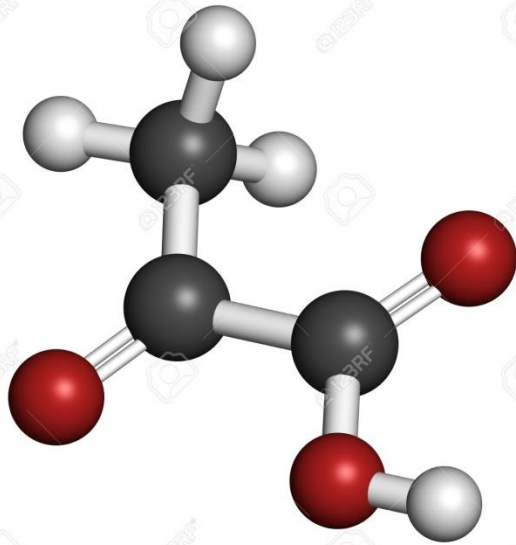


METABOLISM OF GLYCOGEN

***REGULATION OF CARBOHYDRATE
METABOLISM***

Lecture III

Pyruvate metabolism



**Glucose convert to pyruvate in
same way**

**but the fate of pyruvate varies
depending on conditions
and species**

this releases *some* energy

glucose → → → → pyruvate

CO₂ + water

CO₂ + ethanol

lactic acid

all living things that
can survive in oxygen

plants
fungi

animals
bacteria

wine
beer
bread

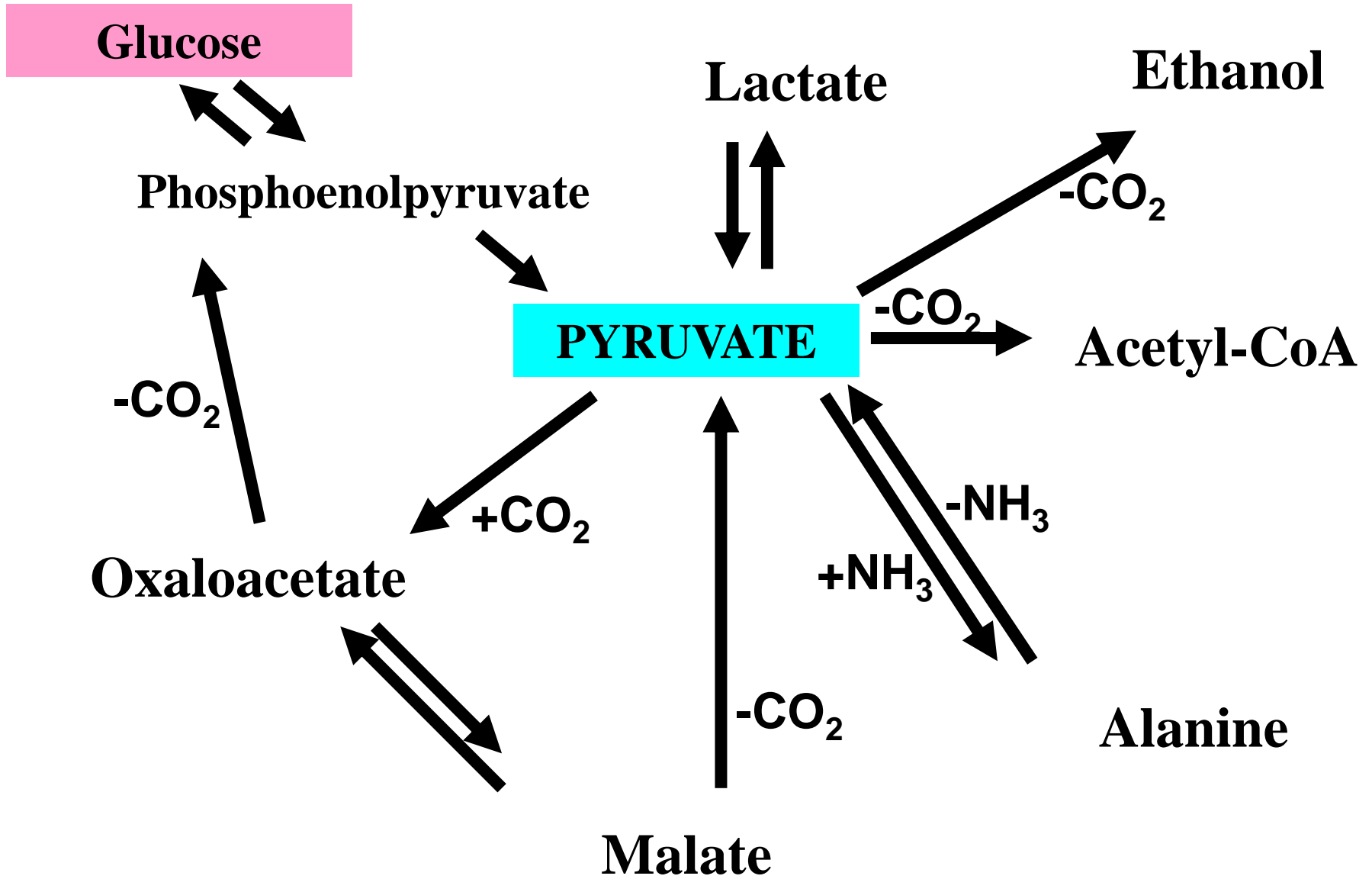
sauerkraut
kimchi
yogurt
sourdough

O₂ present

O₂ absent

exhausted muscles

Scheme of pyruvate metabolism



Formation of Pyruvic Acid in the Body

- From oxidation of glucose (Glycolysis)
- From lactic acid by oxidation
- Deamination of Alanine
- Decarboxylation of oxaloacetic acid
- From malic acid by *malic enzyme*

Fate of Pyruvic Acid

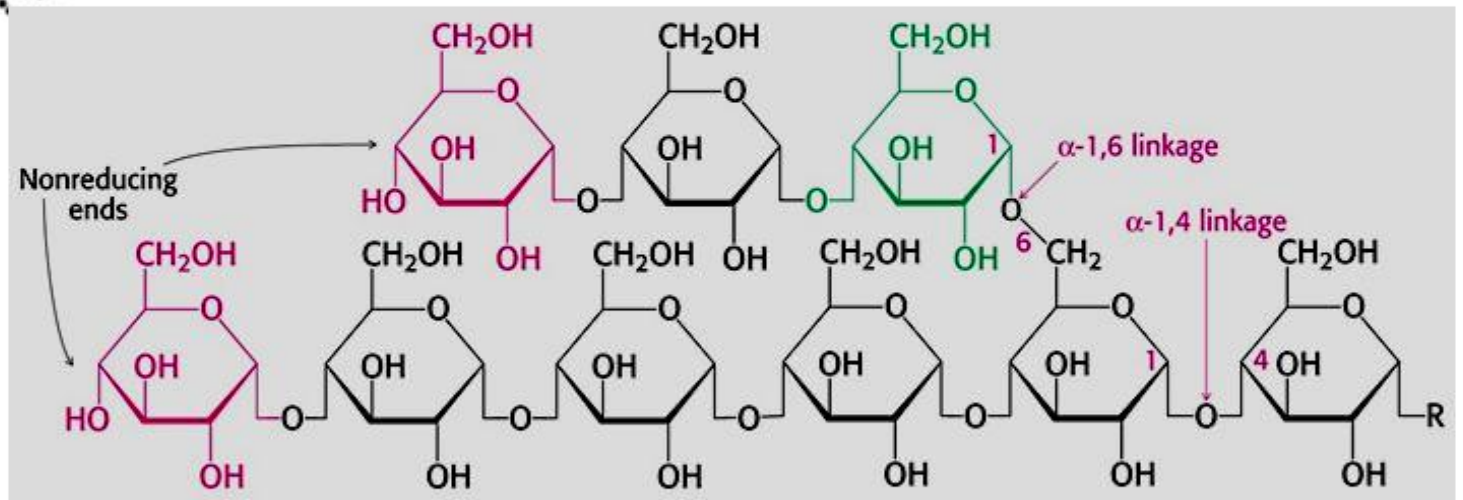
- Forms acetyl-CoA by oxidative decarboxylation (in presence of O_2)
- Forms lactic acid by reduction (in absence of O_2)
- Forms alanine by amination
- Forms glucose (gluconeogenesis)
- Forms oxaloacetic acid by CO_2 -fixation reaction

Fate of pyruvic acid depends on the redox state of the tissues

Metabolism of Glycogen

Glycogen structure

- Large molecule
- Branch points are frequent (about every fourth residue) - allows glucose residues to be easily added or removed quicker than a linear molecule.

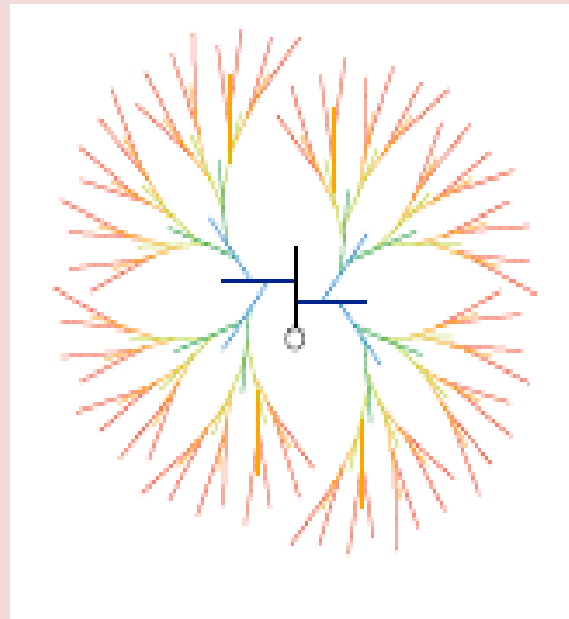
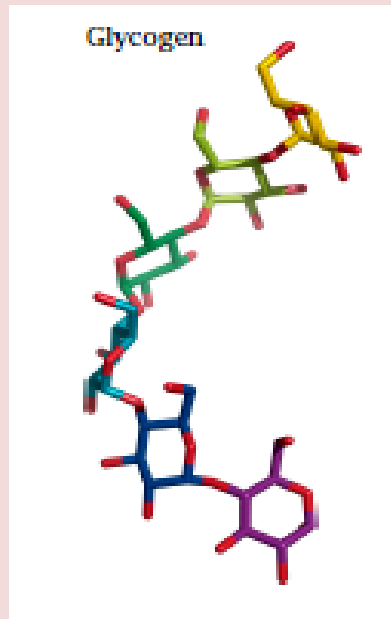


Glucose residues linked by α (1-4) glycosidic bonds into chains & chains branch via α (1-6) linkage

Metabolism of Glycogen

Glycogen is the major storage carbohydrate in animals.

