

**Reading Material for
Medical Lab. Technician
(Parasitology & Mycology)**



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PREFACE

A two years post matric teaching program of Medical Laboratory Technician for the students of Allied Health Sciences. The purpose of this reading material is to provide basic education to the paramedics about Parasitology and Mycology. This reading material attempts to cover almost all the basic theoretical knowledge required by students about Parasitology and Mycology .so that they can perform their work better in Pathology laboratory

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SECTION: 1

Parasitology

1. BASIC PARASITOLOGY

INTRODUCTION

Parasitology is the science dealing with parasites and their pathogenicity.

A **parasite** is a living organism that has adapted itself to exist in another animal called a **host**. Parasitic infestations in humans constitute the most common health problems, particularly in tropical and developing countries. Parasites infest man in more than one tissue and organ.

A parasite is an organism that is entirely dependent on another organism, referred to as its host, for all or part of its life cycle and metabolic requirements.

Parasitism is therefore a relationship in which a parasite benefits and the host provides the benefit. The degree of dependence of a parasite on its host varies. An obligatory parasite is one that must always live in contact with its host. The term free-living describes the non-parasitic stages of existence which are lived independently of a host, e.g. hook worms have active free-living stages in the soil.

Terms used to describe parasite hosts

1.1. Definitive host: This is the host in which sexual reproduction takes place or in which the most highly developed form of a parasite occurs. When the most mature form is not obvious, the definitive host is the mammalian host.

1.2. Intermediate host: This is the host which alternates with the definitive host and in which the larval or asexual stages of a parasite are found. Some parasites require two intermediate hosts in which to complete their life cycle.

1.3. Reservoir host: This is an animal host serving as a source from which other animals can become infected. Epidemiologically, reservoir hosts are important in the control of parasitic diseases. They can maintain a nucleus of infection in an area.

1.4 TYPES OF PARASITES

1.4.1 .EXO-PARASITES: These are the ones which live outside the host body, on body surfaces,e.glice.

1.4.2.ENDOPARASITES:These are the ones which live inside human body,e.g Entamoeba

HOST-PARASITESRELATIONSHIP

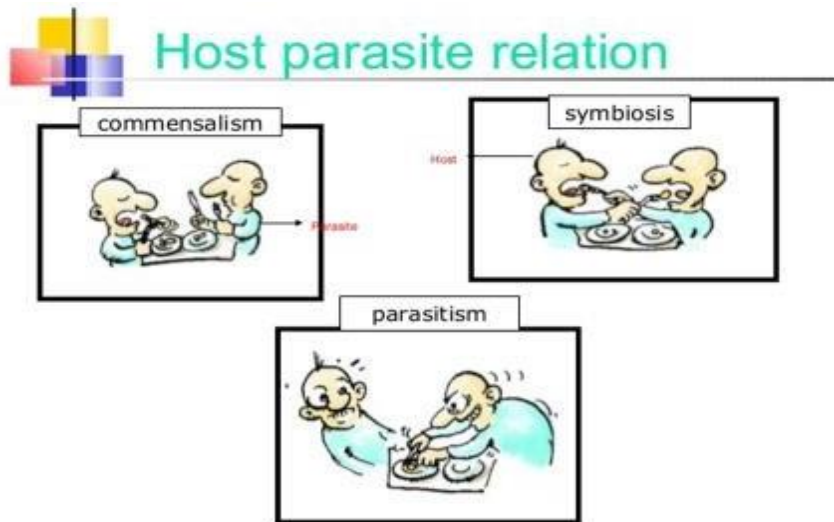
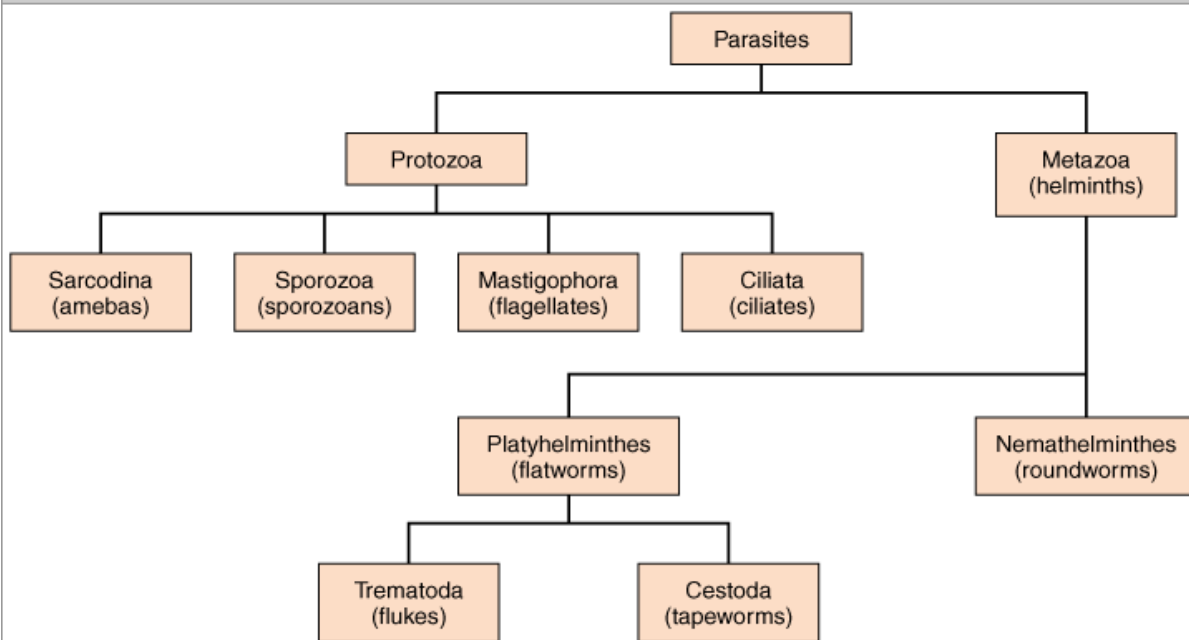


Figure 1.1 : Host Parasite Relation

Figure VI-1



Source: Levinson W: *Review of Medical Microbiology and Immunology*, 11th Edition: <http://www.accessmedicine.com>

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Relationships of the medically important parasites.

Figure: 1.2 CLASSIFICATION OF PARASITES

PROTOZOA

Protozoa can be defined as unicellular organisms that are independently complete. They can eat, respire, move and reproduce without help. They are divided into four classes as shown in Table

HELMINTHS

Helminths are multi-cellular organisms of varying sizes, elongated in shape and having a reproductive system. Other systems like a nervous system and a gut may be present in a rudimentary form. Only a few parasites occur in Pakistan and even fewer are important pathogens. They may infect man in their adult or larval forms. Although these diseases may prove fatal in certain cases, they are easy to treat and are curable provided these can be diagnosed. In the next few pages, the life cycles and methods of diagnosis of some important parasites will be discussed.

1.5 PROTOZOA:

1.5.1 Blood parasites

1.5.1.1 PLASMODIUM

Malaria is one of the most wide spread parasitic diseases of the world. It mainly occurs in tropical and subtropical areas but cases are found all over the world due to travelling to and from these areas. A protozoan belonging to the class sporozoa and the genus *Plasmodium* causes it. Five species are involved in it, namely, *P. vivax*, *P. ovale*, *P. malariae*, *P. falciparum* and *P. knowlesi*. All species differ in morphology, life cycle and the type of disease they cause. The parasite invades and destroys red blood cells. It is transmitted from one person to another through bites of a mosquito of the genus *Anopheles*. It can also be transmitted through blood transfusion of infected individual.

LIFECYCLE

The life cycle of a malarial parasite involves two hosts and consists of a **sexual cycle or sporogony** in the mosquito and an **asexual cycle or schizogony** in humans. Man is actually the intermediate host while the mosquito is the definitive host (Fig 1).

ASEXUAL CYCLE IN HUMANS (SCHIZOGONY)

During a blood meal, a malaria-infected female *Anopheles* mosquito inoculates sporozoites into the human host. Sporozoites infect liver cells and mature into schizonts, which rupture and release merozoites. This is the **pre-erythrocytic schizogony** or tissue phase. In *P. vivax* and *P. ovale* this is a dormant stage [hypnozoites] that can persist in the liver and cause relapses by invading the blood stream weeks or even years later; also called as **ex erythrocytic stage**. After this initial replication in the liver (A), the parasites undergo asexual multiplication in the erythrocytes (**erythrocytic schizogony** (B)). Merozoites infect red blood cells. The ring-stage trophozoites mature into schizonts which rupture, releasing merozoites. When the infection is well established, some merozoites differentiate into sexual erythrocytic stages (**gametocytes**) after about 12 days. Blood-stage parasites are responsible for the clinical manifestations of the disease. The time taken to complete this cycle varies in different species of *Plasmodium*. In *P. vivax* it is 45 hours, in *P. ovale* 48 hours, in *P. malariae* 72 hours, *P. knowlesi* in 24 hours and in *P. falciparum* 48 hours.

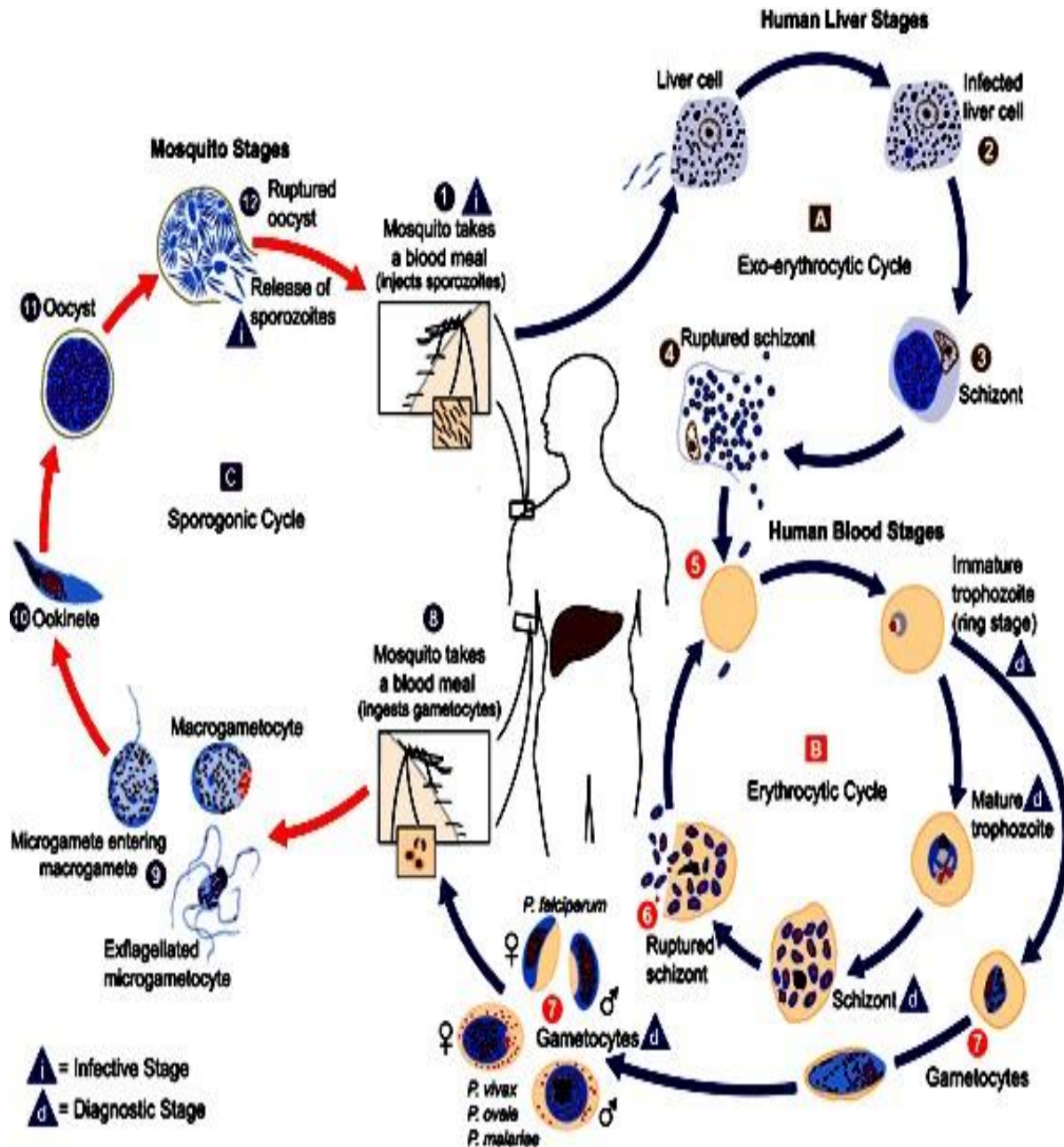


Fig.1.3 :Sexual,asexual life cycles of Plasmodium species

SEXUAL CYCLE IN MOSQUITOE

Thesexualformsoftheparasitethegametocytes,male(microgametocytes)and female(macrogametocytes),areingestedbya female *Anopheles* mosquito during a blood meal .The parasites' multiplication in the mosquito is known as the **sporogony (C)**. While in the mosquito'sstomach, the microgametes penetrate the macrogametes, generating zygotes . The zygotes in turn become motile and elongated(ookinetes)and invade the mid-gutwall of the mosquito where they develop into oocysts . Theo cysts

grow, rupture, and releases protozoites, which make their way to the mosquito's salivary glands. Inoculation of the sporozoites into a new human host perpetuates the malaria life cycle.

All sexual and asexual forms of the parasite described in the life cycle are seen in peripheral blood except in *P. falciparum* where most of maturation occurs in RBCs sequestered in small vessels. In this case only ring forms and gametocytes are seen in the blood.

1.5.1.2 LEISHMANIA CUTANEOUS LEISHMANIASIS

Cutaneous leishmaniasis is prevalent in eastern Baluchistan and southern Punjab. A flagellate protozoan *Leishmania tropica* complex causes the disease. The parasite is transmitted from human to human by the sandfly of genus phlebotomus, which is the definitive host. Man is the intermediate host. The parasite exists in 2 different morphological forms in its life cycle. In man it occurs in the **Leishmanial (amastigote)** form. It is ovoid in shape, measuring 1.5-5µm. It contains a nucleus and close to it a much smaller structure called the kinetoplast. In the body of the sandfly it is transformed into **leptomonad (promastigote)** form that is large, elongated and has a polar flagellum in addition to a nucleus and a kinetoplast. Leishmaniasis is transmitted by the bite of the female phlebotomus. The sandflies inject the infective stage promastigotes, during blood meals. Promastigotes that reach the puncture wound are phagocytosed by macrophages and transform into amastigotes. Amastigotes multiply in infected cells and affect different tissues, depending in part on the *Leishmanias* species. The infected tissue presents the clinical manifestations of leishmaniasis.

Sand flies become infected during blood meals on an infected host when they ingest macrophages infected with amastigotes. In the sandfly's mid-gut, the parasites differentiate into promastigotes, which multiply and migrate to the proboscis.

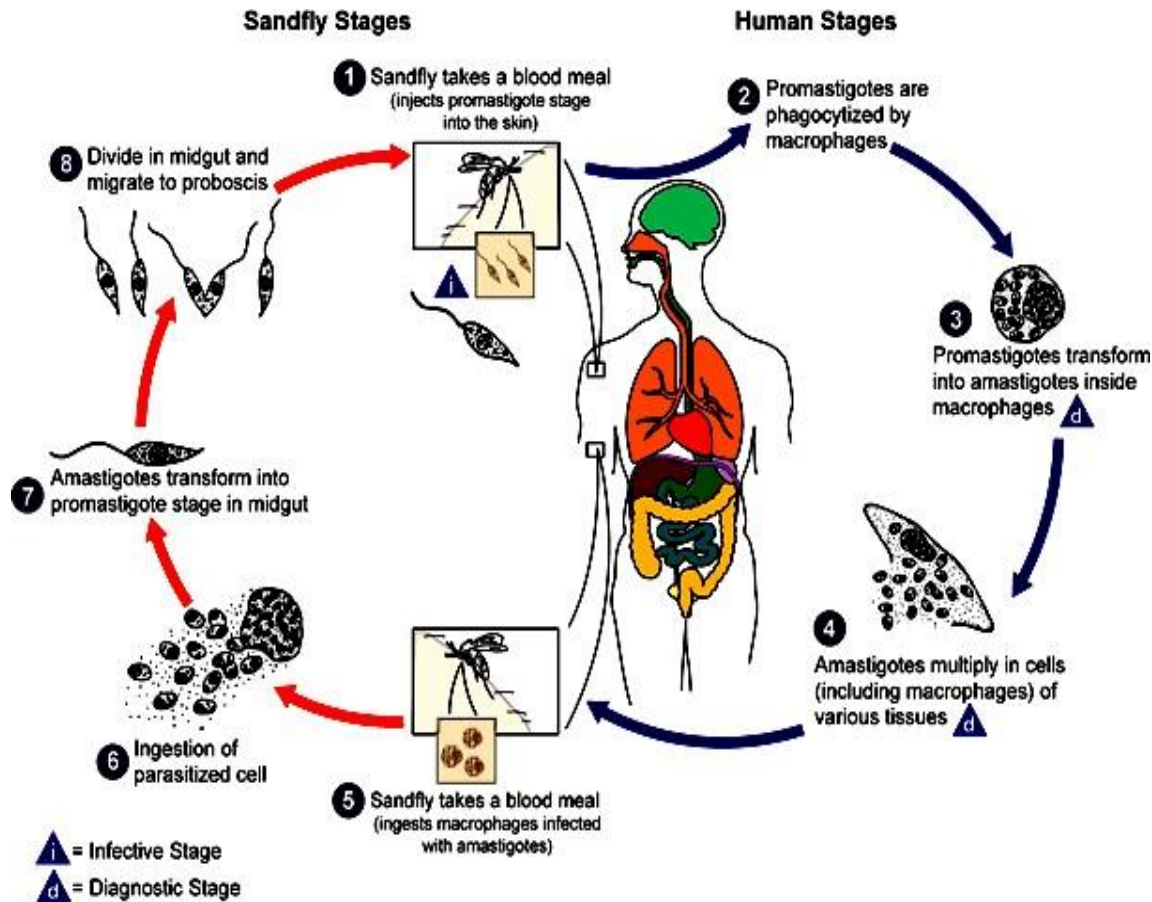


Fig1.4 Life cycle of Leishmania

VISCERAL LEISHMANIASIS

Commonly called Kala Azar, it is seen in Pakistan, particularly in Azad Kashmir and Baltistan areas. It is caused by at least three sub-species belonging to the *Leishmaniadonovanicomplex*, clinically and biochemically distinct having different geographic distribution. *Leishmaniadonovani* is transmitted through the bites of a sandfly (phlebotomus).

