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TORTORA • FUNKE • CASE

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# Microbiology

AN INTRODUCTION

10<sup>th</sup> EDITION

## Chapter 3

# Observing Microorganisms Through a Microscope

PowerPoint® Lecture Slide Presentation prepared by Christine L. Case Modified by Nick Kapp

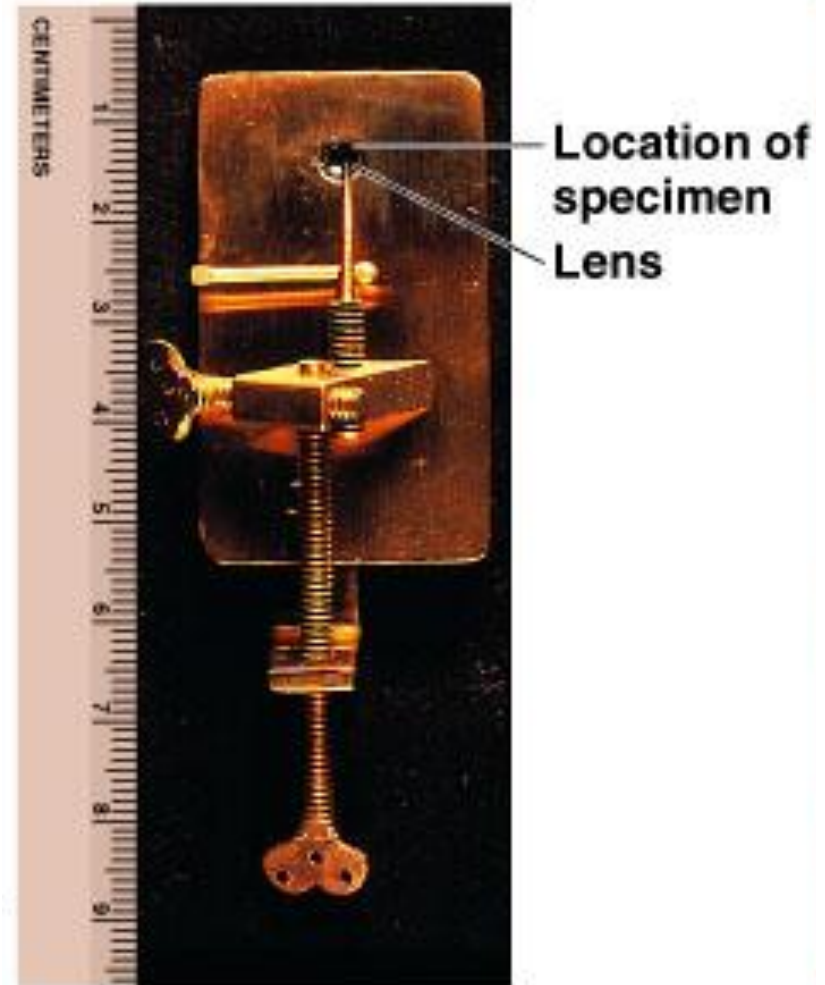
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# Units of Measurement Table 3.1

- **1  $\mu\text{m}$  micrometer** =  $10^{-6}$  m =  $10^{-3}$  mm
- **1 nm nanometer** =  $10^{-9}$  m =  $10^{-6}$  mm
- 1000 nm = 1  $\mu\text{m}$
- 0.001  $\mu\text{m}$  = 1 nm

# Microscopy: The Instruments

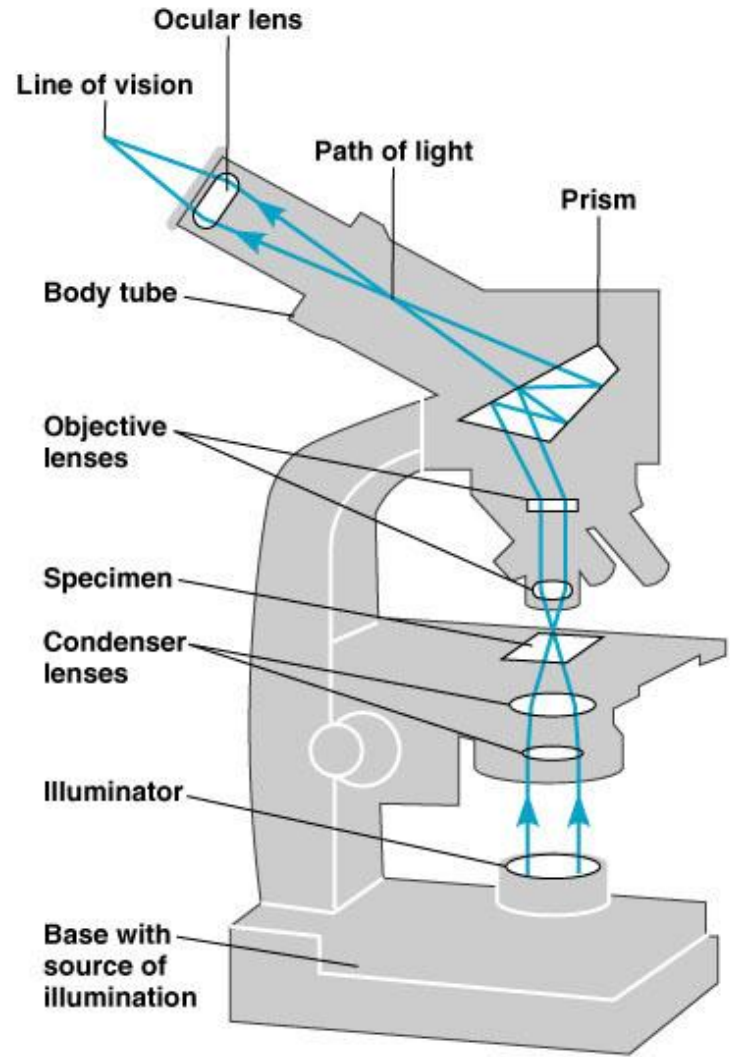
- A simple microscope has only one lens.