It is a branched polymer of α -D-glucose.



It occurs mainly in liver and muscle.

Muscle glycogen provides a readily available source of glucose for glycolysis within the muscle itself.

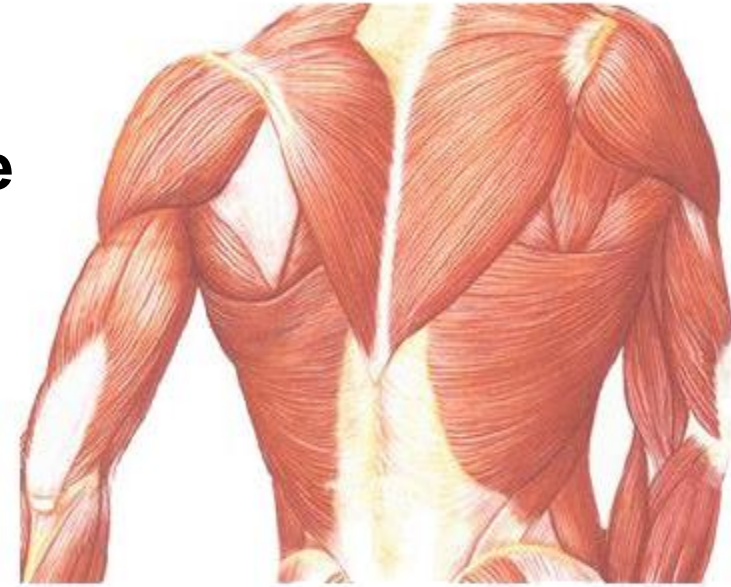
!!!

Muscle glycogen cannot directly contribute to blood glucose level.

Muscle glycogen

Provides available source of glucose while exercising in order to support anaerobic & aerobic conversion within muscle cells.

Muscle cells do not contain enzyme glucose 6-phosphatase, which allow the release of glucose into the blood.



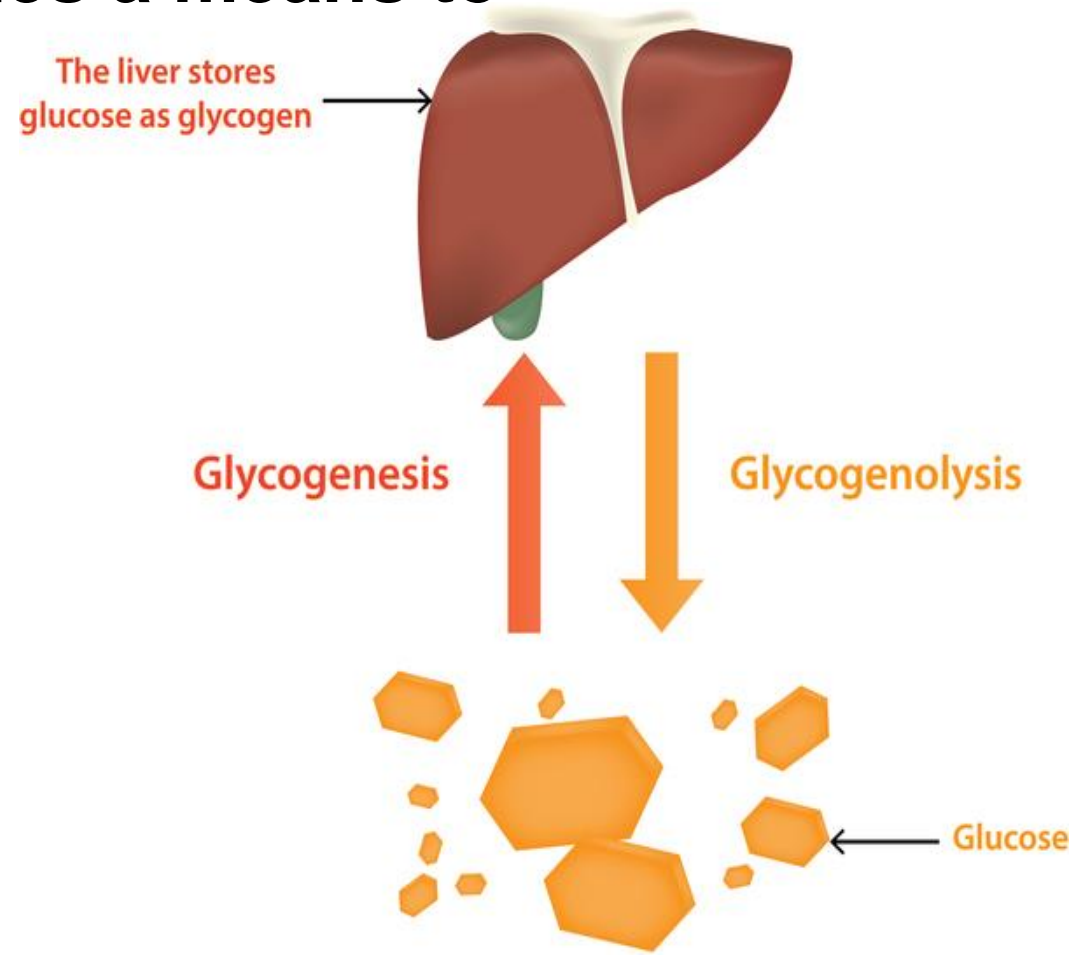
Liver glycogen functions:

to store and export glucose

to maintain blood glucose between meals.

Short term energy source for an organism, which provides a means to store and release glucose in response to blood glucose levels.

The liver does not use this glucose for it's own energy.



Glycogen biosynthesis (or glycogenesis)

- Occurs in muscle and liver
- Involves a special nucleotide of glucose
 - **uridine diphosphate glucose (UDPGlc)**

Glycogenesis

Glucose



Glc 6-Ph



Glc 1-Ph



UDPGlc



(1→4 Glycosyl units)_x

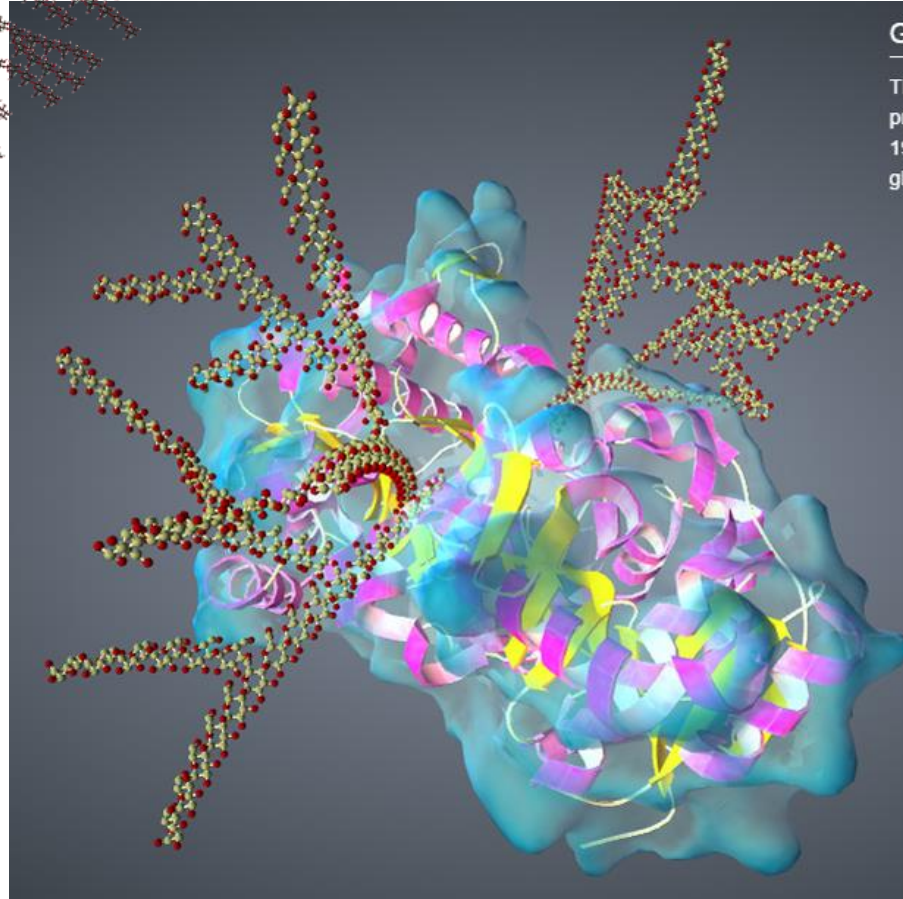
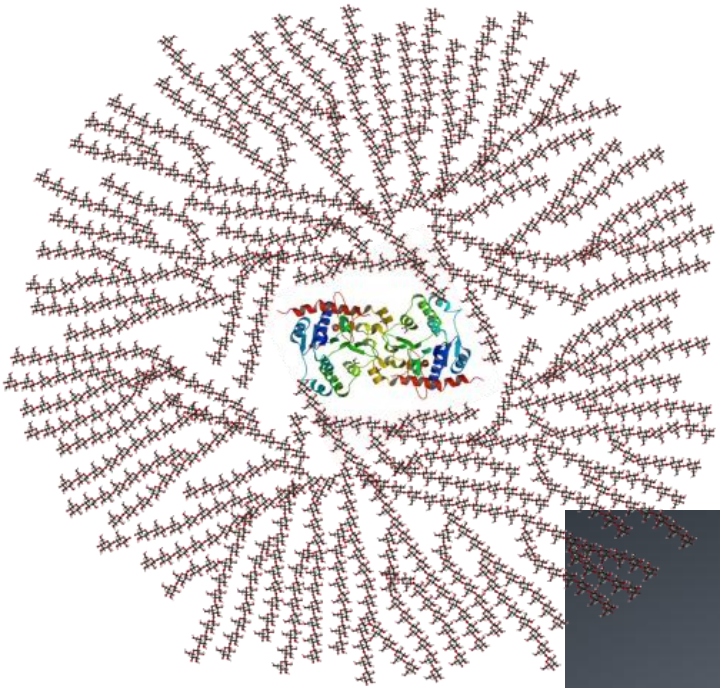


Glycogen (1→4 and 1→6 glycosyl units)_x

By the action of the enzyme **glycogen synthase**,

C-1 of the activated glucose (UDP-Glc) forms a glycosidic bond with the C-4 of a terminal glucose residue of pre-existing glycogen molecule, or “**primer**”. Primer must be present to initiate this reaction.

