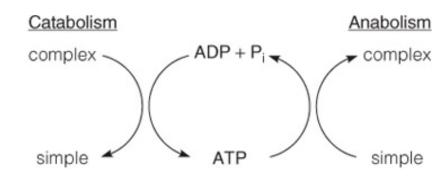
Chapter 12

Chemical Logic of Metabolism

Metabolism can be subdivided into two major categories:

- Catabolism those processes in which complex substances are degraded to simpler molecules.
- Anabolism those processes concerned primarily with the synthesis of complex organic molecules.
- •Catabolism is generally accompanied by the *net release* of chemical energy.
- •Anabolism requires a *net input* of chemical energy.
- •These two sets of reactions are coupled together by ATP.



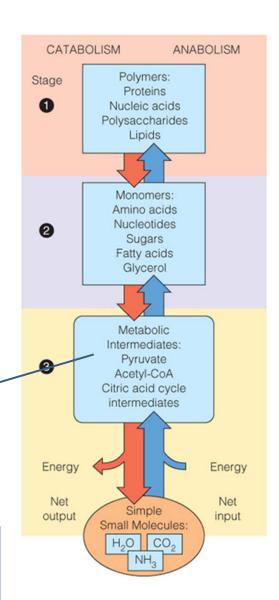
Both catabolic and anabolic pathways occur in three stages of complexity:

Stage 1: the interconversion of polymers and complex lipids with monomeric intermediates

Stage 2: the interconversion of monomeric sugars, amino acids, and lipids with still simpler organic compounds

Stage 3: the ultimate degradation to, or synthesis from, inorganic compounds, including CO₂, H₂O and NH₃.

Intermediary metabolism refers primarily to the biosynthesis, utilization, and degradation of low-molecular-weight compound (intermediates).



- A fundamental distinction among organisms lies in the source of their fuel molecules.
- **Autotrophs** 自營性 (from Greek, "self-feeding") synthesize glucose and all of their other organic compounds from inorganic carbon, supplied as CO₂.
- Heterotrophs 異營性 ("feeding on others") can synthesize their organic metabolites only from other organic compounds, which they must therefore consume.
- A primary difference between plants and animals is that plants are autotrophs and animals are heterotrophs.



mixotrophs

- Microorganisms show adaptability with respect to their ability to survive in the <u>absence of oxygen</u>.
- Virtually all multicellular organisms and many bacteria are strictly *aerobic* organisms; they depend absolutely upon *respiration*, the coupling of energy generation to the oxidation of nutrients by oxygen.
- By contrast, many microorganisms either can, or must, grow in anaerobic environments, deriving their metabolic energy from processes that do not involve molecular oxygen.

Central metabolic pathways and intermediates

Catabolic pathways

Polysaccharides Proteins Nucleic acids Lipids Monosaccharides Glycerol Fatty acids > Nucleotides Amino acids Glucose Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate Pyruvate Acetyl-CoA Citric acid CO2 (NADH, FADH_o) Electron Protonmotive force ADP + P Catabolic Oxidative pathway phosphorylation Anabolic FIGURE 12.2 pathway Overview of metabolism. Shown here are the Electron flow Oxidized central metabolic pathways and some key interelectron carriers mediates. In this figure, catabolic pathways (red) (NAD+, FAD) proceed downward and anabolic pathways (blue)

proceed upward. Note the three stages of

metabolism.

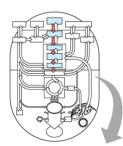
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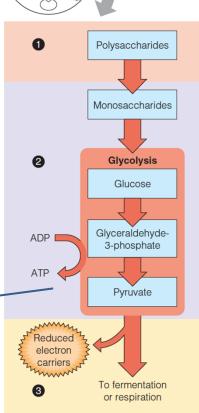
Anabolic pathways

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- The first pathway that we study is glycolysis (Ch13), a stage 2 pathway for degradation of carbohydrates, in either aerobic or anaerobic cells.
- The major input to glycolysis is glucose, usually derived from either energy-storage polysaccharides or dietary carbohydrates.
- This pathway leads to **pyruvate** 丙酮酸, a three-carbon α -keto acid.
- Anaerobic organisms reduce pyruvate to a variety of products, for example lactate, or ethanol plus carbon dioxide.
- These processes are called fermentations.