**(b)** Microscope replica

# Microscopy: The Instruments

- In a compound microscope the image from the objective lens is magnified again by the ocular lens.
- Total magnification = objective lens  $\times$  ocular lens



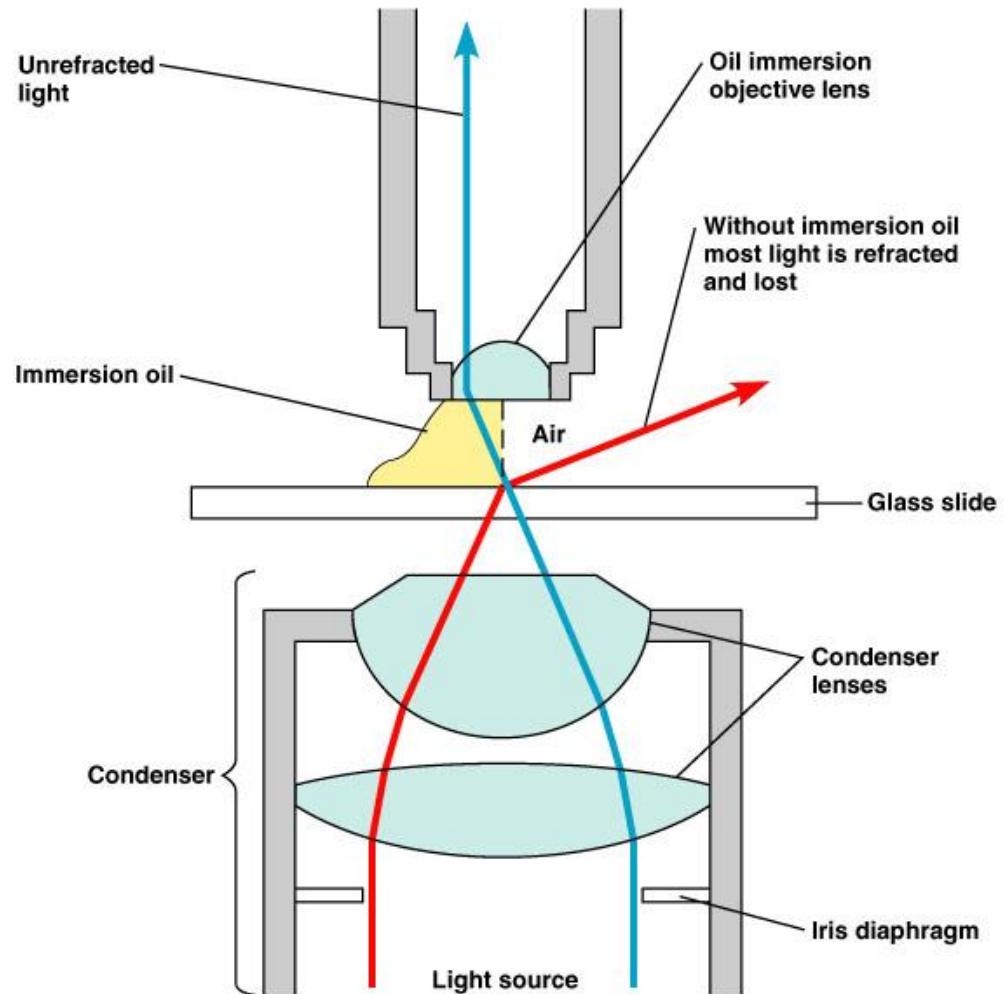
**(b) The path of light (bottom to top)**

# Microscopy: The Instruments

- **Resolution** is the ability of the lenses to distinguish two points.
- A microscope with a resolving power of 0.4 nm can distinguish between two points  $\geq 0.4$  nm.
- Shorter wavelengths of light provide greater resolution
- Resolving power = Wavelength of light used / 2x numerical aperture (a property of the lens).

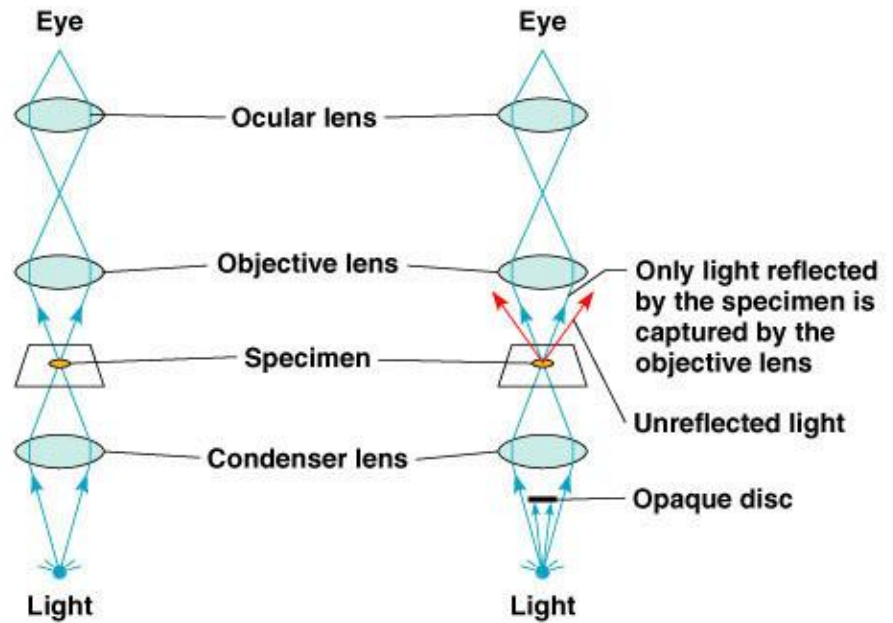
# Microscopy: The Instruments

- Refractive index is the light-bending ability of a medium.
- The light may bend in air so much that it misses the small high-magnification lens.
- Immersion oil is used to keep light from bending.