The glycogen “primer” is formed on a protein primer known as **glycogenin**.

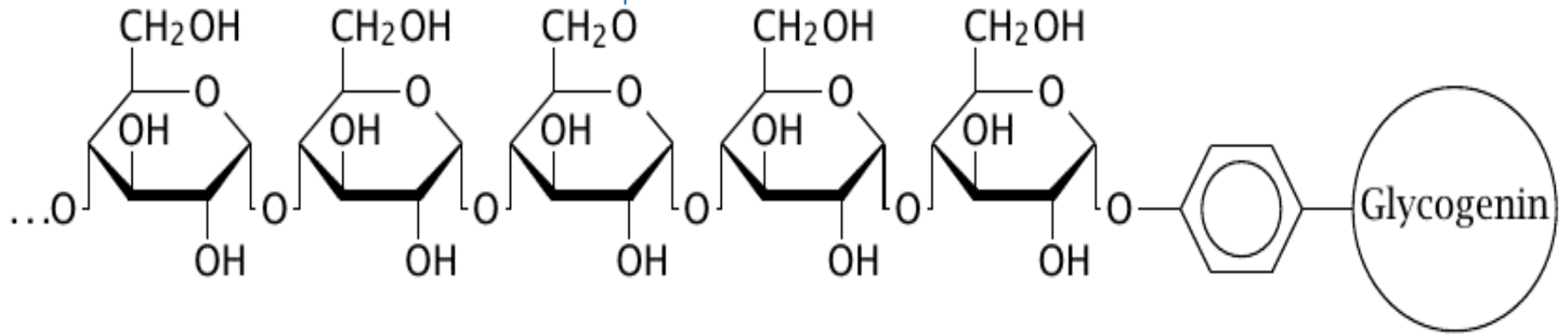
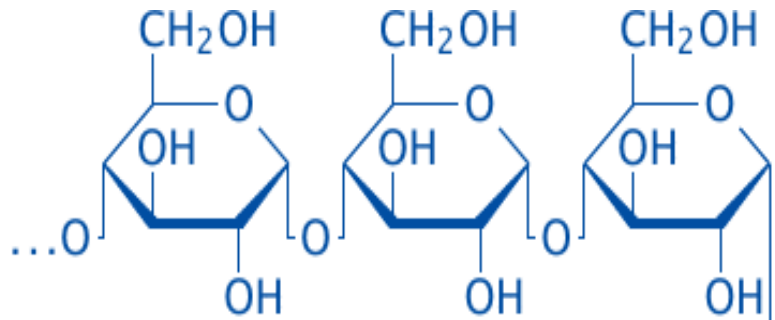


Glycogenin

The initiation of glycogen synthesis involves a protein "primer" which was first proposed in 1975 and later identified as a protein named glycogenin.

Mechanism of branching:

Harper's Illustrated Biochemistry

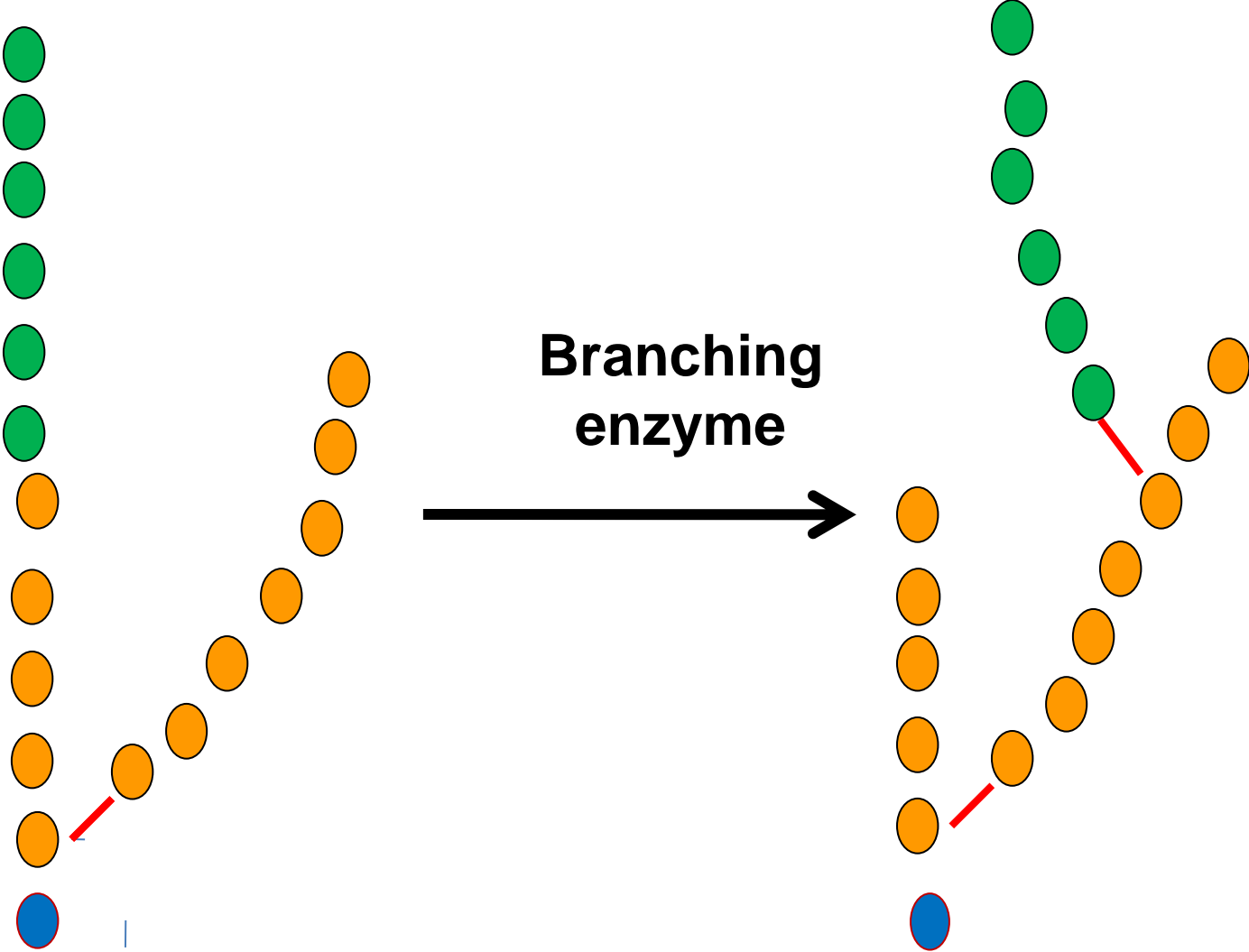


Mechanism of branching

When the chain has been lengthened to minimum of **11** glucose residues, a branching enzyme (**amylase-1, 4 \rightarrow α 1, 6-transglucosidase**) transfers a part of **1 \rightarrow 4** chain, minimum length **6** glucose residues, to a neighbouring chain to form **α 1 \rightarrow 6** linkage.

The branches grow by further additions of **1 \rightarrow 4** glucosyl units and further branching.

Mechanism of branching



GLYCOGENOLYSIS

(mobilisation of glycogen)

Breakdown of glycogen to glucose

It is initiated by the action of a specific enzyme ***phosphorylase***, which breaks α 1 \rightarrow 4 linkage to yield ***glucose-1-phosphate***.

Phosphorylase step is the first step which is the ***rate-limiting and key enzyme in glycogenolysis***

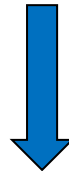
Glycogen



Glc 1-Ph



Glc 6-Ph



Glucose

Mechanism of debranching

- **Debranching enzyme**
 - **glucan transferase (transglycosylase activity)**
 - **1,6-glucosidase activity**