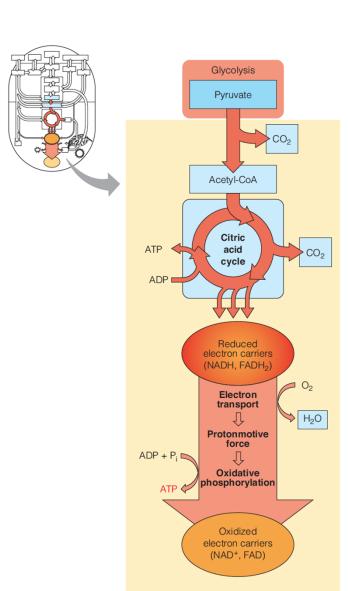
Pyruvate either undergoes reduction in fermentation reactions or enters oxidative metabolism (respiration) via conversion to acetyl-CoA





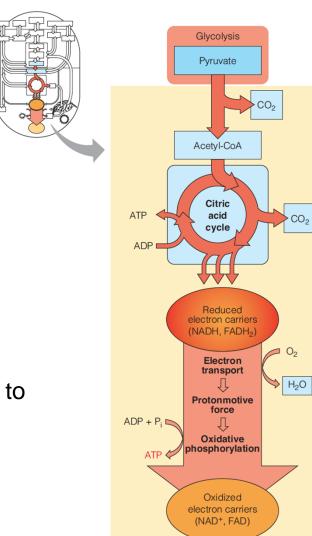
- In oxidative metabolism (respiration), the major fate of pyruvate is its oxidation to a metabolically activated two-carbon fragment, acetyl-CoA.
- The two carbons in the acetyl group then undergo oxidation in the citric acid cycle.
- In aerobic organisms the citric acid cycle is the principal stage 3 pathway.
- This cyclic pathway accepts simple carbon compounds, derived not only from carbohydrate but also from lipid or protein, and oxidizes them to CO₂.

- Oxidative reactions of the citric acid cycle generate reduced electron carriers whose reoxidation drives ATP biosynthesis, primarily through processes in the mitochondrial respiratory chain—electron transport and oxidative phosphorylation.
- The mitochondrial membrane uses oxidative energy to maintain a transmembrane gradient of hydrogen ion concentration (the *protonmotive force*), and discharge of this electrochemical potential energy powers the synthesis of ATP from ADP + P_i.



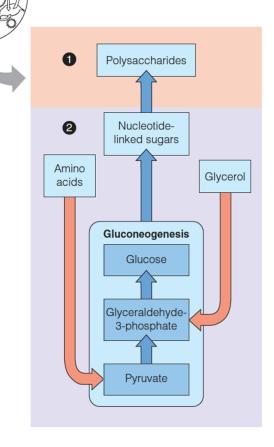
Oxidative metabolism:

- Oxidative metabolism includes
 - Pyruvate oxidation
 - The citric acid cycle
 - Electron transport
 - Oxidative phosphorylation
- •Pyruvate oxidation supplies acetyl-CoA to the citric acid cycle.

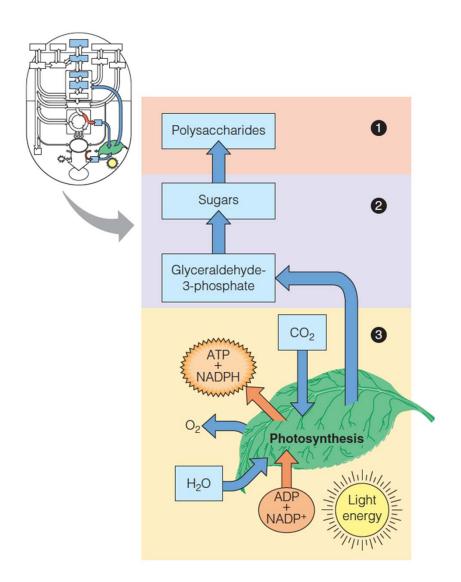


Carbohydrate anabolism:

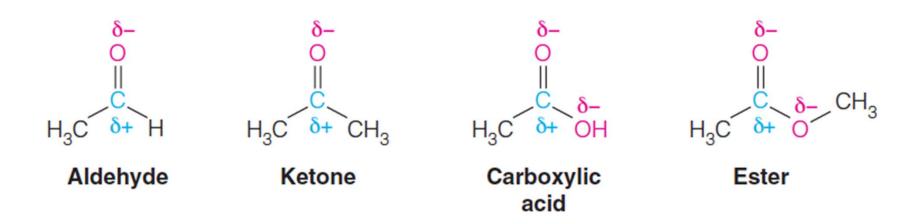
•Biosynthesis of carbohydrates includes gluconeogenesis and polysaccharide synthesis.



Photosynthesis:



Biochemical Reaction Types



- Much of the chemistry of biological molecules is the chemistry of the carbonyl group because the vast majority of biological molecules contain them.
- Most of the chemistry of carbonyl groups involves nucleophiles
 (abbreviated "Nu:") and electrophiles.

Biochemical Reaction Types

- Energy production in most cells involves the oxidation of fuel molecules such as glucose.
- Oxidation-reduction, or *redox*, chemistry thus lies at the core of metabolism.
- Redox reactions involve reversible electron transfer from a donor (the reductant) to an acceptor (the oxidant).
- In this example, because the alcohol has lost a pair of electrons and two
 hydrogen atoms, this type of oxidation is called *dehydrogenation*, and
 enzymes that catalyze this reaction are called *dehydrogenase*.

Why redox reaction produces energy? Basic oxidation-reduction reaction

reductant electron-donating
$$Fe^{2+} \rightleftharpoons Fe^{3+} + e^{-}$$

oxidant electron-accepting $Cu^{2+} + e^{-} \rightleftharpoons Cu^{+}$
 $Fe^{2+} + Cu^{2+} \rightleftharpoons Fe^{3+} + Cu^{+}$

- Biological oxidation-reduction reactions: <u>another kind of</u> electron transfer for bioenergy
- glucose $\rightarrow \rightarrow \rightarrow \rightarrow$ O2 (higher affinity for electrons)
- Many biochemical oxidation-reduction reactions involve transfer of two electrons
- In order to keep charges in balance, proton transfer often accompanies electron transfer
- In many dehydrogenases, the reaction proceeds by a stepwise transfers of proton (H⁺) and hydride (:H⁻)

Types of electron transfer in cells

• electrons, redox pair

$$Fe^{2+} + Cu^{2+} \Longrightarrow Fe^{3+} + Cu^{+}$$

hydrogen atoms

$$AH_2 \Longrightarrow A + 2e^- + 2H^+$$

• hydride ion :H⁻

$$AH_2 + B \Longrightarrow A + BH_2$$

combination with oxygen

$$R-CH_3 + \frac{1}{2}O_2 \longrightarrow R-CH_2-OH$$

Redox: reduction-oxidation reaction

Reduction Potentials Measure Affinity for Electrons

measure of the tendency of a chemical species to <u>acquire electrons</u> and thereby be reduced

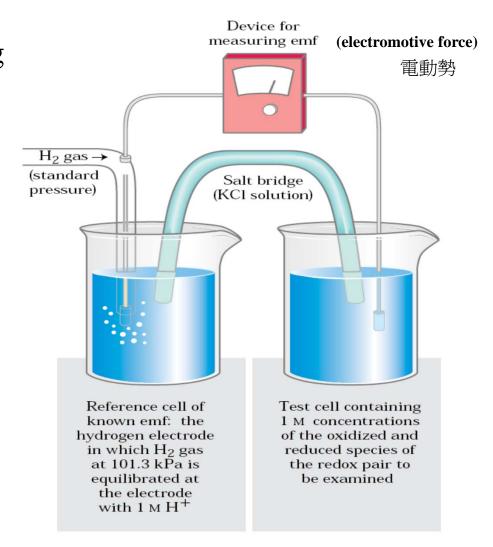
E⁰ = standard reduction potential 標準還原電位

$$H^+ + e^- \longrightarrow \frac{1}{2}H_2$$

The electrode at which this half-reaction (half cell) occurs \rightarrow E⁰=0.00 V