# Brightfield Illumination

- Dark objects are visible against a bright background.
- Light reflected off the specimen does not enter the objective lens.



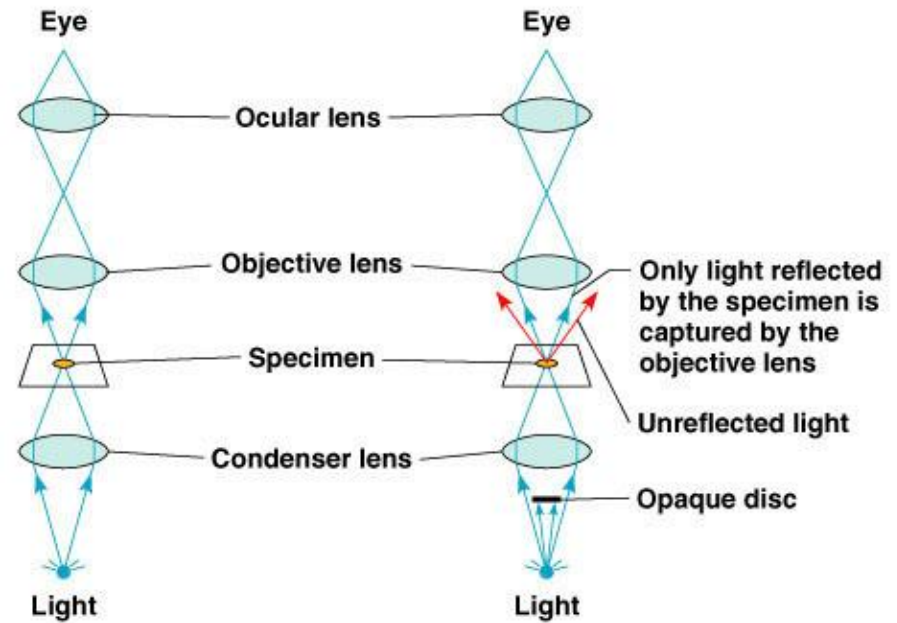
**(a) Brightfield**



**(b) Darkfield**

# Darkfield Illumination

- Light objects are visible against a dark background.
- Light reflected off the specimen enters the objective lens.



(a) Brightfield

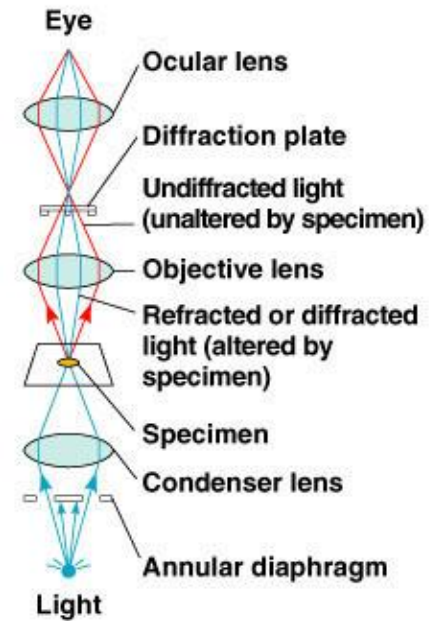


(b) Darkfield



# Phase-Contrast Microscopy

- Accentuates diffraction of the light that passes through a specimen. Direct and reflected light rays are combined at the eye. Increasing contrast



**(c) Phase-contrast**

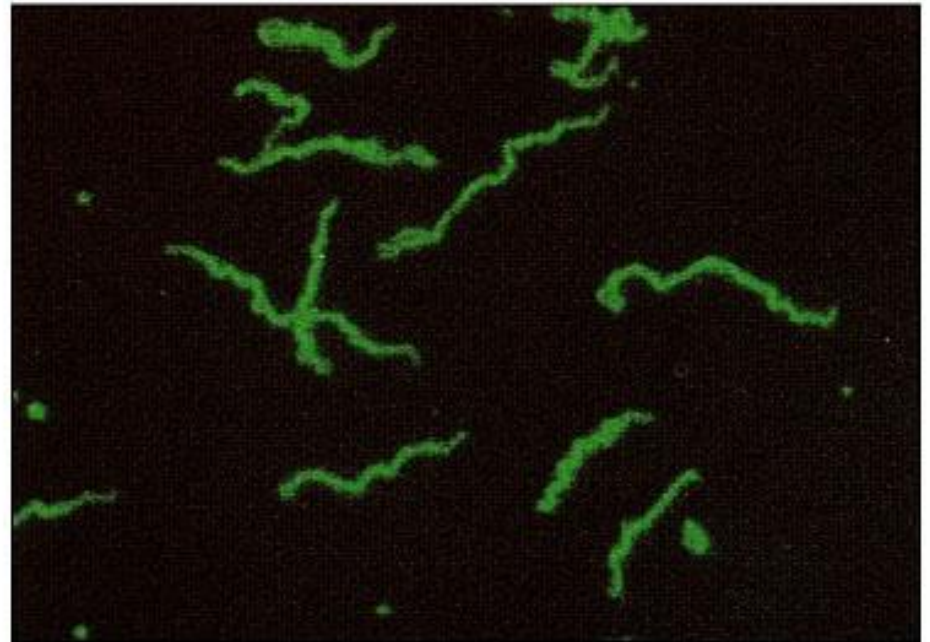
# Differential Interference Contrast Microscopy

