

MICROBIOLOGY 1 Dr. Saja Ebdah

2025 Study smarter, not harder!



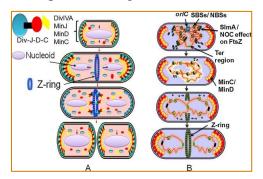
Growth and Culturing of Bacteria

• Growth and Cell Division

- Microbial growth is defined as the increase in the number of cells, rather than in terms of cell size
 - Nevertheless, the 'mother cell' usually *doubles in size* and duplicates its contents before it *divides* into two 'daughter cells'
- > Cell division in bacteria usually occurs by binary fission or sometimes by budding

> In binary fission:

- ✓ The cell duplicates its components
- ✓ A transverse septum grows in the middle of the cell
- ✓ The septum divides it into two independent daughter cells.

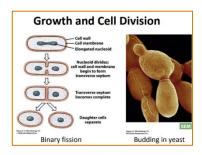


> Continuously dividing cells:

- DNA synthesis is continuous
- ✓ The bacterial chromosome replicates shortly before the cell divides.
- ✓ The chromosome is attached to the cell membrane
- ✓ The cell membrane grows and separates the replicated chromosomes
- > In some species, *incomplete separation* of cells occurs
 - which results in the formation of special cell arrangements, i.e. tetrads, sarcinae, sterptococci, etc

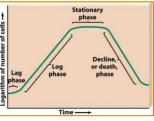
Budding in Yeast and Some Bacteria:

- ✓ In yeast and a few bacteria cell division occurs by **budding**,
- A smaller new cell develops from the surface of an existing cell and then separates from the parent cell
- Budding vs binary fission
 - Both are asexual forms of reproduction where two genetically identical cells 'clones' are produced
 - ✓ *Binary fission*: the parent cell is divided into two equally sized new cells
 - ✓ *Budding*: produces a small new cell in addition to the existing parent cell
 - The new cell is smaller than the parent cell.



Phases of Growth

- When bacteria are introduced (inoculated) into a fresh nutrient medium, they show four major phases of growth:
 - 1. Lag phase
 - 2. Log (exponential) phase
 - 3. Stationary phase
 - 4. Decline (death) phase
 - ✓ These phases form the standard bacterial growth curve
 - 1. Lag phase
 - Cells don't increase in number, but are metabolically active
 - Metabolic Activity:
 - ✤ Cells are *increasing* in size
 - Cells *incorporating* various molecules from the medium
 - Cells synthesizing enzymes and producing large quantities of ATP (energy)
 - Duration of Lag Phase:
 - Length of lag phase depends on :
 - I. The *characteristics* of the bacterial species
 - II. The *conditions* in the growth media (both the old medium and the new one)
 - Some species adapt to the new medium in 1-2hrs, others take several days
 - 2. Log (exponential) phase
 - Exponential Growth:
 - Once bacteria are adapted to the new medium, growth (increase in number) occurs at exponential (logarithmic rate)
 - This is represented by straight line if plotted on log y-axis
 - In log phase
 - Organisms divide at their most rapid rate
 - This division occurs a regular, genetically determined interval called the generation time
 - Generation time
 - for most bacteria is between 20 min to 20 hrs; typically less than 1 hr
 - * The population of m.o. doubles in each generation time
 - Nonsynchronous growth'
 - Is a bacterial cells don't all divide exactly together, each cell divides at different times during the generation time.
 - This results in a smooth curve.
 - Synchronous growth:
 - Is a hypothetical situation where all cells divide exactly together after each generation time
 - This would result in a stair-step curve.