Measurement of E⁰ using H+ half cell 標準氫電極

electrons tend to flow from lower standard reduction potential to higher standard reduction potential



• The half-cell with the stronger tendency to <u>acquire</u> <u>electrons</u> is assigned a <u>positive</u> value of E.

Add concentrations...

$$E = E^{\circ} + \frac{RT}{n7} \ln \frac{\text{[electron acceptor]}}{\text{[electron donor]}}$$

n is the number of electrons transferred per molecule, and F is the Faraday constant

$$E = E^{\circ} + \frac{0.026 \text{ V}}{n} \ln \frac{\text{[electron acceptor]}}{\text{[electron donor]}}$$

$$pH=7... \rightarrow E'^{0}$$

ΔE and ΔG

the direction in which electrons will tend to flow when the two half-cells are connected can be predicted with E

Electrons tend to flow to the half-cell with the more positive E

The energy made available by this spontaneous electron flow (the free-energy change for the oxidation-reduction reaction) is proportional to ΔE

$$\Delta G = -n\mathcal{F} \Delta E$$
 or $\Delta G^{\circ} = -n\mathcal{F} \Delta E^{\circ}$

For example...

Acetaldehyde + NADH +
$$H^+ \longrightarrow ethanol + NAD^+$$

Acetaldehyde +
$$2H^+ + 2e^- \longrightarrow$$
 ethanol $E'^{\circ} = -0.197 \text{ V}$
 $NAD^+ + 2H^+ + 2e^- \longrightarrow NADH + H^+$ $E'^{\circ} = -0.320 \text{ V}$

$$\Delta E^{\prime \circ} = -0.197 \text{ V} - (-0.320 \text{ V}) = 0.123 \text{ V}$$

$$\Delta G^{\circ} = -n \mathcal{F} \Delta E^{\circ} = -2(96.5 \text{ kJ/V} \cdot \text{mol})(0.123 \text{ V})$$

= -23.7 kJ/mol

All concentrations = 1

When concentration is involved...

$$\begin{split} E_{\text{acetaldehyde}} &= E^{\circ} + \frac{RT}{n7} \ln \frac{[\text{acetaldehyde}]}{[\text{ethanol}]} \\ &= -0.197 \text{ V} + \frac{0.026 \text{ V}}{2} \ln \frac{1.00}{0.100} = -0.167 \text{ V} \\ E_{\text{NADH}} &= E^{\circ} + \frac{RT}{n7} \ln \frac{[\text{NAD}^{+}]}{[\text{NADH}]} \\ &= -0.320 \text{ V} + \frac{0.026 \text{ V}}{2} \ln \frac{1.00}{0.100} = -0.350 \text{ V} \end{split}$$

$$\Delta E = -0.167 \text{ V} - (-0.350) \text{ V} = 0.183 \text{ V}$$

$$\Delta G = -n\mathcal{F} \Delta E$$
= -2(96.5 kJ/V · mol)(0.183 V)
= -35.3 kJ/mol

Most of the energy source in living systems

 Most biological energy derives from <u>oxidation</u> of reduced metabolites in a series of reactions, with **oxygen as the** final electron acceptor.