- Accentuates diffraction of the light that passes through a specimen; uses two beams of light. Adding color



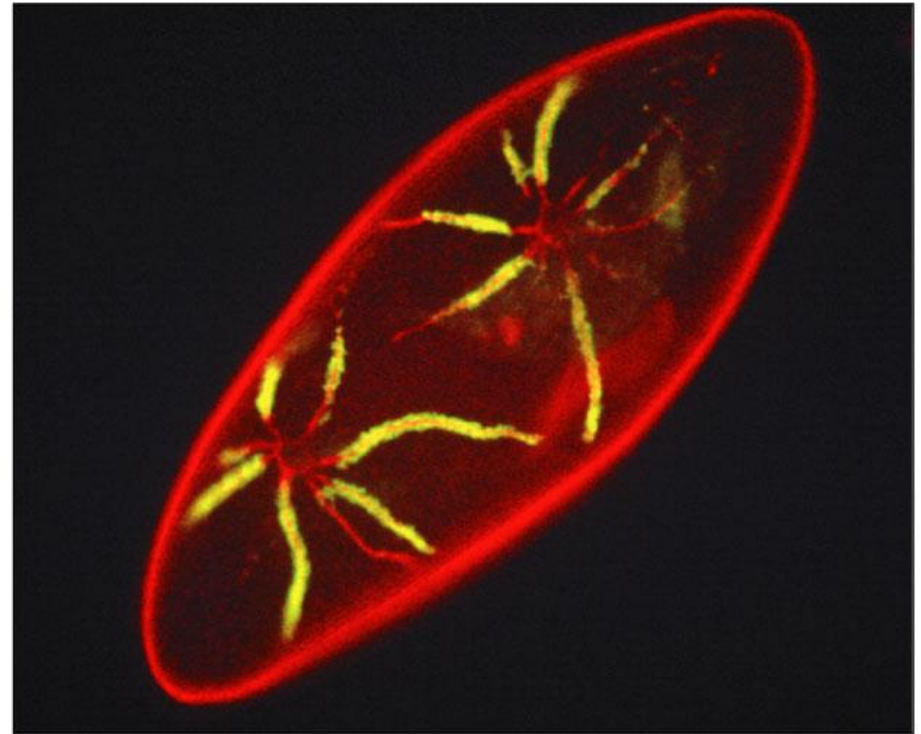
# Fluorescence Microscopy

- Uses UV light.
- Fluorescent substances absorb UV light and emit visible light.
- Cells may be stained with fluorescent dyes (fluorochromes).



# Confocal Microscopy

- Uses fluorochromes and a laser light.
- The laser illuminates each plane in a specimen to produce a 3-D image.

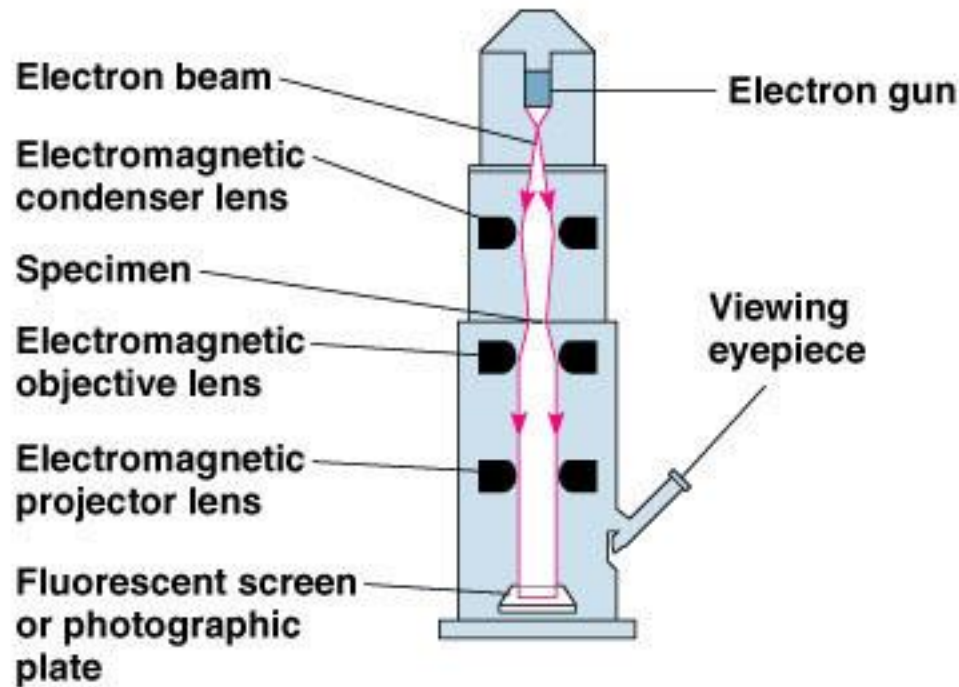


# Electron Microscopy

- Uses electrons instead of light.
- The shorter wavelength of electrons gives greater resolution. Why?