- In a flask or a tube, log phase is limited in time because;
 - ✤ As the number of cells increases:
 - A. Nutrients and O2 are used up
 - B. *Waste* materials accumulate
 - C. Living *space* is limited.
 - This will decrease the ability of cells to produce ATP and growth rate decreases.
- As the log phase levels off, it is followed by a stationary phase
 - This occurs unless:
 - Fresh *medium* is added or
 - Organisms are *transferred* to another fresh medium
- Maintaining Log Growth:
 - Log bacterial growth can be maintained by using a device called 'chemostat' which has a growth chamber where:
 - Fresh medium is continuously added (from an attached reservoir) as old medium is withdrawn.
- 3. Stationary phase
 - When cell division decreases to a rate equal to that of cell death, the number of cells remains constant,
 - This appears as horizontal straight line on the bacterial growth curve
 - Conditions in the Stationary Phase:
 - * The medium contains *limited* amount of nutrients
 - * The medium may contain *toxic* quantities of waste materials
 - ✤ O2 is *limited* to aerobic organisms
 - *Damaging* pH changes may occur in the medium.
- 4. Decline (death) phase
 - The medium becomes *less supportive* of cell division, so cells lose their ability to divide and eventually die.
 - The number of *live cells* decreases at a *logarithmic rate*.
 - The duration of this phase is *highly variable* similar to the logarithmic phase
 - The duration depends on *genetic* characteristics of the organism.
 - Some bacteria contain few bacteria that remain *alive* after months or years.

Growth in colonies

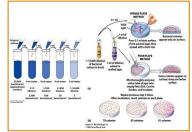
- ✓ When growing on a *solid medium*, a cell divides exponentially forming a small colony containing all the descendants of the original cell.
- The *colony* grows rapidly at its *edges* whereas cells nearer the centre grow more slowly & begin to die.
- ✓ All phases of growth occur simultaneously in a colony.
- ✓ Each single living bacterial cell will divide to form a colony i.e. each bacterial cell represents a colony forming unit (*CFU*).

• Measuring Bacterial Growth – Enumeration of Bacteria

It is measured by estimating the no. of cells that have arisen by binary fission during a growth phase. Expressed as number of viable (living) organism per *unit volume* (i.e. ml)

- 1. Serial dilution and standard plate count
 - ✓ *Principle: only living* bacterium will divide and form visible colony on agar plate.

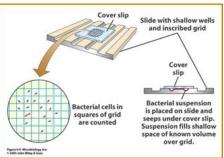
- ✓ *Agar plate*: Petri dish containing nutrient medium solidified with agar.
- ✓ *Serial dilution:* series of dilutions e.g. $1/10 \rightarrow 1/10 \rightarrow 1/10$ etc, then transfer 0.1ml to agar plate. The transfer is done either by
 - a. Pour plate method or
 - b. Spread plate method



- ✓ Pour plate method: add 1ml diluted culture from serial dilutions to melted nutrient agar, mix, then pour in empty plate → agar cools down → solidified → incubated → colonies develop within medium and on medium surface
 - *Disadvantage*: damage to colonies exposed to heated agar, smaller colonies inside agar compared to those on surface.
- ✓ The spread plate method: 0.1ml sample is placed on the surface of cool solidified agar medium. The sample is spread evenly → incubate → colonies on surface.
- ✓ Countable no. of colonies /plate (30-300 CFU)
 - It is difficult to count more than 300 colonies on one plate whereas less than 30 is not statistically representative



- The colonies are counted by the aid of colony counter (magnifying lens+ special electrical marker).
- \checkmark Actual *no. of colonies* = no. of colonies on plate x dilution factor
- The *concentration* of bacterial cells in the original suspension (culture) is calculated from the number of colonies and is expressed as cfu/ml
- ✓ To *improve accuracy*: shake tubes before sampling & make several plates from each dilution.
- ✓ *Weakness* of the process:
 - Doesn't count the cells that died by the time of plating & does not include m.o. that cannot grow on the utilized growth medium.
- 2. Direct microscopic count
 - ✓ A known volume of medium is introduced into specially calibrated etched glass slide called counting chamber.
 - Cells are then counted, *under* the *microscope*, in specific areas and their number per unit volume is calculated.
 - Disadvantages:
 - *Cannot* distinguish between living & dead cells
 - Requires *large* no. of cells
 - The bacterial *suspension* should be homogeneous

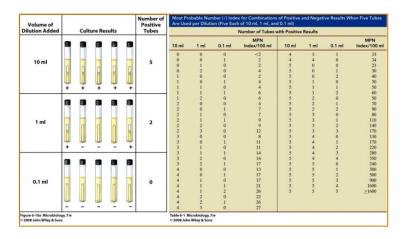


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- 3. Most probable number (MPN) method
 - ✓ Used in case:

a. The sample contains *too few* organisms to give reliable measure by plate count method e.g. food or water purity studies

