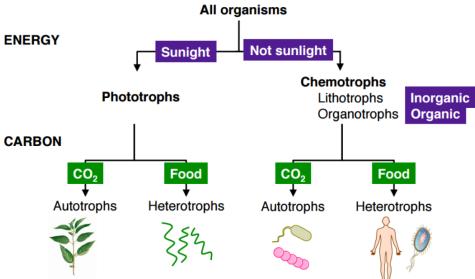
Module 6 Microbiology & Drug Discovery

• Introduction to Biological Classification:

Biological classification is a fundamental framework that organizes the incredible diversity of life on Earth into meaningful groups. These classifications serve as a roadmap for understanding and studying living organisms. They're based on various criteria, shedding light on the mechanisms that sustain life.

Two critical aspects of classification are based on how organisms harness energy and utilize carbon and how they handle the excretion of nitrogenous waste products. By categorizing organisms according to these criteria, we gain insights into their ecological roles, evolutionary relationships, and adaptability to their environments. This knowledge not only deepens our understanding of the intricate web of life but also provides valuable insights for ecological, evolutionary, and physiological studies.



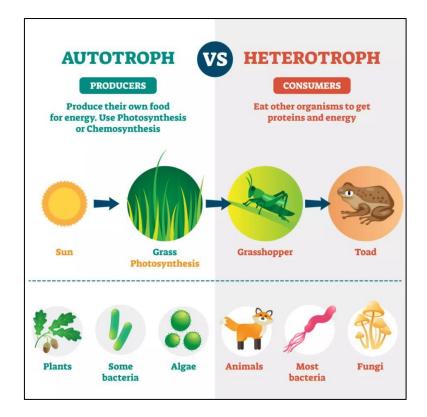
Classification Based on Energy and Carbon Utilization:

1. Autotrophs (Auto): Organisms capable of synthesizing their own organic molecules (e.g., sugars) from inorganic sources such as carbon dioxide.

Some autotrophs, like green plants and algae, are phototrophs, which means they convert electromagnetic energy from sunlight into chemical energy. Autotrophs use electron transport chains or proton pumping to establish an electrochemical gradient.

While most autotrophs use water as the reducing agent, some can use other hydrogen compounds, like hydrogen sulfide.

They act as producers in a food chain, providing energy for other organisms (in contrast to heterotrophs that consume autotrophs). Autotrophs do not need a living source of energy or organic carbon.



Examples:

<u>Plants:</u> They use photosynthesis to convert carbon dioxide into glucose, utilizing energy from sunlight.

<u>Cyanobacteria</u> (<u>Blue-Green Algae</u>): These photosynthetic bacteria produce their own organic compounds, contributing to oxygen production in aquatic ecosystems.

2. Heterotrophs (Hetero): Organisms that rely on external sources for organic molecules (e.g., obtaining carbon from consuming other organisms).

Heterotrophs are primary, secondary, and tertiary consumers in food chains but not producers. More than 95% of living organisms are heterotrophic, including animals, fungi, some bacteria, and protists.

Chemoheterotrophs (e.g., humans and mushrooms) use chemical energy, while photoheterotrophs (e.g., green non-sulfur bacteria) use light for energy.

Examples:

Animals: They consume plants or other animals to obtain organic molecules for energy and growth.

<u>Fungi</u>: Fungi obtain organic matter by secreting enzymes to break down complex substances and then absorbing the simpler nutrients.

3. Lithotrophs (Litho): Organisms that use inorganic compounds as a source of both energy and carbon for their metabolic processes.



Lithotrophs belong to either the domain Bacteria or the domain Archaea. The term "lithotroph" originates from the Greek terms 'lithos' (rock) and 'troph' (consumer), meaning "eaters of rock. They are diverse and use inorganic substrates, such as sulfur or ammonia, as energy sources.

Examples:

<u>Sulfur-Oxidizing Bacteria:</u> These microorganisms derive energy from the oxidation of inorganic sulfur

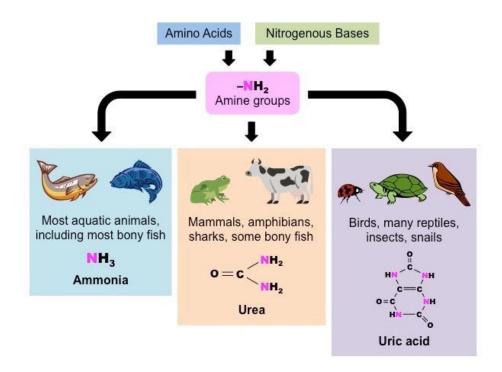
compounds while fixing carbon dioxide.