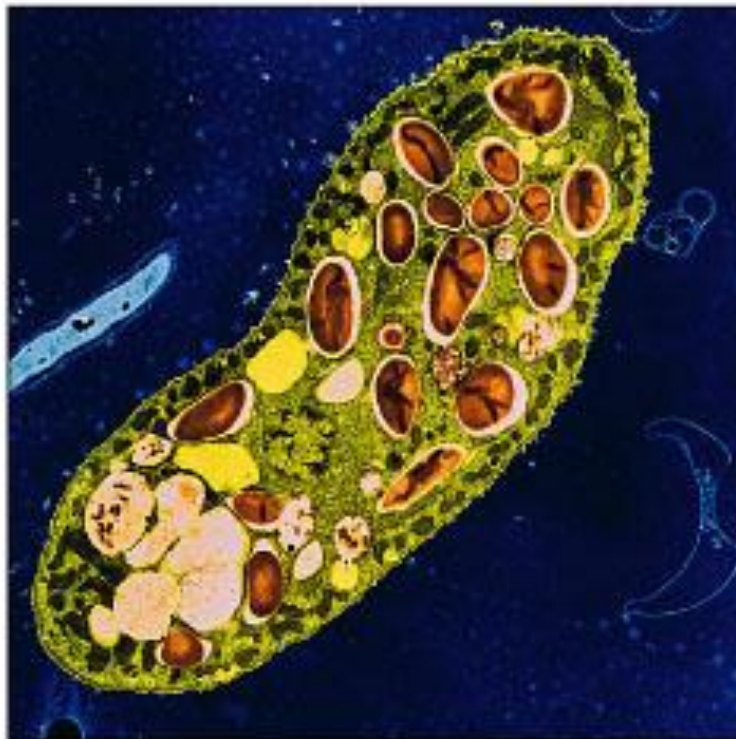
# Transmission Electron Microscopy (TEM)

- Ultrathin sections of specimens.
- Light passes through specimen, then an electromagnetic lens, to a screen or film.
- Specimens may be stained with heavy metal salts.



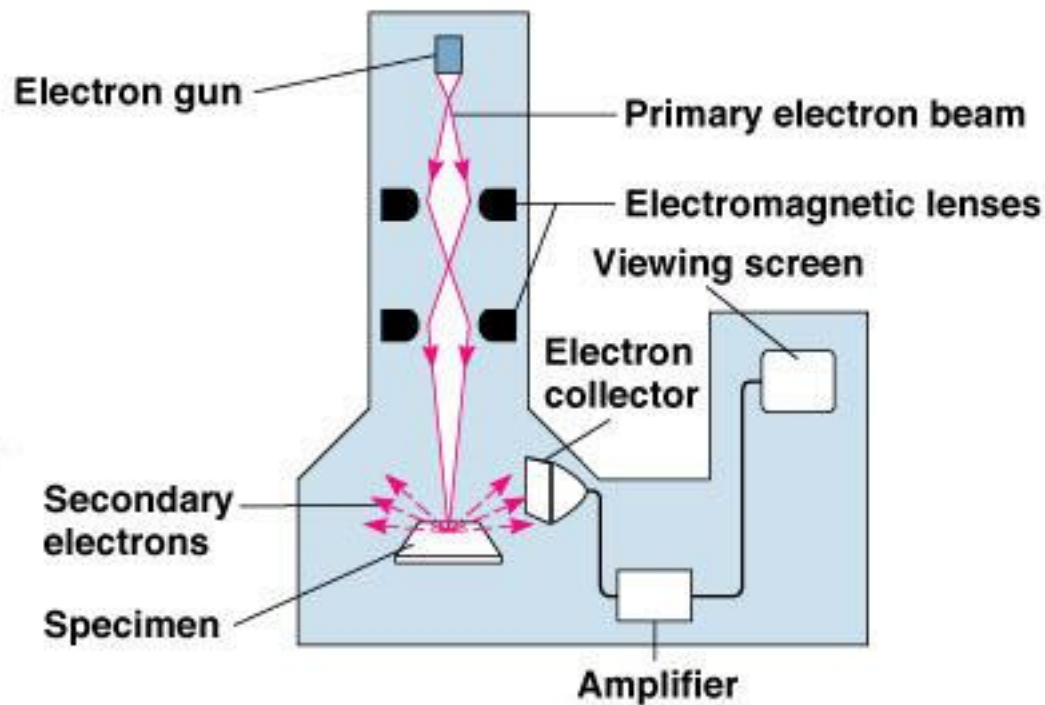
# Transmission Electron Microscopy (TEM)

- 10,000-100,000×; resolution 2.5 nm



# Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM)

- An electron gun produces a beam of electrons that scans the surface of a whole specimen.
- Secondary electrons emitted from the specimen produce the image.