- b. If m.o. *do not* grow on agar
- Concept: as the dilution factor *increases*, a point is reached where some tubes contain only one m.o. while others have none
- ✓ Procedures:
 - a. A *series of dilutions* is made (10ml, 1ml, 0.1ml of a sample is added to growth media), for each volume prepare 5 tubes \rightarrow incubate \rightarrow observe for growth
 - *Growth indications*: turbidity, production of gas or change in colour of indicator (e.g. acid production).
 - b. Count the *no. of tubes* showing growth then check MPN index or table which shows the count of m.o. in the actual culture at 95% confidence



4. Filtration method

- ✓ A known *volume of fluid* (i.e. water or air) is *drawn* through a filter with pores smaller than bacteria (e.g. 0.45μ m) → filter is placed on solid medium → incubate → count the no. of cells in each plate → calculate the number of cells per unit volume (e.g. 100 ml or 1 L)
- 5. Other methods
- ✓ Simple observation:
 - *Gas production*: can be detected by capturing the gas in small inverted tubes
 - Acid production: by incorporating pH indicators
 - Turbidity
- ✓ By measurements
 - Turbidity can be measured by *spectrophotometer* or colorimeter: important to monitor rate of growth without disturbing the culture
 - No. of cells can be determined by *dry weight measurement*

• Factors Affecting Bacterial Growth – Introduction

- > Microorganisms exist almost everywhere on earth because they:
 - ✓ Are *small* in size and easily dispersed
 - ✓ Occupy *little* space
 - ✓ Need only *small* quantities of nutrients
 - ✓ Are remarkably *diverse* in their nutritional requirements
 - ✓ Have *great* capacity for adapting to environmental changes

- However, the type of organisms and their growth rates are influenced by:
 - Physical factors such as pH, temp, O2 concentration, moisture, hydrostatic pressure, osmotic pressure & radiation
 - Nutritional (biochemical) factors which include the availability of C, N, S, P, trace elements & vitamins

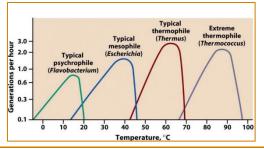
A) Physical factors

1) pH

- ✓ Microorganisms usually have optimum pH for their growth
- ✓ According to their tolerance to acidity or alkalinity bacteria are *classified as*
 - Acidophiles (pH 0.1-5.4),
 - Neutrophiles (pH 5.4-8),
 - Alkaliphiles (pH 7-11.5).
- ✓ *Most* microorganism (especially pathogens) grow best near *neutral* pH, i.e. neutrophiles
- Microorganism usually don't grow well at pH values that are one or more unit above or below their optimum pH
 - Because significant changes in pH can lead to *denaturing* enzymes & other proteins and *interfere* with pumping ions at the cell membrane
- Organisms that tolerate extreme pH have impervious *cell walls* that *protect* their cell membrane from exposure to extreme pH in the medium and keeps the inside of the cell as neutral

2) Temperature

- ✓ Most bacterial species grow over 30 °C, but min & max vary
- ✓ Bacteria are *classified* to psychrophiles, mesophiles and thermophiles.
 - Within these groups bacteria are either *obligate* (must) or *facultative* (able to adjust & tolerate so can also live in other environments)
- A. Psychrophiles (cold loving): optimal 15-20 °C, some live at 0C
 - *Obligate* psychrophiles: cannot grow over 20 °C
 - *Facultative* psychrophiles: optimum below 20 °C but also can grow above 20 °C
 - Psychrophile usually live in cold water & soil but not in humans
- B. Mesophiles: optimum 25-40 °C,
 - Includes most *bacteria* & *human* pathogens
 - Most human pathogens live best at 37 °C
- C. Thermophiles (heat loving): optimum 50-60 °C
 - Few tolerate temp up to 110 °C in boiling hot springs
 - *Obligate* thermophiles: can grow only at temp above 37 °C
 - *Facultative* thermophiles: live at both below & above 37 °C
 - *Extreme* thermophiles: require very high temp (80°C to 105°C)