The life cycle is similar to *Leishmaniatropica* except that, in this case the parasite attacks the reticuloendothelial system of the liver, spleen and bone marrow.

1.5.2. INTESTINAL PARASITES

1.5.2.1 ENTAMOEBA;

This disease is caused by the protozoan *Entamoeba histolytica*. Cysts are passed in faeces. Infection by *Entamoeba histolytica* occurs by ingestion of mature cysts in faecally-contaminated food, water or hands. Excystation occurs in the small intestine and trophozoites are released, which migrate to the large intestine. The trophozoites multiply by binary fission and produce cysts, which are passed in the faeces. (Trophozoites

can also be passed in diarrhoeal stools, but are rapidly destroyed once outside the body, and if ingested would not survive exposure to the gastric environment.) In many cases, the trophozoites remain confined to the intestinal lumen (**noninvasive infection**) of individuals who are asymptomatic carriers, passing cysts in their stool. In some patients the trophozoites invade the intestinal mucosa (**intestinal disease**), or, through the bloodstream, extra-intestinal sites such as the liver, brain and lungs (**extra-intestinal disease**), with resultant pathologic manifestations.

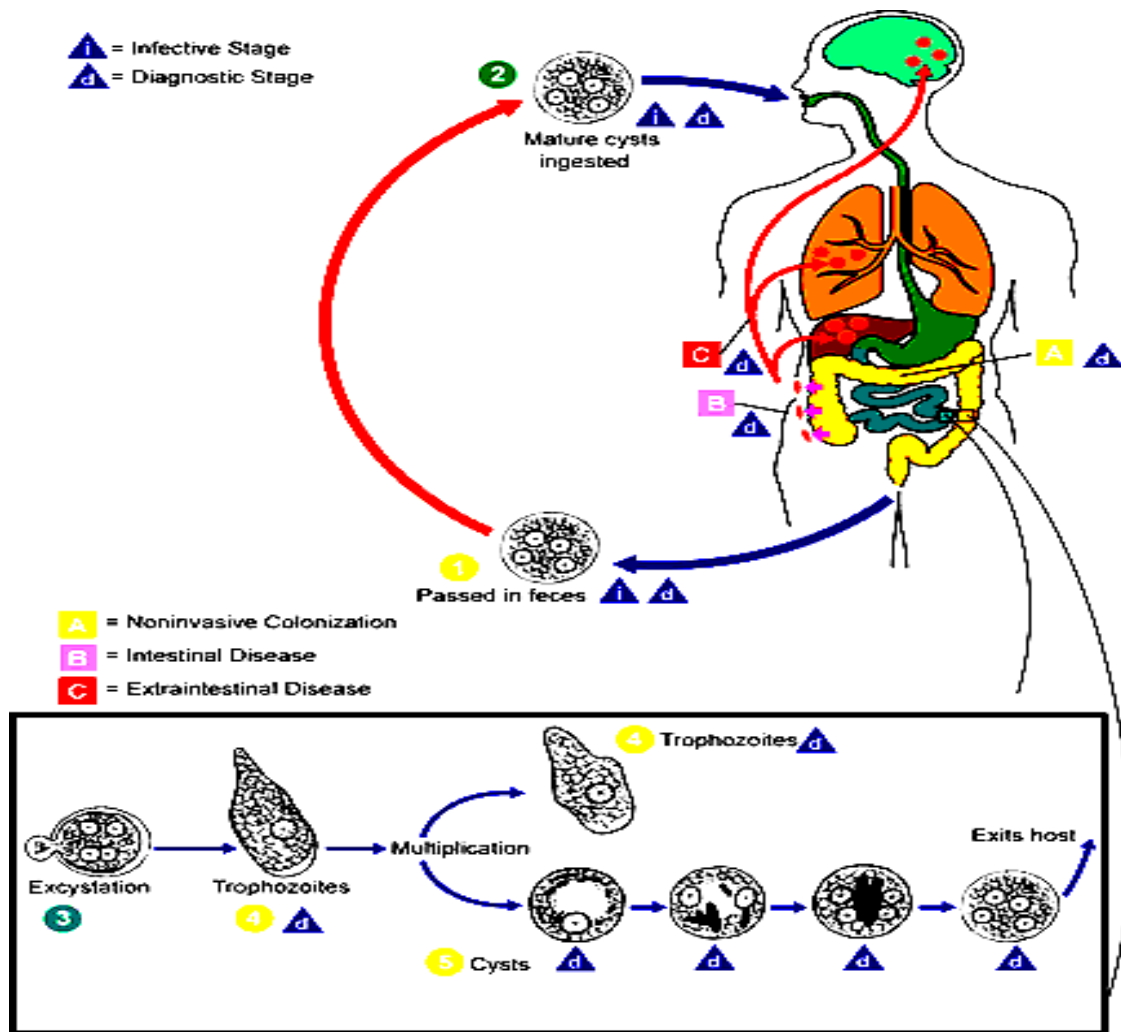


Fig 1.5; Life cycle of *Entamoeba histolytica*

Two developmental stages are;

1. **The Trophozoite Stage** or vegetative form is the invasive form. It invades the intestinal wall causing a typical flask-shaped ulcer in the caecum and ascending colon, but other parts of the large intestine may also be affected. From the intestine these may reach the liver via portal circulation. The trophozoites are 20-60 μ m in diameter. They are motile due to explosive movements of pseudopodia. They ingest red blood cells, which is diagnostic. They have one nucleus and reproduce by binary fission
2. **Cystic Stage:** When the conditions are unfavourable, the trophozoites become immobile, rounded and finally encyst. They may also divide within the cyst. Amoebic cysts thus may contain multiple nuclei. Cysts contain rod-like structures called chromatoid bodies or bars and an inconspicuous glycogen vacuole. The cysts are passed in stools and may be ingested by another individual through contaminated food and water. Only the four-cell stage cyst is infective. Then the cyst wall disappears and 8 trophozoites are liberated and then attack the intestinal mucosa.

1.5.2.2 GIARDIA

This disease is caused by a flagellate protozoan, *Giardia lamblia*. Infestation occurs in the upper small intestine and causes anaemia, weight loss and malabsorption. Diarrhoea and other abdominal symptoms may or may not occur. The parasite is found in two forms. The **trophozoite** form is found in the intestine close to or on the microvillous border of the epithelium. Towards lumen and down in the intestine the conditions become unfavourable for trophozoites, which then encyst. **Cysts** are excreted in stools. Occasionally, trophozoite forms may be seen in faeces. If there is diarrhea, both cysts and trophozoites can be found in the faeces (**diagnostic stages**). Infection occurs by the ingestion of cysts in contaminated water, food, or by the faecal-oral route (hands or fomites). In the small intestine, excystation releases trophozoites (each cyst produces two trophozoites) which remain in proximal small bowel. Encystation occurs as the parasites transit toward the colon. The cyst is the stage found most commonly in non-diarrhoeal faeces

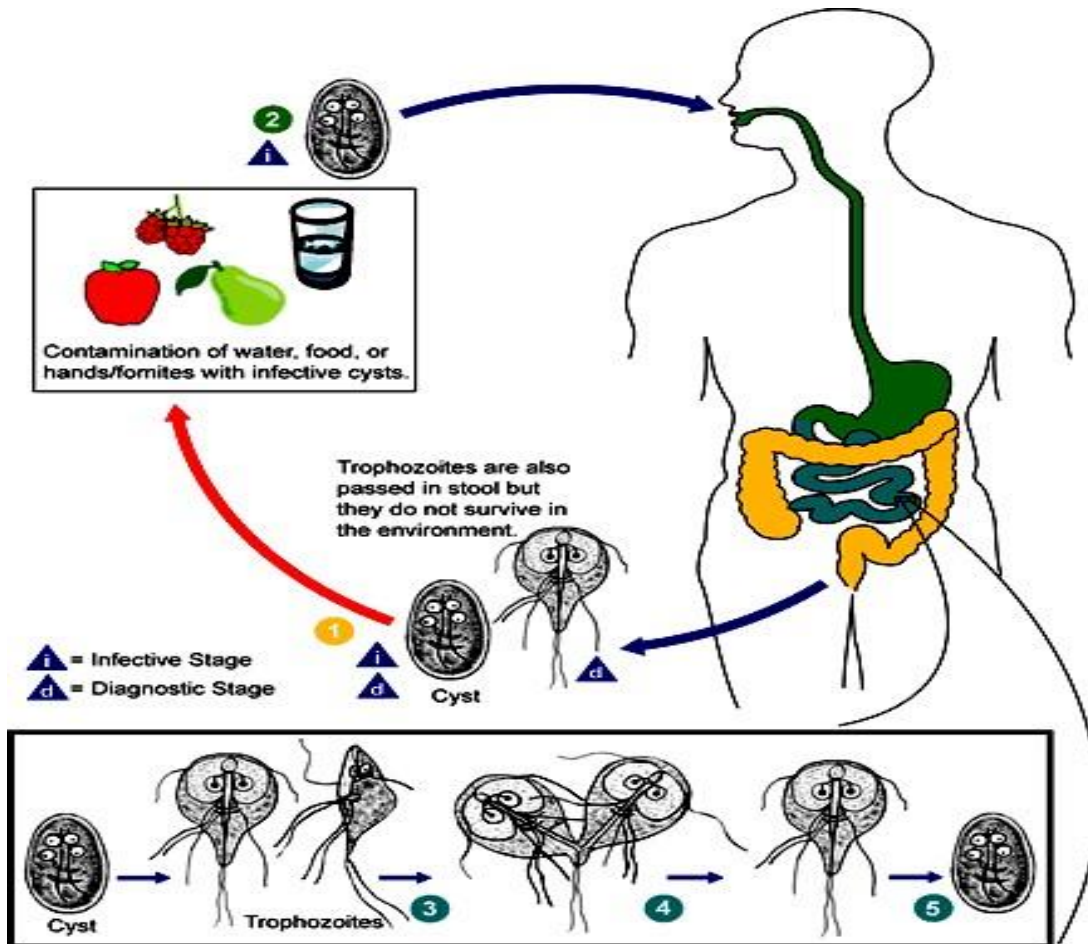


Figure 1.6 : Life cycle of *Giardia lamblia*

1.5.3. UROGENITAL PARASITES

1.5.3.1 TRICHOMONAS VAGINALIS

This protozoan is not an intestinal parasite. Normal body sites include the vagina and prostate. It is pathogenic in the genital system and sometimes the urinary tract. It is included in the list of sexually transmitted diseases (STD). A living trophozoite is 5-15 μm in size but it may reach a length of 30 μm . They have very jerky and non-directional movement. It has four anterior flagella plus a recurrent flagellum that arises anteriorly and parallels the body. The undulating membrane extends about half the distance to the posterior end of the body with no free flagellum.

Trichomonas vaginalis resides in the lower genital tract of females and the male urethra and prostate, where it replicates by binary fission. The parasite does not appear to have a cyst form, and does not survive well in the external environment. *Trichomonas vaginalis* is transmitted among humans, its only known host, primarily by sexual

intercourse .

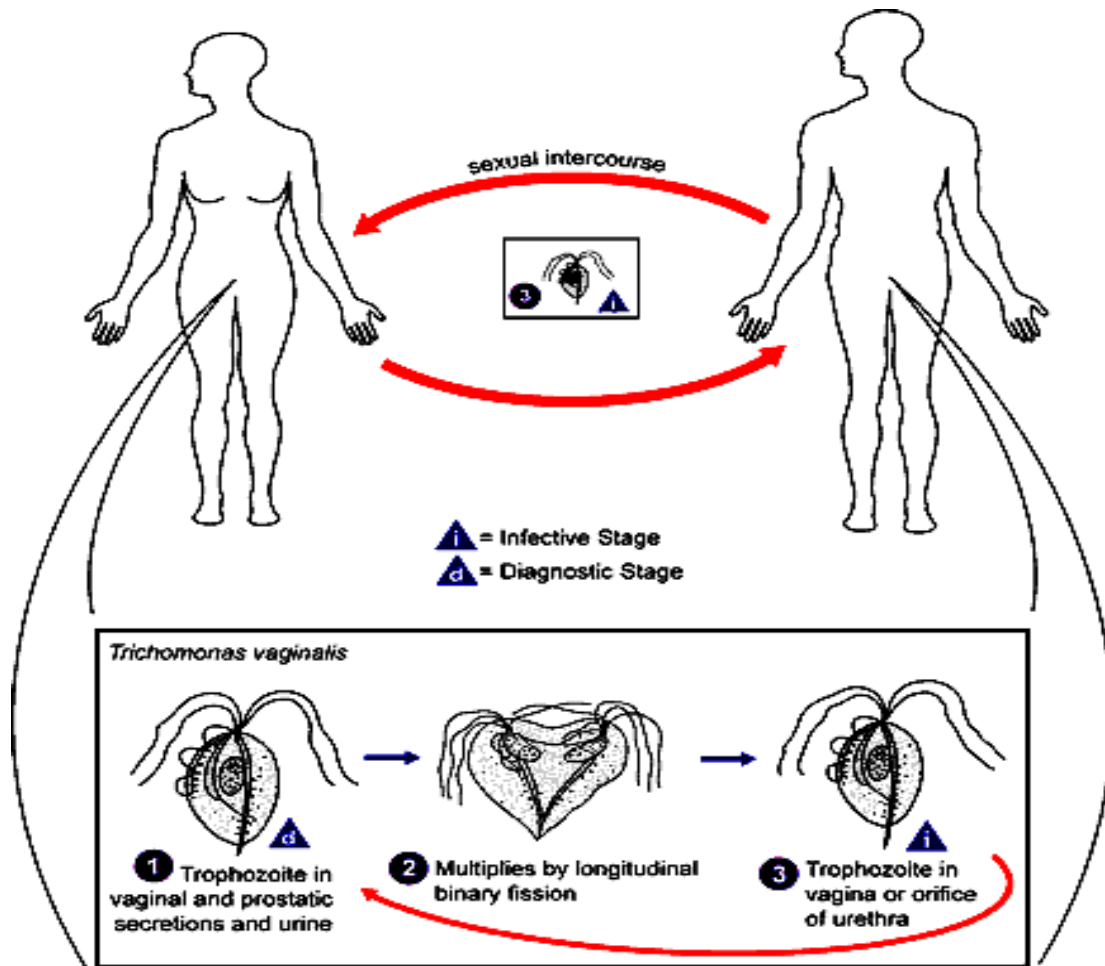


Fig 1.7 : Life cycle of Trichomonas

1.6 HELMINTHS

1.6.1 Nematelminthes(Nematodes)

1.6.1.1 ASCARIS LUMBRICOIDES

Ascariasis is caused by a large round worm, *Ascaris lumbricoides* belonging to the nematode. It is the most common intestinal helminth in humans. Adult worms, live in the lumen of the small intestine. A female may produce approximately 200,000 eggs per day, which are passed in the faeces. Unfertilised eggs are not infective. Fertile eggs embryonate and become infective after 18 days to several weeks, depending on the environmental conditions (optimum: moist, warm, shaded soil). After infective eggs are swallowed, the larvae hatch, invade the intestinal mucosa, and are carried via the

portal, then systemic circulation to the lungs. The larvae mature further in the lungs (10-14 days), penetrate the alveolar walls, ascend the bronchial tree to the throat, and are swallowed. Upon reaching the small intestine, they develop into adult worms. Between 2 and 3 months are required from ingestion of the infective eggs to egg production by the adult female. Adult worms live for 1-2 years.