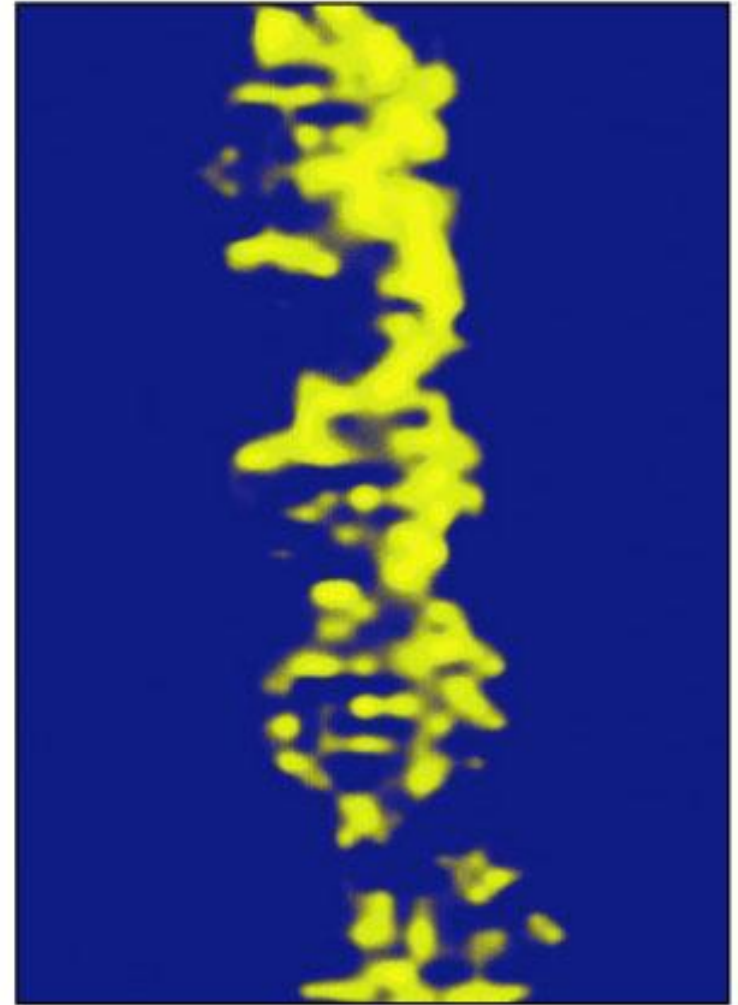
# Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM)

- 1000-10,000 $\times$ ; resolution 20 nm



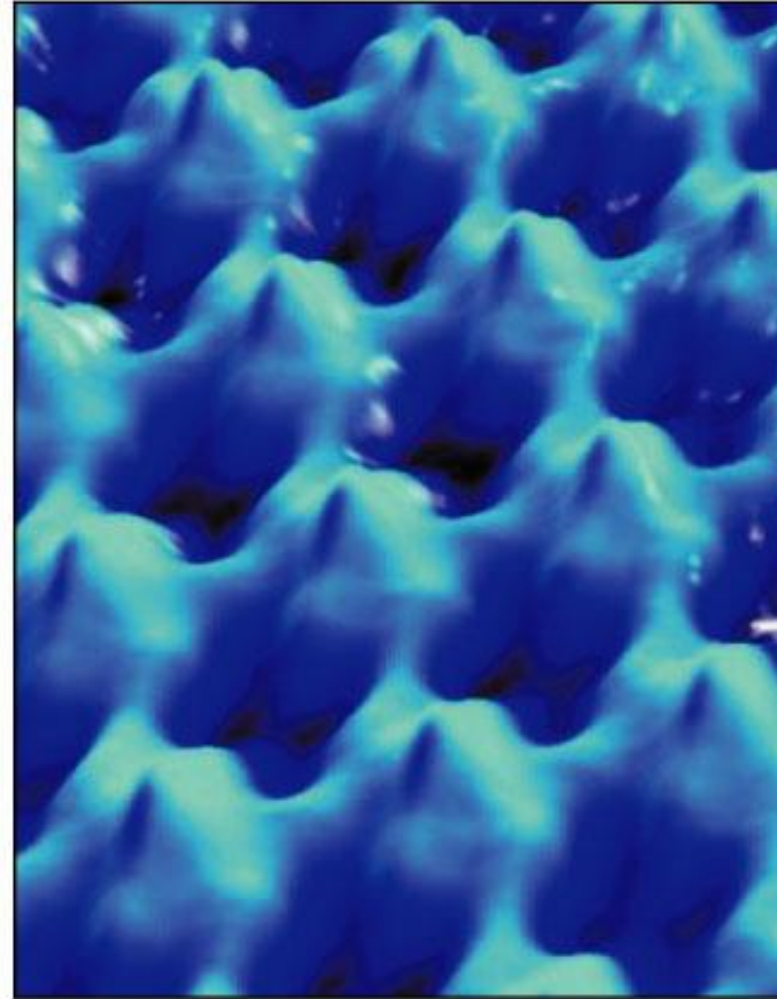
# Scanning-Probe Microscopy

- Scanning tunneling microscopy uses a metal probe to scan a specimen.
- Resolution 1/100 of an atom.



# Scanning-Probe Microscopy

- Atomic force microscopy uses a metal and diamond probe inserted into the specimen.
- Produces 3-D images.