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- ✓ What determines the *temperature* at which microorganism survive is the Temperature at which its *enzymes* function
- ✓ Minimum growth Temperature: *lowest* Temperature at which cells divide
- ✓ Maximum growth Temperature: *highest* Temperature at which cells divide
- Optimum growth Temperature: Temperature at which cells divide *most rapidly* (have shortest generation time)
- Enzyme activity usually doubles for every 10 °C rise in temp until *high Temperature denatures* the enzyme
- ✓ Temperature controls growth of microorganism and hence spoilage of materials
 - e.g. food refrigeration or freezing
- ✓ Bacteria can survive extremes of cold but not extremes of heat
 - Because enzymes are denatured by extremes of heat but not by extremes of cold

3) Oxygen

- In general, bacteria can be divided into *aerobes* (require O2 to grow) and *anaerobes* (don't require O2 to grow)
 - Obligate aerobes: must have *free O2* for aerobic respiration (e.g. *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*)
 - Microaerophiles: grow best in presence of *little O2* (e.g. *Helicobacter pylori*). Some are also capnophiles which grow best in presence of *high conc. of CO2* (e.g. *Campylobacter spp.*)
 - Obligate anaerobes: produce energy by anaerobic respiration or *fermentation* and they are killed by free O2 (e.g. *Clostridium spp.* such as *C. botulinum* and *C. tetani*)
 - Facultative anaerobes: ordinarily carry on aerobic metabolism when O2 is present but *shift* to anaerobic metabolism when O2 is absent (e.g. *E. coli* and *Staphylococcus spp.*)
 - Aerotolerant anaerobes: can survive in presence of O2 but do *not use it* in their metabolism

(e.g. Propionibacterium acnes)



- In presence of free oxygen, a toxic form of oxygen called superoxide (O2) can be produced in living cells by some oxidative enzymes
 - O2 is a highly reactive oxygen species (ROS) that can damage the cells causing their death
 - Superoxide can be metabolized into molecular oxygen and hydrogen peroxide (H2O2) by an enzyme called *superoxide dismutase* (SOD)
 - Although it is weaker than O2 , *hydrogen peroxide* is still considered as a *ROS* and may cause cellular damage
- Hydrogen peroxide can also be metabolized into molecular oxygen and water by an enzyme called *catalase* (Cat)
 - Obligate aerobes & most facultative anaerobes *have* both SOD and Cat
 - Obligate anaerobes *have neither* SOD nor Cat
 - Aerotolerant & some facultative anaerobes *have* SOD *but not* Cat

4) Moisture

- ✓ *Presence* of enough *available water* is important for the growth of bacteria
- Most vegetative bacteria can live only *few hours* without moisture while spores can exist in dormant state in *dry environment*
- ✓ Halophilic bacteria can tolerate lower water levels

5) Hydrostatic pressure

- ✓ Pressure exerted by standing water is in proportion to its depth
- 10 m increase in depth *doubles* atmospheric pressure
- ✓ Barophiles: bacteria that *live* at high pressure & *die* at atmospheric pressure
- Pressure is needed to maintain their enzymes & membrane in the proper 3D- configuration

6) Osmotic pressure

- ✓ Hyperosmotic (hypertonic) environment usually causes the cells to shrink (*plasmolysis*)
- ✓ Hypoosmotic environment causes the cells to gain water & become highly turgid (*distended*)
- but usually protected from bursting by cell wall
- *High* osmotic pressure (high salt conc.) water *loss* can inhibit growth or kill the bacterial cells that's why high concentrations of salt or sugar can be used to preserve food
- Halophiles: Salt-loving organisms which require moderate to high concentration of salt (sodium chloride) to grow well

7) Radiation

- ✓ Gamma rays & UV usually cause mutational changes in DNA & kill the m.o.
- ✓ Some m.o. have *pigments* that *protect* them from radiation while others have enzymes that repair certain DNA damage