Harper's Illustrated Biochemistry

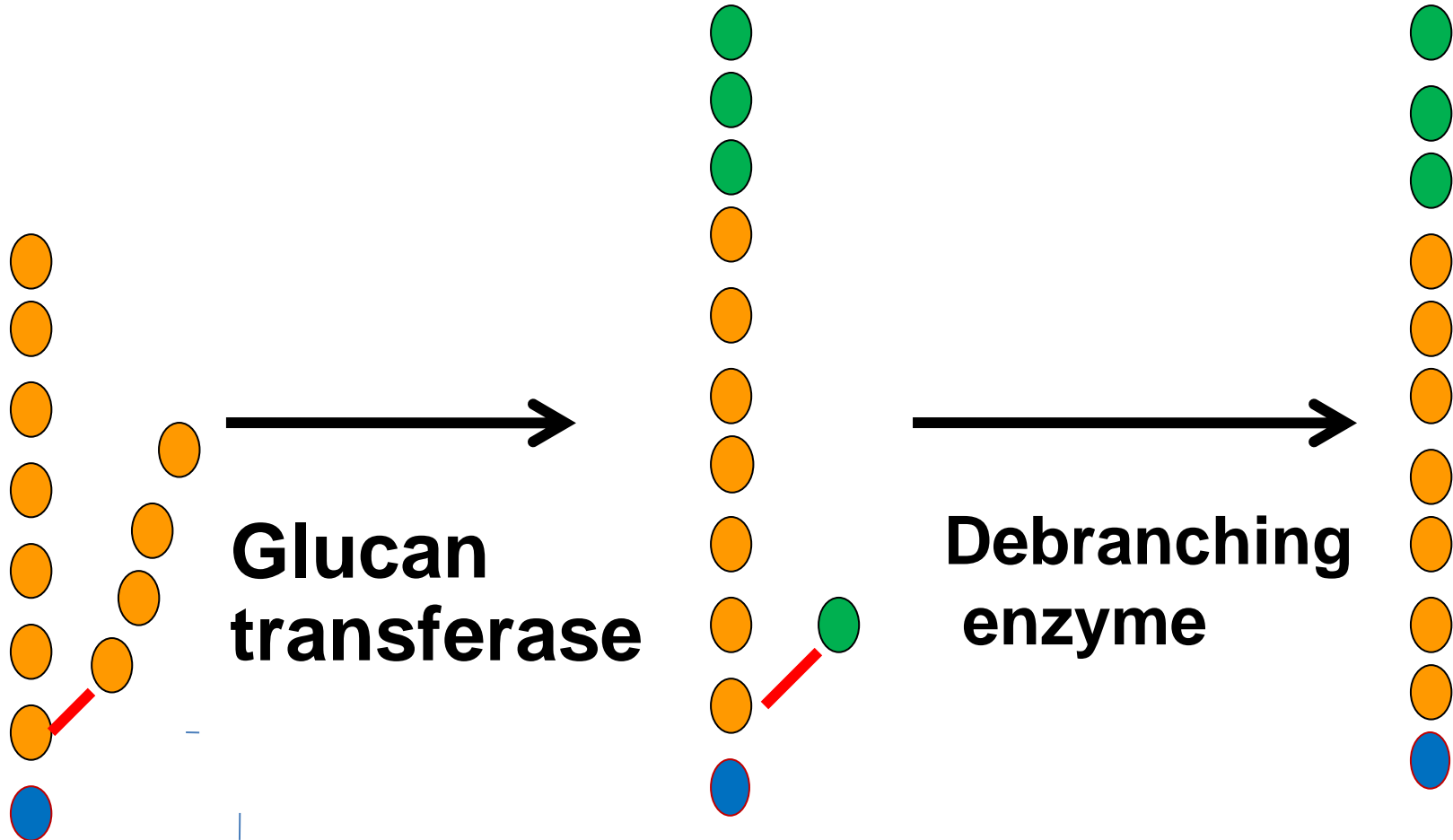
Mechanism of debranching

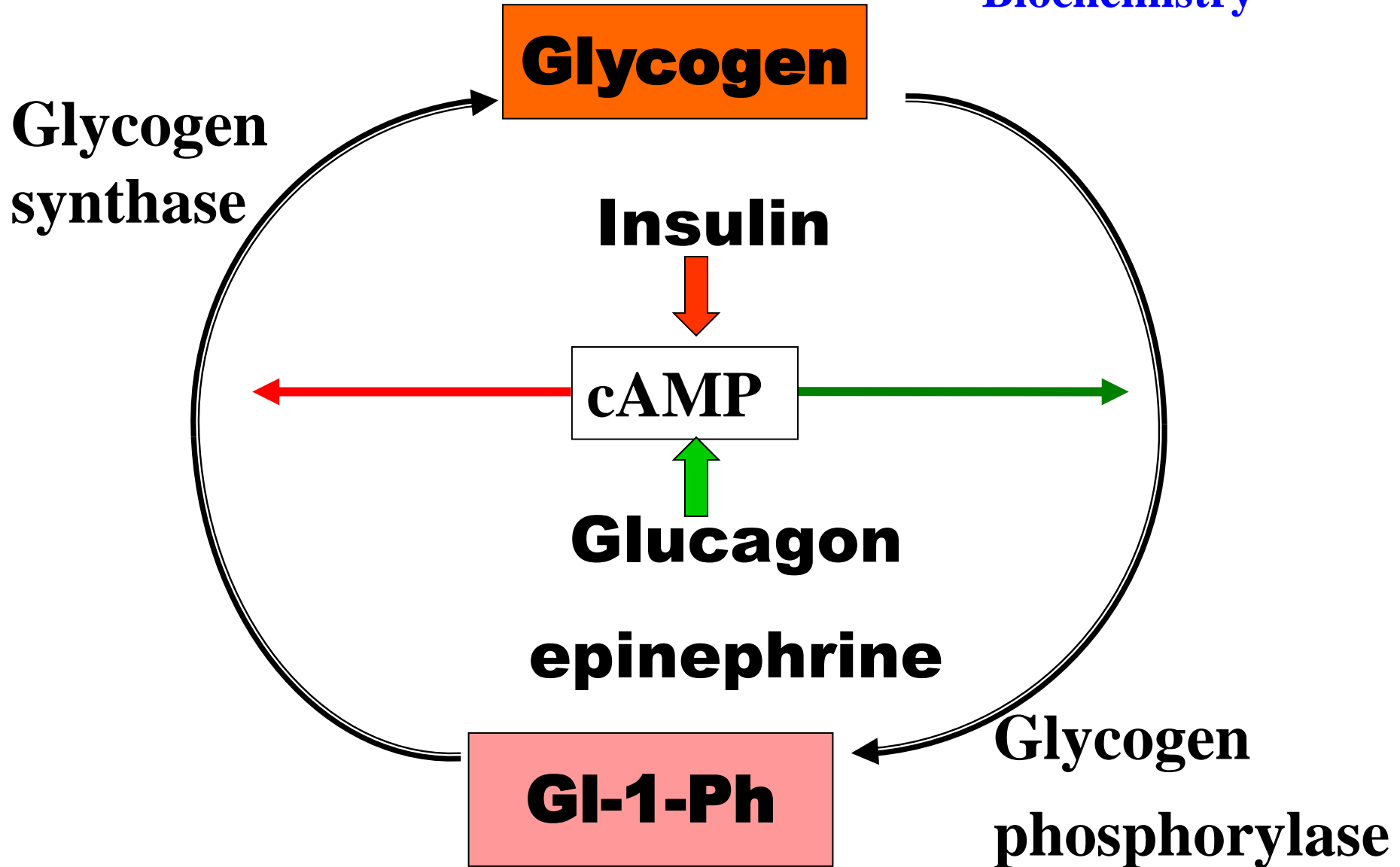
When four glucose residues are left from the branch point, α -1, 4 \rightarrow α -1, 4 glucan transferase *transfers a **trisaccharide** unit from one side to the other thus exposing α 1 \rightarrow 6 branch point.*

The splitting of α -1 \rightarrow 6 glucosidic linkage requires the action of *amylase-1 \rightarrow 6-glucosidase.*

In this reaction one molecule of free glucose is produced.