<u>Methanogenic Archaea:</u> These microbes produce methane by using carbon dioxide and hydrogen gas as carbon and energy sources.

• Classification Based on Nitrogenous Excretion:

1. Ammonotellic: Organisms that primarily excrete ammonia (NH₃) as their primary nitrogenous waste product. Ammonia is highly soluble in water and toxic to tissues. It is a very toxic substance to tissues and extremely soluble in water. Only one nitrogen atom is removed with it.

A lot of water is needed for the excretion of ammonia; about 0.5 L of water is needed per 1 g of nitrogen to maintain ammonia levels in the excretory fluid below the level in body fluids to prevent toxicity.



Ammonotelic animals, like aquatic protozoans, crustaceans, and echinoderms, excrete ammonia directly into the water.

Examples:

<u>Fish:</u> Many aquatic fish excrete excess ammonia into the water as it is highly soluble and can be eliminated through diffusion.

<u>Amphibians:</u> Amphibians, like frogs, often excrete ammonia, which is excreted through their moist skin and kidneys.

2. Ureotellic: Organisms that excrete urea (a less toxic nitrogenous compound) as their primary nitrogenous waste product. Urea is less toxic and requires less water for excretion. It requires 0.05 L of water to excrete 1 g of nitrogen, approximately only 10% of that required in ammonotelic organisms.

Ureotelic animals, such as humans and amphibians, efficiently excrete urea in less water.

Examples

<u>Mammals</u>: Most mammals, including humans, excrete urea through the kidneys as it requires less water for excretion compared to ammonia.

<u>Marine Birds</u>: Birds excrete urea in a semi-solid form as a way to conserve water in their saltwater environments.

3. Uricotellic: Organisms that excrete uric acid, a highly insoluble nitrogenous compound, as their primary nitrogenous waste product. Uric acid is highly insoluble in water, requiring very little water for excretion. Uric acid is less toxic than ammonia or urea. It contains four nitrogen atoms, and only a small amount of water (about 0.001 L per 1 g of nitrogen) is needed for its excretion.

It can be stored in body tissues without toxic effects and is the most efficient nitrogenous waste removal method. Uricotelic animals typically have white pasty excreta, and some mammals, including humans, excrete uric acid as a component of their urine in small amounts.

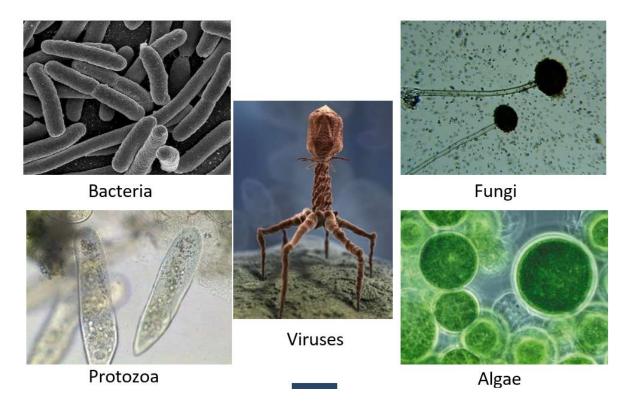
Examples:

<u>Reptiles (excluding birds):</u> Many reptiles, such as snakes and lizards, excrete uric acid, allowing them to conserve water in arid environments.

<u>Birds:</u> While birds are ureotellic, they further convert urea into uric acid to minimize water loss, particularly in their concentrated urine and solid excreta.

Introduction to Microbiology:

Microbiology, the study of microscopic organisms, opens a fascinating window into a world teeming with minuscule life forms, including bacteria, viruses, fungi, algae, and protozoa. This field is integral to understanding life's fundamental processes, from the roles these microorganisms play in nutrient cycling and disease to their applications in biotechnology, genetics, and medicine.



Microbes are not only diverse but also immensely adaptable, showcasing their resilience and importance in shaping Earth's ecosystems. The study of microbiology is pivotal for tackling infectious diseases, developing biotechnological innovations, and exploring new frontiers in medicine, making it a cornerstone of modern science.