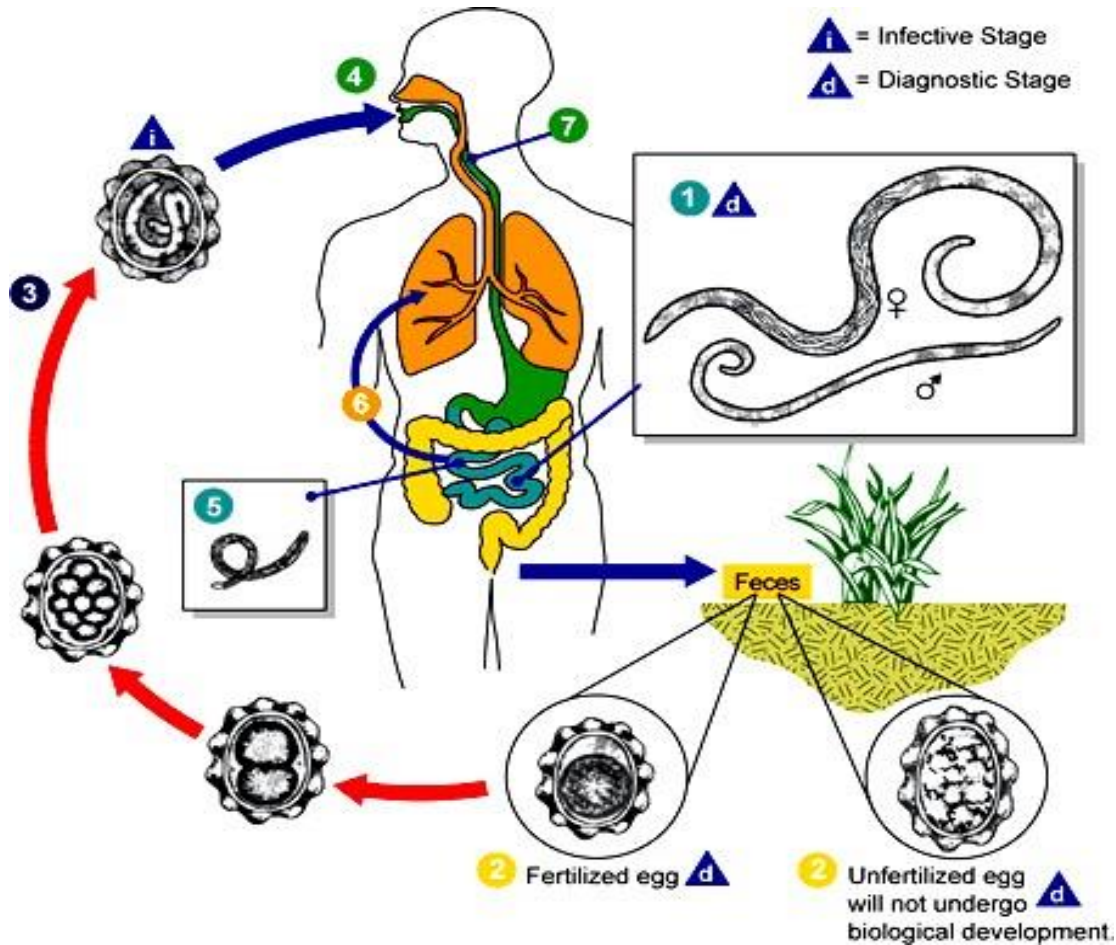


Figure 1.8 Life cycle of *Ascaris lumbricoides*

1.6.1.2 ANCYLOSTOMA DOUDENALE

Ancylostoma duodenale or Hook worm infection is one of the most common parasitic infections. The two Nematodes, *Ancylostoma duodenale* and *Necator americanus* cause it. Both are similar in shape and life cycle. Eggs are passed in the stool, and under favourable conditions (moisture, warmth, shade), larvae hatch in 1 to 2 days. The released rhabditiform larvae grow in the soil and after 5-10 days (and two months) later they become filariform (third-stage) larvae that are infective. These infective larvae can

survive 3-4 weeks in favourable environmental conditions. On contact with the human host for at least 5-10 minutes, the larvae penetrate the skin and are carried through the veins to the heart and lungs. They penetrate into the pulmonary alveoli, ascend the bronchial tree to the pharynx, and are swallowed. The larvae reach the small intestine, where they reside and mature into adults. Adult worms live in the lumen of the small intestine, where they attach to the intestinal wall with resultant blood loss by the host. Each parasite sucks about 0.1ml of blood per day and thousands may be present in one individual. They are the most common cause of iron-deficiency anaemia. Sexes are separate and both are required for producing the infective fertilized ova and larvae. *Ancylostoma duodenale* has a dorsal hook that gives the parasite its name, hookworm. Both ova and larvae are passed in faeces and occasionally the adult worm may also be seen in stools. One female produces about 5000-10000 eggs/day.

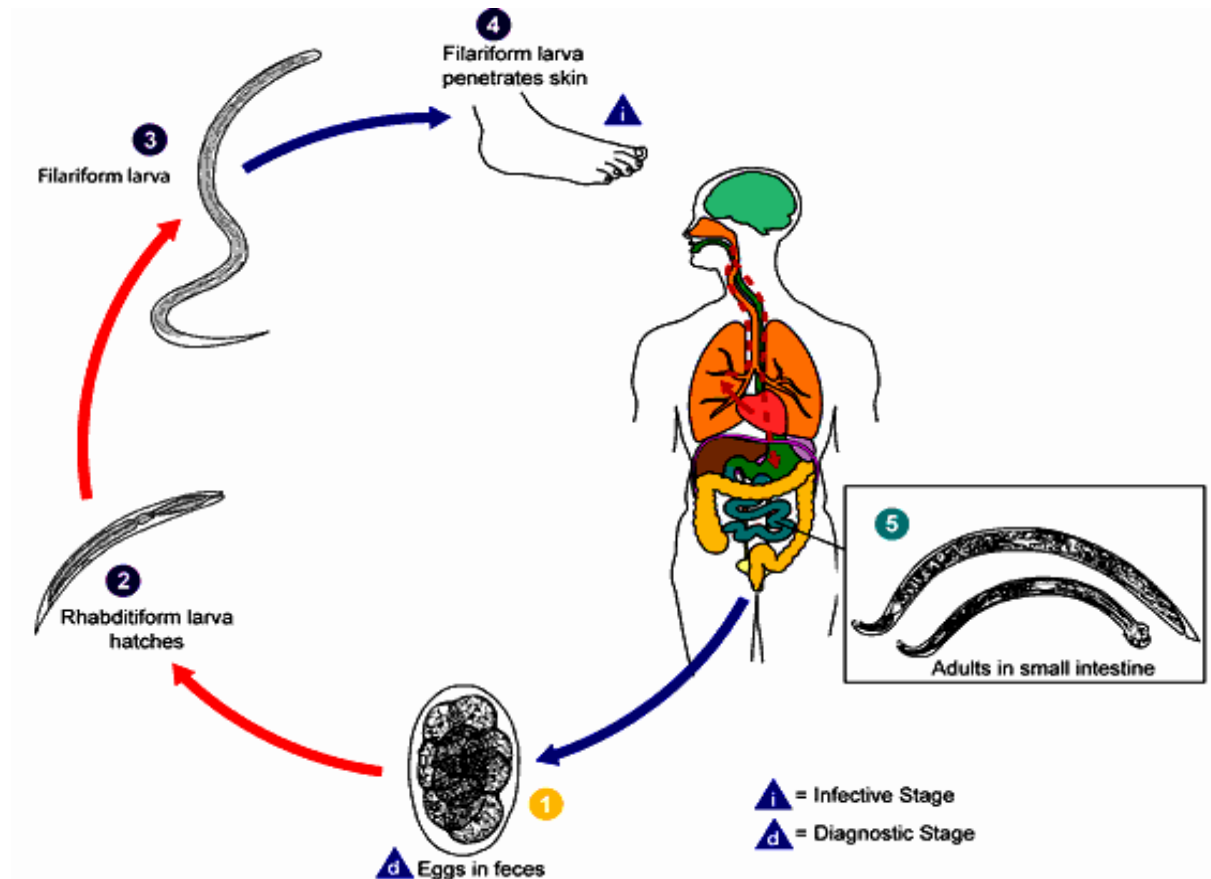


Figure 1.9: Life cycle of *Ancylostoma duodenale*

1.6.1.3.STRONGYLOIDES STERCORALIS

Strongyloides stercoralis causes strongyloidiasis. Important Properties *S. stercoralis* has **two distinct life cycles**, one within the human body and the other free living in the soil. The life cycle in the human body begins with the **penetration of the skin**, usually of the feet, by **infectious (filariform) larvae** and their migration to the lungs. They enter the alveoli, pass up the bronchi and trachea, and then are swallowed. In the small intestine, the larvae molt into adults that enter the mucosa and produce eggs. The eggs usually hatch within the mucosa, forming rhabditiform larvae that are passed in the feces. Some larvae molt to form filarial larvae, which penetrate the intestinal wall directly without leaving the host and migrate to the lungs (**autoinfection**). In immunocompetent patients, this is an infrequent, clinically unimportant event, but in immunocompromised patients, e.g., those who have AIDS or are taking high-dose corticosteroids, or patients who are severely malnourished, autoinfection can lead to **massive reinfection**, with larvae passing to many organs and with severe, some times fatal consequences. If larvae are passed in the feces and enter warm, moist soil, they molt through successive stages to form adult male and female worms. After mating, the entire life cycle of egg, larva, and adult can occur in the soil. After several free-living cycles, filarial larvae are formed. When they contact skin, they penetrate and again initiate the parasitic cycle with in humans

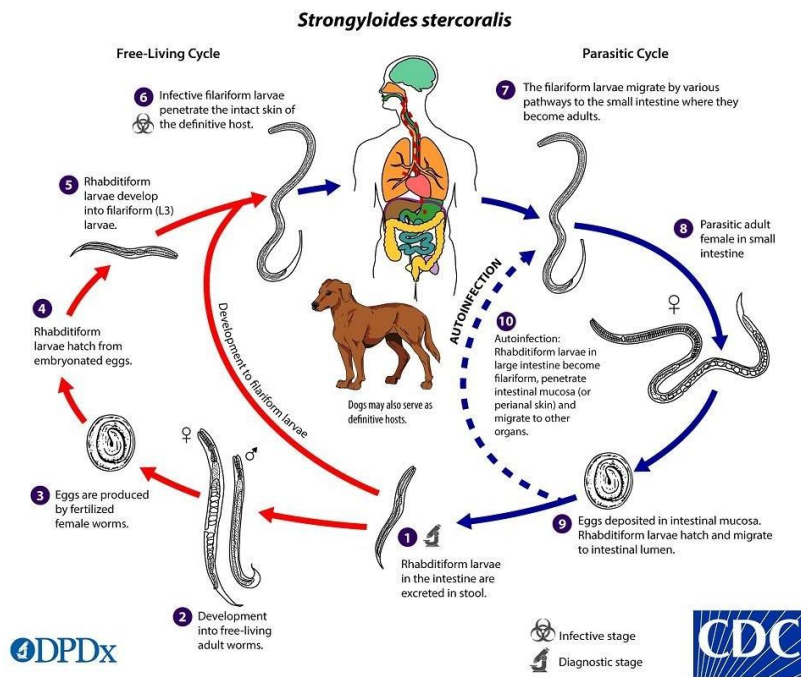


Figure 1.10: Life Cycle of Strongyloides Stercoralis

1.6.1.4 ENTEROBIUS VERMICULARIS

It is one of the commonest infestations caused by a nematode, *Enterobius vermicularis* commonly called pin worm due to perianal itching and it causes severe dermatitis of the perianal area. Eggs are deposited in perianal folds. Self-infection occurs by transferring infective eggs to the mouth with hands that have scratched the perianal area. Person-to person transmission can also occur through handling contaminated clothes or bed linens. Enterobiasis may also be acquired through surfaces in the environment that are contaminated with pin worm eggs (e.g., curtains, carpentering). The larvae hatch in the small intestine and the adults establish themselves in the colon. The time interval from ingestion of infective eggs to production of eggs by the adult females is about one month. The life span of the adult is about two months. Gravid females migrate nocturnally outside the anus and deposit eggs there, while crawling on the skin of the perianal area. The larvae contained inside the eggs develop (the eggs become infective) in 4-6 hours under optimal conditions. Retro infection, or the migration of newly hatched larvae from the anal skin back into the rectum, may occur. Parasites are found in the large intestine and appendix but may also migrate in to the urinary bladder and female genital tract from the perineum. The female is 5-10x0.5mm in size, while the male is only 2-5 mm long.

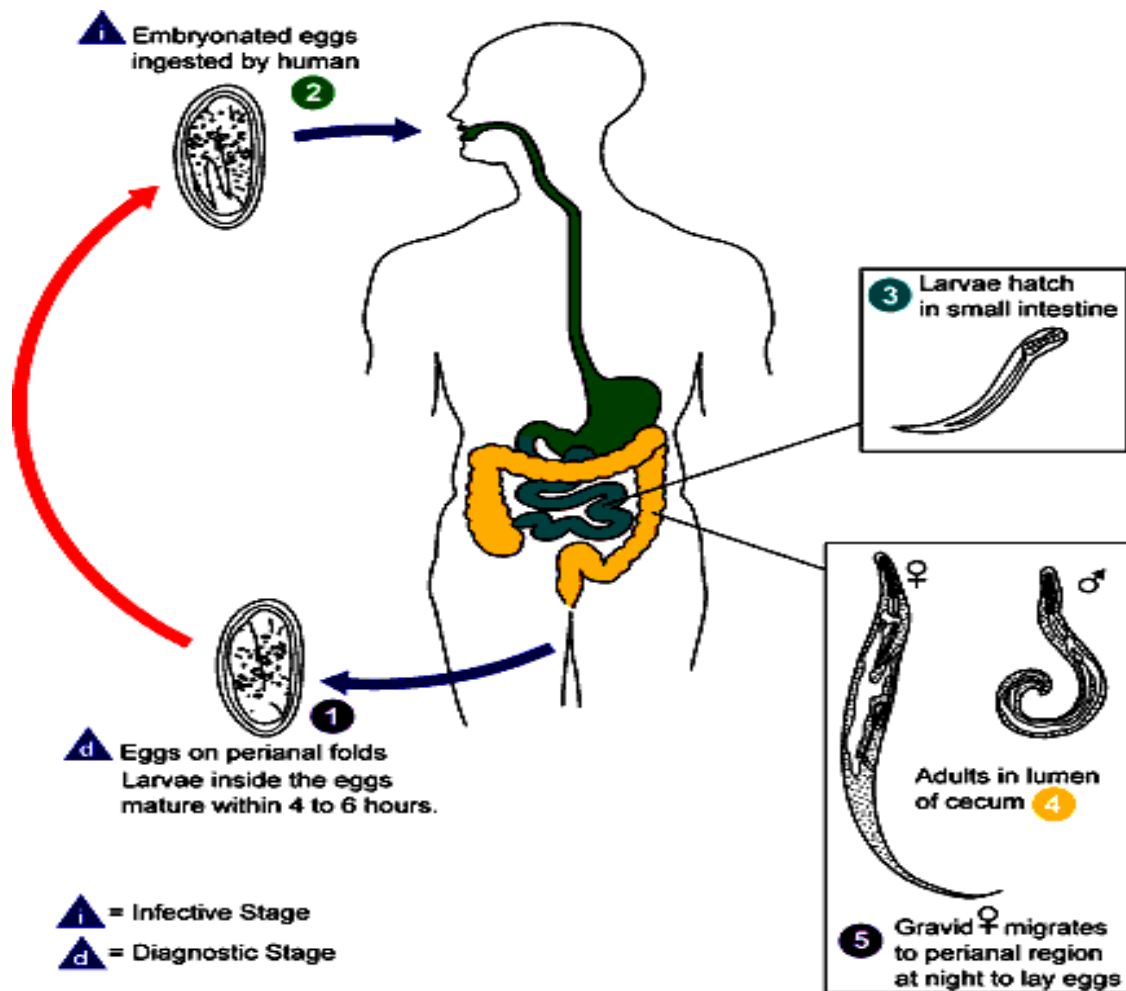


Figure 1.11 : Life cycle of *Enterobius vermicularis*

1.6.1.5 TRICHURIS TRICHURA

It is caused by a nematode; *Trichuris trichiura* commonly called a whip worm. The adult worm is 3-5 cm long with anterior 3/5 slender, is embedded in mucosa and is thread-like. Posterior 2/5 is thick and bulbous and thus resembles a whip. Posterior end of the male is coiled like a watch spring. The parasites may cause ulcerative lesions in the large intestine and appendix. The gravid female lays 3000-7000 eggs daily, which take 3 weeks in soil to mature and become infectious. The unembryonated eggs are passed in stools. In the soil, the eggs develop into a 2-cell stage, an advanced cleavage stage, and then the embryonated eggs become infective in 15 to 30 days. After ingestion (soil-contaminated hands or food), the eggs hatch in the small intestine, and release larvae that mature and establish themselves as adults in the colon.

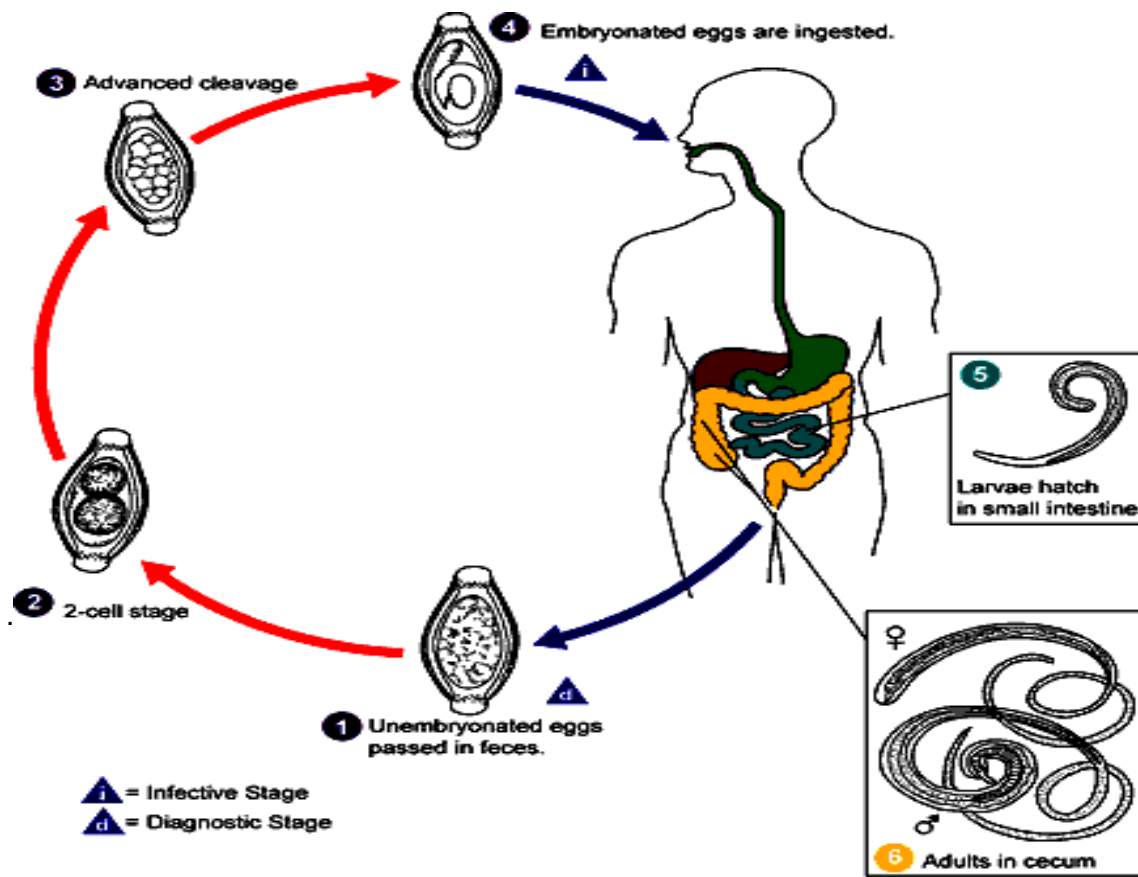


Figure 1.12 : Life Cycle of *Trichuris Trichura*

1.7 CESTODES

1.7.1 HYMENOLEPIS NANA

It is one of the most common cestode, *Hymenolepis nana* or dwarf tape worm. It causes abdominal pain, weight loss, diarrhoea, anorexia, weakness and malabsorption. Hypoproteinaemia with stunted growth may occur but allergic symptoms are more common. An adult worm lives in the small intestine and measures 15-25x0.5 mm. It is segmented and has scolex. A gravid segment becomes four times larger. Eggs are infective when passed in stools and cannot survive more than 10 days in the external environment. When an arthropod intermediate host ingests eggs, they develop into cysticercoids, which can infect humans or rodents upon ingestion and develop into adults in the small intestine. When eggs are ingested (in contaminated food or water or from hands contaminated with faeces), the oncospheres (hexacanth larvae) are released, penetrate the intestinal villus and develop into cysticercoid larvae. Upon

rupture of the villus, the cysticercoids return to the intestinal lumen, evaginate their scoleces, attach to the intestinal mucosa and develop into adults that reside in the ileal portion of the small intestine, produce ungravid proglottids. Eggs are passed in the stool when released

from proglottids through its genital atrium or when proglottids disintegrate in the small intestine.