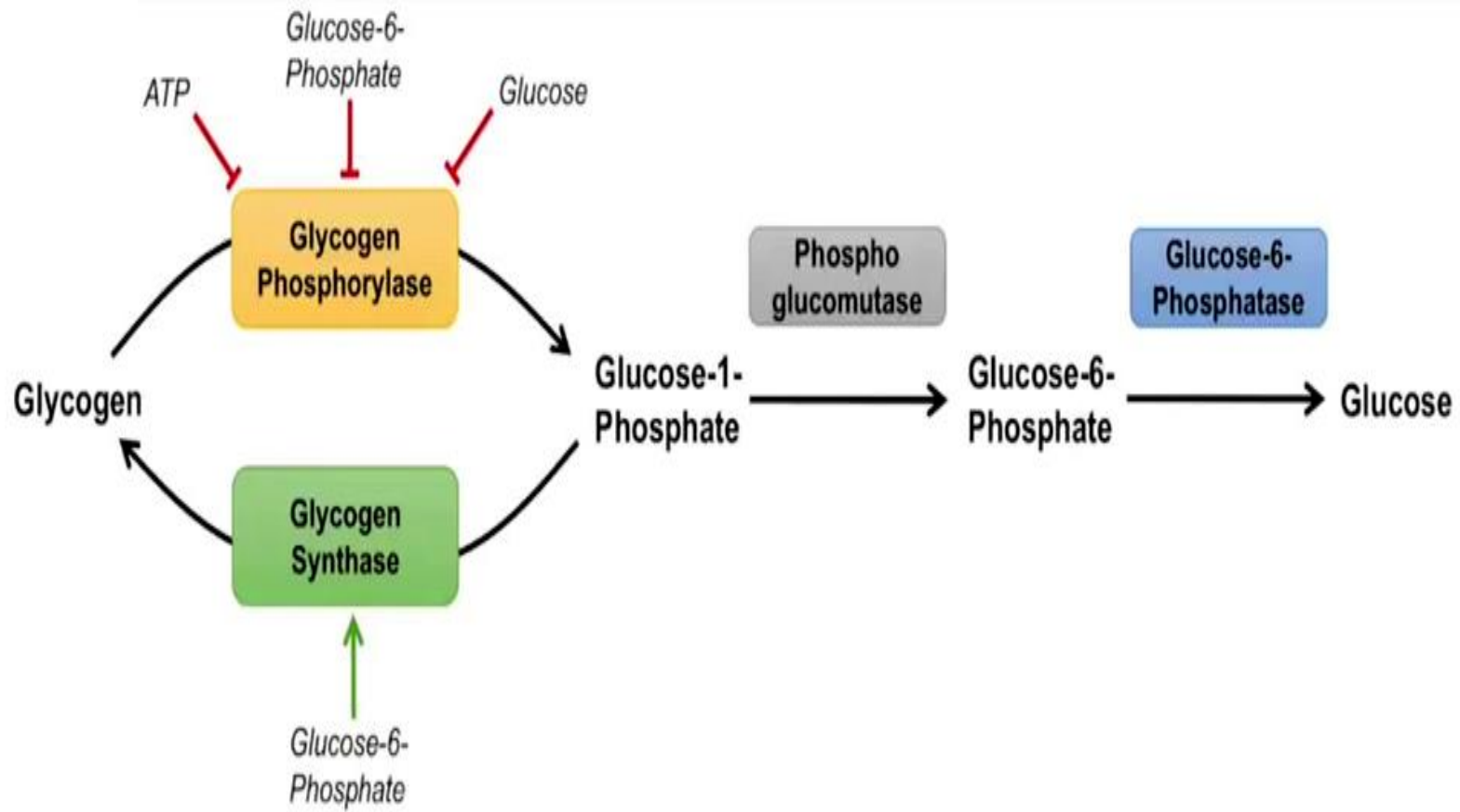
Mechanism of debranching





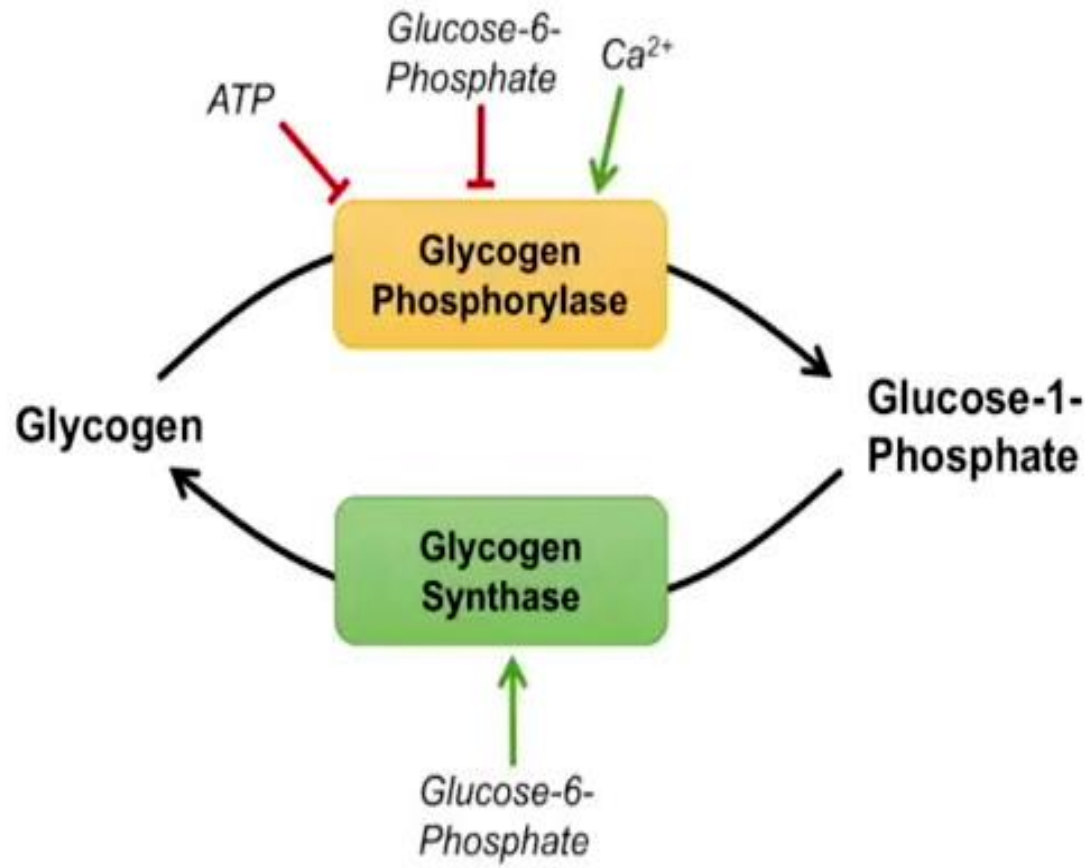


Liver





**Skeletal
Muscle**



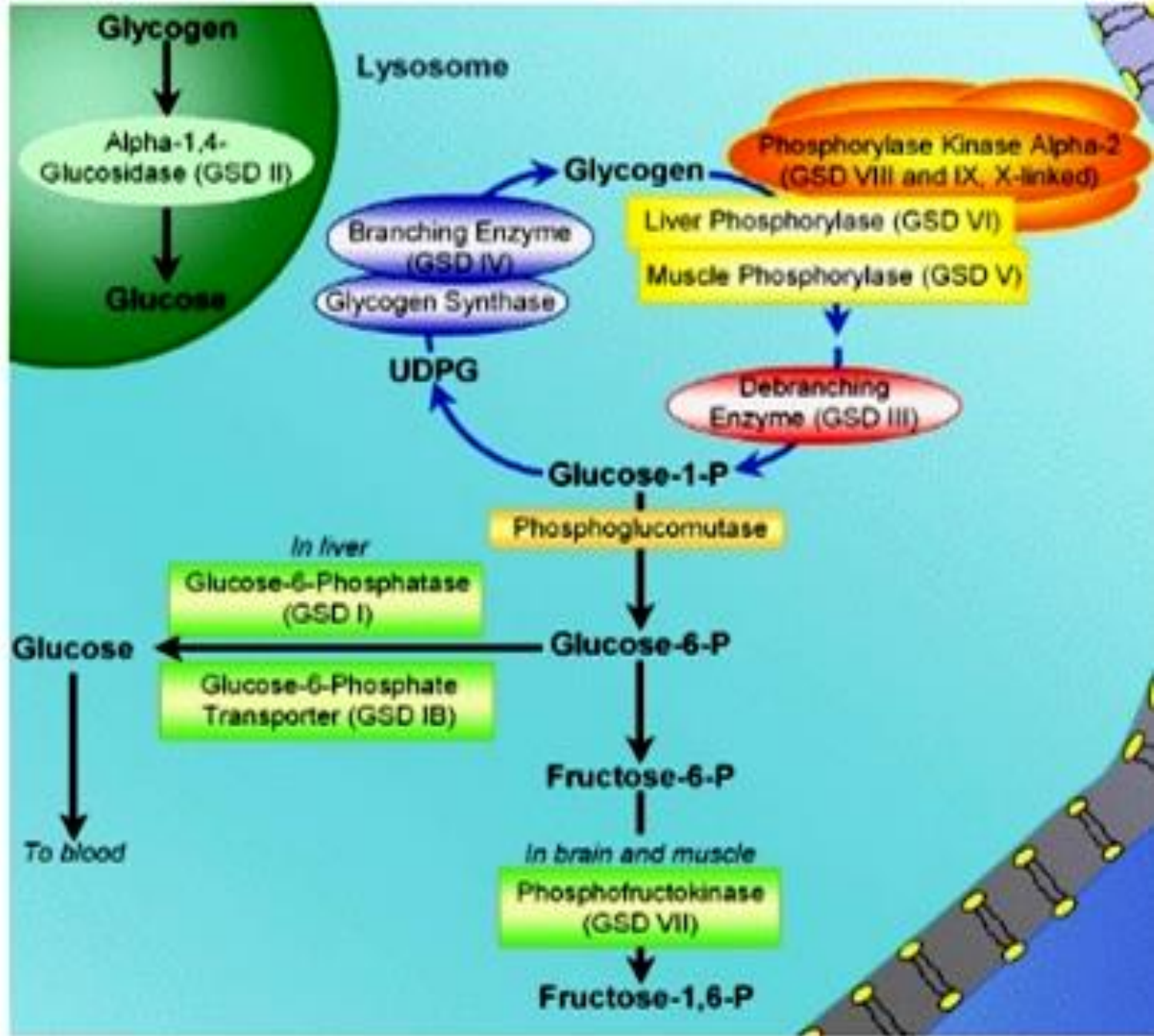
Glycogen storage diseases

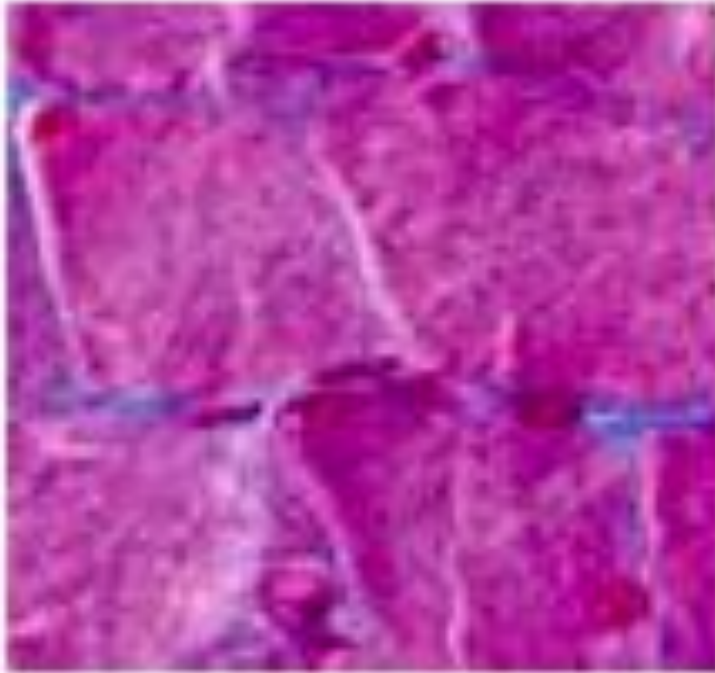
Group of inherited disorders characterized by deficient mobilisation of glycogen or deposition of abnormal forms of glycogen, leading to muscle weakness

some glycogen storage diseases result in early death

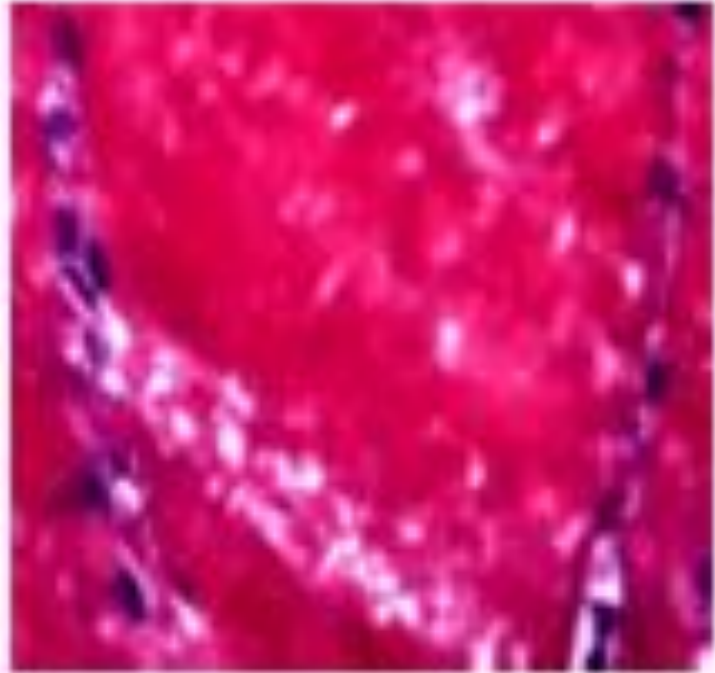
Glycogen storage diseases

- **Von Gierke disease – deficiency of Glucose-6-phosphatase**
- **Pompe disease – deficiency of α 1 \rightarrow 4 and α 1 \rightarrow 6 glucosidase (acid maltase)**
- **Forbe (or Cori) disease – deficiency of debranching enzyme**
- **Andersen disease – deficiency of branching enzyme**
- **Hers disease – deficiency of liver phosphorylase**