B) Nutritional Factors

- Nutrients needed by microorganism include *carbon*, *nitrogen*, *sulphur*, *phosphorous*, *certain elements* & *vitamins*
- ✓ Few microorganism are fastidious,
 - Have special nutritional needs that can be difficult to meet in the lab.
 - Some fastidious pathogens *grow* well in human body but are *difficult* to grow on nutrient medium

1) Carbon sources

- ✓ Carbon containing compounds are used by bacteria as:
 - *Energy* source
 - *Building* blocks to synthesize cell components
- ✓ Heterotrophs: *obtain C* & energy from *organic* compounds e.g. glucose
- ✓ Autotrophs: *obtain C* from *CO2*.
 - Derive energy by oxidation of inorganic compounds, or from light (photoautotroph)
- ✓ Photoautotrophs: *convert CO2* to glucose & other organic molecules

2) Nitrogen sources

- ✓ All organisms need N2 to *synthesize* enzymes, other proteins & nucleic acids
- ✓ Some microorganism obtain N2 from *inorganic* sources and few m.o. even obtain *energy* by metabolizing inorganic N-containing compounds
- Many microorganism reduce nitrate (NO3-) to amino gp. (-NH2) and then use it to make amino acids
- ✓ Some microorganism can synthesize *all* 20 a.a. found in proteins while others must have *few* a.a. provided in the medium
- Purines (adenine and guanine) & pyrimidines (cytosine, thymine and uracil) are used to build DNA, RNA

3) Sulfur and Phosphorous (S & P)

- ✓ They are important *cell components*
- ✓ Sulfer is obtained from inorganic sulfate salts & from S-containing a.a.
 - Sulfer is used for the *synthesis* of coenzymes, proteins & other cell components
- ✓ Phosphorous is mainly obtained from inorganic phosphate ions (PO4 3-)
 - Used to *synthesize* ATP, phospholipids & nucleic acids

4) Trace elements

- Microorganisms need a variety of trace elements; (minute amount) of minerals such as copper, iron, zinc and cobalt
- ✓ Trace elements usually serve as *cofactors* in *enzymatic* rxns
- ✓ Cobalt is required by microorganism that *synthesize vit B12*
- ✓ Na, Cl are required by *all* microorganism
- ✓ K, Zn, Mg & Mn are used to *activate* certain *enzymes*
- ✓ Ca is required by G+ve bacteria for the *synthesis* of cell walls & by spore-forming bacteria for spore synthesis.

5) Vitamins

- ✓ Are organic substances that an organism require in small amounts & that are used as *coenzymes*
 - e.g. vit B12, folic acid and vit K
- ✓ Many microorganism make their own vits., others need it in nutrients
- ✓ Human *pathogens* often *require* variety of vitamins; thus grow well in host but in the lab they require complex medium that contains all nutrients they obtain from host
- ✓ *Microbes* in intestines *make* some of B vits & vit K

6) Nutritional complexity

- ✓ It is the no. of nutrients an organism must obtain to grow
- ✓ Nutritional *complexity* is determined by the *kind* & *no*. of organism's enzymes
 - *Absence* of certain enzyme means that the organism *cannot synthesize* specific substance & this substance must be obtained from nutrients; i.e. nutritional complexity reflects deficiency in biosynthetic enzymes
 - So microorganism with many enzymes \rightarrow need *simple* nutrients
 - While microorganism with fewer enzymes \rightarrow need *complex* nutritional requirements

✓ Locations of enzymes

- Most microorganism have endoenzymes: i.e. used within cells for *metabolism* & *transportation* of molecules
- Many bacteria & fungi have exoenzymes: i.e. released through the cell membrane
- Exoenzymes are divided into
 - ***** Extracellular enzymes: produced by G+ve rods & act in the *medium* around the organism
 - Periplasmic enzymes: produced by G-ve & act in periplasmic space
- Most exoenzymes are *hydrolases* (they add water as they split molecules);
 - ♦ e.g. carbohydrases, amylases, proteases, lactases, lipases, sucrases