Certainly, here's the requested structure for the classification and details of each type:

Classification and Details:

1. Bacteria:

Size: 0.2-1.5 by 3-5 μm

Important Characteristics:

- Prokaryotic
- Unicellular
- Simple internal structure
- Grow on artificial laboratory media
- Reproduction asexual (mostly simple cell division)

Practical Significance:

- Some Cause Diseases
- Some contribute to the natural cycling of elements and increase soil fertility
- Manufacture of valuable compounds in the industry

2. Fungi: (Yeast and Molds)

Size: Varies (e.g., yeast cells are typically 5-10 μm, while molds grow as hyphae)

Important Characteristics:

- Eukaryotic
- Mostly Multicellular (except yeast)
- Chitin cell walls
- Heterotrophic
- Reproduction Asexual and Sexual

Practical Significance:

- Decomposers in ecosystems
- Used in food production (e.g., bread, cheese)
- Some cause diseases (e.g., candida)

3. Protozoa:

Size: Varies widely (e.g., an amoeba is around 20-30 μm)

Important Characteristics:

- Eukaryotic
- Unicellular
- Heterotrophic
- Can be Free-living or Parasitic
- Complex Cell Structures (e.g., cilia, flagella)

Practical Significance:

- Play roles in food chains (predators and prey)
- Some are pathogenic (e.g., plasmodium causing malaria)
- Indicator organisms for water quality

4. Archaea:

Size: Similar to Bacteria

Important Characteristics:

- Prokaryotic
- Unicellular
- Distinct Biochemistry
- Often Extreme Environments (e.g., extremophiles)
- Reproduction Asexual (Binary Fission)

Practical Significance:

- Decomposers
- Important in biotechnology and genetic research
- Key in understanding early earth conditions

5. Algae:

Size: Varies widely (e.g., microscopic diatoms to giant kelp)

Important Characteristics:

- Eukaryotic
- Mostly Aquatic
- Photosynthetic
- Diverse Forms (e.g., green, brown, red algae)
- Cell Walls Made of Cellulose

Practical Significance:

- Major oxygen producers
- Base of aquatic food chains
- Potential sources of biofuels

6. Viruses:

Size: Very Small (20-400 nanometers)

Important Characteristics:

- Acellular (Not Composed of Cells)
- Genetic Material (DNA or RNA) Enclosed in Protein Coat
- Obligate Intracellular Parasites
- Replicate Inside Host Cells

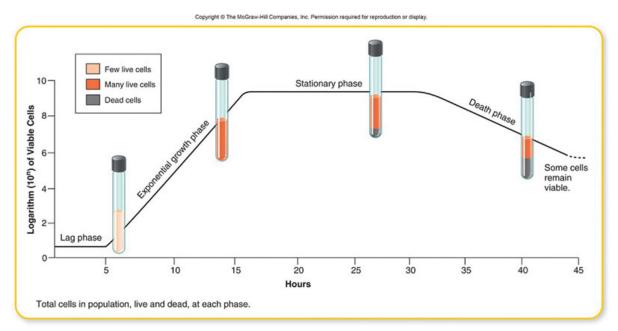
Practical Significance:

- Cause Numerous Diseases (e.g., HIV, Influenza)
- Important in Biotechnology (e.g., Gene Therapy)
- Study of viruses has led to advances in molecular biology

Bacterial Growth Kinetics

Growth in Populations: Phases and Significance

Population growth is a fundamental and dynamic biological feature exhibited by the populations of all species. It reflects changes in the size and structure of populations over time and is crucial for understanding ecological processes, resource management, and the dynamics of various species. Population growth can be categorized into several phases, each with its own significance:



1. Lag Phase:

In the context of bacterial growth, the lag phase is a crucial starting point. The bacterial population initiates from a small size, and growth is initially slow. During this phase, resources are abundant, and competition among cells is relatively low. The lag phase plays a vital role as it allows bacterial cells to adapt to their environment and establish a foothhold. Cells require this time to activate their metabolic machinery, a process highly dependent on the availability and type of nutrients present. This phase serves as a period of colonization and acclimation for the bacterial population.

2. Log Phase (Exponential Growth)

The log phase of bacterial growth is characterized by rapid and unrestricted population growth. Birth rates are significantly higher than death rates during this phase. The log phase represents the population's maximum growth potential, and it is essential for bacterial species to maximize

reproduction when abundant resources are available. This phase can lead to the colonization of new areas and is marked by exponential growth.