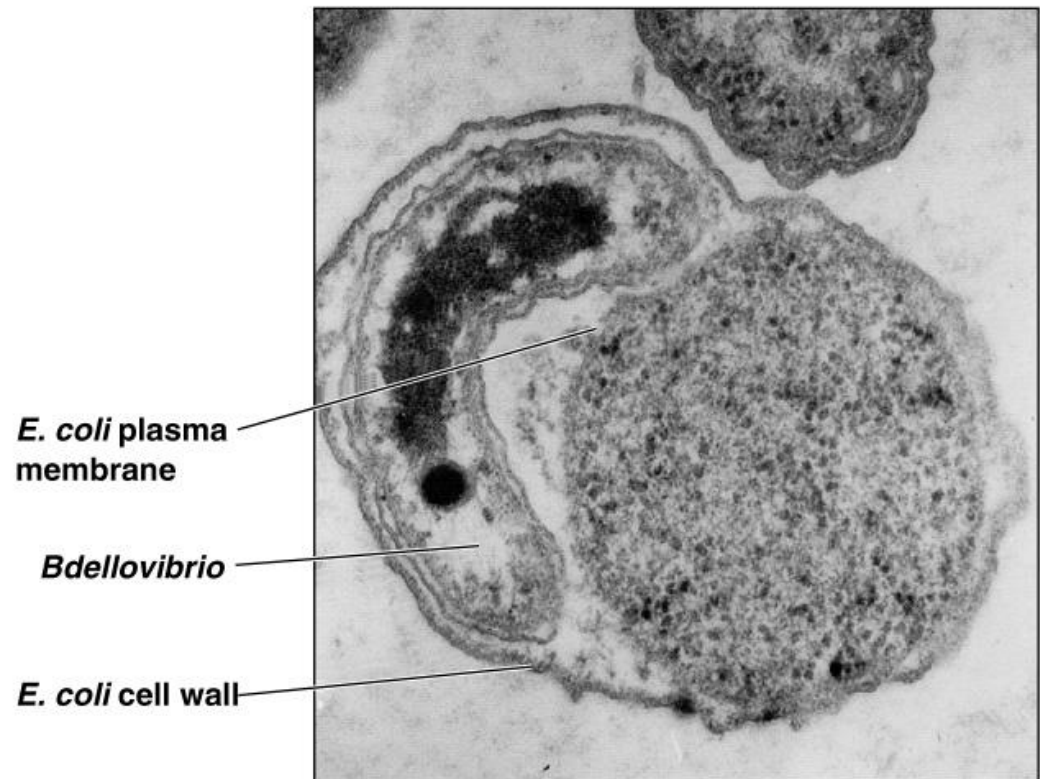


# Preparation of Specimens for Light Microscopy

- A thin film of a solution of microbes on a slide is a **smear**.
- A smear is usually fixed to attach the microbes to the slide and to kill the microbes.

# Preparing Smears for Staining

- *Live or unstained cells have little contrast with the surrounding medium. However, researchers do make discoveries about cell behavior looking at live specimens.*



# Preparing Smears for Staining

- Stains consist of a positive and negative ion.
- In a basic dye, the **chromophore** is a **cation (+)**.
- In an acidic dye, the chromophore is an **anion (-)**.
- Bacteria are slightly negative at neutral pH
- Staining the background instead of the cell is called negative staining.

# Simple Stains

- Use of a single basic dye is called a **simple stain**.
- A **mordant** may be used to hold the stain or coat the specimen to enlarge it.
- A mordant: substance, typically an inorganic oxide, that combines with a dye or stain and thereby fixes it in a material.

# Differential Stains: Gram Stain

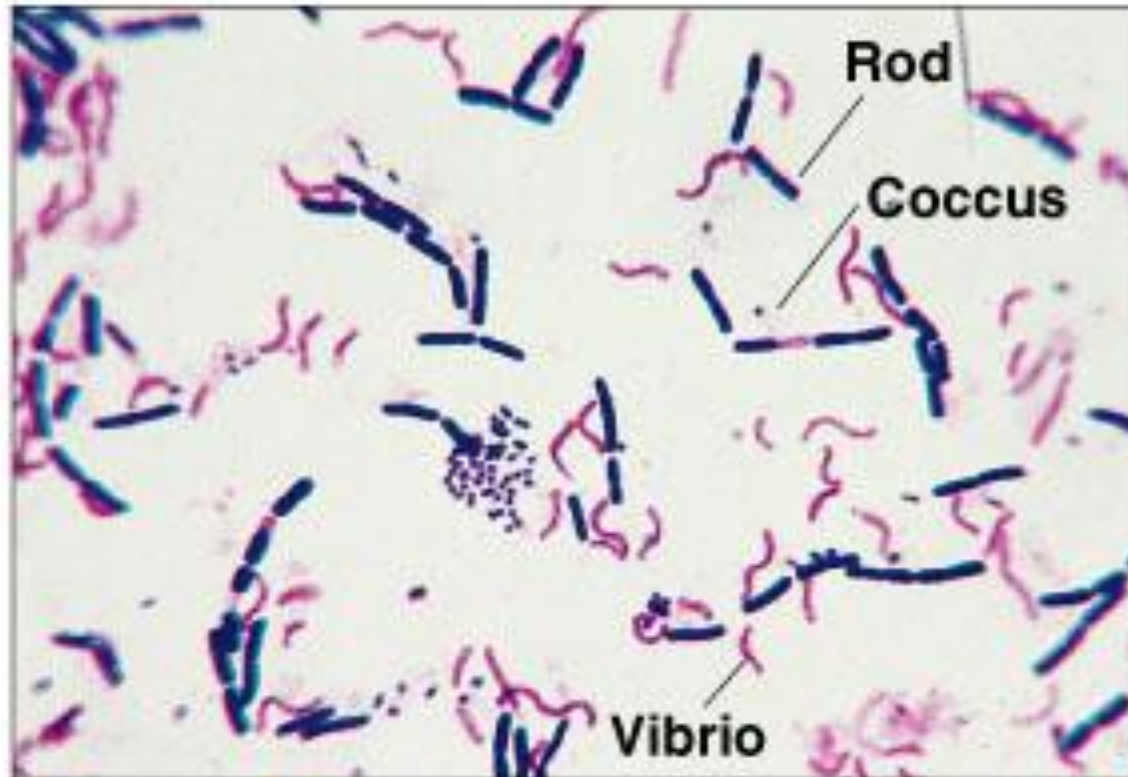
- The **Gram stain** classifies bacteria into gram-positive and gram-negative.
- **Gram-positive** bacteria tend to be killed by penicillin and detergents.
- **Gram-negative** bacteria are more resistant to antibiotics.