An alternate mode of infection consists of internal auto-infection, where the eggs release their hexacanth embryo, which penetrates the villus continuing the infective cycle without passing through the external environment. The life span of adult worms is 4 to 6 weeks.

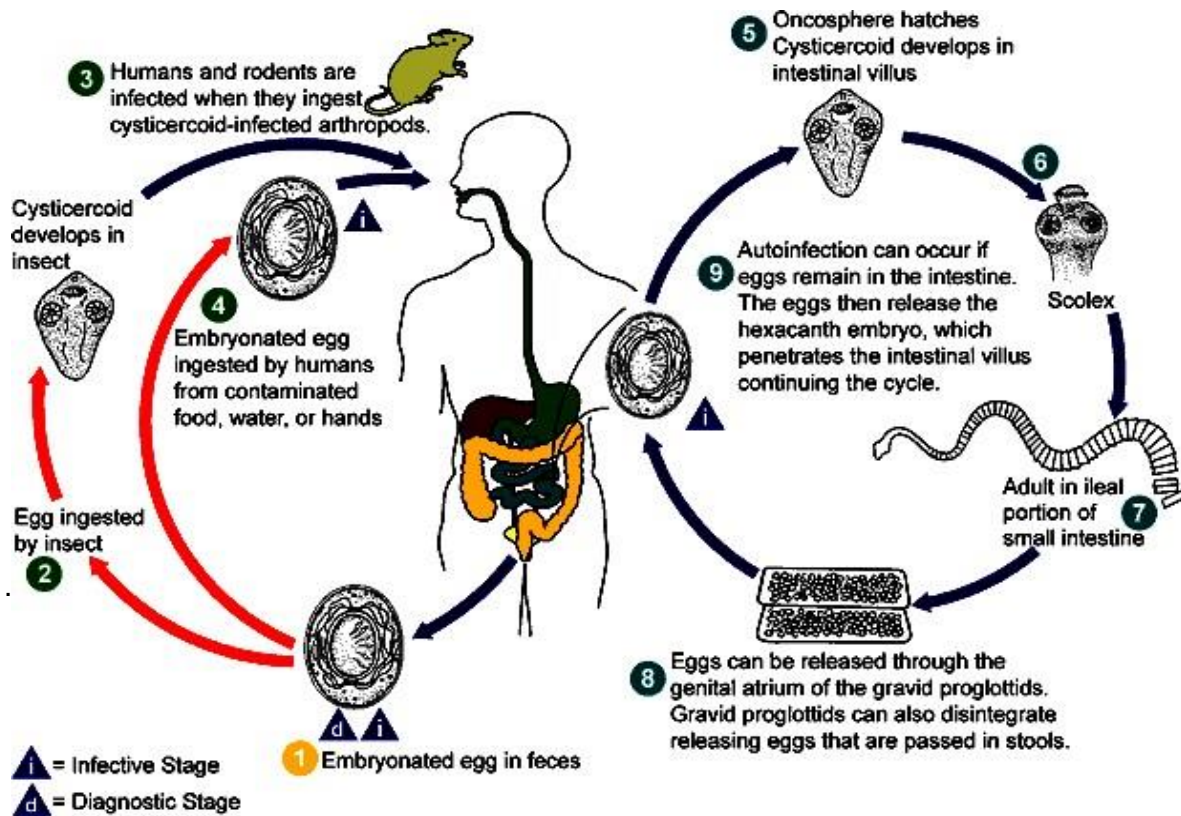


Figure 1.13 : Life cycle of *Hymenolepis nana*

1.7.2 TAENIA; One of the most common parasitic infections is caused by two cestodes, *Taenia saginata* and *Taenia solium*. Their type depends upon religious habits. In non-pork eating persons, *Taenia solium* does not occur, as a pig is the intermediate host for this. On the other hand, those who do not eat beef (Hindus) do not have *Taenia saginata* as the intermediate host is cattle. The parasite is hermaphrodite. Humans are the only definitive hosts for *Taenia saginata* and *Taenia solium*. Eggs or gravid proglottids are passed in faeces; the eggs can survive for days to months in the environment. Cattle (*T. saginata*) and pigs (*T. solium*) become infected by ingesting vegetation contaminated with eggs or gravid proglottids. In the animal's intestine, the oncospheres hatch, invade the intestinal wall, and migrate to the striated

muscles, where they develop into cysticerci. *Acysticercus* can survive for several years in the animal.

Humans become infected by ingesting raw or undercooked infected meat. In the human intestine, the cysticercus develops over 2 months into an adult tapeworm, which can survive for years. The adult tapeworms attach to the small intestine by their scolex and reside in the small intestine. Length of adult worms is usually 5 m or less for *T. saginata* and 2-7 m for *T. solium*. The adults produce proglottids, which mature, become gravid, detach from the tapeworm, and migrate to the anus or are passed in the stool. *T. saginata* adults usually have 1,000 to 2,000 proglottids, while *T. solium* adults have an average of 1,000 proglottids. The eggs are released after the proglottids are passed in faeces.

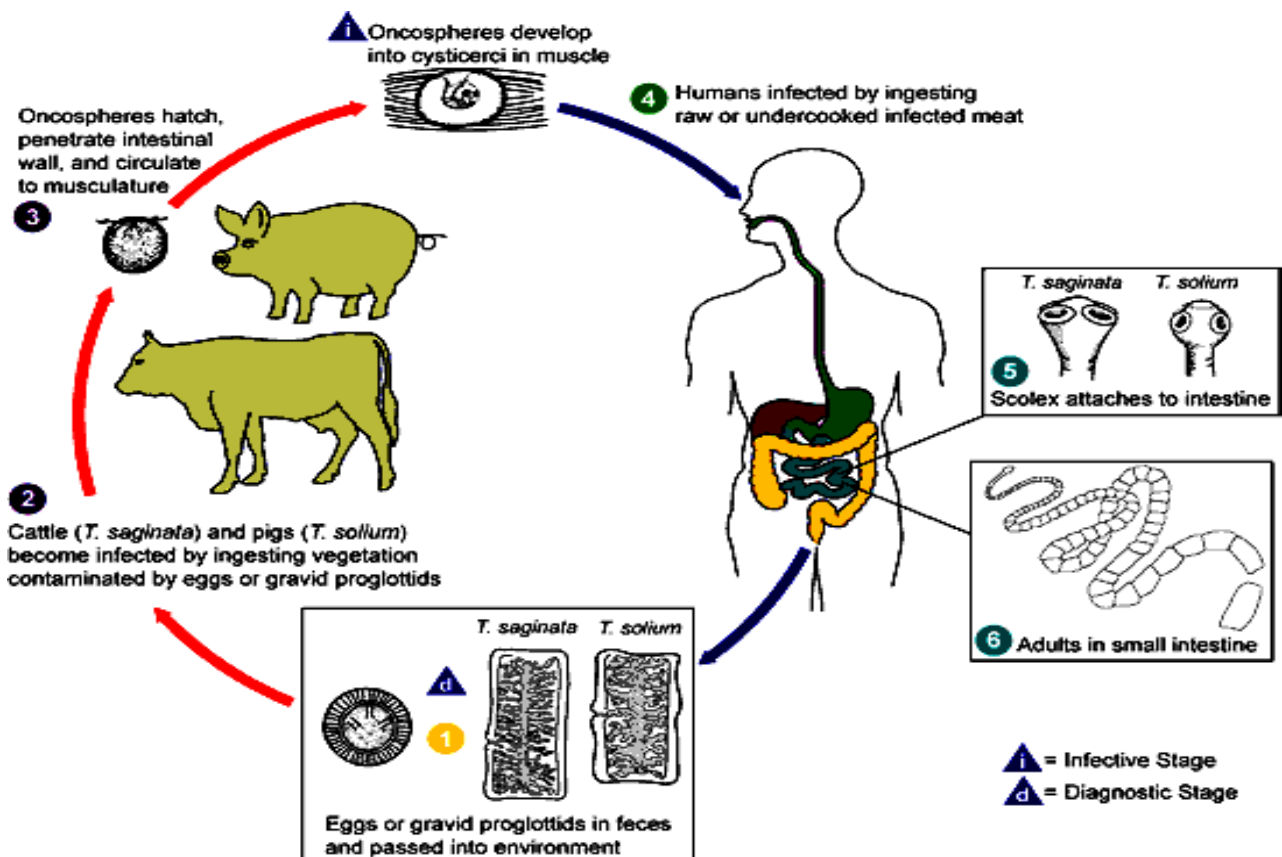


Figure 1. 14 : Life cycle of Taenia

1.7.3 ECHINOCOCCUS;

It is caused by infestation with cysticerciofaestode *Echinococcus granulosus*. Man is neither the definitive nor the intermediate host for this parasite but is infected accidentally. The adult *Echinococcus granulosus* (3-6mm) resides in the small bowel of the definitive

hosts, (dogs or other canines). Gravid proglottids release eggs that are passed in the faeces. After ingestion by a suitable intermediate host (sheep, goat, swine, cattle, horses, camel), the egg hatches in the small bowel and releases an oncosphere that penetrates the intestinal wall and migrates through the circulatory system into various organs, especially the liver and lungs. In these organs, the oncosphere develops into a cyst that enlarges gradually, producing protoscolices and daughter cysts that fill the cyst interior. Ingesting the cyst-containing organs of the infected intermediate host infects the definitive host. After ingestion, the protoscolices evert, attach to the intestinal mucosa and develop into adult stages in 32-80 days. Humans become infected by ingesting eggs, with resulting release of oncospheres in the intestine and the development of cysts in various organs.

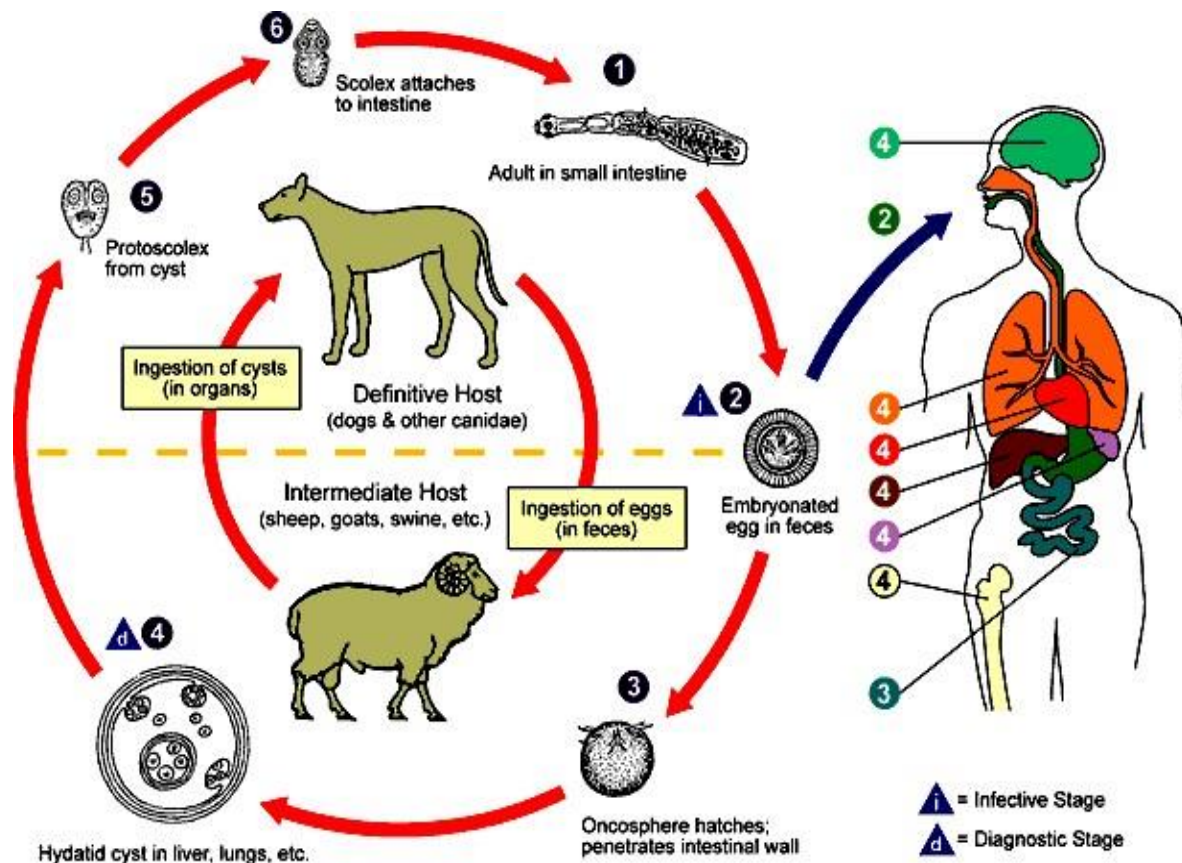


Figure 1.15; Life cycle of Echinococcus

1.8 TREMATODES

1.8.1 SCHISTOSOMES

These cause schistosomiasis. *Schistosoma mansoni* and *Schistosoma japonicum* affect the gastrointestinal tract, whereas *Schistosoma haematobium* affects the urinary tract. Important Properties In contrast to the other trematodes, which are hermaphrodites, adults schistosomes exist as **separate sexes** but live attached to each other. The female resides in a groove in the male, the gynecophoric canal ("schist"), where he continuously fertilizes her eggs. The three species can be distinguished by the appearance of their eggs in the microscope: *S. mansoni* eggs have a **prominent lateral spine**, whereas *S. japonicum* eggs have a very small lateral spine and *S. haematobium* eggs have a terminal spine. *S. mansoni* and *S. japonicum* adults live in the **mesenteric veins**, whereas *S. haematobium* lives in the veins draining the urinary bladder. Schistosomes are therefore known as **blood flukes**.

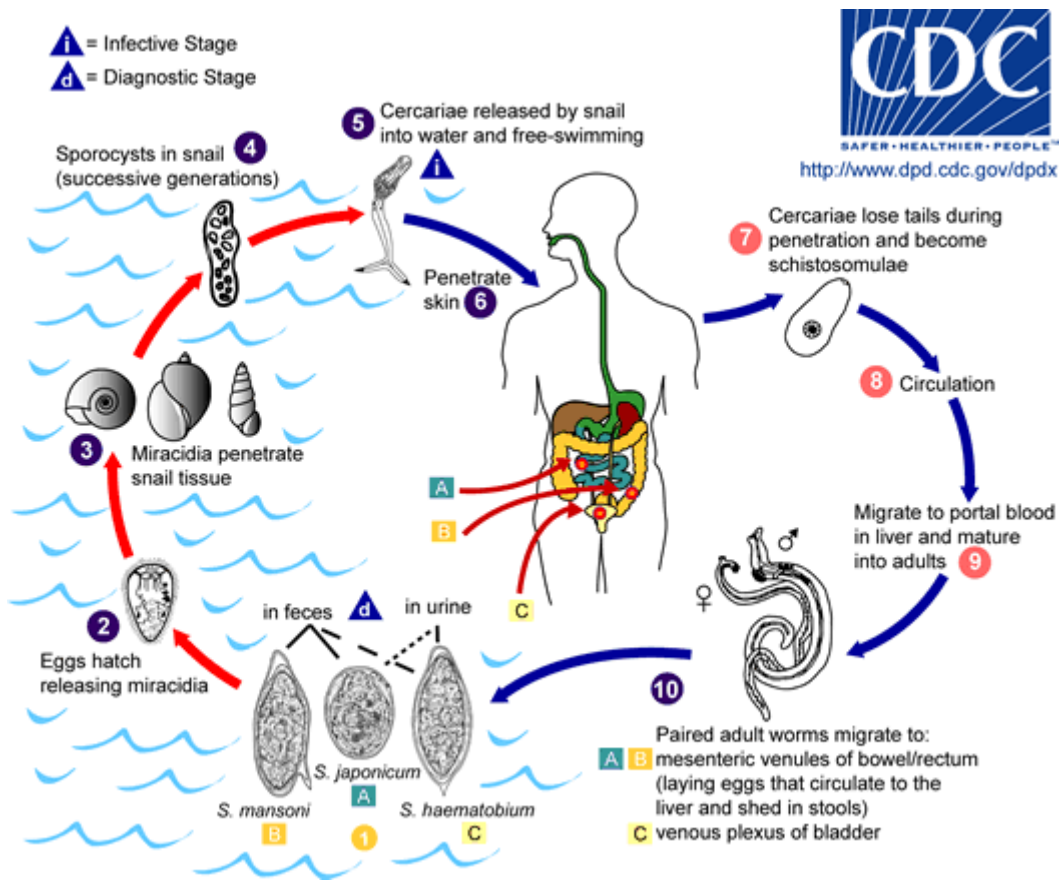


Figure 1. 16 :Life cycle of Schistosomes

2.PRACTICAL PARASITOLOGY

2.1.Introduction,generalrequirementforparasitologylab;

Chemicals:

1. Neutral red.
2. Iodine.
3. Potassium iodide.
4. Enthyl alcohol.

Specimens slides:

1. E.histolytica cyst.
2. E.coli cyst.
3. Giardia cyst.
4. Taenea saginata ova.
5. H.nana ova
6. Ancylostoma doudenale egg.
7. Trichuris trichura egg.
8. Ascaris lumbricoides egg.
9. S.mansoni egg.
- 10.S.japanicum egg.
- 11.S.haematobium egg.

