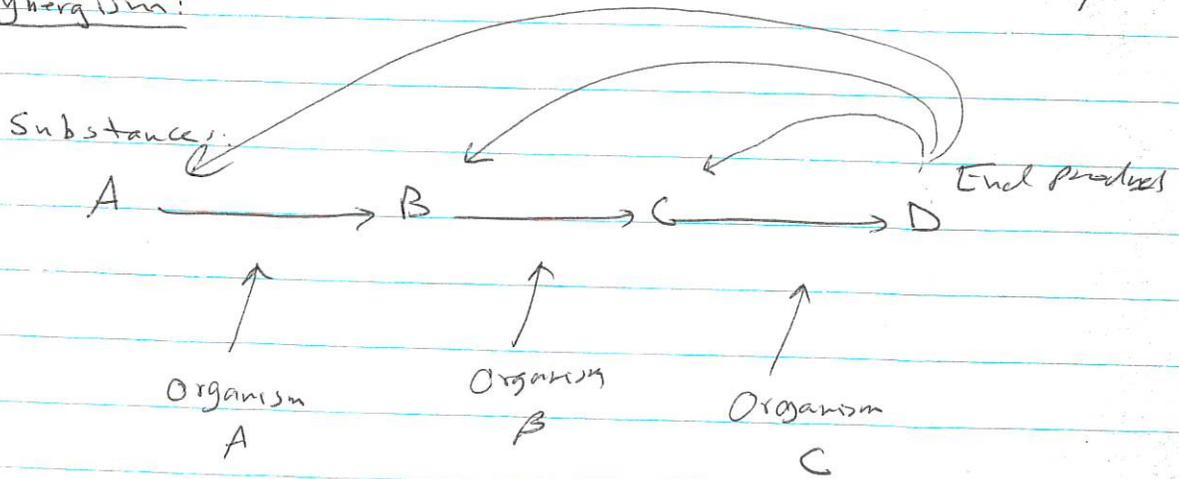
Synergism

Members cooperate and share nutrients

Antagonism

Some members are inhibited by others

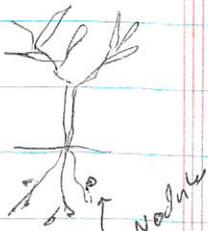
Synergism:



Each organism performs a specific action on a chemical in the series. The end product useful to all.

Example: Soil bacteria and Plant roots, the plant roots provide growth factors, bacteria help fertilize the plant

Antagonism: e.g. Antibiosis: the production of inhibitors compounds called antibiotics. Hundreds of naturally occurring antibiotics isolated from bacteria & fungi



(rhizobium)
N₂ → NH₄
(Nitrogen fixation)

Microbial Growth:

The basis of population growth: Binary fission:

Binary = means that one cell becomes two

- Parent cell enlarges
- Duplicates its chromosome
- forms a central septum that divides the cell into two daughter cells.

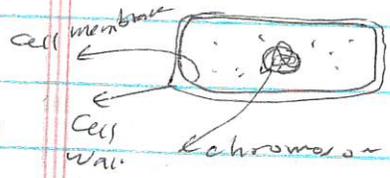
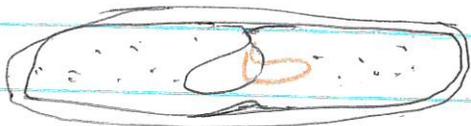
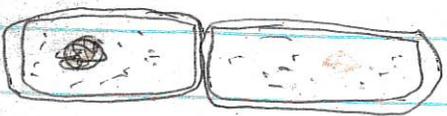


Fig. 7.14



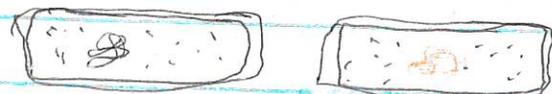
- Cell enlarge
- chromosome becomes attached to cell membrane



- septum is synthesized completely
- Cell membrane ^{cell wall} divide (patches → two separate cell membranes)



- Septum wall grow inward
- chromosomes are pulled toward opposite cell ends,



- daughter cells are divided

↑ Steps in binary fission of a rod-shaped bacterium?

The mathematics of population growth:

No. of cells	1	2	4	8	16	32	
No. of generations		1	2	3	4	5	
Exponential value		2^1	2^2	2^3	2^4	2^5	

Example: $2^5 = 2 \times 2 \times 2 \times 2 \times 2$

But for 20-30 generations, calculation is tedious

An easier way to calculate the size of population over time is to use an equation -

$$N_f = (N_i) 2^n$$

N_f = total number of cells (final)

N_i = initial or starting number

n = exponent denotes the generation no.

2^n = represents the number of cells in that generation.

Example:

Staphylococcus aureus (10 cells) present in egg salad sandwich after it sits in a warm car for 4 hrs.

$N_i = 10$ (number of cells deposited in the sandwich while it was being prepared).

$n = 4 \text{ hrs} = 240 \text{ min}$, Generation time = 20 min

$$240 \div 20 = 12$$

$$N_i = 10$$

$$2^n = 2^{12}$$

, Referring to log tables $2^{12} = 4096$

Final $N =$

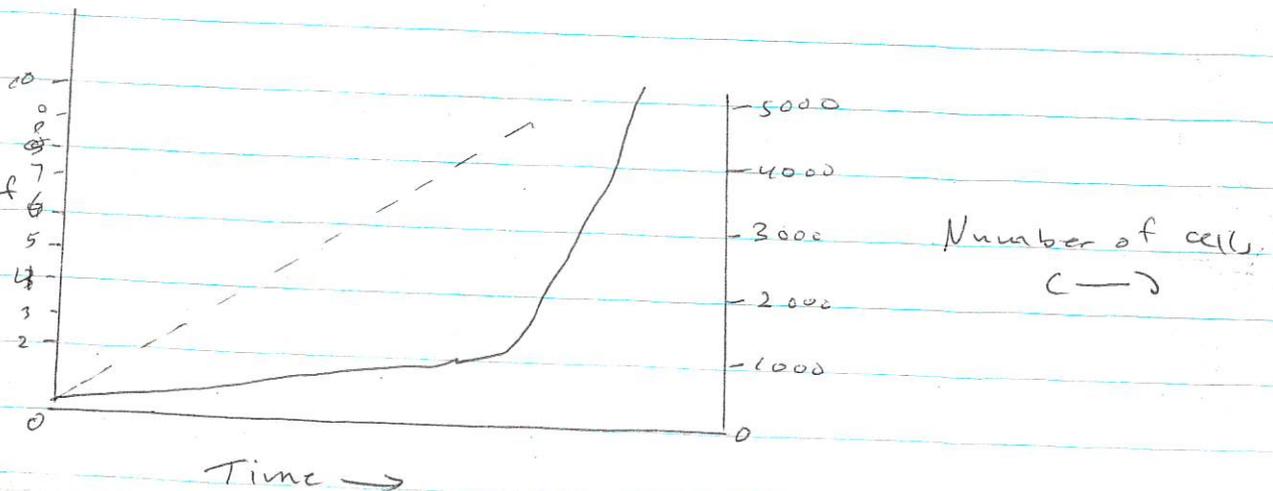
$$N_f = 10 \times 4096$$

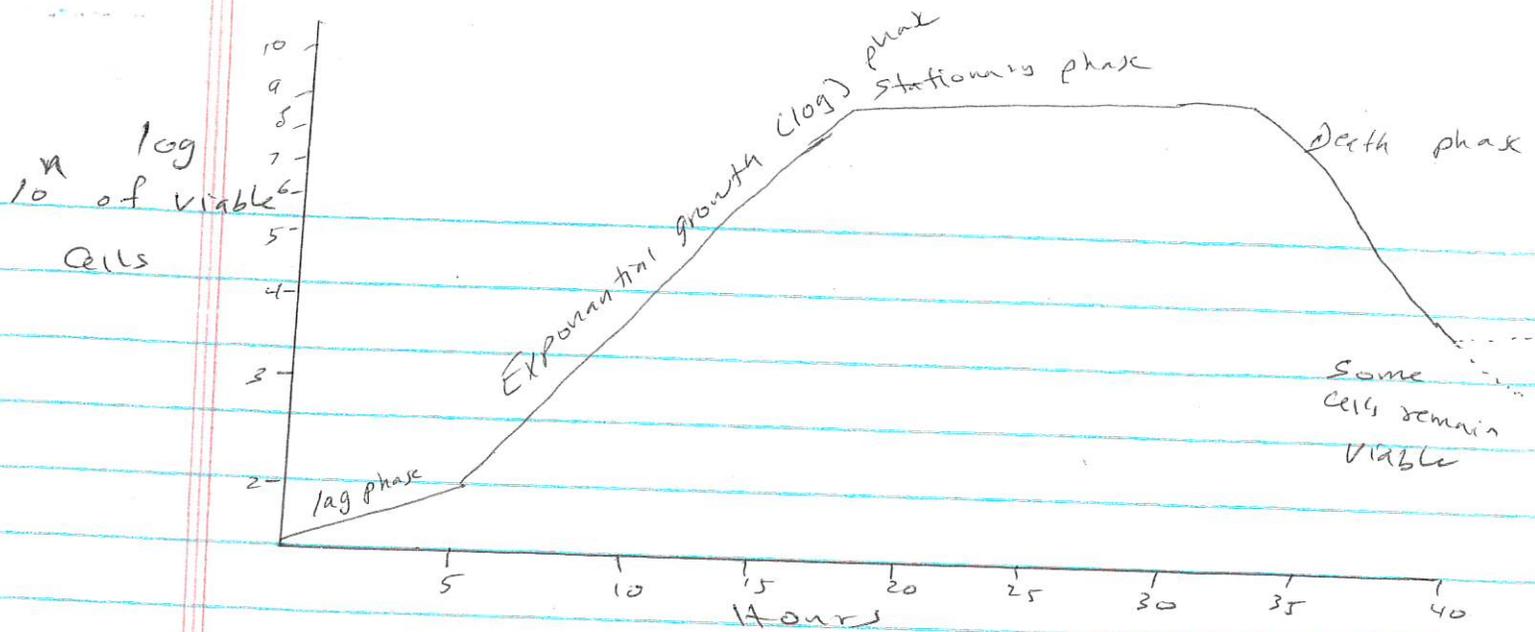
$$= 40,960 \text{ cells in the sandwich}$$

plotting:

All N 's arithmetically \rightarrow
curved slope

log of cells \rightarrow
Straight line
indicative of
exponential growth
(log No of cells
(---))





Practical importance of the Growth curve:

- Understanding the stages of cell growth is crucial for work with culture of microorganisms. Rapid, slow growth and death has important implications in:
 - microbial control, - infection, - food microbiology.
 - Antimicrobial agents: - heat, - disinfectants } rapidly accelerate the death phase.
 - microbes in the exponential phase are more vulnerable to these agents (it disrupts cell ^{membrane} metabolism & binary fission). Microbial cells during exponential phase
 - a) numerous, b) virulent. A person shedding bacteria in the early and middle stage of an infection is more likely to spread it to others than is a person in the late stage of infection.
 - Bacterial culture;

it is unwise to continue incubating a culture beyond the stationary phase

- 1) death
- 2) ~~longer~~ selection may be lost
- 3) plasmids may be lost

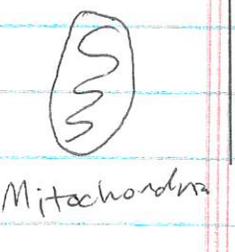
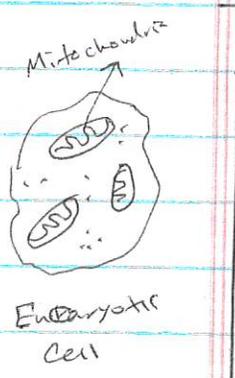
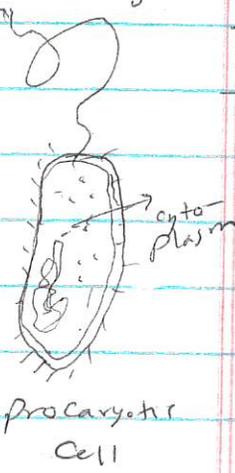
- Do stains, motility tests, competent cells on young cultures during the lag phase → they show their natural size and correct reactions. Industries use → fermentors → to produce Vit. & antibiotics

(Continuous culture)

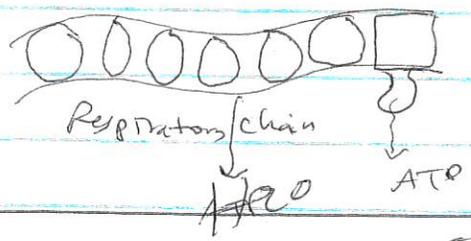
Given



Fig 8.18



Pathway Involved	Net output	Description
<p>Glycolysis</p> <p>Occurs in cytoplasm of cells</p> <p>Glucose 6C</p> <p>NAD⁺ → NADH</p> <p>ATP</p> <p>Pyruvate acid</p> <p>3C Pyruvate</p>	<p>2 ATP</p> <p>2 NADH</p> <p>2 Pyruvate acid</p>	<p>Anaerobic metabolism</p> <p><u>Fermentation</u></p> <p>- NO O₂ required</p>
<p>TCA cycle</p> <p>Occurs in cytoplasm of prokaryotes and mitochondria of eukaryotes</p> <p>CO₂</p> <p>ATP</p>	<p>6 CO₂</p> <p>2 ATP</p> <p>2 FADH₂</p> <p>8 NADH</p>	<p>CO₂ is an important product</p> <p>electrons & H⁺ are shuttled via NAD & FAD to electron transport to be used in ATP synthesis.</p>
<p>Electron transport</p> <p>NADH</p> <p>ATP</p>	<p>30 ATP</p> <p>6 H₂O</p>	<p>O₂ is required</p>



Total 38 ATP

Anaerobic metabolism = Fermentation $\xrightarrow[O_2]{NO}$ Glycolysis \rightarrow 2 ATP

Aerobic ~~Metabolism~~ Respiration $\xrightarrow{O_2}$ Glycolysis \rightarrow 2 ATP

\rightarrow TCA \rightarrow 8 NADH \rightarrow 20 ATP

\rightarrow E-transport \rightarrow 30 ATP

Glycolysis

↓
Pyruvic acid

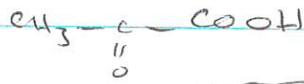
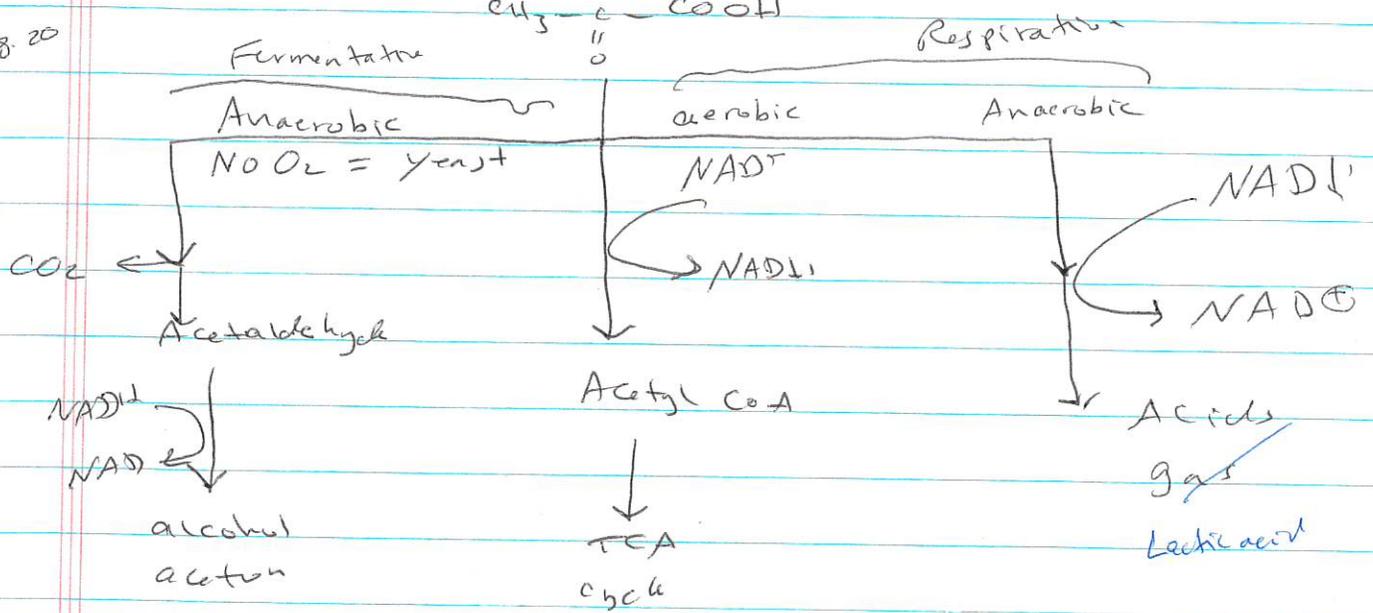
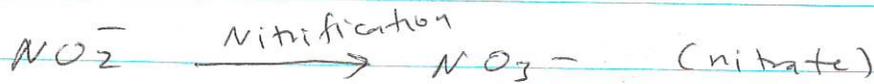


Fig. 8.20

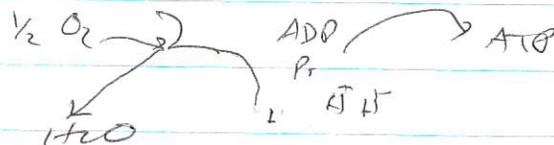
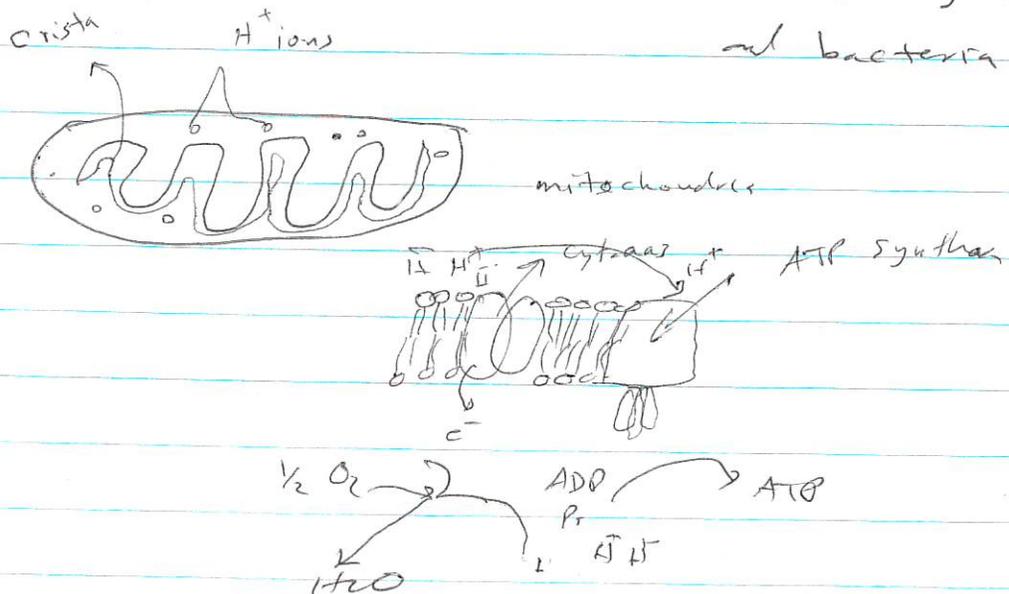


anaerobic respiration

Some bacteria have evolved an anaerobic respiratory system utilizing oxygen-containing salts, rather than O_2 as the final electron acceptor.



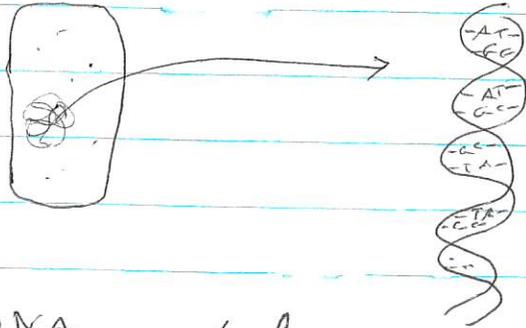
→ plants, algae and bacteria



Chap. 9

p. 253

Microbial Genetics Provides a greater understanding of human genetics
 The genetic material is a long molecule of DNA



Molecular level double stranded DNA

DNA made from

- 4 - nucleotides :
- Adenine = A
 - Thymine = T
 - Guanine = G
 - Cytosine = C

Always Adenine base pair with Thymine

" Guanine " " Cytosine

A = T 2 H-bonds

G = C 3 H-bonds (stronger)

Simple illustration

A - T - G - C - A - C - T

T - A - C - G - T - G - A

Location and forms of genome in cells.