✓ Adaptation to limited nutrients

- Microorganisms adapt to nutrient limitation by:
 - Synthesizing *increased* amounts of enzymes (upregulation) for uptake & metabolism of the limited nutrients
 - Synthesizing enzymes to use different nutrients
 - e.g. if low glucose \rightarrow synthesize enzymes to use lactose (if present)
 - * Adjust rate of growth & metabolism to fit the available nutrients
 - i.e. *slow* down & *no* energy is wasted on synthesizing products that are not used

• Sporulation

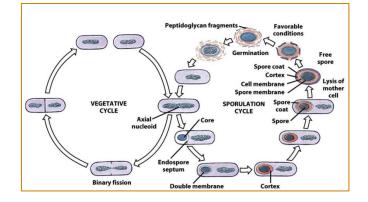
> Sporulation: is the formation of endospores which usually occurs in:

- ✓ *Bacillus*, *Clostridium* and a few other G+ve genera
- Endospores are formed *inside* the bacterial cell & generally produced in *stationary phase* in response to environmental, metabolic & cell signals;
 - ✓ endospores are considered as *insurance* from *extinction*
 - ✓ While fungal spores are produced in large no. & are a form of *reproduction*
- > When nutrients (C, N) are limited \rightarrow resistant endospores form inside mother cells
 - (very few exceptions, endospores form even when nutrients are available)
- > Although endospores are *metabolically inactive*, they can survive long periods of drought, resist

killing by extreme temp, radiation and toxic chemicals

- > They *cannot divide*; a parent cell produces only one endospore
 - ✓ i.e. sporulation is protective or survival mechanism not means of reproduction
- Endospore formation
 - ✓ **DNA** replicates & forms long compact axial nucleoid
 - The 2 chromosomes formed by replication separate & move to different locations in the cell
 - Endospore form either in the middle or at one end
 - DNA where endospore is forming directs the process
 - ✓ **RNA & proteins** gather around DNA to make the core (living part of endospore).
 - The core has dipicolinic acid & Ca2+ ions (responsible for heat resistance by stabilizing protein structures)
 - ✓ Endospore septum then grows around the core: double cell membrane but lacking a cell wall
 - ✓ Both layers of this membrane release peptidoglycan into the space between them
 - This forms a laminated layer called **cortex** which protects the core from osmotic pressure like that resulting from drying

- Spore coat of keratin-like protein is then layered around the cortex (to protect against chemicals)
- In some endospores, an exosporium (a lipid-protein membrane) is formed outside the coat (unknown function)
- ✓ Under lab. conditions, sporulation takes about 7 hours



- > If favourable conditions return, germination occurs;
 - ✓ i.e. the spore returns to its *vegetative state* & loses its resistance

Germination stages

- Germination is initiated by *activation* step which requires some traumatic agent (e.g. low pH, heat) to damage the coat, otherwise germination is slow
- ✓ 'Germination proper' then *occurs*:
 - *Water penetrates* the damaged coat
 - *Cortex* (peptidoglycan) is *broken* down
 - The *living cell* (inside the core) *takes water* & loses its resistance to heat & staining
- Outgrowth finally occurs; proteins & RNA are synthesized, then DNA synthesis occurs, the cell becomes vegetative & undergoes binary fission

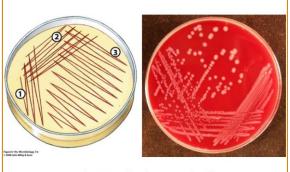
• Culturing Bacteria – Introduction

- > To study bacteria, it is important to obtain pure culture
 - ✓ i.e. a culture that contains *only a single* species of organisms
- Pure culture is necessary to study nutritional needs, growth characteristics, pathogenicity and antimicrobial susceptibility of individual spp.
- > Pure cultures are usually obtained using 'solid' growth media
- > Agar is an ideal solidifying agent for microbiological media, why?
 - ✓ It *doesn't melt* below 95°C, and after melting it solidifies at ~40°C (hysteresis)
 - ✓ *Inert substance*: only very few organisms can digest it

• Culturing Bacteria – Methods of Obtaining Pure Cultures

- > The streak plate method
 - ✓ Procedures:
 - Pick bacteria on *sterile* wire *loop*
 - *Move* the wire along the agar surface depositing streaks of bacteria on surface
 - Loop is flamed
 - Pick bacteria from the bacteria deposited on agar & streak new regions on agar
 - *Flame & repeat…*