3. Stationary Phase:

In the stationary phase, bacterial population growth begins to slow down, and birth and death rates become approximately equal. As a result, the population size remains relatively constant. The stationary phase is a critical stage for resource management and the survival of the bacterial species. It indicates that the population has reached equilibrium with its environment, preventing the overexploitation of available resources.

4. Death Phase:

During the death phase, the bacterial population experiences a decline, with death rates exceeding birth rates. This decline may occur due to the depletion of resources or external factors affecting the population. While the death phase might seem negative, it is a natural aspect of population dynamics. It serves to prevent overpopulation, which can lead to resource depletion and ecological imbalances. Importantly, even in the death phase, some viable bacterial cells may still persist (feeding on dead cells), contributing to the overall resilience of the population.

Understanding these four phases of bacterial population growth is essential for bacterial research, particularly in microbiology. It provides insights into how bacterial species adapt to their environment, optimize reproduction, maintain stability, and respond to changing conditions, ultimately contributing to the balance of microbial ecosystems.

Drug Discovery

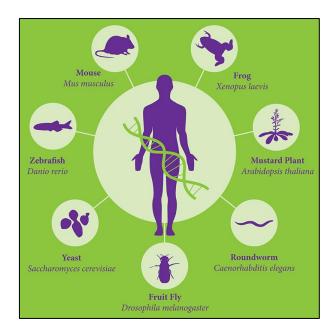
Microbes and model organisms play a pivotal role in drug discovery and pharmaceutical research. Microbes like bacteria and fungi are valuable sources of natural compounds that serve as the basis for many pharmaceutical drugs, including antibiotics. These organisms produce a diverse range of secondary metabolites with therapeutic potential.

Model organisms, on the other hand, provide crucial insights into the molecular and cellular processes underlying various diseases. They help scientists understand disease mechanisms and test potential drug candidates.

The use of model organisms like mice, fruit flies, and nematodes allows researchers to study drug efficacy and safety before advancing to clinical trials. Together, microbes and model organisms contribute significantly to the development of new drugs, leading to advances in medical treatments and improved human health.

Model Organisms in Medical Science

Model organisms are non-human species that serve as essential tools in scientific research, offering invaluable insights into biological processes. These organisms are carefully selected for their unique characteristics that make them ideal subjects for investigation. While numerous model organisms exist, each with its distinct advantages, some offer more benefits than others due to specific features.



These features include genetic similarity to humans, ease of maintenance and breeding, short generation times, and relevance to various scientific domains. The choice of a model organism depends on the research goals, as different organisms provide diverse insights into fields such as genetics, aging, disease mechanisms, and developmental biology.

The selection of a model organism is a critical decision that influences the outcome and scope of scientific studies, making it essential to match the organism's attributes with the research objectives.

1. Escherichia coli (E. coli):



E. coli is widely used as a model organism in medical science due to its ease of maintenance and breeding in a laboratory setting and its meticulous experimental advantages. Its extensive use stems from several specific aspects:

Genetics: *E. coli's* simple nutritional requirements, rapid growth rate, and well-established genetics make it a valuable tool for genetic research and evolutionary experiments.

Cell Division: With an average cell division rate of once every 30 minutes, *E. coli* facilitates quick adaptation to changing environments and allows for the study of environmental responses.

<u>Applications</u>: In medical science, *E. coli* is employed in various contexts, including the investigation of bacterial genetics, antibiotic resistance mechanisms, and the understanding of infectious diseases. Its significance extends to biotechnology, where it plays a crucial role in protein production for medical and industrial applications.

<u>Diseases Explored:</u> *E. coli* is explored in the context of urinary tract infections, gastroenteritis, sepsis, and other bacterial infections, contributing to the understanding and treatment of these diseases.

2. Saccharomyces cerevisiae (Yeast):

S. cerevisiae is a valuable model organism in medical science, particularly in the study of aging and cellular processes, due to specific aspects:

Constic Simplicity, The yeart's simple gone

Genetic Simplicity: The yeast's simple genetics make it a valuable tool for exploring genes and pathways associated with aging and senescence.

Fermentation: Its pivotal role in fermentation makes it relevant for understanding metabolic processes that have implications for age-related diseases and cellular function.



<u>Applications:</u> Yeast research is instrumental in understanding the genetic basis of aging and age-related diseases. It is also employed in studying cellular processes such as DNA replication, gene regulation, and signal transduction pathways with direct relevance to medical science.