Genome = Genetic material of a cell



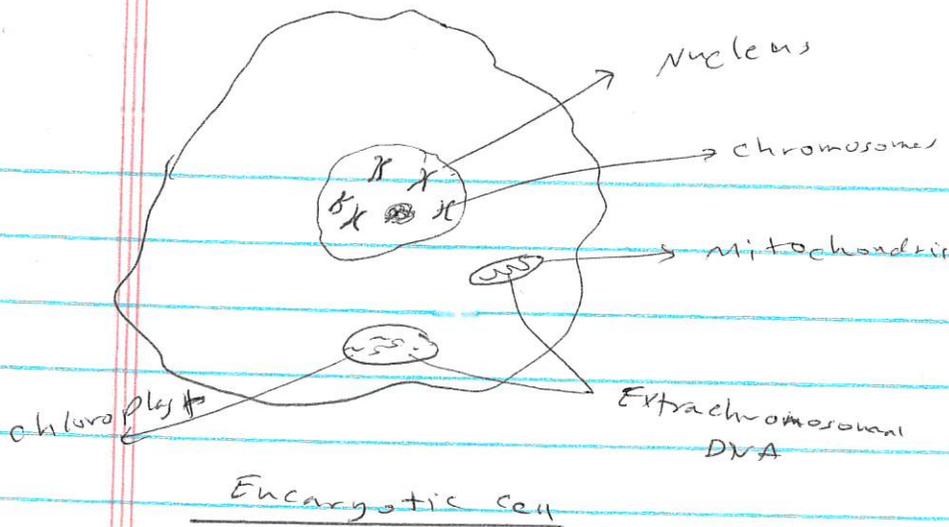
DNA is double stranded

RNA is single stranded

In RNA : Nucleotides are :

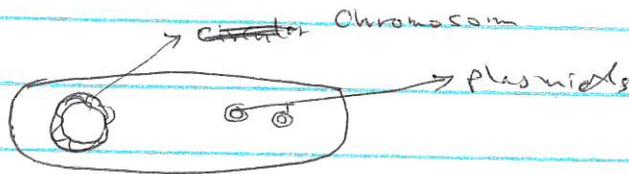
Adenine (A), Uracil (U), Guanine (G), Cytosine (C).

- A - U - C - U - G - U - A -



Chromosom	No
Bacteria	1
Human	46
Dog	78
fruit fly	8
Potato	48

Eucaryotic cell

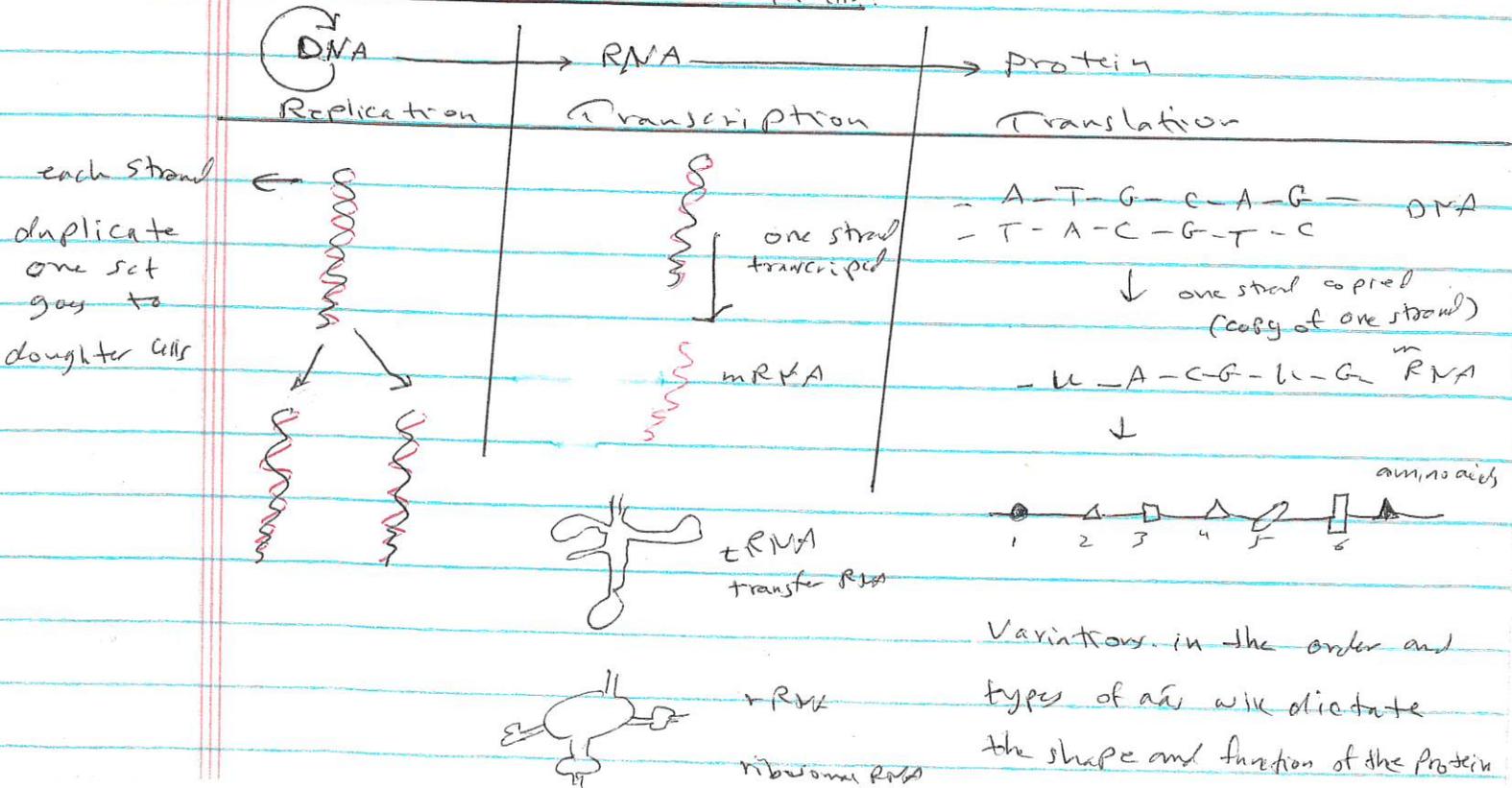


Bacteria



Viruses

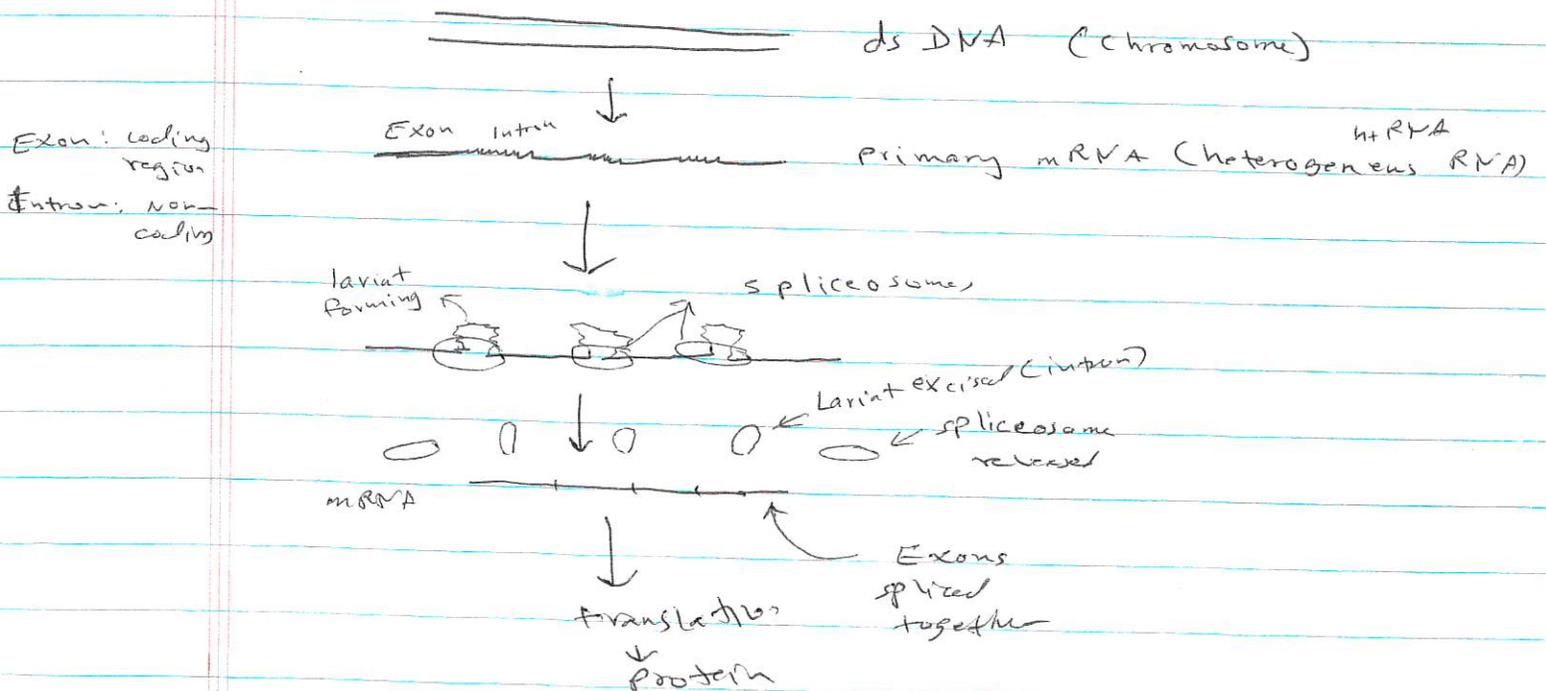
Flow of genetic information in cells:



Variations in the order and types of amino acids dictate the shape and function of the protein.