# Differential Stains: Gram Stain

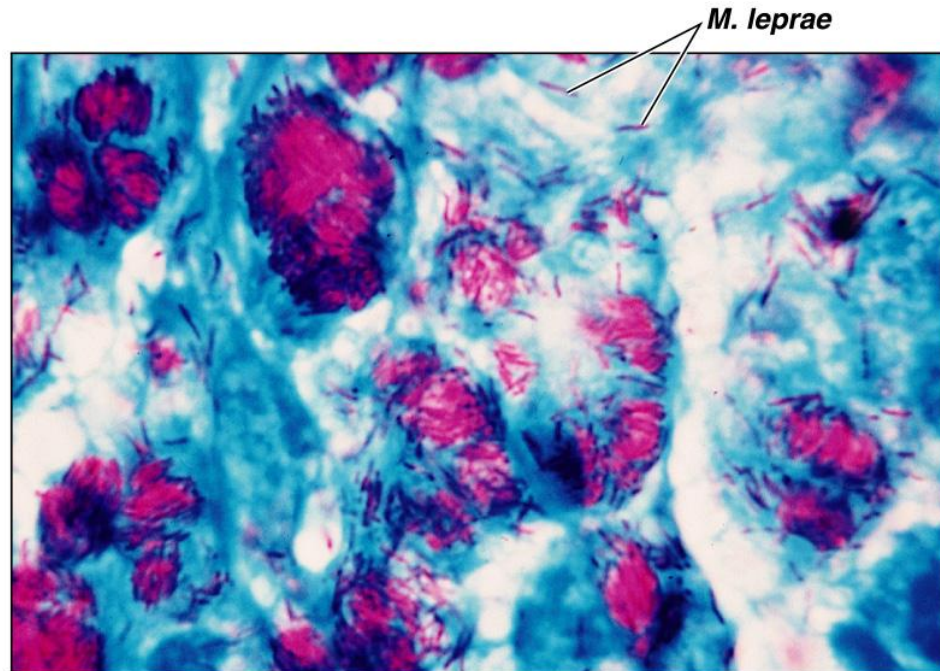
	Color of Gram + cells	Color of Gram – cells
Primary stain: Crystal violet	Purple	Purple
Mordant: Iodine	Purple	Purple
Decolorizing agent: Alcohol-acetone	Purple	Colorless
Counterstain: Safranin	Purple	Red

# Differential Stains: Gram Stain



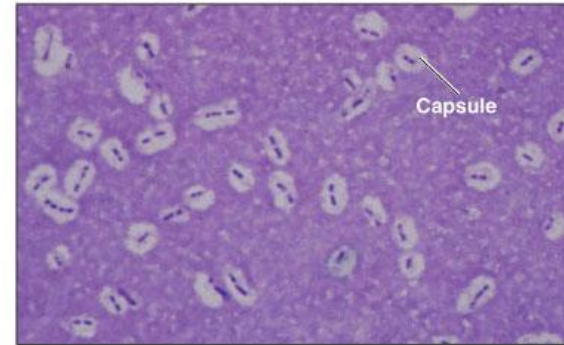
# Differential Stains: Acid-Fast Stain

- Cells that retain a basic stain in the presence of acid-alcohol are called acid-fast.
- Non-acid-fast cells lose the basic stain when rinsed with acid-alcohol, and are usually counterstained (with a different color basic stain) to see them.

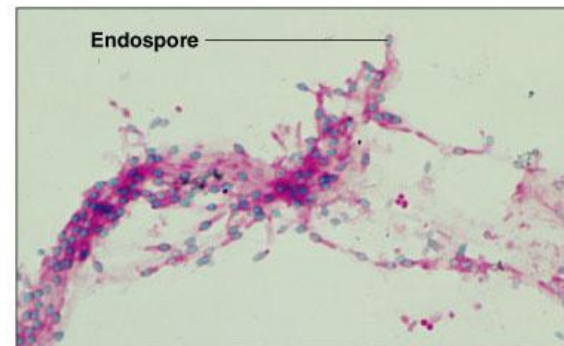


# Special Stains

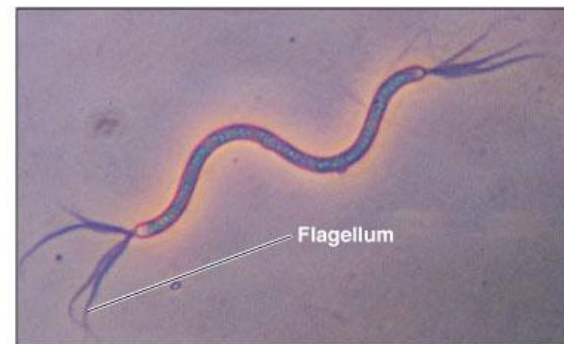
- Negative staining is useful for capsules.
- Heat is required to drive a stain into endospores.
- Flagella staining requires a mordant to make the flagella wide enough to see.



(a) Negative staining.



(b) Endospore staining.



(c) Flagella staining.

# What should we know after this presentation?

Know the parts of the microscope

Power, resolution, magnification, focus

Know the types of light and electronic microscopes

- Power
- What they are good for observing

What are stains used for?

How do you do a gram stain