Equipments:

1. Microscope.
2. Over head projector.
3. Slide projector.

Stains:

1. Field stain powder A.

2. Field Stain Powder B.
3. Lactophenol cotton blue.

Culture Medium:

1. Sabouraud's medium
2. N.N.N. Medium

Glass wares:

1. Glass slides
2. Cover slips.
3. Test tubes, beakers, funnels, flasks. etc.
4. Museum jars.
5. Reagent bottles.
6. Petri dishes.
7. Dropping bottles.
8. Graduated cylinders.
9. Ether.
10. Sodium chloride.
11. Sodium hydroxide.
12. Zinc sulphate.

2.2 Correct collection and transport of specimens;

The following are important:

- Use specimen containers that are leak-proof, clean, dry, and free from traces of antiseptics and disinfectants.
- If an anticoagulated blood specimen is required, use a suitable anticoagulant, e.g. sodium citrate. **Checking the specimen and request form** As well as checking that the specimen is clearly labelled and accompanied by the correct request form it is important to check that the container is not leaking, that the specimen is suitable for the test being requested and has been delivered to the laboratory within the time specified for the particular investigation. Appropriate actions should be taken if a test result is required urgently or there are clear problems in identification or collection.

2.3 Microscope introduction different parts and their functions

Microscope The light microscope is one of the most basic and essential equipment used in any laboratory. It is used for visualising very small objects like cells, bacteria, parasites, their ova/cysts and crystals etc., that are otherwise not visible to the naked eye. It comprises a series of lenses, which magnify an illuminated small object several times to make it recognizable with the naked eye. Such a microscope is called compound light microscope.

Introduction to the microscope's parts It has three basic components: Foot piece, Body, Eyepiece

Foot piece; It forms the base of the microscope and provides stability to the body and eyepieces.

Body; The body of the microscope is mounted on the foot piece. It holds a sub-stage condenser, a stage and a nose piece. Sub-stage condenser is composed of a system of lenses and diaphragm. The intensity of light and the size of field illuminated by it are controlled by moving the condenser up or down and adjusting the aperture of the diaphragm. The stage is a device for holding the objects for examination. It has a hole in the middle over which the object is placed. Exactly underneath the hole is the sub-stage condenser. Nose piece is the part of the body, which holds the objectives. An objective comprises a system of lenses, which magnify the images several times. Each objective is marked with a coloured line, which indicates its magnification.

Following are the common objectives installed in an ordinary light microscope:

- Scanner: Red line, x4 magnification

- Low power: Yellow line, x10 magnification
- Dry high power: Blue line, x40 magnification
- Oil immersion: Whiteline, x100 magnification

Eyepiece; The observer, to look at the object under examination uses this part of the microscope.

Correct use of microscope

1. The microscope should be placed on a level bench, which should be free of vibrations.
2. The power socket, to which the microscope is plugged, should not be loose and sparking.
3. The height of the microscope or chair should be adjusted in such a way that the eyes of the user are right on the eyepieces while maintaining the normal curvatures of the backbone.
4. The microscope should then be adjusted for the optimum resolution and contrast to ensure maximum definition of specimen details. It can be done by using **Köhler technique**.

Köhler technique; Turn on the microscope at very low illumination and give 1-2 min to the filament of the bulb to warm. Then adjust the light intensity.

- Place the specimen on the stage, switch to x10 objective and focus.
- Close the iris diaphragm of the sub-stage condenser and raise the sub-stage condenser to the top "stop".
- Close the field iris diaphragm of the light assembly in the body.
- Move the sub-stage condenser down until the image of the field iris diaphragm is in sharp focus.
- Now re-focus the specimen.
- Centre field diaphragm image by using adjustment screws in the condenser.
- Enlarge field diaphragm image until it is just out of the field of view and the entire area under observation is illuminated.
- Remove one eyepiece and look down the tube.
- Adjust the aperture of diaphragm while observing the circular beam of light so the light beam fills 75% of the field.
- Replace the eyepiece. Adjust the diopter setting and inter-pupillary distance. Place your forearms flat on the surface of the table while using microscope.

2.4 Dark-Field Microscope

It is also called a Dark-Field Illumination Microscope. There are certain microorganisms which are very difficult to stain, e.g. spirochetes. To visualize them under a microscope, a dark field illumination is used. The microorganisms appear bright against a dark background. It is similar to dust particles seen in a beam of light in a dark room from a ventilator. In this microscope, a special condenser with a central black area is placed just behind the objective. A dark-ground, phase-contrast microscope can be made from an ordinary microscope. For this, cut out a thick talc sheet of the size of a filter. Colour the central two thirds with black ink. Place it along the filter in the holder below the condenser.

Care of microscope; Microscope is very delicate equipment. Proper care not only enhances precision but also increases its life. Following points are helpful in the care of microscope: 1. Protect from heat. 2. Clean it daily. When not in use, keep it covered with a plastic cover or a piece of cloth but not with mesh gauze. 3. Clean the objectives with soft tissue paper soaked in xylol and then with lint free cloth. Be careful as excess of xylol may dissolve the cement with which lens is fixed in the objective and may trickle into it. Do not clean with alcohol. 4. Remove the dust from the eyepieces with the help of soft tissue paper. 5. Always use soft tissue paper or lint free cloth for cleaning lenses and never rub but wipe gently. This protects lenses from scratches. 6. Switch off the power at the end of microscopy session.

2.5 EXAMINATION OF STOOL:

2.5.1 Collection of Faeces; Faeces can be collected in a bed-pan and care should be taken to prevent any mixing with urine. From the bed-pan, a suitable portion is transferred to an appropriate container such as a waxed cardboard box, empty tin with a lid, a light plastic box or to a specially-designed glass jar for faeces collection with a spoon attached to the stopper.

The specimen should at least be 4ml (4cm³) in quantity. The collection of a sufficient quantity is necessary in order to permit the detection of parasites in low concentration and to prevent the rapid drying of the faeces. Care should be taken that the actual abnormal part (mucus and blood) is collected and sent to the laboratory immediately, preferably within one hour. It is important, especially when the vegetative form of amoebae is to be seen. If a number of specimens are received at the same time, liquid faeces and those containing mucus or blood are examined first.

2.5.2 PHYSICAL EXAMINATION

Colour:

The normal colour of faeces is due to the presence of stercobilinogen produced by bacteria through the decomposition of bilirubin. On exposure to air it is converted to brown stercobilin. As breast-fed infants have no bacteria in their intestines, stercobilinogen is not produced and the colour of these faeces remains yellow. In diarrhea the movement of the intestine is so rapid that the bacteria do not have time to decompose the bilirubin and green faeces may be passed. The colour of faeces depends upon various factors. The concentration of bile pigments gives a greenish colour to faeces particularly in diarrhea of infants (starvation faeces). On the other hand, obstruction to the flow of bile into the intestine, gives rise to pale, tan or clay-

coloured faeces. Chlorophyll-rich foods produce green faeces. Bleeding into the upper gut gives rise to black faeces due to altered blood. If bleeding is in the lower part of the intestine, then the colour of the faeces is red. In addition, oral iron ingestion results in black faeces. Various drugs will change the colour of the faeces accordingly.

Odour;

A normal odour is because of indole and skatole. It varies with pH and is dependent on bacterial fermentation and putrefaction. Faeces are particularly offensive in amoebic dysentery.

Consistency; Normally, faeces are formed or semi-formed. The faeces can be liquid, semi-liquid, solid, semi-solid or foamy.

Solid or hard faeces are passed in constipation and loose

faeces in diarrhoea. Diarrhoeal faeces mixed with mucus and blood is seen in amoebic dysentery, carcinoma of the large bowel and typhoid. Loose faeces mixed with pus and mucus occur in bacillary dysentery, regional enteritis and ulcerative colitis. Paste-like and frothy, loose faeces are seen in sprue, pancreatic insufficiency and other mal-absorption syndromes. Watery faeces (rice-water faeces) are seen in cholera.

Parasites; Intact parasites like *Ascaris lumbricoides* and *Enterobius vermicularis* or segments of *Taenia saginata* may be seen with the naked eye. Even smaller worms and scoleces can be seen when faeces are liquefied with water and strained through a wide-mesh sieve and restrained through a medium-mesh sieve.

Reaction of pH; The normal pH of faeces is either neutral or weakly alkaline. In general, on mixed or meat diets, the reaction tends to be alkaline and in a predominantly carbohydrate or fat-rich diet, acidic. The breakdown of carbohydrates changes the pH to acid (as in amoebic dysentery) and the breakdown of proteins changes it to alkaline (as in bacillary dysentery). In cases of lactose intolerance in infants (because of the excessive fermentation of lactose) the faeces tend to be highly acidic.

2.5.3 MICROSCOPIC EXAMINATION

2.5.3.1 DIRECT WET PREPARATION

A small portion of freshly passed faeces is examined by making a thin suspension in a drop of normal saline and a drop of Lugol's iodine on a glass slide. This is covered with a glass cover. The faeces should be selected both from the exterior as well as the central portion of the faecal mass. Faecal matter selected for examination should contain blood and mucus, in the case of blood-stained faeces. Microscopically, one will see food residues (digested and undigested muscle fibres, fat globules and fatty acid crystals, starch granules and cellulose residues), cells

(RBCs, WBCs and epithelial), crystals (triple phosphate, calcium oxalate, cholesterol and Charcot Leyden crystals), ova (*Ascarislumbricoides*, *Enterobiusvermicularis*, *Ankylostomadeudenale* etc.), parasites or their cysts and mucus and foreign bodies (hair, wool, etc.). This method also demonstrates motile amoebae, which contain ingested RBC and show purposeful, unidirectional movement by throwing out pseudopodia. Ova and cysts can be seen by moving the objective of the microscope up and down and keeping the light subdued. Addition of a drop of Lugol's iodine from the edge of the cover slip provides a good contrast and stains some inclusions of protozoan cysts like glycogen mass. Normal structures should not be confused with abnormal findings like ova and cysts. These include hair, vegetable fibres, starch cells, yeasts and spores, muscle fibres, fat globules and pollen grains.

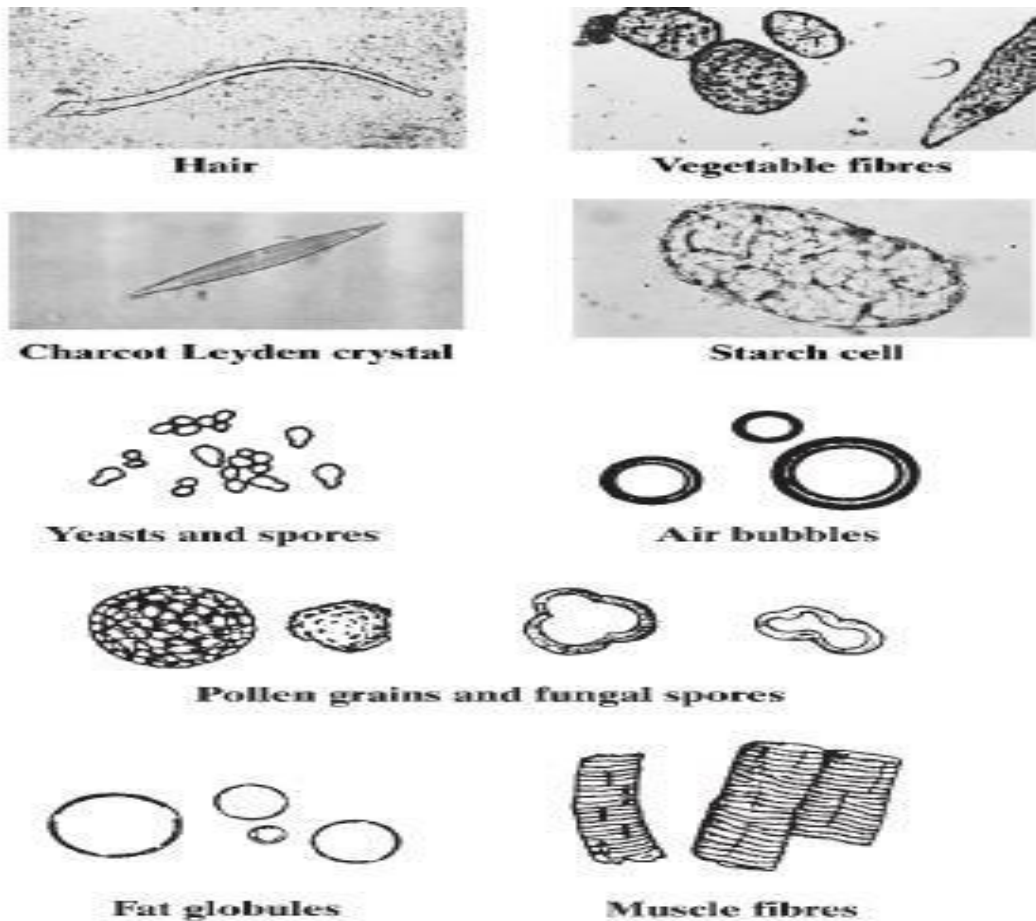


Plate 5.3 Structures found in faeces that required differentiation from parasites.

Figure 2.1 Structures Found in Stool

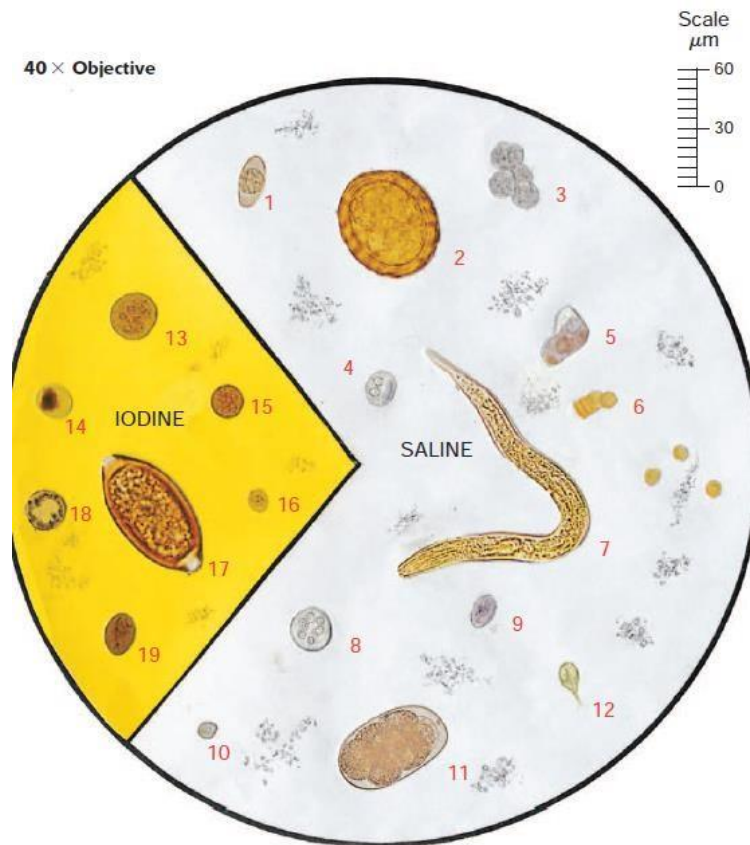


Figure 2.2 Relative sizes of trophozoites and cysts of intestinal protozoa, common nematode eggs and larva of *Strongyloides* as seen in microscope field using the 40 X objective (with 10 X eyepieces).

1. *I. belli* cyst, 2. *A. lumbricoides* egg, 3. Leucocytes, 4. *E. histolytica/E. dispar* cyst, 5. *E. histolytica* trophozoite (motile), 6. Red cells, 7. *S. stercoralis* larva (motile), 8. *E. coli* cyst (mature), 9. *G. lamblia* cyst, 10. *C. mesnili* cyst, 11. Hook worm egg, 12. *G. lamblia* trophozoite (motile).

Iodine preparation: 13. *E. coli* cyst, 14. *I. buetschlii* cyst, 15. *E. histolytica/E. dispar* cyst, 16. *V. nanacyst*, 17. *T. trichiura* egg, 18. *Blastocystis hominis*, 19. *G. lamblia* cyst.

Note: Trophozoites, cysts and oocysts found in faeces are described in subunit 5.4.