Types of ribonucleic acid (RNA):

RNA type	contains codes for	Function in cell	Translated
Messenger (mRNA)	Sequence of amino acids in proteins	Carries the DNA master code to the ribosome	Yes
transfer: tRNA	A cloverleaf tRNA to carry amino acids	Bring aa, to ribosome during translation	No
Ribosomal (rRNA)	Several large structural rRNA molecules	Forms the major part of a ribosome and participates in protein synthesis.	No
Micro (miRNA) Small interfering (siRNA)	Regulatory RNAs	Regulation of gene expression and coiling of chromatin	No
Primer	an RNA that can begin DNA replication	Primes DNA	No
Ribozymes	RNA enzymes, parts of splicing enzymes	Remove introns from other RNA, in eucaryotes	No



The Viruses

7/27/04

Chap. 6

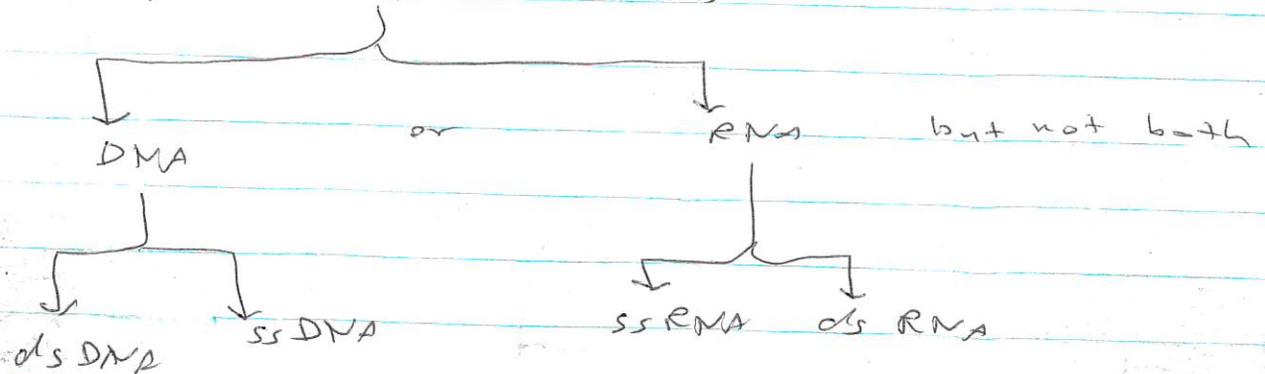
Viruses are a group of biological entities known to infect every type of cell; bacteria, algae, fungi, protozoa, plants and animals.

— Are they alive?

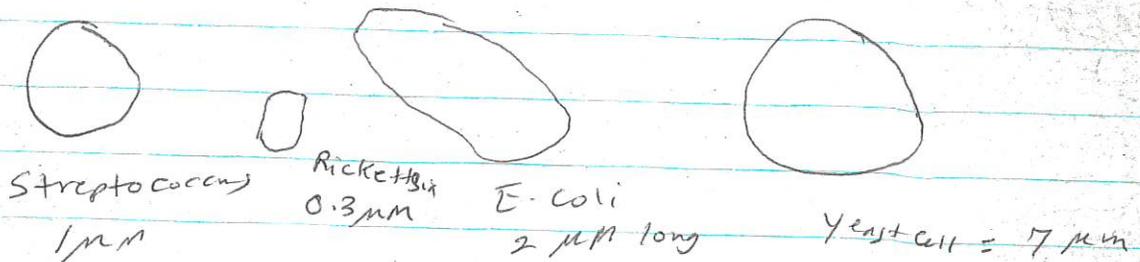
they are not alive, yet they are able to redirect the metabolism of living cells to reproduce virus particles.

— Viral replication inside a cell usually causes death or disease of that cell.

— Nucleic acids of viruses



Size Range:



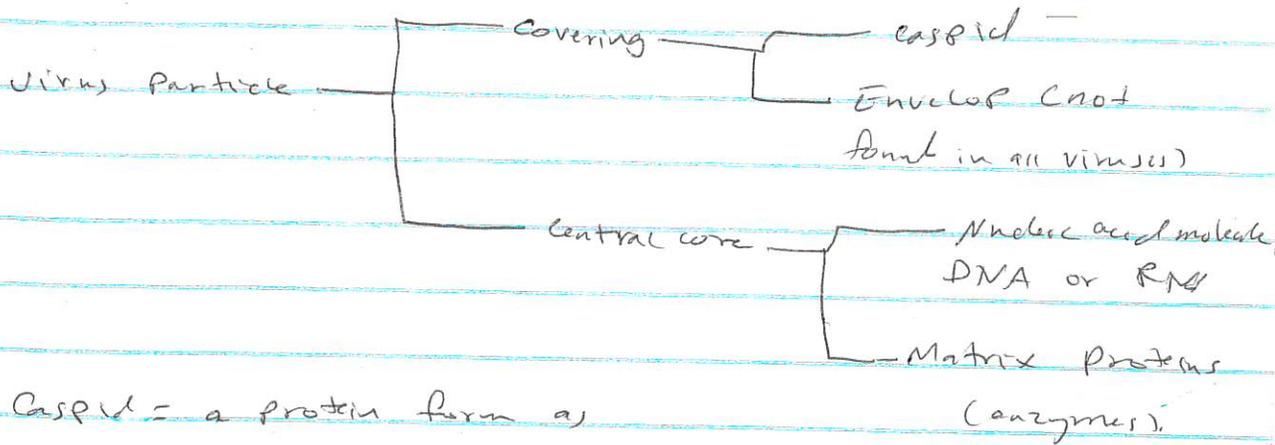
- 1 - Herpes  150 nm = 0.15 μm
- 2 - Rabies  125 nm = 0.125 μm
- 4 - HIV  110 nm = 0.11 μm
- 5 - Influenza  100 nm = 0.10 μm

- 6 - T2 - bacteriophage  65 nm = 0.065 μm
- 7 - Yellow fever  21 nm = 0.021 μm

Protein molecule e.g: Hemoglobin = 15 nm = 0.015 μm

Viral constituents :

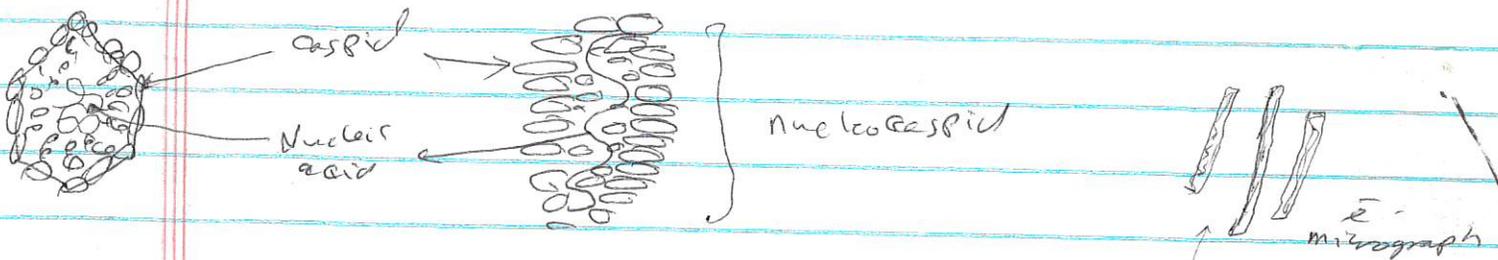
- a) capsids b) Nucleic acids c) Envelops



- Capsid = a protein form a shell or box surrounding the nucleic acid in the central core

Structure of virus

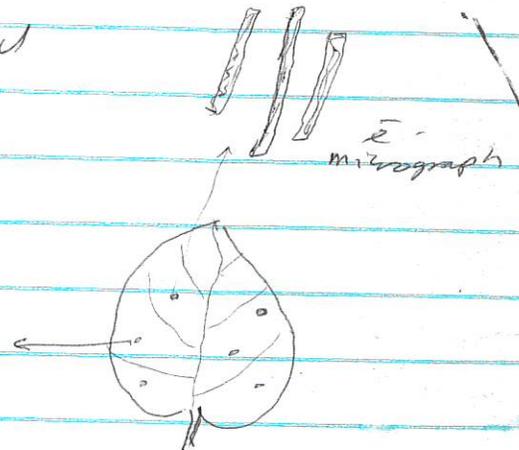
- a) Naked : Nucleo capsid virus



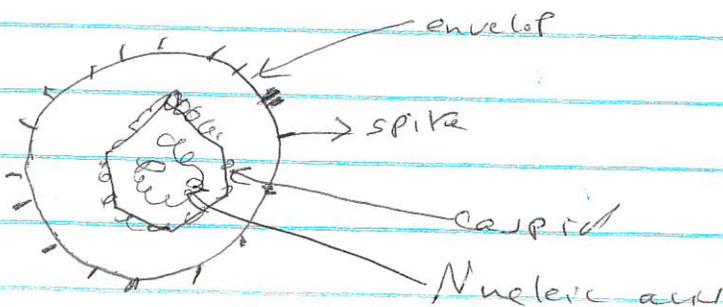
e.g: tobacco mosaic virus

mottled lesions

on a tobacco leaf that give tobacco mosaic disease it's name



- b) Enveloped virus



e.g: influenza virus

Function of the viral capsid/Envelope:

Covering a virus is indispensable to viral function:

a) Protects the nucleic acid from

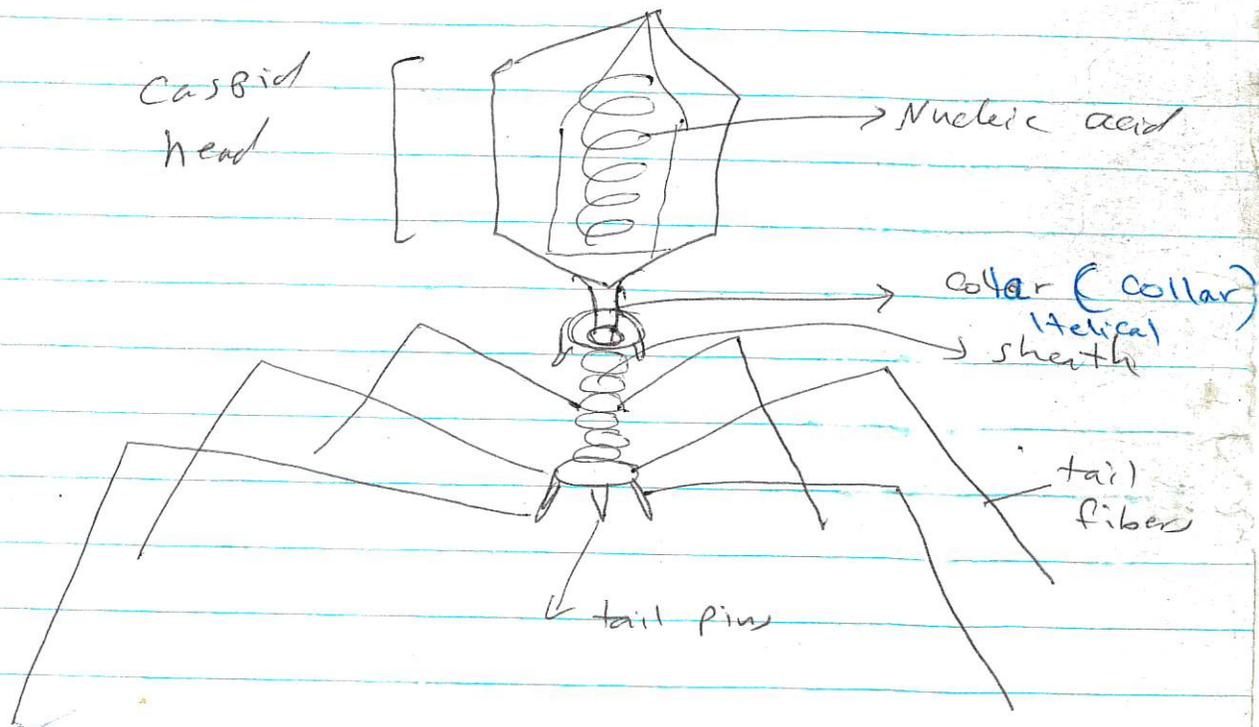
1) various enzymes & chemicals, e.g.: resistant to the acid & digesting enzymes of gastrointestinal tract
e.g.: Polio or hepatitis A.

b) Binding to cell surface to penetrate cell host and introduce the viral DNA or RNA (SPIKES)

— parts of viral capsids → stimulate the immune system to produce antibodies that can neutralize viruses and protect the host cells against future viral infections

e.g.: flu - shot.

Complex Viruses:



Bacteriophage: polyhedral head, helical tail and fibers to attach to host cell.

Infect E. coli

E. coli = 4,000 genes, virus = 4 genes to 100 genes
Human = 20,000 (25,000 genes).

Temperate Bacteriophages and lysogeny:

Lytic cycle: destruction of infected cells

Lysogeny: No destruction

- Infected cells → may grow and divide for long periods.

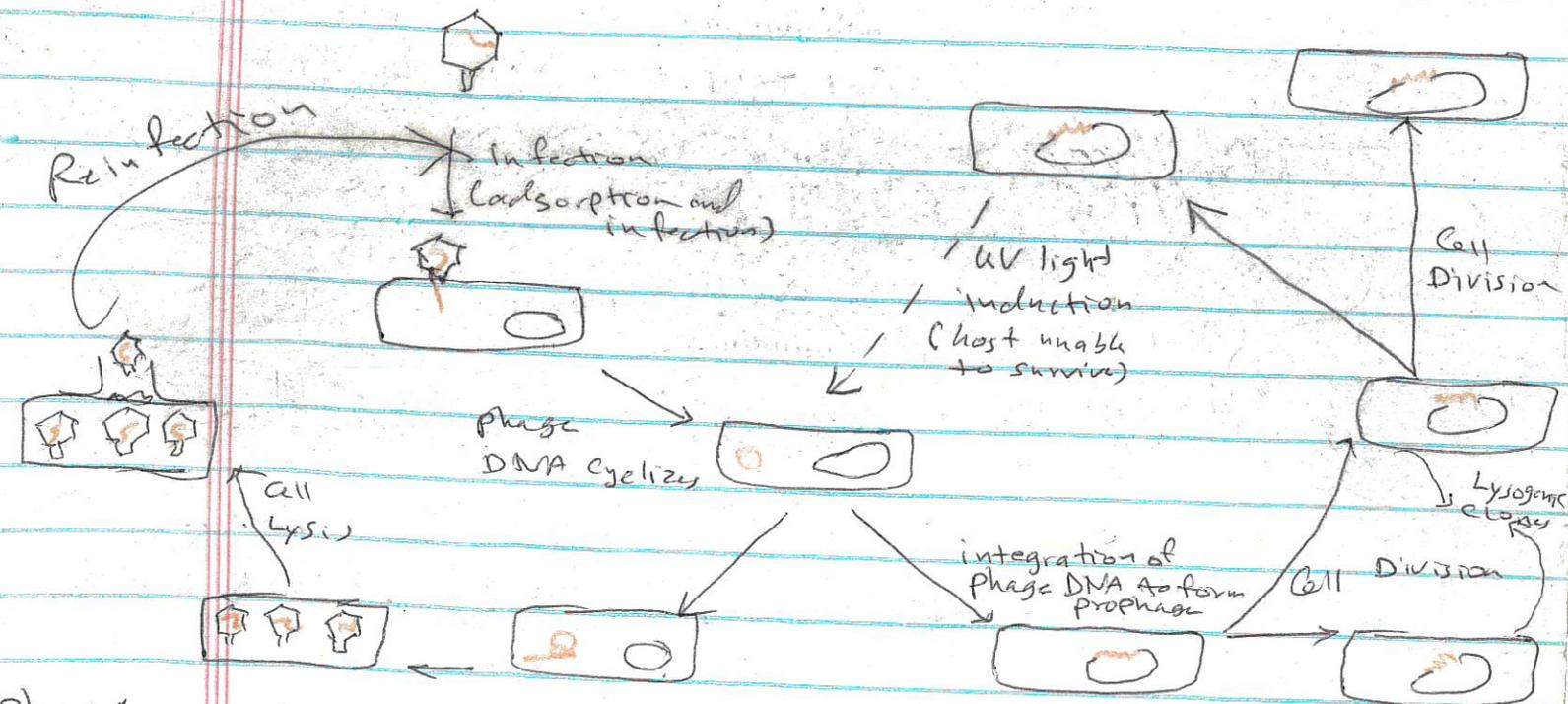
Lysogeny: a relation^{ship} between the Phage and its host.

Temperate phage: phages able to enter into lysogeny relation

Prophage: The latent form of the virus genome that remains within the host but does not destroy it called prophage

a) Lytic infection

b) Lysogenic infection



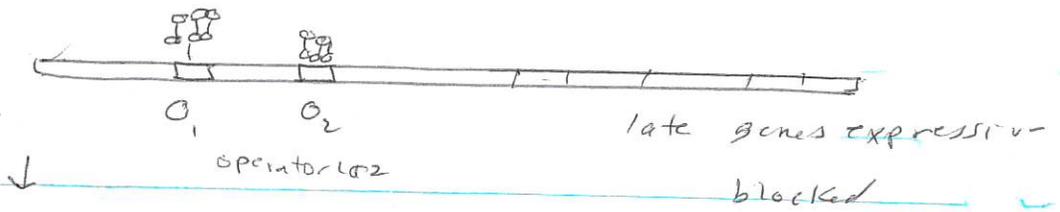
Phage heads, tails, and DNA assembly into progeny phage

Phage DNA replicates

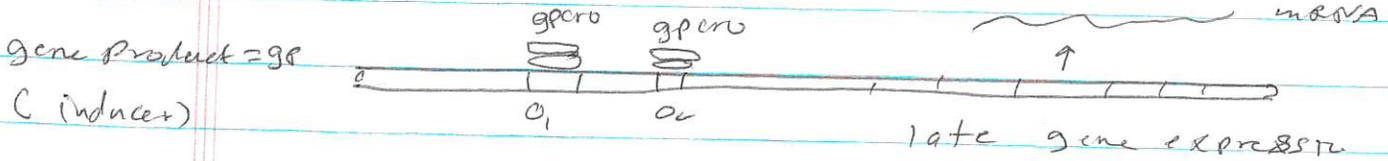
Lytic versus Lysogenic infection by Phage Lambda (λ)

Lytic cycle = a protein: σ protein (inducer) is made
 lysogenic = a protein: ρ repressor is made
 if σ protein is made, then it inhibits the repressor

λ repressor



leads to lysogenic cycle.



This leads to lytic cycle.

Animal Viruses

classification: ① DNA viruses ② RNA viruses

DNA-viruses



Enveloped

Naked

naked

e.g.:

Herpes

Herpes

Type 1:

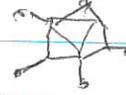
Human fever blisters,
respiratory infection,
encephalitis

Type 2

genital infections

adenovirus

Human respiratory
infection



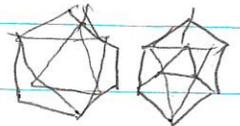
Orthopoxvirus

Human smallpox



Parvovirus

Human
gastroenteritis



RNA-virus

- ① DS : e.g. Rotavirus : causes human diarrhoea
- ② SS divided into

a) positive ss (+)

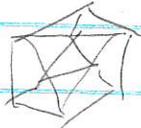
e.g. a large family (retroviruses)

- HIV



- Enterovirus:

human polio, Rhinovirus: human common cold



b) (-)ve: Negative ss

Examples:

⊕ Influenza Virus

Human, Swine

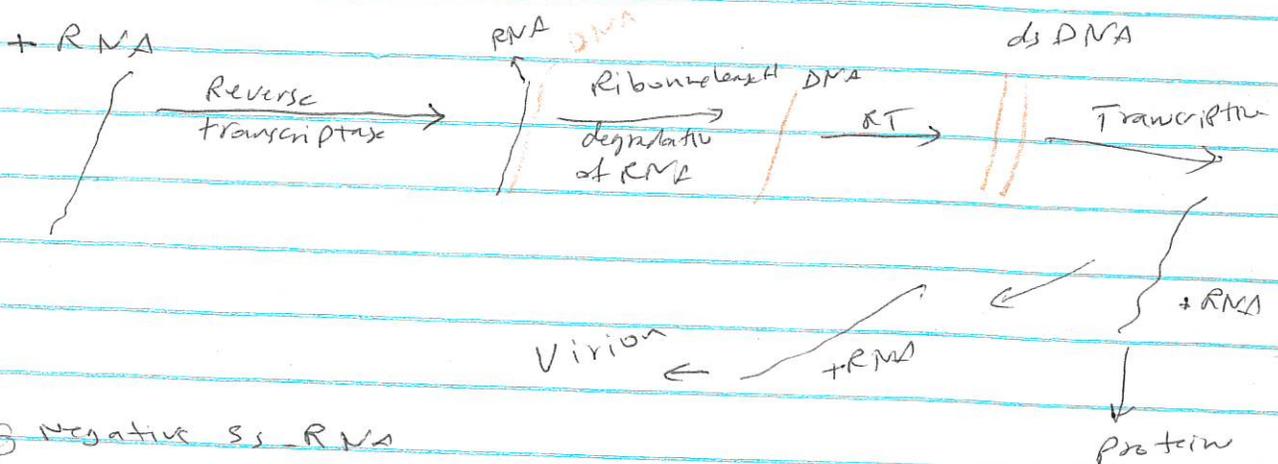
Pneumovirus:

Human pneumonia



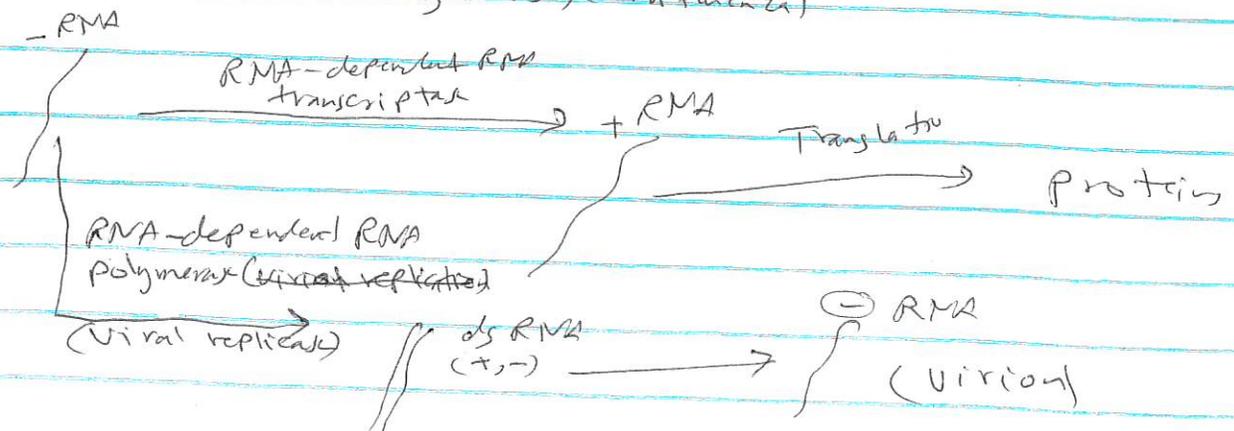
RNA animal virus reproductive strategies:

Examples: ① Retroviruses



② Negative ss RNA

(causing mumps, measles, influenza)



micro (25)
7/28/04

Bacteriophages = Bacterial viruses:

classifications:

1) DNA viruses:

dsDNA

ssDNA

- Most known: bacteriophages

- Most complex forms are the phages with contractile tails: the T-even phage of E. coli, from the family Myoviridae.

2) RNA viruses

dsRNA

ssRNA

T-even phages of E. coli →

Lytic cycle: E. coli bursting and releasing viruses
steps of infection

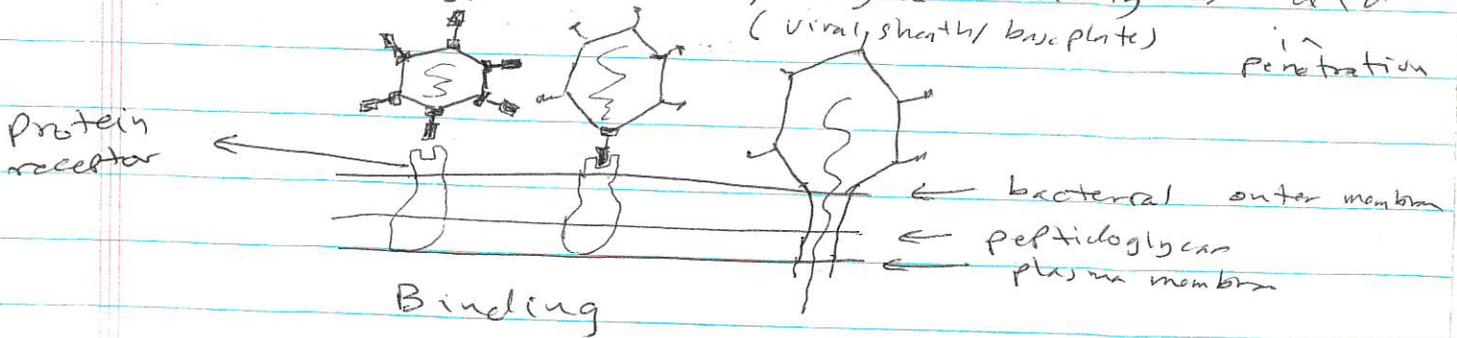
① Binding



Attachment and Penetration:

Phage attachment begins with a tail fiber contact, the appropriate receptor site.

- protein gp5 with lysozyme activity → aid in penetration (viral sheath/buoy plate)



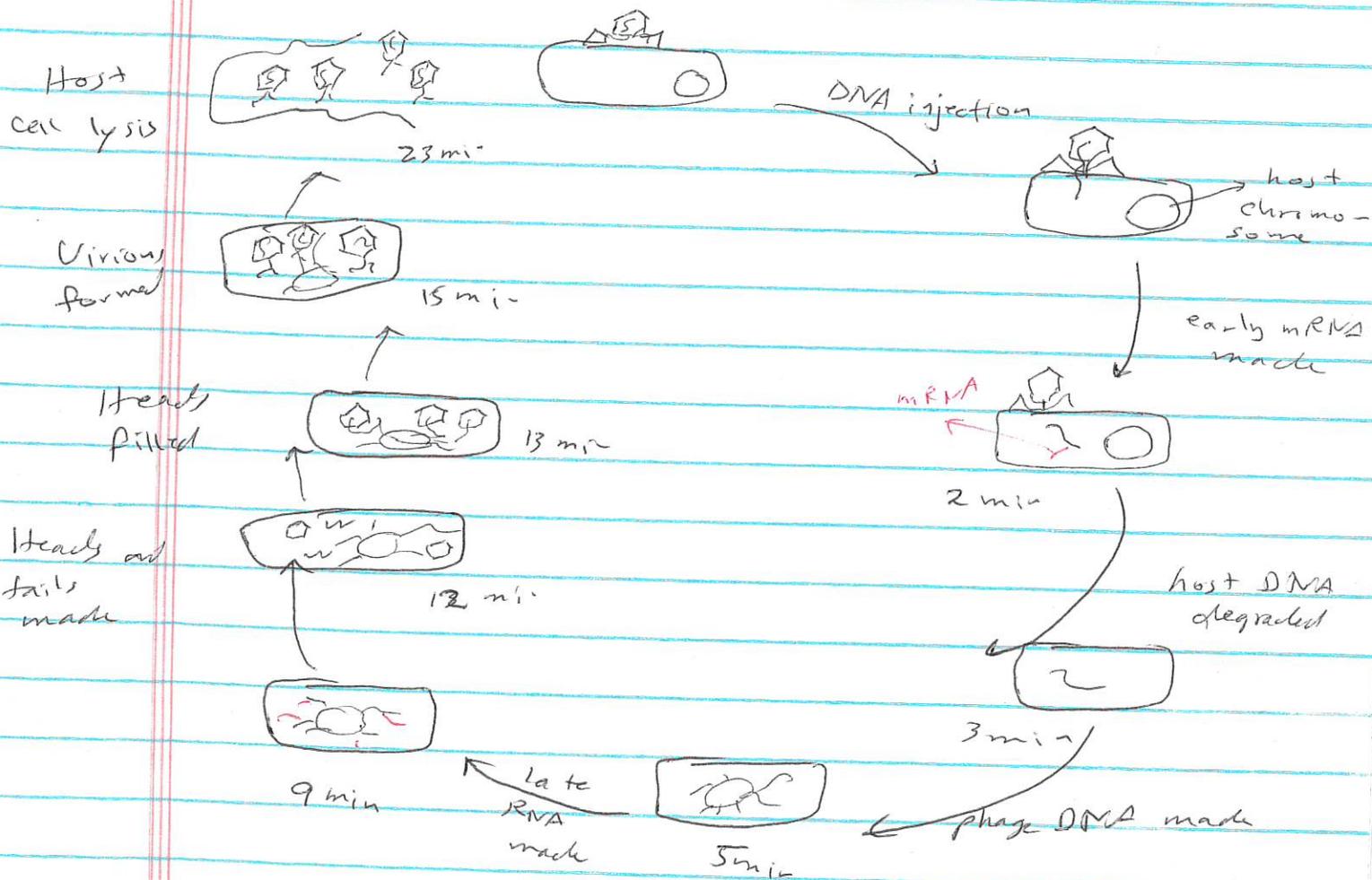
DNA Delivery

(membrane translocation, peptidoglycan degradation)