Normal skeletal muscle



**Glycogen aggregates in
Pompe disease**

Gierke disease



Forbe (or Cori) disease



Pictures 7A and 7B - Glycogen storage disease type III

GSD Type 0



- An inherited genetic disease
- Enzyme affected: glycogen synthase
- The body is unable to store glycogen
- LIVER: Chromosome 12
 - hypoglycemia when fasting
 - hyperglycemia right after meals
- MUSCLE: Chromosome 19
 - frequent fatigue and muscle cramps



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Uronic acid pathway

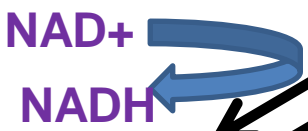
It is an alternate pathway for oxidation of glucose

Conversion of glucose to glucuronic acid

UDP-glucuronate is the source of glucuronate

- **for proteoglycans synthesis**

- **for reactions with substrates such as steroid hormones, bilirubin and a number of foreign compounds (xenobiotics) that are excreted in urine or bile as a glucuronide conjugates**

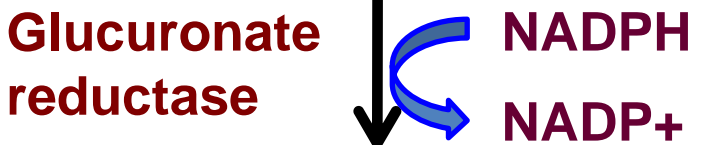


detoxification

UDP-Glucuronate

proteoglycans

Glucuronate



PPP ← Xylulose ← L-gulonate



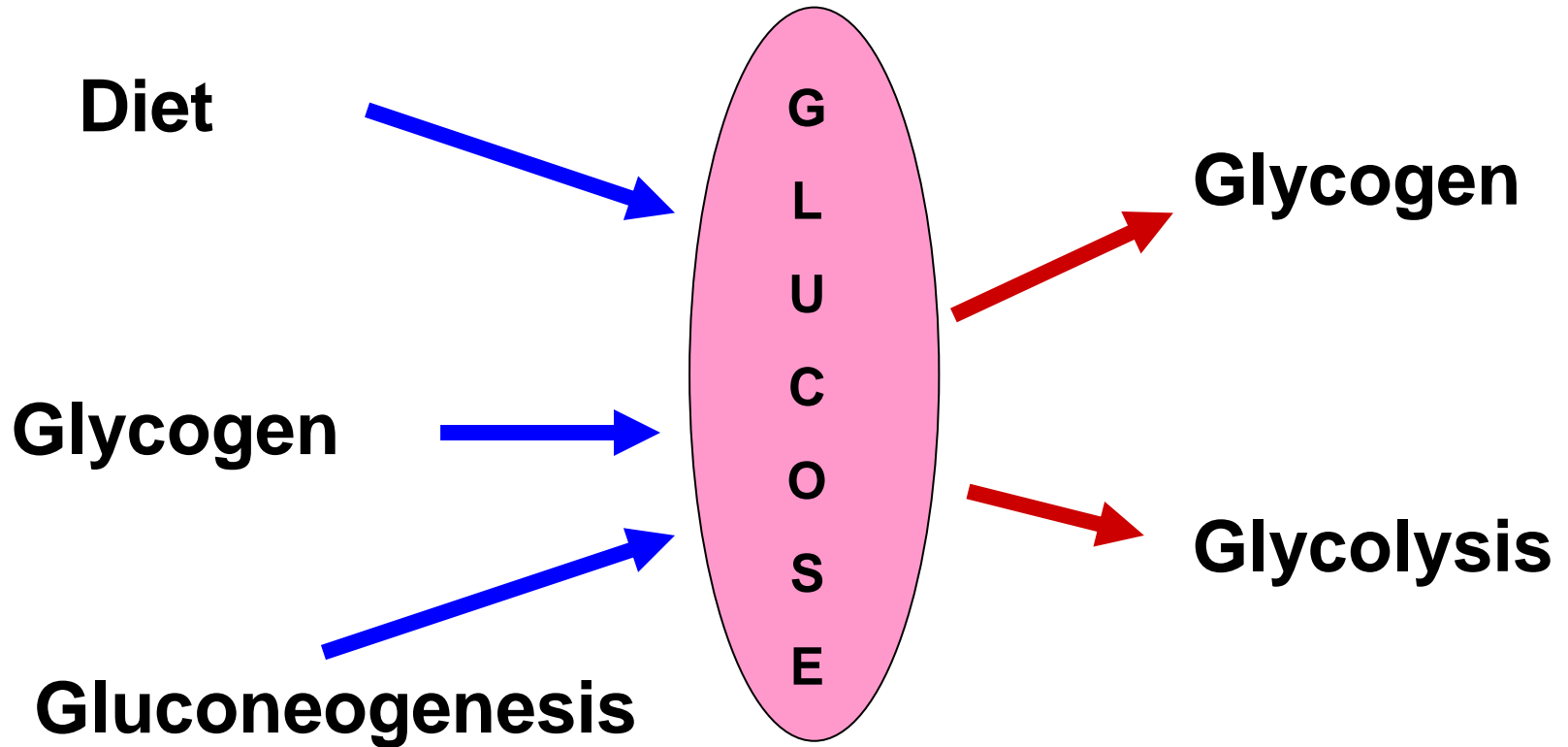
L-gulonolactone



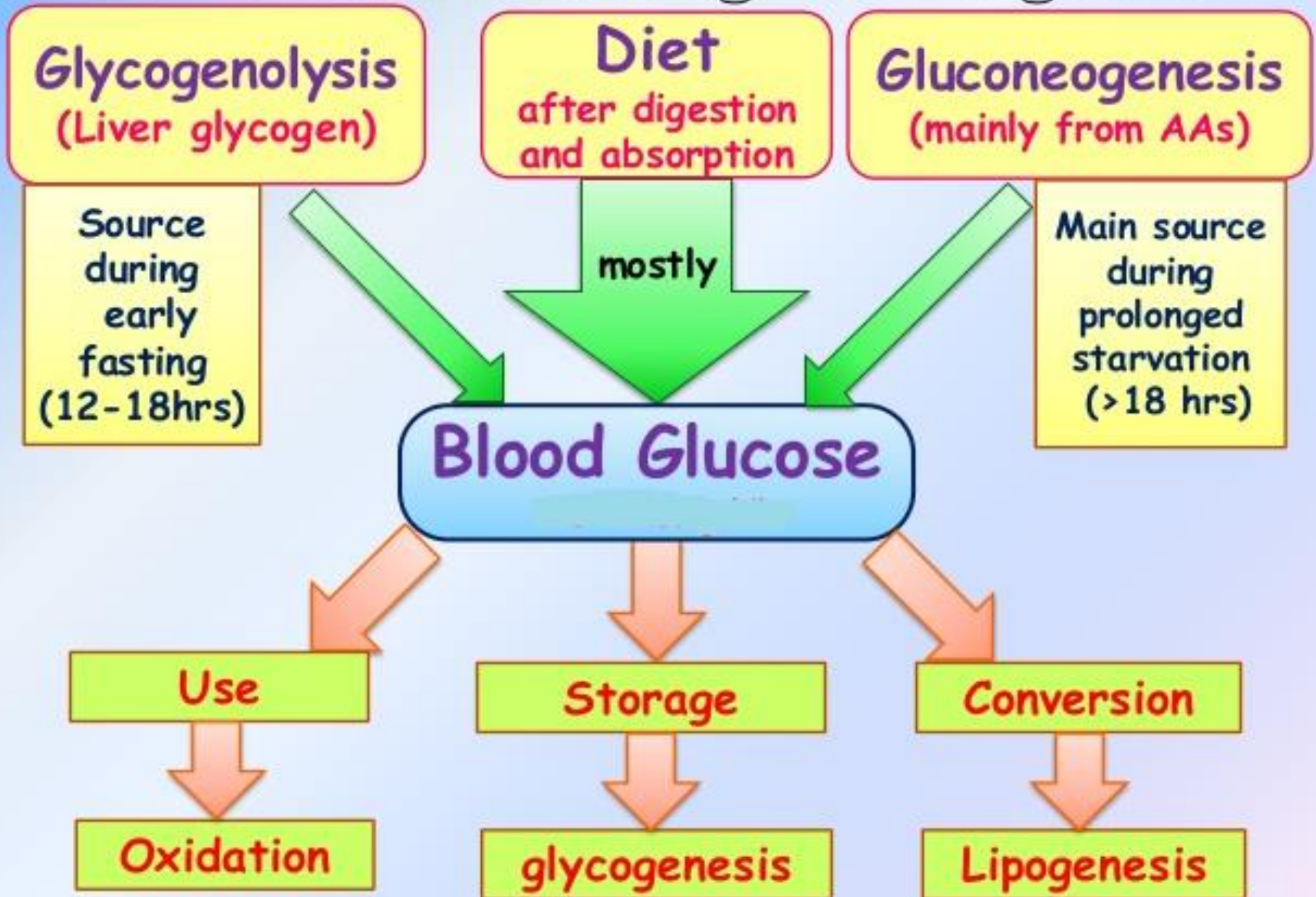
L-ascorbate (vitamin C)

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Regulation of Glucose Concentration in the Blood



Factors maintaining blood glucose



Signs & Symptoms

Here's what may happen when your blood sugar is high:



Very thirsty



Needing to pass urine more often than usual



Dry skin



Very hungry



Sleepy



Blurry vision



Infections or injuries that heal more slowly than usual

What goes wrong when the concentration decreases?