2.5.3.2 CONCENTRATION TECHNIQUES

These methods are used when ova or parasites are not found in direct saline preparation but their presence is highly suspected or symptoms persist. Ova of certain parasites are scanty e.g., *Schistosoma*, *Taenia* etc. so may require concentration methods for their demonstration. These methods are:

A. Formalin Ether Sedimentation

Concentration techniques using formalin not only kill the parasites but also fix them preserving their morphology, therefore, these are considered the best.

Procedure: Emulsify about 2 ml of faeces in 3 ml of saline in a 15 ml conical centrifuge tube; add saline to 15 ml mark. Centrifuge at 1500 rpm for one min. Decant the supernatant and re-suspend the deposit in another 15 ml of saline. Repeat until clean sediment remains. Mix with 10 ml 10% formalin and allow to stand for 5 min. Add 3 ml ether, stopper the tube and shake vigorously. Remove the stopper and centrifuge at 1500 RPM for 2 min. The four layers from the bottom upwards will be: sediment containing parasites, formalin, faecal debris and, the uppermost layer, ether. Free the faecal debris from the walls and remove the top three layers. Resuspend the deposit, prepare the saline and iodine wet films and examine under the microscope.

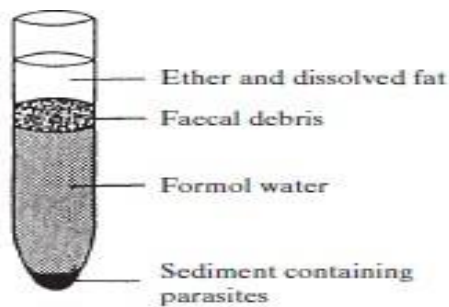


Fig. 5.1 Formal ether sedimentation concentration technique, after centrifugation.

B. Sodium Chloride Floatation Technique; The faeces are mixed with a saturated solution of sodium chloride. The eggs are lighter in weight, so these float to the surface.

Procedure:

Place about 2 ml of faeces in an empty clean small bottle or tube. Quarter-fill the bottle with saturated solution of sodium chloride (NaCl). Mix faeces with the help of an applicator and fill the bottle to the top with NaCl. Place a cover slip over

the mouth of the bottles so that it touches the liquid without having air bubbles in between. Remove the cover slip; a drop of liquid should remain on it. Place the cover slip on a slide and examine under the microscope.

Zinc Sulphate Floatation Procedure

Parasitic cysts and some Helminth eggs will rise to the surface of a liquid having high specific gravity (zinc sulphate, specific gravity 1.180), due to their buoyant properties in that solution. The solution of zinc sulphate can be prepared by adding 330g of dry crystals of zinc sulphate to 670ml distilled water.

Procedure: Prepare a faecal suspension of $\frac{1}{4}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ teaspoon in 10-15ml of water. Filter this material through two layers of gauze into a small tube. Fill the tube with tap water to within 2-3mm of the top and centrifuge for 1 min at 500Xg. Decant the supernatant fluid, fill the tube with water, and re-suspend the sediment by stirring with an applicator stick. Centrifuge for 1 min. at 500xg. Decant the water, add 2-3 ml zinc sulphate solution, re-suspend the sediment, and fill the tube with zinc sulphate solution to within 0.5 cm of the top. Centrifuge for 1-2 min at 500xg, allow the tube to come to a stop without interference or vibration. Without removing the tube from the centrifuge, touch the surface of the film of suspension with a wire loop, parallel to the surface. Add the material in the loop to a slide containing a drop of dilute iodine or saline. (The slide should be examined as soon as possible, because high specific gravity will distort the ova). The morphology of various protozoa, cysts and ova found in stools is summarised below.

1) EXAMINATION OF OVA AND CYSTS IN STOOL;

A) PROTOZOA

Entamoeba histolytica; The following characteristics are valuable in the identification of *E. histolytica* in stool sample;

Unstained Trophozoites: Progressive motility, hyaline pseudopodia, no ingested bacteria and invisible nucleus are suggestive. The ingestion of red cells is diagnostic.

Stained Trophozoites: Clear differentiation of ectoplasm and endoplasm, no ingested bacteria are suggestive, whereas fine, uniform granules of peripheral chromatin and small central karyosome in the nucleus, ingestion of red cells and an average size of more than 12µm is diagnostic.

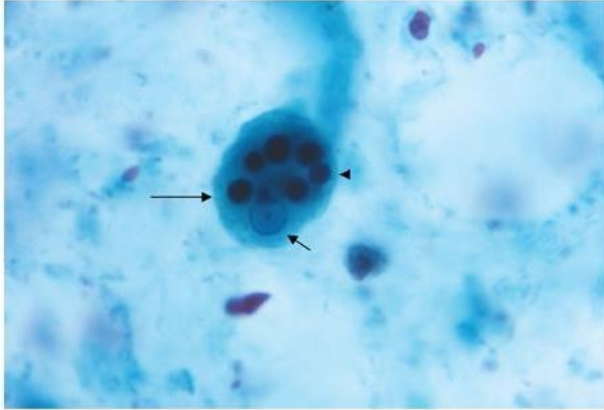


Figure 2.3 Entamoeba histolytica Cyst

Unstained Cysts: Four nuclei and rod-like chromatid bodies are suggestive.

Stained Cysts: A maximum of four nuclei having both karyosome and peripheral chromatin and a diameter of more than $10\mu\text{m}$ is suggestive, whereas a typical nuclear structure, chromatid bars with rounded or square ends and diameter greater than $10\mu\text{m}$ is diagnostic.

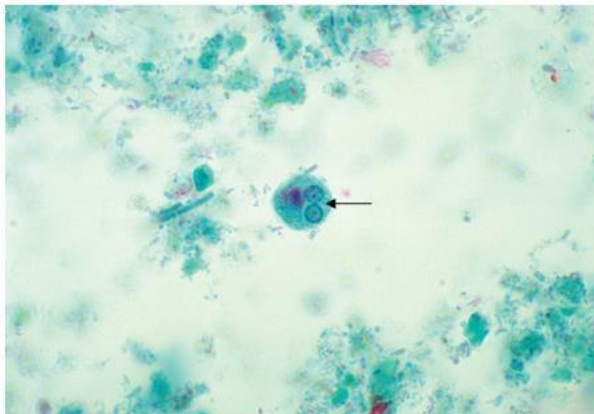


Figure 2.4 Giardia lamblia vegetative Form

Giardia lamblia

The vegetative form is kite or pear shaped (front view) or spoon-shaped (side view), flagellated, motile organism (classically like a falling leaf). They are $10-18\mu\text{m}$ in size. There are two nuclei and four pairs of flagella. It shows spinning or rapid jerky movements. Two large oval nuclei are faintly visible. Cysts are small ($8-12\mu\text{m}$), oval and refractile, containing 2-4 nuclei usually at one

end with a small, faintly-coloured central karyosome. Two curved longitudinal axostyles are seen in the centre. The cytoplasm is shrunk away from the wall. The shell is double-walled and thick. The following characteristics are important for the identification of *Giardia lamblia* trophozoites and cysts:

Unstained trophozoites: Progressive, **falling leaf** motility; pear shaped body with attenuated posterior end is suggestive.

Stained trophozoites: the nuclei is in the area of a sucking disc: two median bodies, posterior to the sucking disc and a typical arrangement of axonemes are diagnostic.

Unstained cysts: Ovoid shape of the body and numerous refractile threads in the cytoplasm are suggestive.

Stained cysts: Four nuclei, four median bodies and a jumble of axonemes are diagnostic.

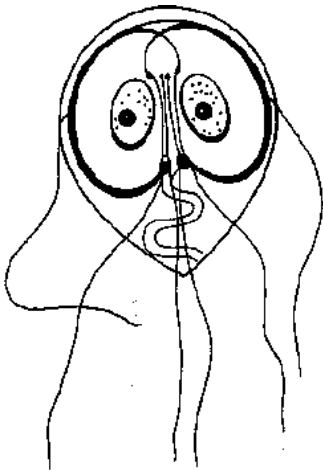


Figure 2.5 Trichomonas Vaginalis



Figure 2.6 Trichomonas Vaginalis

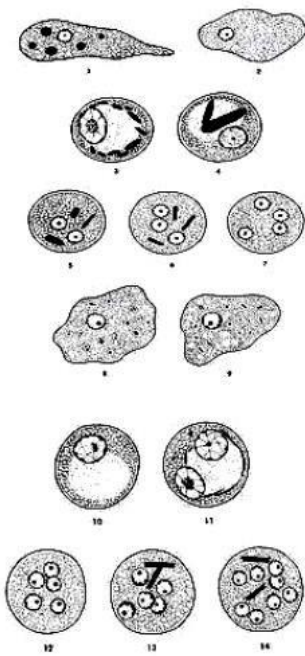


Figure 2.7: Protozoa in faeces.

1,2,Trophozoites of Entamoeba histolytica. 3,4,early cysts of Entamoeba histolytica. 5-7,Cysts of Entamoeba histolytica. 8,9,Trophozoites of Entamoeba coli. 10,11, Early cysts of Entamoeba coli. 12-14, Cysts of Entamoeba coli.

TRICHOMONAS; Diagnosis is by demonstration of trichomonas most commonly in wet-film preparation, although they may readily be recognised in Papanicolaou smears. The most common specimen is vaginal discharge but examination of urethral discharge in the female may yield positive results when no organism is found in the vaginal swab. Several specimens may need to be examined. It is absolutely necessary that the specimen is NOT contaminated with faecal material since the morphology of *T. hominis* is similar to this organism.

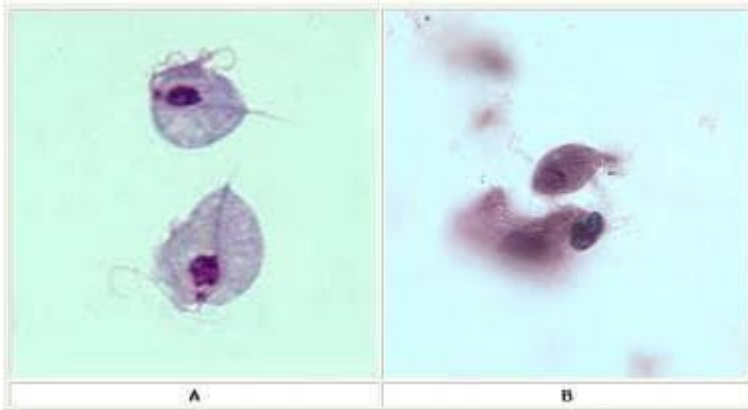


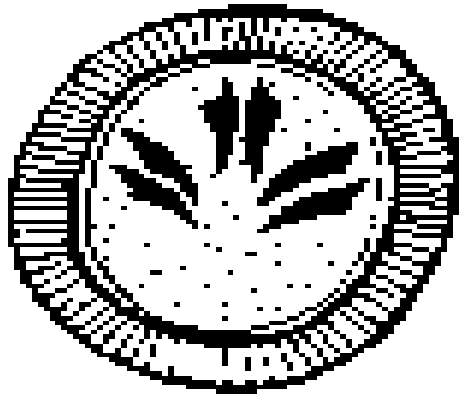
Figure 2.8 Trichomonas Vaginalis

B) HELMINTHS:

1) CESTODES;

Taenia saginata, Taenia solium, Echinococcus;

The eggs of these tapeworms are similar. Eggs are spheroid, yellow to brown in colour and 30-40 µm in diameter (embryophore). The thick, radially-striated shell is dark yellowish brown in colour, covering a light yellowish grey material. Inside is a narrow clear space, lined by a thin membrane in which lies a granular mass, the hexacanth embryo, with 3 pairs of refractile, lancet-shaped hooklets (oncosphere).



Hymenolepis nana

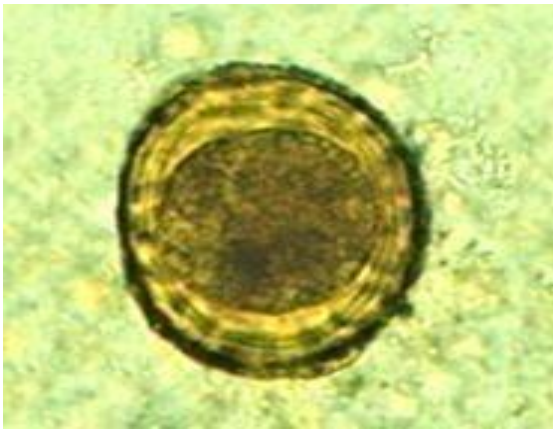
Ovum is nearly spherical, 45µm in diameter. It has two distinct walls; external membrane is thin and internal membrane is often thicker at poles with 4-8 hairlike filaments coming out from both poles. Some granules occupy the space between the two membranes. It contains a rounded mass of gelatinous substance with three pairs of refractile hooklets arranged in a fan shape and often some well-defined granules in the centre (Hexacanth embryo).



2) NEMATHELMINTHS

Ascaris lumbricoides

Fertilized ova with double shell: They are yellow-brown with a thick shell having an uneven rough, brown, albuminous outer coat and a thick, smooth, transparent inner shell. These measure $50 \times 70 \mu\text{m}$ and contain unsegmented fertilized ovum as a single, round, granular, central mass with clear crescentic spaces at either pole.



Enterobius vermicularis

Ovum is asymmetrically ovoid with one side flattened. The size is $20 \times 50 \mu\text{m}$. It is transparent and colourless. There is a thin, double-line shell, with a coiled larva inside or a small, granular mass in the shape of an irregular oval figure.



Strongyloides stercoralis

Rhabditiform larvae are demonstrated by concentration technique. Larva is 200-300µm and is un-sheathed. The digestive tube has a swelling at one end (oesophagus) and another (anal pore) at the other end. The tail is moderately tapered. The genital primordium is rounded, clear space near the middle. The eggs are usually not found in faeces because they hatch before evacuation, but liquid faeces may contain them. They are very similar to that of *Ankylostomaeudenale* but are slightly smaller (50 µm).

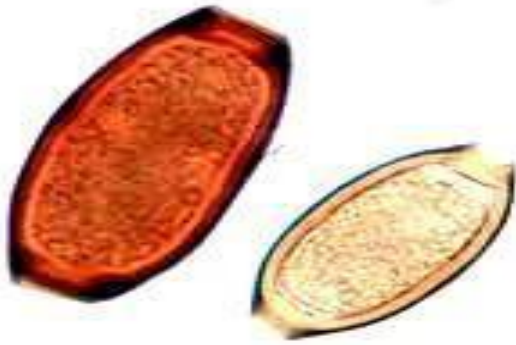


Rhabditiform larva in stool

Trichuris trichiura

Ova are characteristically barrel-shaped and measure 50 µm in length. These are rounded and transparent with plugs at both ends. These have a fairly thick, smooth shell with two layers.

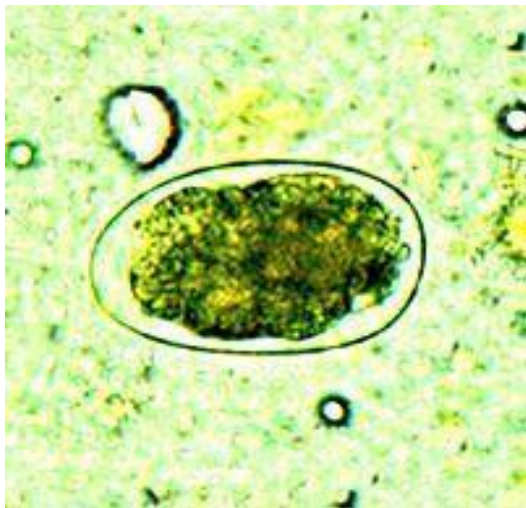
The shell is orange in colour while the contents are yellow. They contain a uniform, granular mass (un-segmented ovum).



Ancylostomadeudendale(Hookworm)

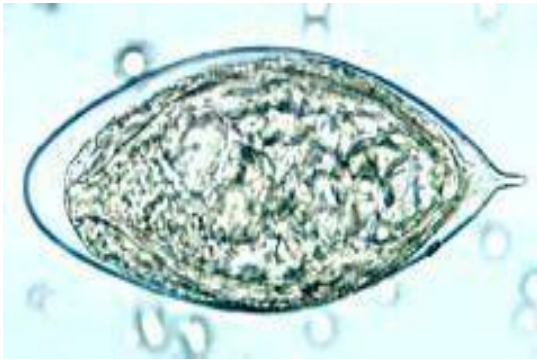
Ovum is oval with rounded slightly flattened poles, colourless with very thin shell that appears as black line. It measures $40 \times 60 \mu\text{m}$ in size. It contains a segmented embryo of 4 to 16 cells. Its stage that is pale grey but turns dark brown with iodine solution. The contents vary according to

the degree of maturity. Fresh faeces have grey granular, clear cell. Few hours' old faeces will have a uniform mass of many small grey granular cells. 12-48 hours' old faeces will have small larvae in place of cells.



TREMATODESSchistosomahaematobium

Ova are usually found in urine but sometimes in faeces also. They measure $50 \times 150 \mu\text{m}$, oval, elongated and dilated in the middle. The ovum is grey or pale yellow in colour with a smooth, very thin shell. It has a short terminal spine and contains fully developed ciliated embryo (miracidium) surrounded by a membrane.



Schistosomamansoni

Ova are pale yellow, oval with a lateral (near the round pole), large, triangular spine.

The egg measures 50x150µm and it has a very thin, smooth shell. It contains a fully

Developed ciliated embryo (miracidium), surrounded by a membrane. The calcified egg is usually smaller and black, with a less-distinct spine.



2) TEST FOR BLOOD IN FAECES

Blood in faeces can be detected by:

Benzidine Test

This test detects microscopic blood in faeces. More than 10 ml of blood will give a black colour

to the faeces, whereas, less than 10ml (occult) blood from the gastrointestinal tract will be detected by this test. Peroxidase in the haem of haemoglobin liberates oxygen from hydrogen peroxide

that oxidises benzidine in an acidic medium and changes it to a blue coloured compound. A **false positive** test is given by meat. The patient is asked to avoid meat one day before the examination. He/she should not take any iron-containing compound nor brush his/her teeth.