The life cycle of bacteriophages

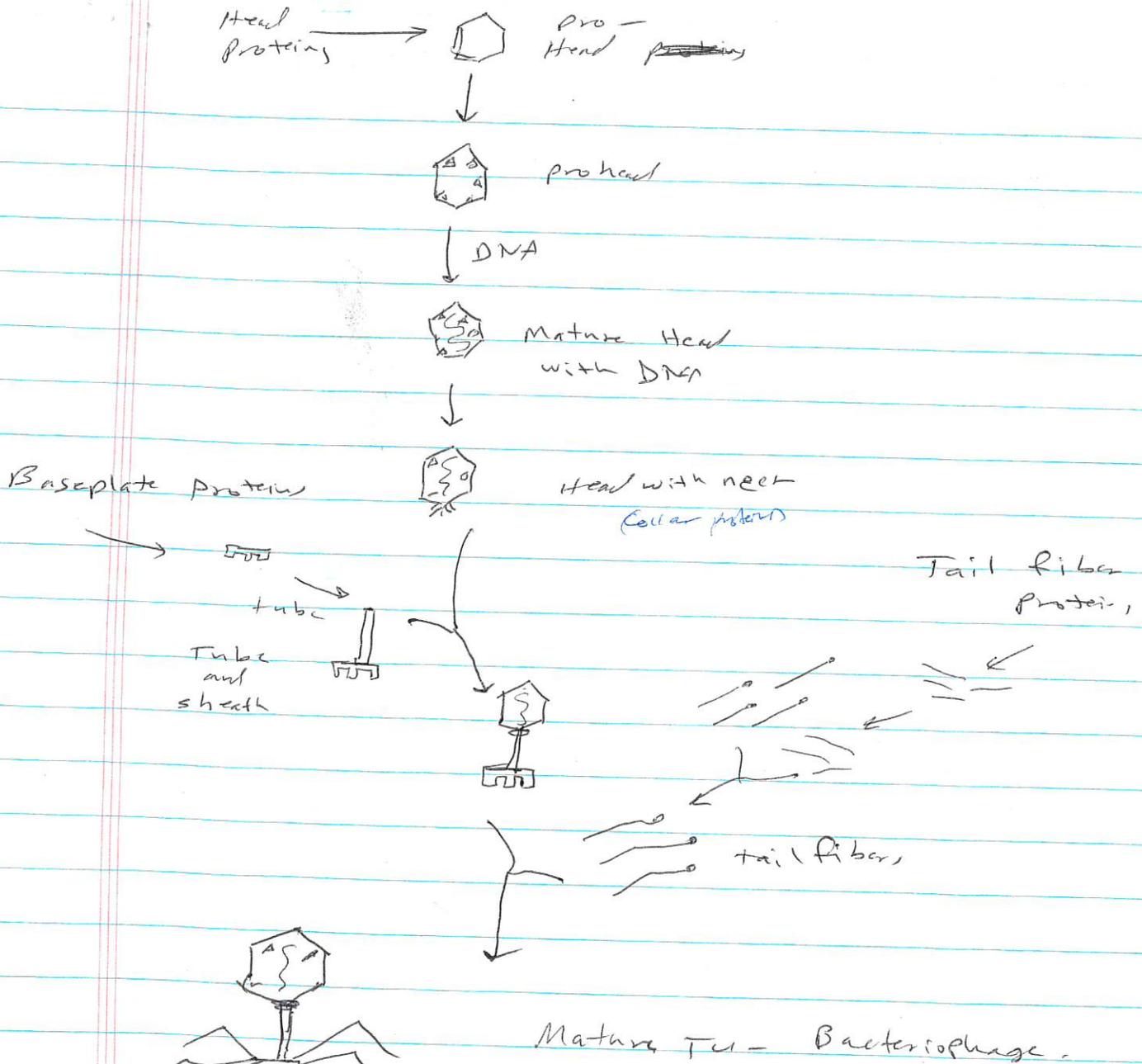
T4 Bacteriophage of E. coli has been intensely studied, its reproduction will be used as our example.

- ① Soon after phage DNA injection, the synthesis of host DNA, RNA, and protein is halted
- ② The cell is forced to make viral constituents
- ③ E. coli RNA polymerase starts synthesizing Phage mRNA within 2 minutes.



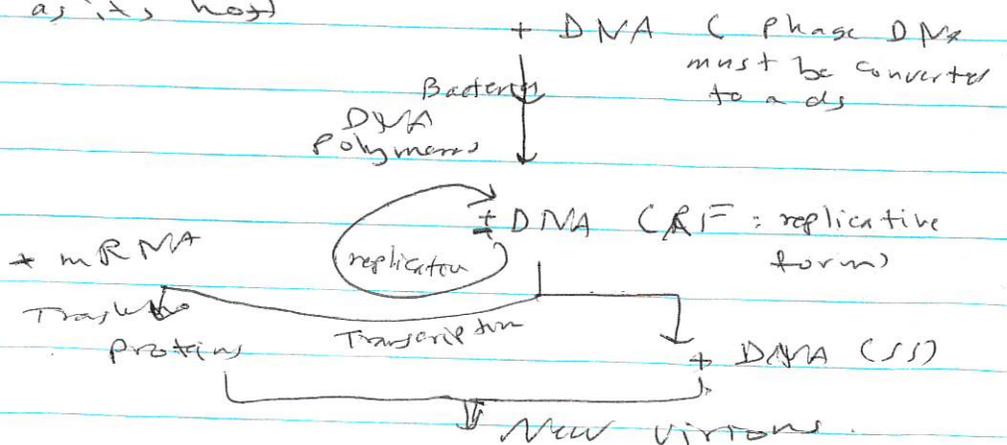
- Precise order in which events occur in the reproductive cycle that the expression of T4 genes is tightly regulated for efficient control of life cycle.
- Early genes turned on to inhibit transcription of host genes.
- Late genes turned on to make phage head and tail fibers.

The assembly of T4 - Bacteriophage:



Reproduction of single-stranded DNA Phages:

Example: Phage ϕ X174 is a small ssDNA phage using *E. coli* as its host



Genetics of animal viruses:

In all viruses, viral mRNA is translated into viral proteins on the host cell ribosomes using host +RNA

DNA viruses:

ds DNA \rightarrow replicate (duplicate) \rightarrow ds DNA

ss DNA \rightarrow ds DNA \rightarrow ss DNA (only one

e.g.: Hepatitis B, herpesvirus, papilloma virus = virus group)

RNA viruses:

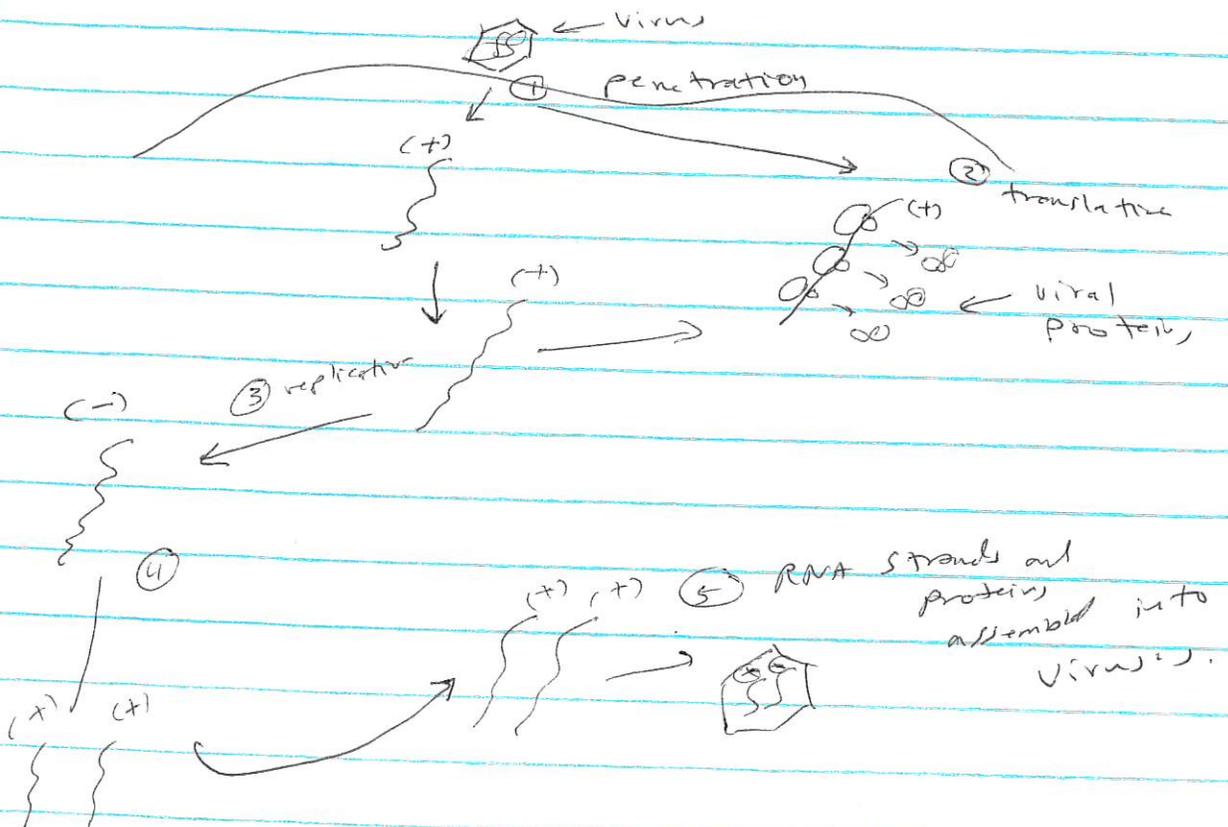
Oncogenic = initiators of cancer

(+) ss RNA \rightarrow (-) ss RNA \rightarrow (+) ss RNA

(-) ss RNA \rightarrow (+) ss RNA \rightarrow (-) ss RNA

ss RNA \rightarrow ss DNA \rightarrow ds DNA \rightarrow ss RNA (retrovirus)

- 1) a positive-sense genome (+) that comes ready to be translated into protein,
- 2) a negative-sense genome (-) that must be converted to positive sense before translation
- 3) a positive-sense genome (+) that can be converted to DNA



Micro (23)

7/27/04

Transmission of genetic material in bacteria:

DNA transfer between bacterial cells involves:

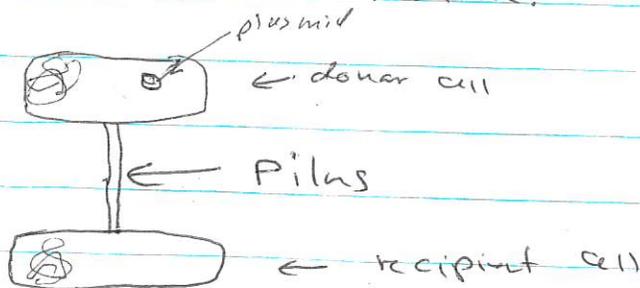
- a) small piece of DNA in the form of plasmids
- b) Chromosomal fragments.

Mode of transmission:

- 1) Conjugation
- 2) Transformation
- 3) Transduction
- 4) Transposon

Conjugations, Bacterial Sex

Sexual mating in which a plasmid or other genetic material is transferred by a donor to a recipient cell via a direct connection.



Genes transferred: Drug resistance (biomedical importance)

Transfer resistance plasmid or factor can result in resistance to antibiotics: e.g.

tetracycline, chloramphenicol, streptomycin, sulfonamide, and penicillin.

- transfer synthesizing virulence factors (toxins, enzymes and adhesion molecules) → that increase the pathogenicity of the bacterial strain.