- / Individual organisms are deposited in the region streaked last
 - i.e. *after* incubation, *isolated* colonies usually appear on agar surface in that region
 - *isolated* colonies, that represent an individual m.o., can then be *picked up* and *transferred* to fresh medium for further studying



The streak plate method

> The pour plate method

- ✓ Makes use of *serial dilutions* so that the final dilution contains about *1000 organism*
- ✓ *1ml* of this dilution is then placed in *9ml* of melted agar medium (at *45°C*) & the medium is quickly poured into a sterile plate
- ✓ The resulting plate will contain *small no. of bacteria* some of which will form isolated colonies on the agar
- ✓ Since some m.o. are embedded in agar medium, this method is useful for growing microaerophiles that cannot tolerate exposure to atmospheric levels of oxygen



• Culturing Bacteria - Culture Media

- Growing bacteria in the lab requires knowledge of their nutritional needs & the ability to provide these substances in a medium
- Although many bacteria can be grown in the lab nowadays, some m.o., such as those causing *syphilis* & *leprosy*, still *cannot be cultured* in lab media but rather need cultures containing living human or animal cells
- > Types of media
 - Lab medium is a synthetic medium prepared from materials of *precise* or *reasonably* welldefined composition
 - Defined synthetic medium: synthetic medium that contains *specific kind & amount* of chemical substances
 - Complex medium (chemically nondefined medium): contains reasonably *familiar materials* but varies *slightly* in *chemical* composition from batch to batch
 - Complex media may contain peptone, blood or extracts from beef, yeasts, soybean, etc.
 - *Peptone*: a product of *enzymatic digestion* of proteins (from meat or fish) that provides small peptides that m.o. can use

Both liquid nutrient broth & solid agar medium are used to culture bacteria

A Defined Synthetic Medium for Growing Proteus vulgaris			
Ingredient	Amount	Ingredient	Amount
Water	1 liter	K ₂ HPO ₄	1 g
MgSO ₄ · 7H ₂ O	200 mg	FeSO ₄ · 7H ₂ O	10 mg
CaCl ₂	10 mg	Glucose	5 g
NH ₄ Cl	1 g	Nicotinic acid	0.1 mg
A Complex Med Heterotrophic C	of 0.02–0.5 n lium Suitable	0 ,	c salts,
Nutrient Broth Ingredient			Amount
			Amount
Water	<u> </u>		1 liter
Water Peptone			1 liter 5 g
Water Peptone Beef extract			1 liter 5 g 3 g
Water Peptone			1 liter 5 g
Water Peptone Beef extract			1 liter 5 g 3 g

Commonly used **media**:

- ✓ Most routine lab culture media contain peptone, such media can be enriched by:
 - Yeast extract: *contains* a number of vitamins, coenzymes and nucleosides
 - Casein hydrolysate: *made from* milk protein and contains many a.a.
 - Blood (or serum): *contains* many nutrients needed by fastidious pathogens
 - Solution Blood agar (usually sheep's blood) is also used to identify m.o. that cause hemolysis

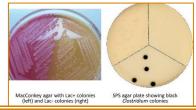
> Selective, differential and enrichment media:

These media are very important in diagnostic medicine

- ✓ Selective medium: it encourages the *growth* of some m.o. but *suppresses* the growth of other
 - e.g. an antibiotic can be added to the growth medium so as only m.o. that are resistant to this antibiotic can grow
- ✓ Differential medium (indicator media): has an *indicator* constituent that causes an observable change (colour change or pH change) in the medium when a biochemical reaction , that is characteristic to a certain m.o., occurs
 - This will allow to *distinguish* a certain type of m.o. (colony) from others growing on the same plate
 - E.g. *blood agar* can be used to distinguish hemolytic bacteria

✓ Some media can be selective and differential at the same time, examples:

- 1. MacConkey Agar:
 - It has crystal violet & bile salts which *inhibit* the growth of G+ve bacteria but *allows* the growth of G-ve ones → *selective*
 - It also has sugar lactose and pH indicator that turns colonies of lactose-fermenters (Lac+) into *red* colonies & the non-lactose fermenters (Lac-) into *colorless* colonies → *differential*
 - E.g. it can be used to differentiate between *E. coli* (Lac+) and *Salmonella* (Lac-)
- 2. Sulfite Polymyxin Sulfadiazine (SPS) Agar:
 - Used for the detection of *Clostridium botulinum*
 - The two antibiotics *inhibit* the growth of most m.o. other than Clostridium spp \rightarrow *selective*
 - Sulfite is reduced by Clostridium botulinum to sulfide which a *black* iron sulfide precipitate → *differential*



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- 3. Enrichment medium:
- It contains special nutrients that allow the growth of particular m.o. that might not otherwise be present in sufficient numbers to allow it to be isolated and identified
 - e.g. Salmonella typhi may be in very small no. in faecal samples, so it is cultured on a medium containing the trace element selenium which supports the growth of this m.o.
- Unlike selective medium, it doesn't suppress the growth of other m.o.
 - Blood agar and chocolate (heat-treated blood) agar are also considered as enrichment media and are frequently used to grow fastidious m.o.

• Culturing Bacteria – Controlling Oxygen Content of Media

- > Obligate aerobes:
 - ✓ Usually obtain *O2* from nutrient broth or on the surface of solidified agar, but some may need more.
 - ✓ So O2 can *bubbled* through medium (with filters to prevent contamination) •

> Microaerophiles:

- ✓ A broth tube or agar plate can be incubated in a *jar* in which a *candle* is lit before the jar is sealed
- ✓ Burning candle uses O2 & adds CO2, when the candle extinguishes → suitable conditions

> Obligate anaerobes:

- ✓ All molecular *O2* must be *removed*
- Addition of *oxygen-binding agents* like thioglycolate, cysteine (a.a) or sodium sulfide prevent O2 from exerting its toxic effects on anaerobes
- ✓ If the culture is in plates, *special jars* are used where special bags containing a chemical substance are placed to *remove* O2 & generate CO2
- ✓ Stab cultures: a culture of anaerobic bacteria can be made quickly by stabbing a straight wire coated with m.o. into a tube of agar-solidified medium

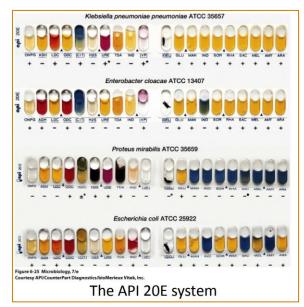
• Culturing Bacteria – Maintaining Cultures

- Stock culture:
 - ✓ A pure culture prepared and *stored* for future usage.
 - It is *not used* in the experiments by itself but rather it can be *used to prepare* subcultures (by inoculating fresh medium)
- > Aseptic techniques:
 - ✓ Taking precautions & measures to *prevent contamination* of and from the bacterial cultures

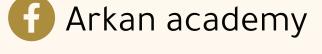
> Preserved culture:

- ✓ A culture in which organisms are *maintained* in *dormant state*
- e.g. lyophilization: freezing with vacuum to dry the culture, placed in vials which can be stored at room temp for long periods
- > Reference culture (microbial standards):
 - ✓ A preserved culture that maintains the m.o. with the characteristics as *originally defined* (these m.o. are usually well charecterized), examples:
 - ATCC: American Type Culture Collection (USA)
 - NCTC: National Collection of Type Cultures (UK)

- Culturing Bacteria Methods of Performing Multiple Diagnostic Tests
 - Many kits use culture systems that contain a large no. of differential & selective media to identify different m.o.
 - ✓ e.g. Analytical Profile Index (API) and Enterotube Multitest System
 - ✓ Advantages:
 - Use *small* amount of media
 - Occupy *little* space
 - *Efficient* & reliable means of identifying infectious organisms
 - > API kit:
 - ✓ Plastic tray with 20 microtubes containing different dehydrated media
 - ✓ The microtubes are *rehydrated* & *inoculated* with bacterial suspension from an isolated colony
 - \rightarrow *incubate* \rightarrow write the *no*. \rightarrow check the list for *identification*
 - > Other tests depend on
 - ✓ Immunological properties of the m.o.







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