Procedure: Make a suspension of faeces in 10ml saline and boil to inactivate the oxidizing enzymes that are normally in faeces. Make 2 ml of a saturated solution of

benzidine in glacial acetic acid in another tube. Add 2 ml of H₂O₂ and check whether a blue or green colour develops. If so, discard the reagents. Add faecal suspension, drop by drop, to the solution of

benzidine and H₂O₂ until there is a change of colour. The appearance of a deep blue colour indicates the presence of blood.

The Orthotoluidine Test; Orthotoluidine is converted to a blue-coloured compound by blood. Two percent sodium perborate solution in water and 2% orthotoluidine solution in glacial acetic acid are mixed in equal volume just before use. Add 6 drops to a smear of faeces on a filter paper. A blue colour indicates the presence of occult blood. These tests also form the basis of commercially available strips.

3) Examination of blood for parasites

a) THICK FILM

Principle

A large amount of blood can be examined for parasitic forms by lysing the red cells and staining for parasite. Fixation is not done by methanol.

Procedure

Touch a large drop of blood from the pulp of a finger with a glass slide and rotate it to spread blood in an area equal to a two-rupee coin. The film should be such that newspaper can be seen through it. Alternatively, place a drop of blood in the centre of a glass slide and spread it with a corner of another glass slide. Dry the blood film for 30 mins, at 37°C or leave it on top of a microscope lamp for about 7 mins. Dilute stock Giemsa Stain 20 times in buffered water in a staining jar and immerse the slide in it for 20-30 min. Take out and gently wash with buffered water and let stand upright to dry. The slide must not be blotted. Examine under an oil-immersion lens.

b) THIN FILM

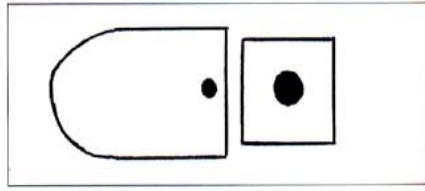
Principle

By spreading the blood cells in a thin layer, the size of the red cells, inclusions and extracellular forms can be more easily visualised. Leishman Stain is prepared in methanol, which also acts as a fixative.

Procedure

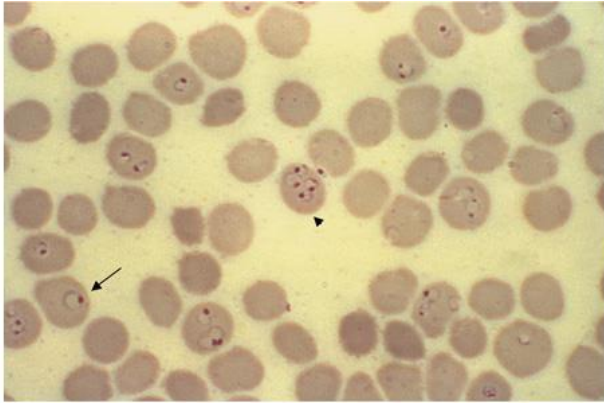
Slides are prepared in the usual manner and stained in the same way as for differential leukocyte count and red blood cell morphology. More time should be spent on the examination of the edges and head-

endoftheslide.



Fig; Sizeofblooddrop andareaof slideto coverformakingthickandthin bloodfilms

























1) Plasmodium



Plasmodium falciparum—Ring-shaped trophozoite. Long arrow points to a red blood cell containing a ring-shaped trophozoite. Arrowhead points to a red blood cell containing four ring-shaped trophozoites. Note the very high percentage of red cells containing ring forms. This high-level parasitemia is more often seen in *Plasmodium falciparum* infection than in infection by the other plasmodia. Morphologic characteristics of developmental stages of malarial parasites in the red blood cell. Note cytoplasmic Schüffner dots and enlarged host cells in *Plasmodium vivax* and *Plasmodium ovale* infections, the band-shaped trophozoite often seen in *Plasmodium malariae* infection, and the small, often multiply infected rings and the banana-shaped gametocytes in *Plasmodium falciparum* infections. Rings and gametocytes are typically seen in peripheral blood smears from patients with *Plasmodium falciparum* infections.



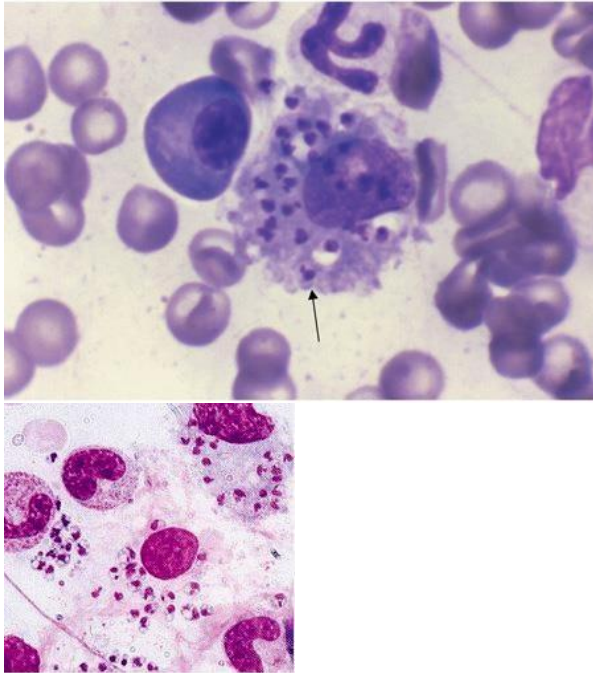
Plasmodium falciparum—Gametocyte. Arrow points to a "banana-shaped" gametocyte of *Plasmodium falciparum*

Stages	Parasites			
	<i>Plasmodium vivax</i>	<i>Plasmodium ovale</i>	<i>Plasmodium malariae</i>	<i>Plasmodium falciparum</i>
Ring stage				
Developing trophozoite				
Developing schizont				
Schizont				
Microgametocyte				
Macrogametocyte				

3) LEISHMANIA;

The diagnosis is made by an examination of a smear from the lesions, culture of material from the lesion and biopsy. The easiest way is to examine a Giemsa or Leishman-stained smear prepared from material obtained from the lesion. A smear can be prepared by any method given below: Clean the edge of the ulcer and surrounding skin. Make a small, skin-deep incision with a sharp blade, about 5 mm in length starting from the ulcer margin. Spread the material onto a clean glass slide. Take a corrugated dental needle and insert it into the skin at the margin of the ulcer pointing towards the floor of the ulcer. Withdraw the needle without rotating. Spread the material sticking to the needle on a clean glass slide. Stain smears just like blood smears and examine under high power objective (x40). Look for large macrophages with parasites and

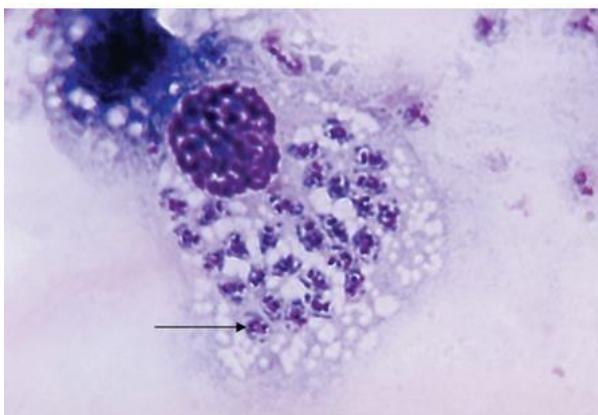
study the morphology of the parasites under oil-immersion lens.



Fig; Stained slide showing Lt (*Leishmaniatropica*) Bodies

2) Trypanosomes

During the early stages, microscopic examination of the blood (either wet films or thick or thin smears) reveals trypomastigotes. An aspirate of the chancre or enlarged lymph node can also demonstrate the parasites.



Trypanosoma cruzi—
Amastigotes. Arrow points to an amastigote (non-flagellated form) in cytoplasm



Fig; Trypanosoma brucei—

Trypomastigotes. Arrow points to a trypomastigote (the flagellated form) in the blood

4) Filarial Worm

Blood should be collected around midnight, as this is the time when the parasite is present in the blood. There are three methods of examination:

Prepare an ordinary thin-blood smear and stain in the usual manner.

Examine under low-power and then, for finer details, under high-power.

Make a thick-blood film stained with Giemsa Stain. Better results are obtained with haematoxylin and eosin staining. For this, the dried smear is first washed with water, dried in the air and fixed with equal parts of ether and 95% alcohol for 10 min. It is dried and stained like histological sections.

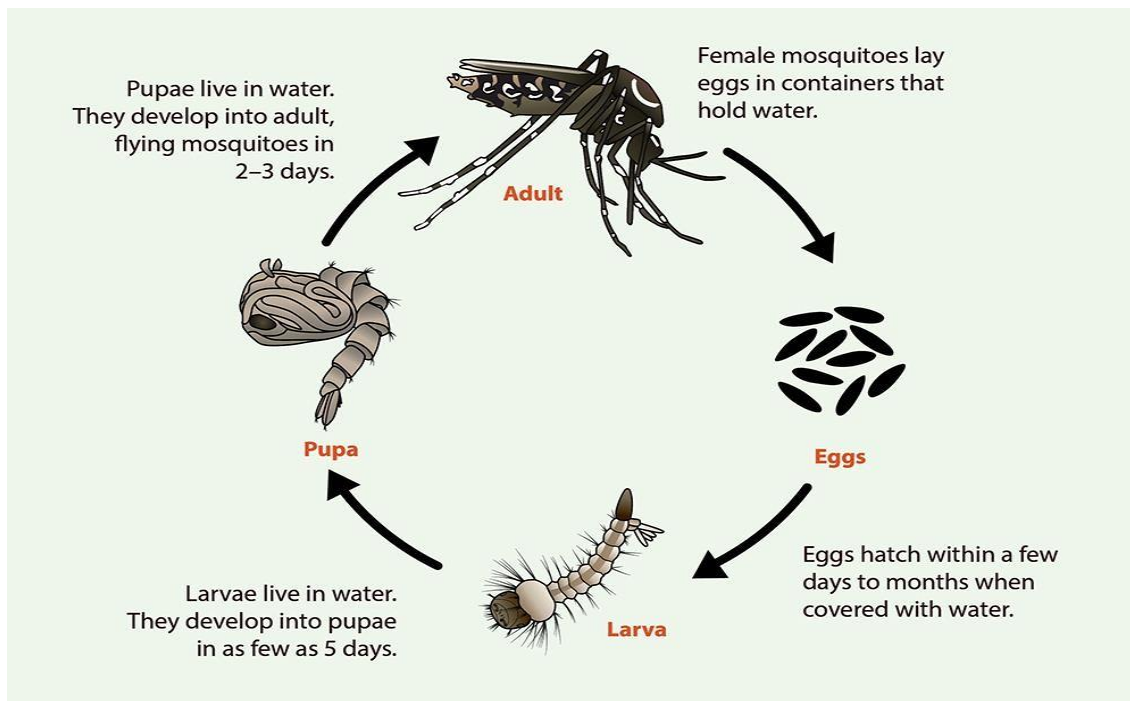
In the concentration method, capillary blood is obtained in a centrifuge tube containing 2% acetic acid. It is mixed thoroughly, centrifuged and the deposit is examined

under a coverslip. Actively-moving microfilariae can be observed.



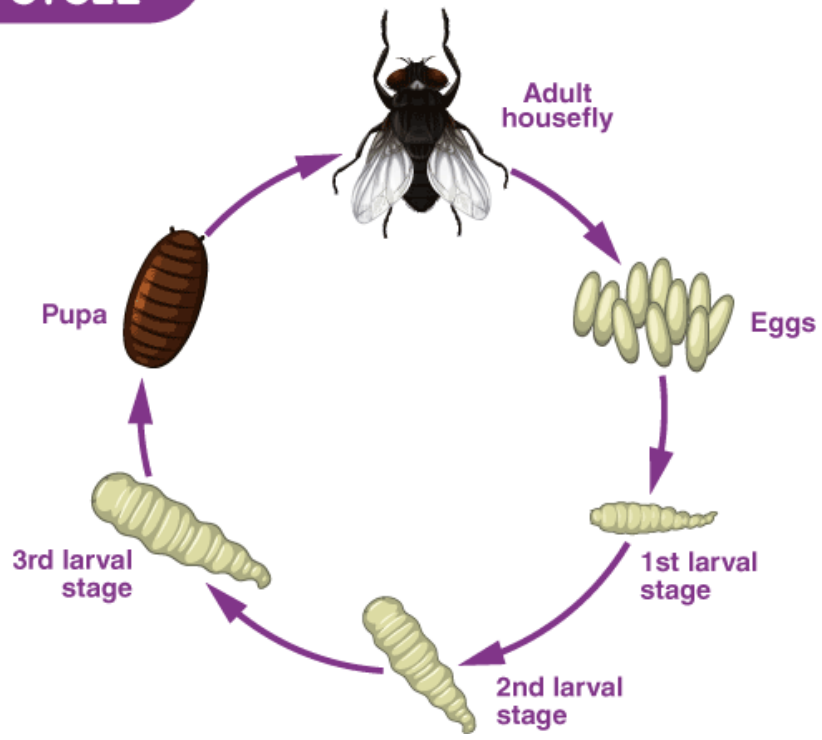
Wuchereria bancrofti—
Filarial worm in blood. Arrow points to filarial worm in blood smear ENTOMOLOGY

A-LIFECYCLE OF MOSQUITO



B-LIFECYCLEOFHOUSEFLY

FLY LIFE CYCLE



**Reading Material for
Applied Sciences – II
(Mycology)**



Compiled By:

Punjab Medical Faculty

Specialized Healthcare & Medical Education Department

Government of the Punjab

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1) Introduction

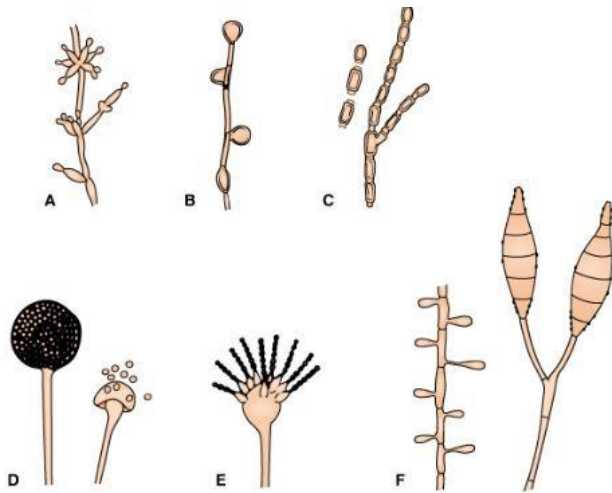
The study of fungi is called **Mycology**, and the diseases they cause are called **mycoses**. Fungi exist as uni-cellular or multi-cellular, reproducing by the production of spores. Yeasts are uni-cellular fungi, which reproduce by budding. The cytoplasm of the parent cell is extruded through a hole in the cell wall and a daughter cell is formed, which ultimately breaks away from its parent. This spore is called a **blastospore**, and the typical colony formed is called a yeast colony. Some yeasts however, form **pseudohyphae**, which are elongated blastospores. Multi-cellular fungi (on a suitable medium) form filaments called hyphae. These **hyphae** may be divided by transverse walls and are called septate. These structures branch and intertwine forming a mesh work known as mycelium. A part of this **mycelium** is in the medium (**vegetative mycelium**) and a part remains on and above the surface (**aerial mycelium**). Hyphae may be **septate** when there exist cross-walls in the filaments or they may be non-septate. The reproductive structures elevated at the ends of the aerial hyphae are called spores, each of which can be identified by differences in the appearance of spore types. Some of the pathogenic fungi exhibit gross variations in their growth forms according to conditions such as temperature. Such fungi are called **dimorphic** fungi.

Asexual Spores: There are five types of imperfect (asexual) spores which are of diagnostic value:

1. **Blastospores:** daughter cells formed by budding off from a parent cell
2. **Arthrospores:** formed by segmentation of a hypha into a series of separate cells, which may be cubical or rounded in shape.
3. **Conidia:** formed on a specialized hypha (conidiophore) or borne directly on the side of a hypha with no apparent conidiophores. They may be microconidia (uni-cellular) or macroconidia (multi-cellular).
4. **Chlamydospores:** formed by the rounding up of a cell with a thickening of its wall

5. Sporangiospores: formed within a closed structure called a sporangium, the wall of which ruptures to liberate the mature sporangiospores.

Sexual Spores: They are very rarely found in human disease. Basidiospores, ascospores, zygospores are some names as examples. Yeast cells usually grow as large single cells, rarely forming filaments. Mostly they reproduce by the asexual process of budding.



Asexual spores. **A:** Blastoconidia and pseudohyphae (*Candida*). **B:** Chlamydospores (*Candida*). **C:** Arthrospores (*Coccidioides*). **D:** Sporangia and sporangiospores (*Mucor*). **E:** Microconidia (*Aspergillus*). **F:** Microconidia and macroconidia (*Microsporum*)

LABORATORY DIAGNOSIS OF FUNGAL INFECTIONS

Routine mycological techniques

a-Direct microscopy; KOH

preparation b-Fungal stains

c-Fungal culture

d-Fungal serology

e-Molecular techniques

1) The Collection of Specimens:

Skin; Scrape the active periphery of the skin lesion using a sterile scalpel blade. They are collected on a piece of clean paper. Fold the paper and convey it to the lab bench for processing.

Nails; Using nail clippers, remove the affected nails. Remove debris beneath the nail with a blunt probe. Collect and dispatch, as for skin.

Hair; Examine the scalp and other hair-bearing areas under the illumination of a Wood's Lamp (ultraviolet light) for fluorescence. Extract fluorescing hair (infected with *Microsporum*) with forceps. If there is no fluorescence, take specimens of lusterless or broken hair. Fold in clean paper and send it to the laboratory. A plastic massage brush may be used to obtain hair samples for culture.