Attenuation technique:

- 1881 Louis Pasteur developed the vaccination method.

e.g: He grew *Bacillus anthracis*

45°C → used this strain as vaccine
(below the max it could tolerate)

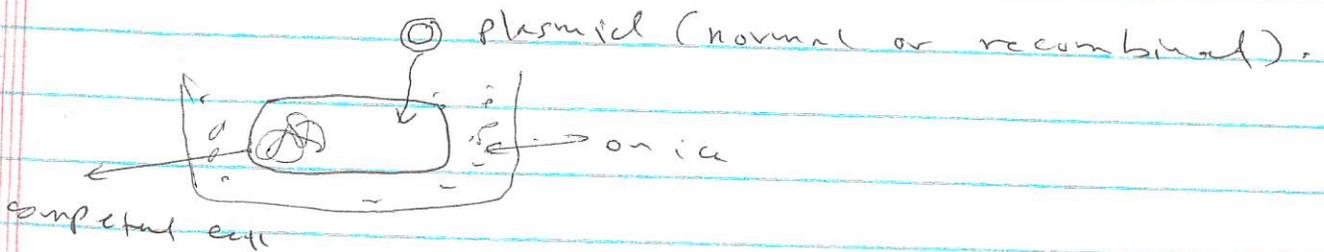
→ growing bacteria or virus in adverse environments or

unconventional host, → to weaken them → to produce protective vaccines against many disease.
 Attenuation of bacteria → leads to B. anthracis loses plasmids when grow at 43°C, and plasmid-free strains are effective and safe vaccines.

Transformation:

Factors involved: a) DNA fragment / or plasmid
 b) live competent cell

Genes transferred: unlimited with cloning techniques.



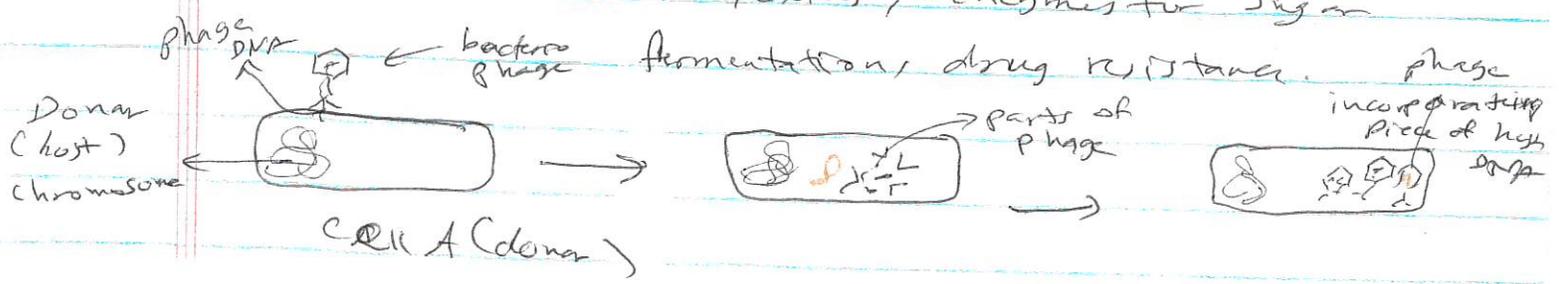
Human genes can be expressed in E. coli to produce e.g. insulin to treat diabetes.

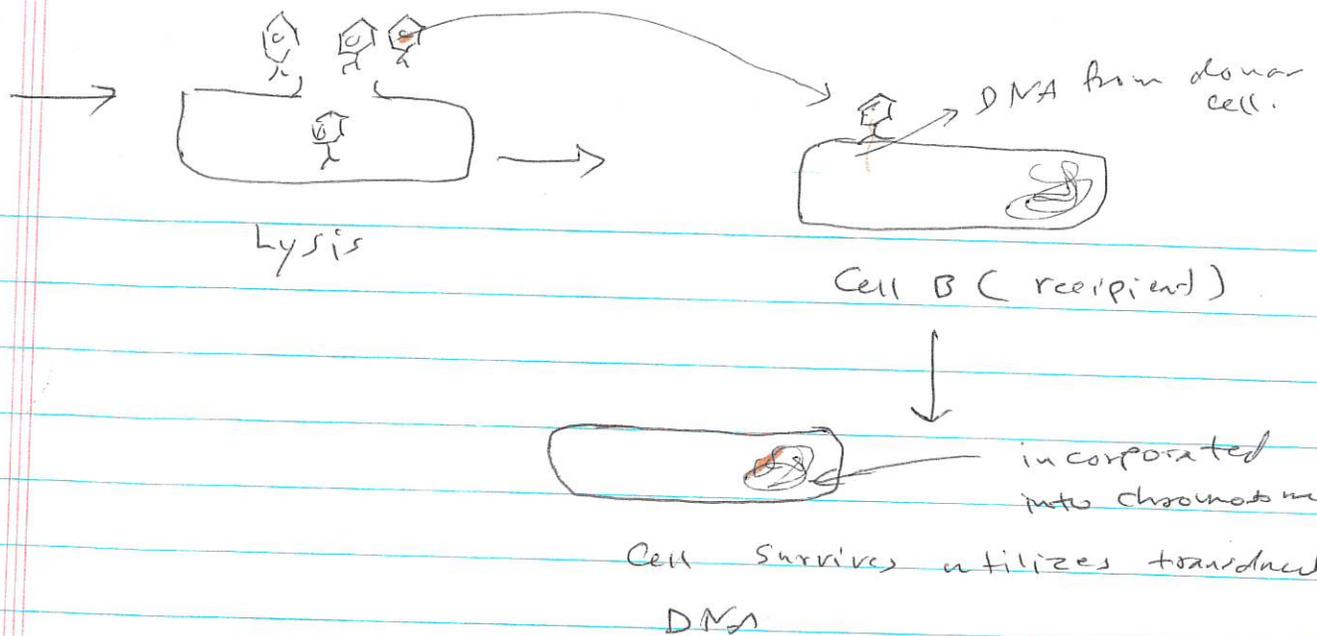
This same phenomenon in eukaryotic cells, termed transfection → genetic engineering yeast, plants, animal cells, and more → curing genetic diseases.

Transduction:

Factors involved: Donor is lysed bacteria cell, defective bacteriophage is the carrier of donor DNA. + live competent cell with same species as donor.

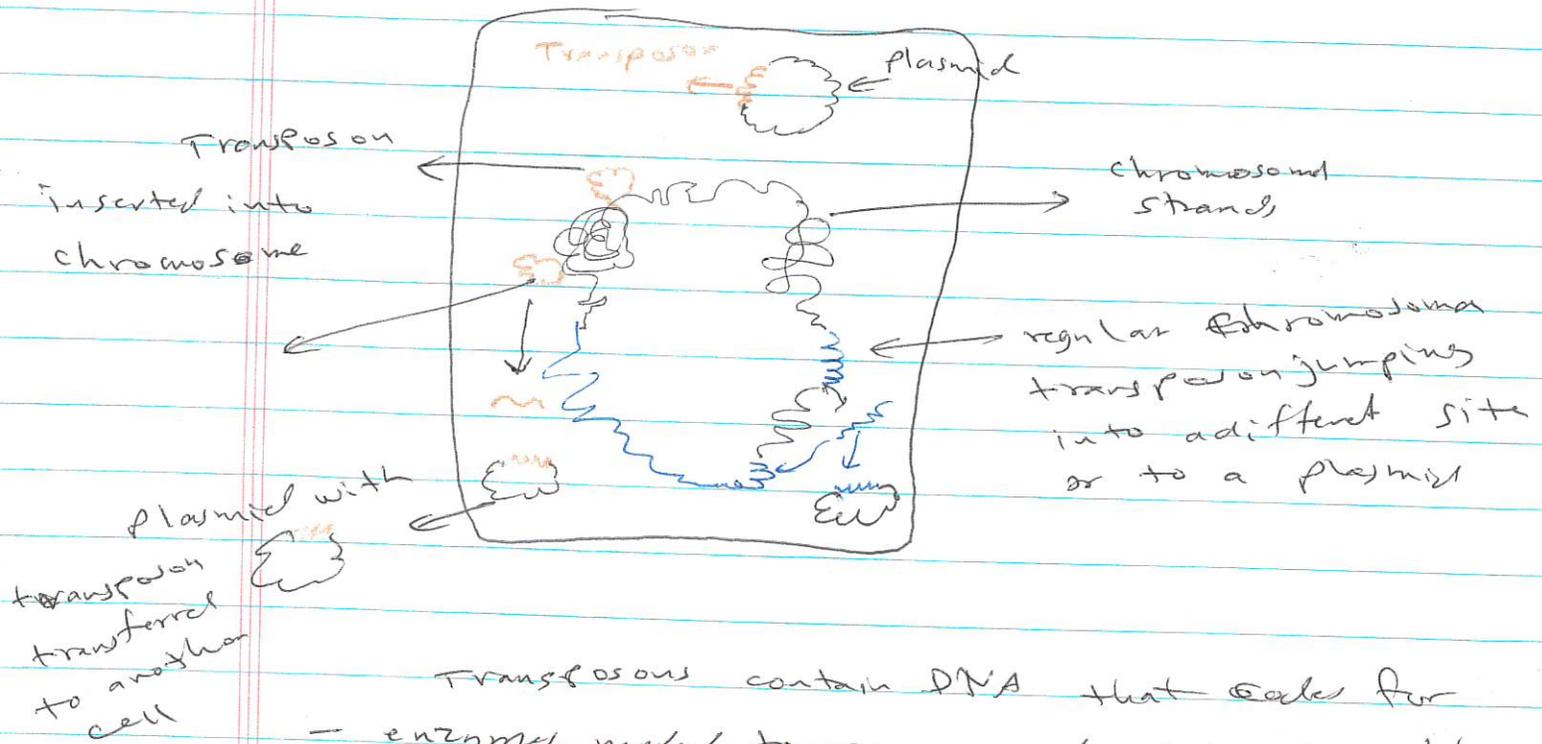
Genes transferred: Toxins, enzymes for sugar fermentation, drug resistance.





Transposons: "Gene Jumpin"

shifting from one part of the genome to another



Transposons contain DNA that codes for

- enzymes needed to remove and reintegrate the transposon at another site in the genome.
- known to be involved.

- 1 - create different genetic combinations (variation, in sb)
- 2 - change in traits, e.g.: pigmentation
- 3 - replacement of damaged DNA
- 4 - inter-microbial transfer of drug resistance in bacteria