<u>Diseases Explored:</u> While not directly related to medical diseases, yeast models are used to study the fundamental mechanisms underlying age-related disorders, DNA replication, and genetic pathways with implications for conditions like cancer.

3. Drosophila melanogaster (Fruit Fly):

Fruit flies are crucial in medical research due to specific features, making them a valuable model organism:



Genetic Similarity: Their relatively small genome and high genetic homology with humans enable the study of human disease genes.

Relevance to Disease: Fruit flies play a central role in the study of neurodegenerative diseases, developmental biology, and genetic pathways that regulate essential biological processes.

Applications: Fruit flies are instrumental in

exploring diseases like Parkinson's, Huntington's, Alzheimer's disease, and developmental disorders. They provide insights into the genetic and molecular underpinnings of these conditions, advancing medical science.

Diseases Explored: Fruit flies contribute to the understanding of diseases such as Parkinson's, Huntington's, Alzheimer's, and various developmental disorders, helping identify potential therapeutic targets.

4. Caenorhabditis elegans (Nematode/Round worm):

C. elegans is a valuable model organism in medical science primarily for research into neural development, aging, and genetics, with specific aspects contributing to its significance:

Simple Nervous System: The nematode's simple nervous system makes it a bridge between invertebrate and vertebrate nervous systems, essential for understanding neural processes.

Aging Studies: It aids in research on aging and age-related diseases and plays a key role in identifying genes linked to aging and neurodegenerative conditions.

<u>Applications:</u> *C. elegans* contributes to studying neural development, aging mechanisms, neurodegenerative diseases, and genes associated with conditions like Alzheimer's.

<u>Diseases Explored:</u> Research involving *C. elegans* focuses on agerelated disorders, neurodegenerative conditions, and genes implicated

in Alzheimer's disease, providing insights into disease mechanisms and potential interventions.



5. Arabidopsis thaliana (Thale Cress):

A. thaliana is widely used in plant sciences and indirectly affects medical science due to specific features:

Genetic Insights: Its genetic relevance to plant development allows it to serve as a foundation for plant molecular biology and provides a model for investigating plant traits.

Botanical Research: It aids in advancing botany, genetics, crop science, and genetic engineering, indirectly affecting medical science through food production.

<u>Applications</u>: While not explored for medical diseases directly, *A. thaliana* research has implications for plant diseases and genetics, indirectly impacting agricultural research and food security, a critical aspect of medical science.

<u>Diseases Explored:</u> A. thaliana research primarily contributes to plant diseases and genetic insights relevant to crop health and food production.



6. Mus musculus (House Mouse):



Mice are widely used in medical research due to their genetic similarity to humans, ease of maintenance, and high reproductive rate, with specific aspects contributing to their significance:

Genetic Proximity: Mice share a high homology with humans, allowing for research on genes and genetic factors with relevance to medical science.

Disease Modeling: Their central role in studying various diseases, including cancer, diabetes, genetic disorders, and immunological responses, makes them valuable in understanding and treating these conditions.

<u>Applications:</u> Mice are instrumental in studying various diseases and are critical for testing therapeutic strategies and potential treatments, contributing to advances in medical science.

<u>Diseases Explored:</u> Mice are explored in the context of cancer, diabetes, genetic diseases, autoimmune disorders, and various other medical conditions, ultimately advancing medical research and intervention strategies.

Assignment:

- 1. What is the significance of the lag, log, stationary, and death phase in bacterial growth, and why is it essential for bacterial cells to have this phase?
- 2. How do autotrophs, such as plants and cyanobacteria, contribute to the ecosystem? Explain the role of heterotrophs in nutrient cycling and food webs within ecosystems. What distinguishes lithotrophs from other energy utilization categories?
- 3. Explain the classification of organisms based on nitrogenous excretion.
- 4. Why are fruit flies (Drosophila melanogaster) important in the study of diseases such as Parkinson's and Alzheimer's, and what characteristics make them suitable as model organisms?
- 5. What specific role does the nematode Caenorhabditis elegans play in medical science, and in which areas of research are they commonly used?
- 6. How do mice contribute to understanding various diseases in medical research, and what genetic similarities make them valuable for this purpose?
- 7. What are the key differences between bacteria, fungi, protozoa, archaea, and viruses in terms of their characteristics, genetic makeup, and practical significance in various scientific fields?