Mucosa; Collect exudates and any thrush-like membranous material present by using cotton-wool swabs.

Sputum, Pus and Exudates; These specimens are taken into a sterile universal container and examined without delay.

DIRECT MICROSCOPY Skin Scrapings, Nails and Hair; Direct microscopic examination is the best method

of diagnosing ringworm. The specimen is first softened and cleaned with 20% KOH (potassium hydroxide). This will digest the keratin surrounding the fungi so that the morphology of the fungus can be seen. A drop of this solution is placed on a clean glass slide. A small piece of the specimen is transferred to this drop of KOH and covered with a coverslip. The preparation is kept in a Petri Dish and kept damp with some wet cotton wool contained in it. The time taken to soften the material will depend on the type of specimen. Hair will take about 10 minutes and nails will take up to 30 minutes. Gentle heating over a flame will reduce the time required to soften/clean the material. As soon as the specimen is softened, examine it microscopically using 10X and 40X objective. Look for branching hyphae, arthrospores and distinguish them from artifacts like elastic fibres, strands of cotton and cross-walls are the characteristics of pure hyphae.

Mucosae; Examine unstained wet preparations or in Lactophenol Cotton Blue microscopically. Gram stained smears may be prepared.

Sputum, Exudates and Body Fluids; Examine unstained wet preparations or in Lactophenol Cotton Blue microscopically. If necessary (for opaque material), mount in KOH and heat gently. Further examine sputum after liquefaction with a mucolytic agent such as n-acetylcysteine. Centrifuge and examine the deposit. Prepare another mount using India Ink to demonstrate encapsulated yeasts (*Cryptococcus neoformans*). Examine exudates macroscopically for white or coloured granules, crush any that are present, between two slides, stain by Gram and with acid-fast stains. Examine microscopically.

2) FUNGAL STAINING

Gram Stain: This can also be used to identify yeast, e.g. candida and cryptococcus are gram-positive while other fungi do not stain with it. This will also differentiate in the

case of mycetoma as to whether the causative organisms are fungi or actinomyces(grampositive rods).

Methenamine Silver Stain: With this stain, fungi stain dark brown.

Lactophenol Cotton Blue stain;; It stains Fungal hyphae with Blue Colour

India Ink Stain; It stains the background black and yeast cells capsule appears as hollow.

Calcofluor White Staining (fluorescent staining)

Calcofluor white stains chitin-containing structures so that they fluoresce bright white under ultraviolet light in a fluorescent microscope. This stain in the microbiology laboratory has replaced the KOH (potassium hydroxide) wet mount because the contrast speeds examination.

Periodic Acid-Schiff (PAS): This stain has been used for various histopathological smears and sections for the identification of fungi in various tissues. The fungus will appear pink in colour.

3) THE CULTIVATION OF FUNGI:

The following media are routinely used for cultures of fungus:

Sabouraud Dextrose Agar

Sabouraud Chloramphenicol/gentamicin Agar

Sabouraud Chloramphenicol/Gentamicin with Cyclohexamide (Actidione) Agar (for dermatophytes)

- Dermatophyte agar.
- RPMI (Roswell Park Memorial Institute) agar.

- [Potato Dextrose Agar \(PDA\)](#)

-

Trypticase Soya Broth (for blood culture)

The general nutritional and cultural requirements of fungi differ from those of bacteria. They generally grow more slowly than bacteria. Fungi grow best at a low pH, i.e. between 5.0 and 6.0 and can tolerate sugar concentration up to 50% (sucrose). They can, therefore, grow on media that would exclude most bacteria. Sabouraud's Agar is a medium which

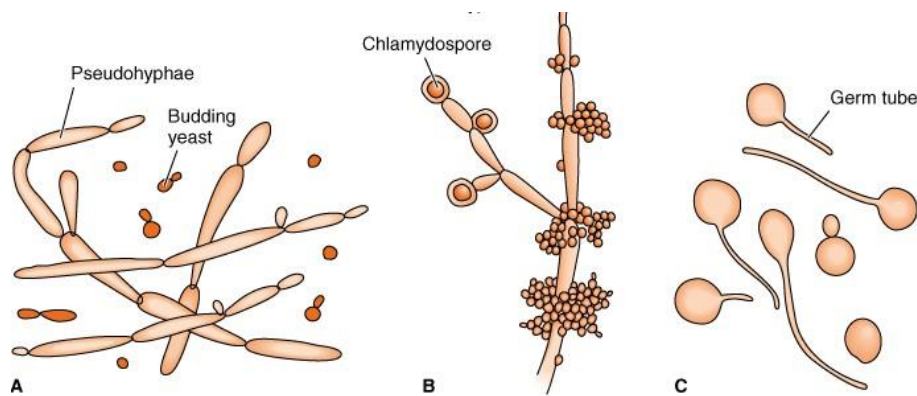
provides all of these conditions. Three plates or tubes are inoculated for dermatophytes; one plain Sabouraud, one without Cyclohexamide and the third with Chloramphenicol/Gentamicin. Cyclohexamide makes the medium selective for dermatophytes and inhibits the growth of other fungi. The medium is incubated aerobically for two weeks at 22-28°C and is examined daily for growth.

4) THE IDENTIFICATION OF FUNGI

Once growth appears on the culture medium, its colonial morphology, growth rate, colour and presence of pigmentation in the medium is noted. From the growth, take a part with a straight needle or wire loop and emulsify in Lactophenol Blue on a slide, cover with a coverslip and see under low and high power of the microscope. Most of the identification of fungi is based on their morphology. Alternatively, press a small piece of clear vinyl tape, e.g. Cello-tape, adhesive side down, onto the surface of the colony. Remove, and place the tape onto a drop of Lactophenol Blue on a slide and examine directly under the microscope.

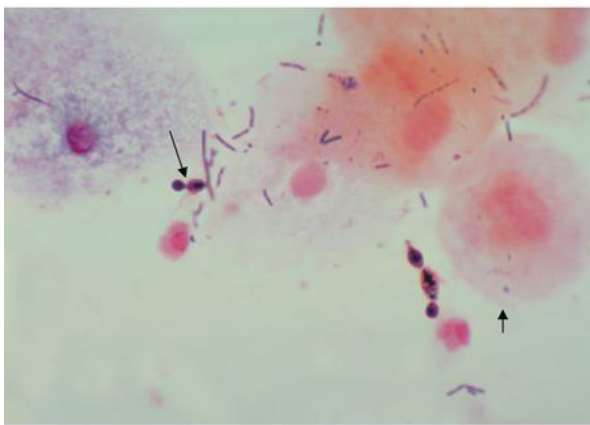
OTHER METHODS OF IDENTIFYING FUNGI

Germ Tube Test for *Candida albicans*: Place 0.5 ml of serum (human or horse) in a small test tube. Emulsify a small portion of the yeast colony obtained after an overnight growth of the specimen on Sabouraud's Agar. Incubate the tube at 37°C for 2 hours. Place a drop of this serum on a slide, place a coverslip and examine microscopically for germ tube production i.e. cylindrical filaments originating from the yeast cells.

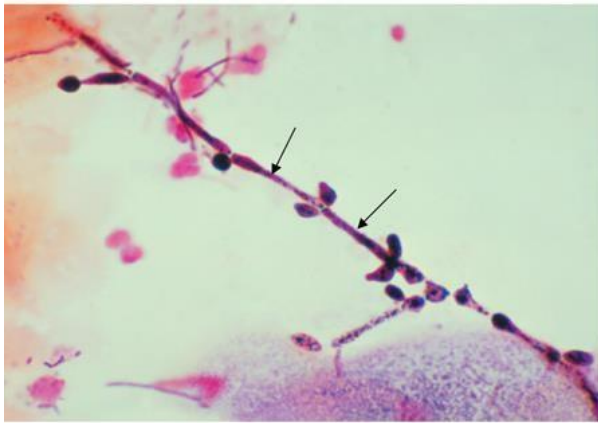


Source: Leisner, W. Review of Medical Microbiology and Immunology, 11th Edition

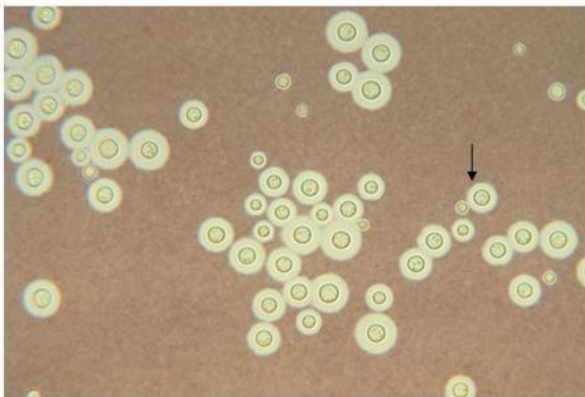
***Candida albicans*. A:** Budding yeasts and pseudohyphae in tissues or exudate. **B:** Pseudohyphae and chlamydospores in culture at 20°C. **C:** Germ tubes at 37°C.



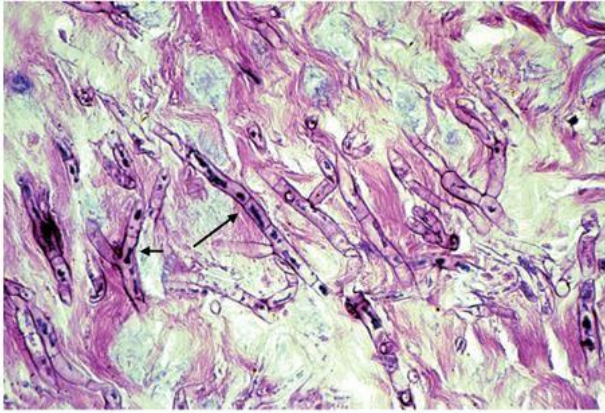
Candida albicans—Yeast. Long arrow points to budding yeast.



Candida albicans—Pseudohyphae. Two arrows point to pseudohyphae of *Candida albicans*

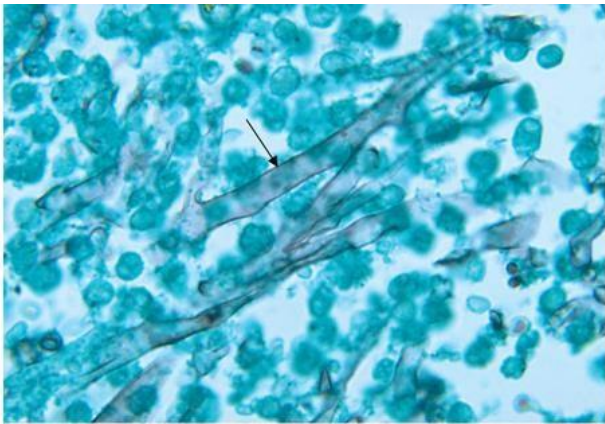


Cryptococcus neoformans—India ink preparation. Arrow points to a budding yeast of *Cryptococcus neoformans*. Note the thick, translucent polysaccharide capsule outlined by the dark India ink particles

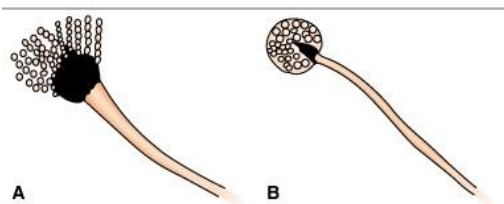


Aspergillus fumigatus—

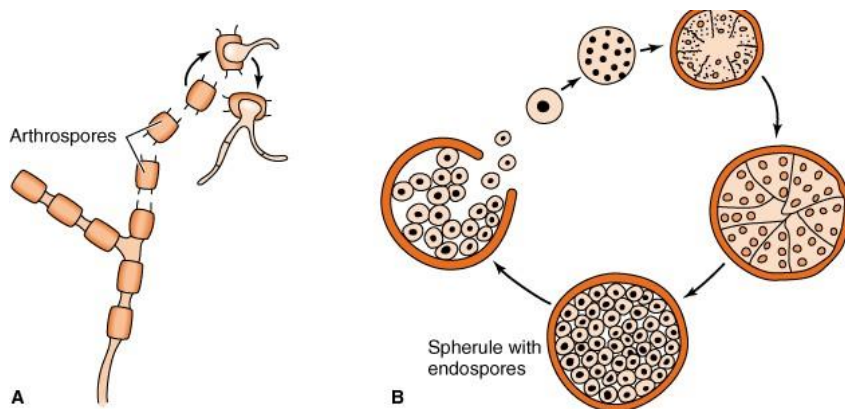
Septate hyphae. Long arrow points to these septate hyphae of *Aspergillus*. Note the straight parallel cell walls of this mold. Short arrow points to the typical low-angle, Y-shaped branching



Mucor species—Non-septate hyphae. Arrow points to irregular-shaped, non-septate hyphae of *Mucor*



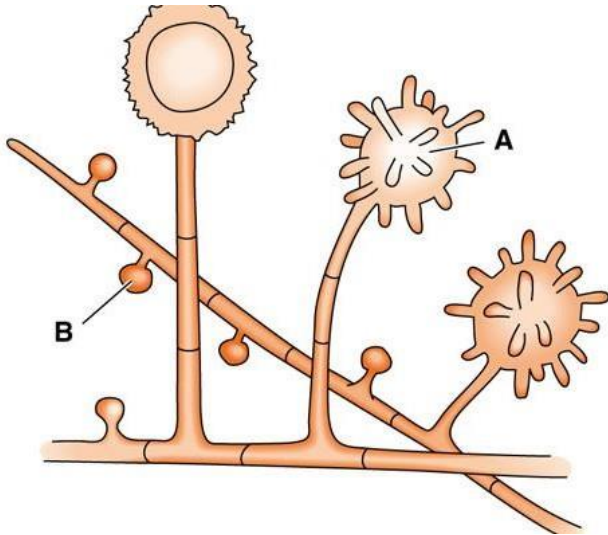
Aspergillus and *Mucor* in culture. **A:** *Aspergillus* spores form in radiating columns. **B:** *Mucor* spores are contained within a sporangium



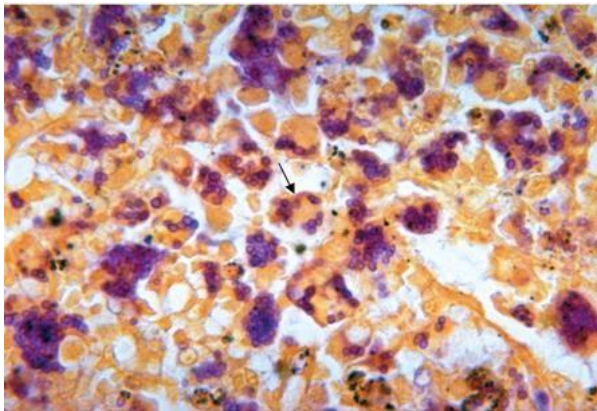
Stages of *Coccidioides immitis*. **A:** Arthrospores form at the ends of hyphae in the soil. They germinate in the soil to form new hyphae. If inhaled, the arthrospores differentiate into spherules. **B:** Endospores form within spherules in tissue. When spherules rupture, endospores disseminate and form new spherules.



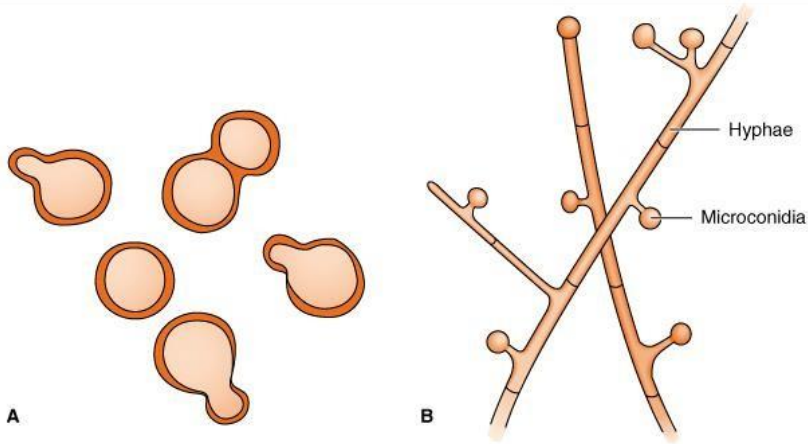
Coccidioides immitis—Spherule. Long arrow points to a spherule in lung tissue. Spherules are large thick-walled structures containing many endospores. Short arrow points to an endospore.



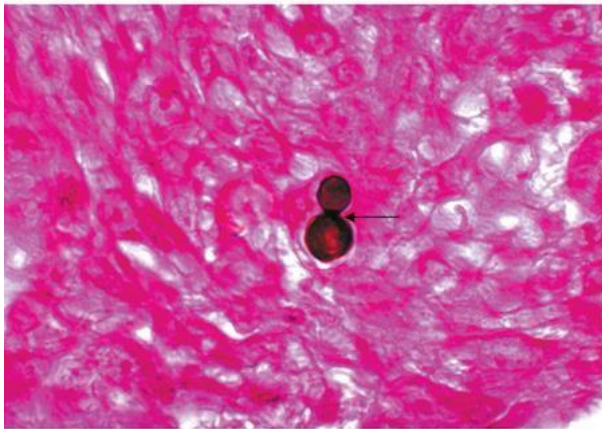
Asexual spores of *Histoplasma capsulatum*. **A**: Tuberculate macroconidia. **B**: Microconidia



Histoplasma capsulatum—Yeasts within macrophages. Arrow points to a macrophage containing several purple-stained yeasts in the cytoplasm. Yeasts within macrophages can be seen in many macrophages in this specimen of spleen.



Blastomyces dermatitidis. **A:** Yeast with broad-based bud at 37°C. **B:** Mold with microconidia at 20°C



Blastomyces dermatitidis—Broad-based budding yeast. Arrow points to the broad base of the budding yeast.

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