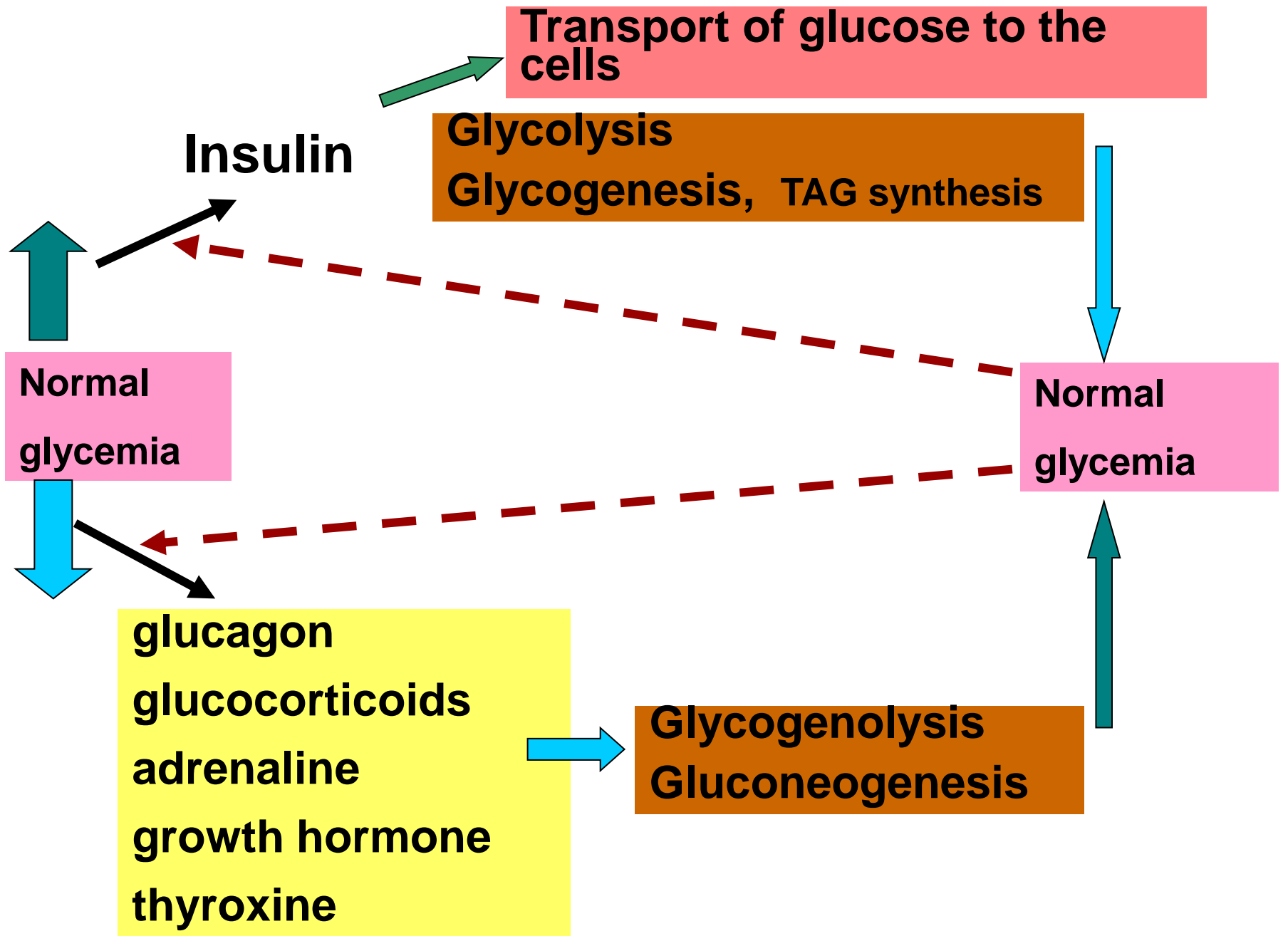
Hypoglycaemia

The symptoms associated with low blood sugar are:

tiredness, confusion, dizziness, headaches, mood swings, muscle weakness, tremors,

irreversible CNS damage, coma, death





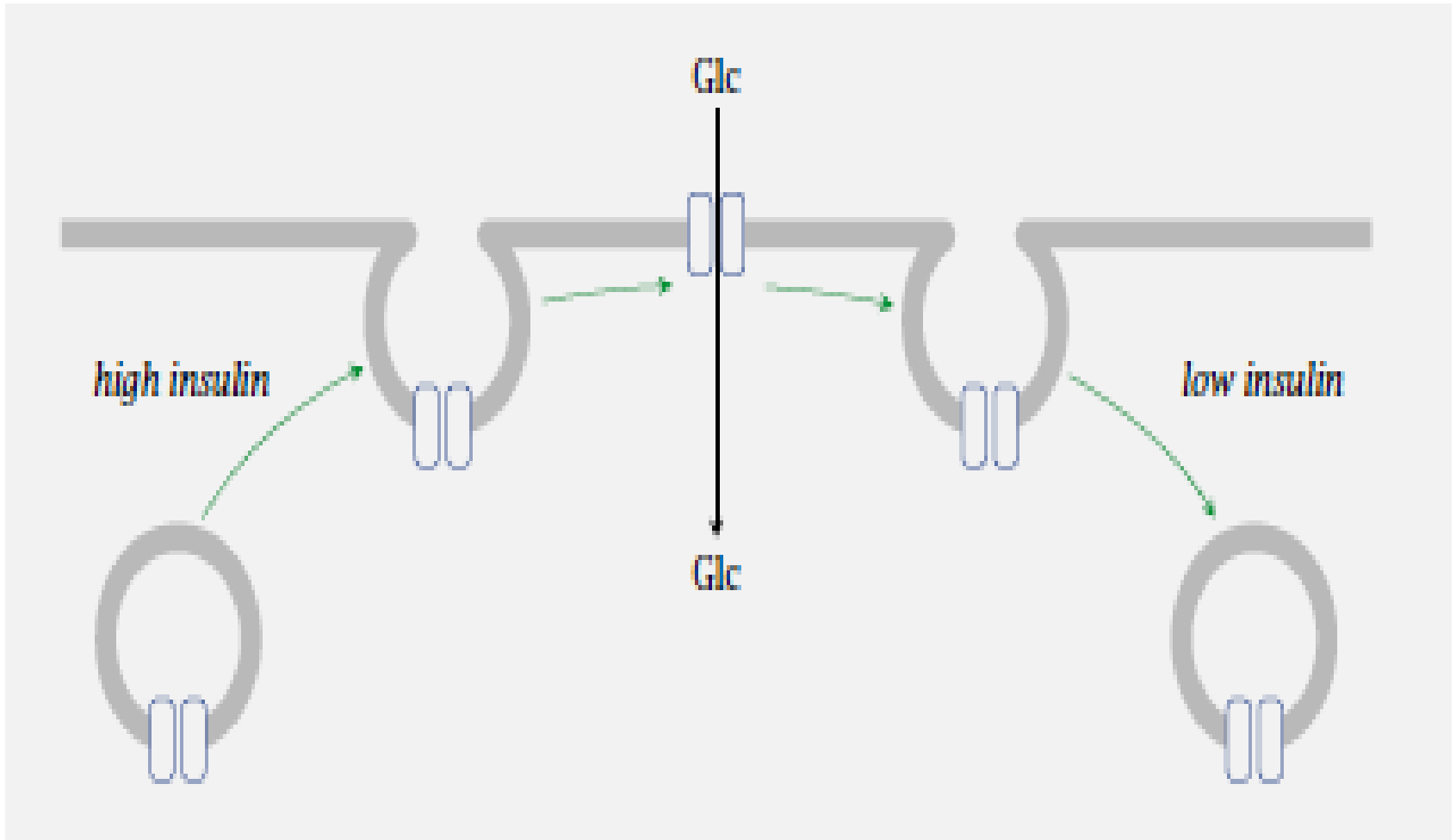
Regulation of Glucose Concentration in the Blood

Insulin:

- transport of glucose to the cell
 - glycogen synthesis
 - glycolysis
-
- glyconeogenesis



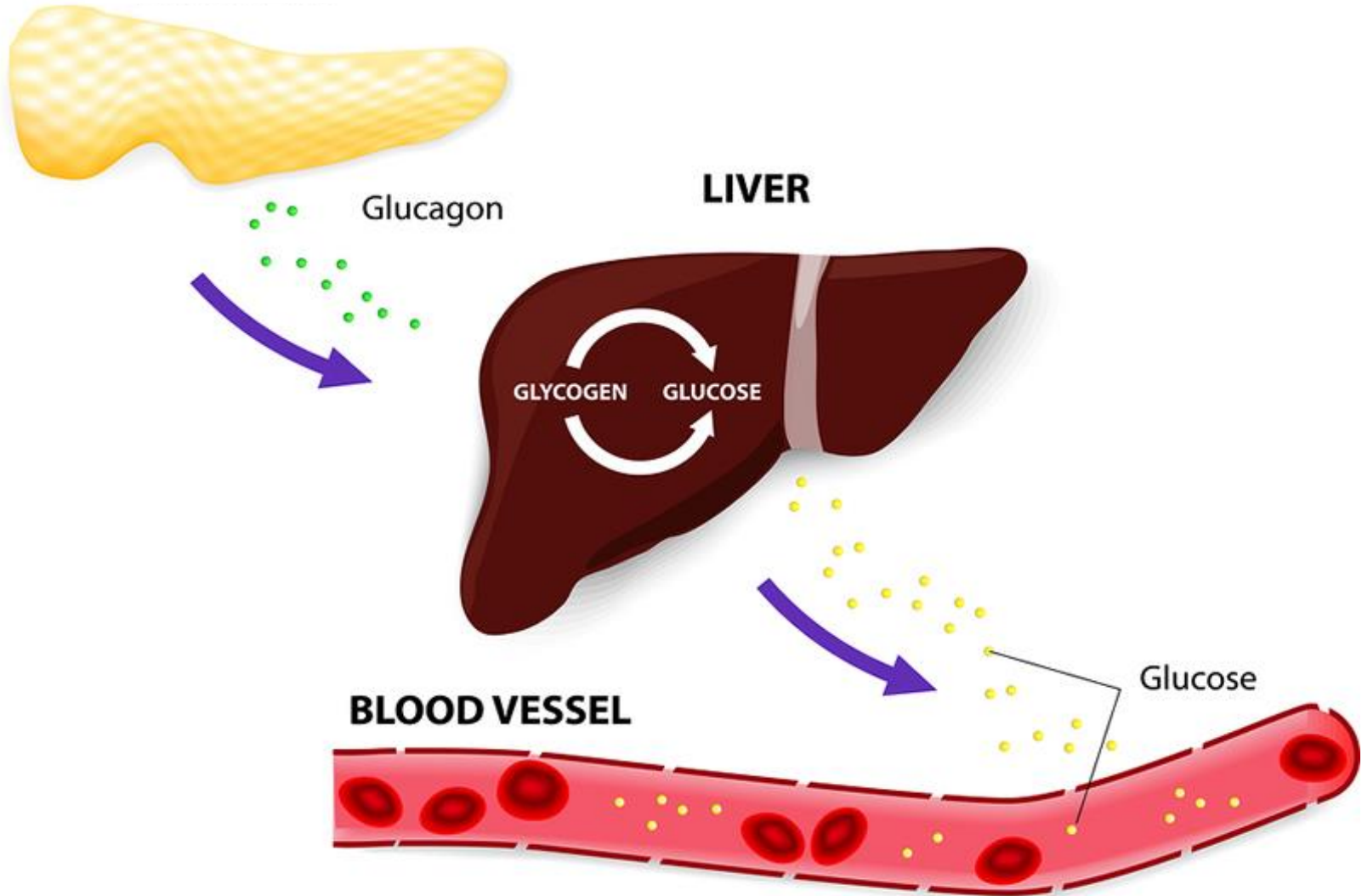
Insulin promotes glucose uptake by increasing the surface exposure of GLUT 4 transporters



Glucagon



- glycogenolysis
- glyconeogenesis



Epinephrine



- glycogenolysis

Thyroid hormone



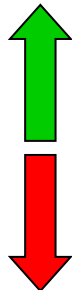
- glycogenolysis
- glycogenesis

Growth hormone



- glucose uptake

Glucocorticoids



- glycogenesis
- glucose uptake

Diabetes mellitus

A chronic disease due primarily to a disorder of carbohydrate metabolism, cause of which is **deficiency or diminished effectiveness of insulin,** resulting in hyperglycaemia and glycosuria. Secondary changes may occur in the metabolism of proteins, fats, water and electrolytes and in tissues/organs sometimes with grave consequences.

Two clinical types:

- **Type-I — Insulin dependent—IDDM** —typically observed in the young. It arises from an immunological cross-reaction that destroys the insulin-producing *β -cells of the pancreatic islets* which causes a lack of insulin.
- **Type-II— Non-Insulin Dependent — NIDDM** typically observed in the elderly. Type 2 diabetics may secrete normal insulin. The hormone also binds to its receptors on the cells in the body, which however fail to respond adequately to this stimulus (lacking functional response).

Types of diabetes

Type 1 – No Insulin

Type 2- Less insulin+ Insulin resistance

Islet Cell



95%

+



Gestational Diabetes



Main symptoms of Diabetes

blue = more common
in Type 1

- Central**
- Polydipsia
 - Polyphagia
 - Lethargy
 - Stupor

- Eyes**
- Blurred vision

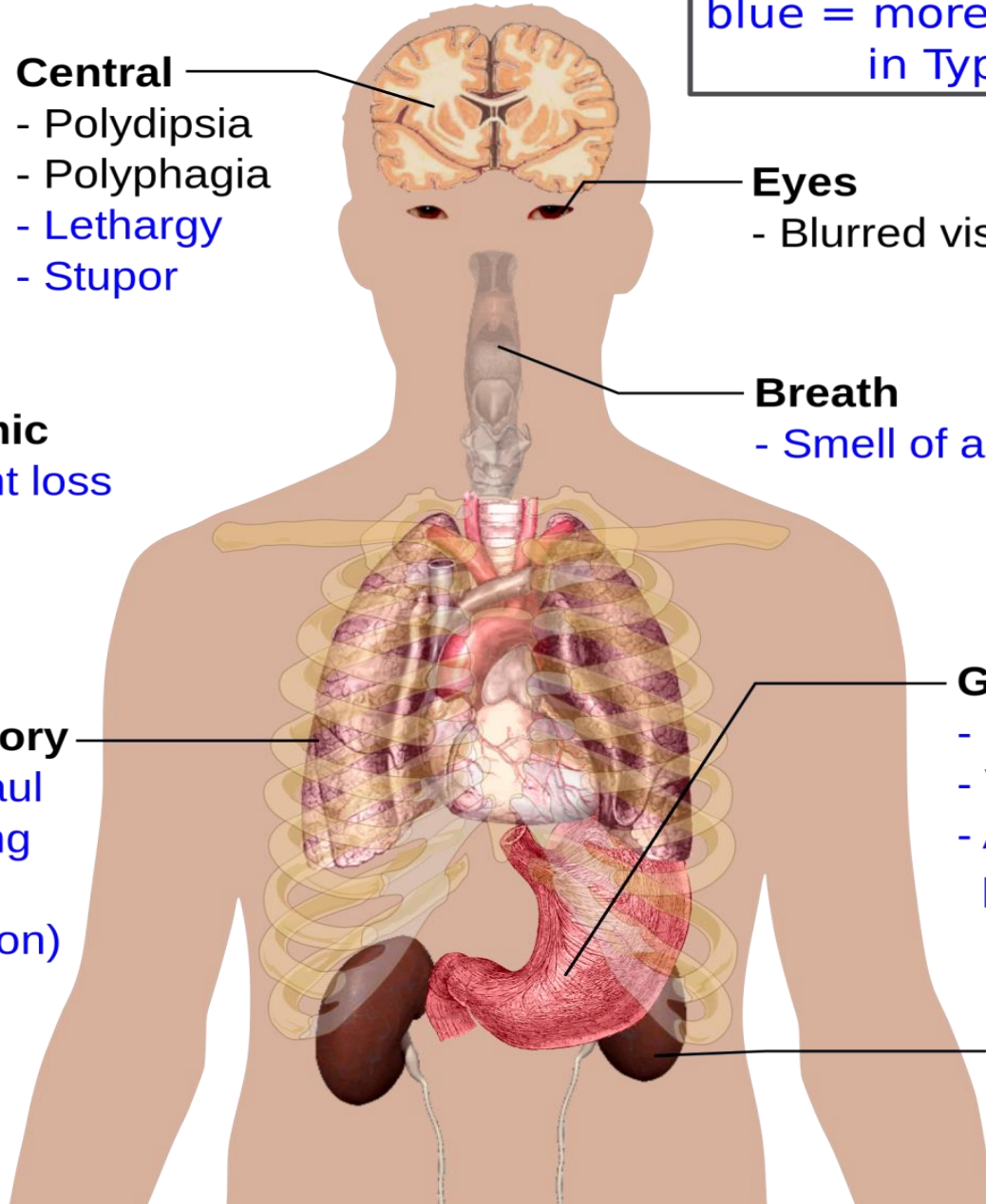
- Systemic**
- Weight loss

- Breath**
- Smell of acetone

- Respiratory**
- Kussmaul breathing (hyper-ventilation)

- Gastric**
- Nausea
 - Vomiting
 - Abdominal pain

- Urinary**
- Polyuria
 - Glycosuria



CLINICAL FEATURES

- Large amounts of glucose may be excreted in urine (glucoseuria)
- Loss of solute produces osmotic diuresis thus large volume of urine (polyuria).
- Loss of fluid leads to thirst and polydypsia.
- Polyphagia: eats more frequently.
- Tissues cannot use glucose due to absolute or relative deficiency of insulin/ or transport defect to cells. This causes **weakness** and **tiredness**.

CLINICAL FEATURES

- As glucose cannot be used for fuel, fat is mobilized leading to **increase FFA in blood**.
- Increased acetyl-CoA is diverted for cholesterol synthesis - **hypercholesterolaemia and atherosclerosis**. Xanthomas may develop.
- **Increased ketone bodies leads to acidosis**. If ketosis is severe, acetone will be breathed out, giving characteristic “fruity” smell in breath (due to acetone).

CLINICAL FEATURES

- Excessive breakdown of tissue proteins. Deaminated amino acids are catabolised to provide energy, which accounts for **loss of weight**.
- Continued loss of water and electrolytes increases **dehydration**.
- Ketoacidosis produces increasing drowsiness, leading to diabetic coma in untreated cases.

Diabetes mellitus

Insulin deficiency

**Decreased
glucose uptake**

**Increased
protein
catabolism**

**Increased
lipolysis**

**Hyperglycemia
Glycosuria
Osmotic diuresis
Electrolyte
depletion**

**Increased
plasma a/a,
Nitrogen loss
with urine**

**Increased
plasma FFA,
Ketogenesis,
Ketonuria
ketonemia**

Long-term complications of diabetes

Biochemical deviation	Clinical manifestation
accumulation of sorbitol in the lens of the eye	cataract
increased conversion of glucose to lipids	increased blood fats, atherosclerosis
glucosylation of proteins sorbitol accumulation	damage to nerve fibres, kidneys, other organs

Factors Causing