a strong oxidant; attract electrons

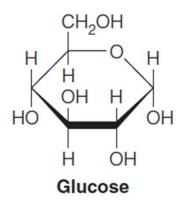
$$C_6H_{12}O_6 + 6O_2 \rightarrow 6CO_2 + 6H_2O$$
 $\Delta G^{\circ\prime} = -2870 \text{ kJ/mol}$ $C_6H_{12}O_6 + 10\text{NAD}^+ + 2\text{FAD} + 6H_2O \rightarrow 6CO_2 + 10\text{NADH} + 10H^+ + 2\text{FADH}_2$ $10\text{NADH} + 10H^+ + 2\text{FADH}_2 + 6O_2 \rightarrow 10\text{NAD}^+ + 2\text{FAD} + 12H_2O$ $\rightarrow 6CO_2 + 6H_2O$

transfer of electrons from these intermediate electron carriers to oxygen is catalyzed by the electron transport chain

free energy as chemical energy (synthesis of ATP)

- Not all metabolic energy comes from oxidation by oxygen.
- Substances other than oxygen can serve as terminal electron acceptors.
- Many microorganisms either can or must live anaerobically.
- For example, Desulfovibrio 脫硫弧菌 carry out anaerobic respiration using <u>sulfate</u> as the terminal electron acceptor:

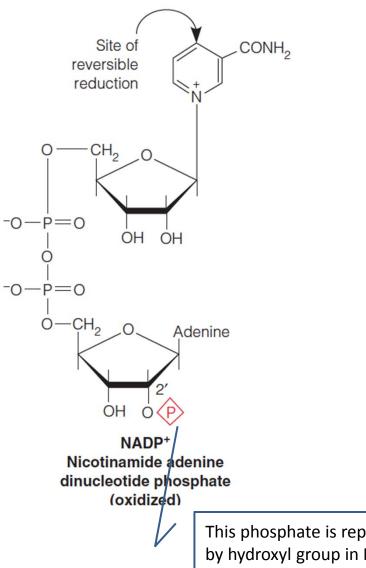
$$SO_4^{2^-} + 8e^- + 8H^+ \rightarrow S^{2^-} + 4H_2O$$



- The combustion of fat provides more heat energy than the combustion of an equivalent mass of carbohydrate.
- In other words, fat has a higher caloric content than carbohydrate.
- $CH_3(CH_2)_{14}COOH$ Palmitic acid
- Compare the oxidation of glucose with the oxidation of a typical saturated fatty acid, palmitic acid 棕欖酸 (十六烷 酸).

$$C_6H_{12}O_6 + 6O_2 \rightarrow 6CO_2 + 6H_2O$$
 $\Delta G^{\circ\prime} = -3.74 \text{ kcal/g}$ $C_{16}H_{32}O_2 + 23O_2 \rightarrow 16CO_2 + 16H_2O$ $\Delta G^{\circ\prime} = -9.30 \text{ kcal/g}$

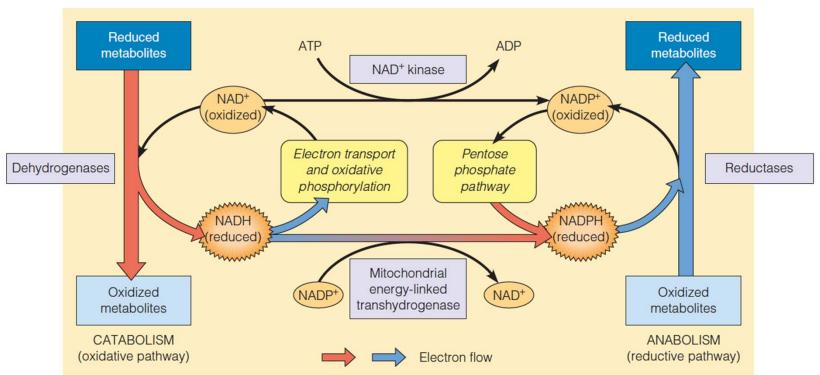
- The major source of electrons for reductive biosynthesis is NADPH, nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate (reduced).
- NADP+ and NADPH are identical to NAD+ and NADH, respectively, except that the former have an additional phosphate esterified at C-2 on the adenylate moiety.



This phosphate is replaced by hydroxyl group in NAD+

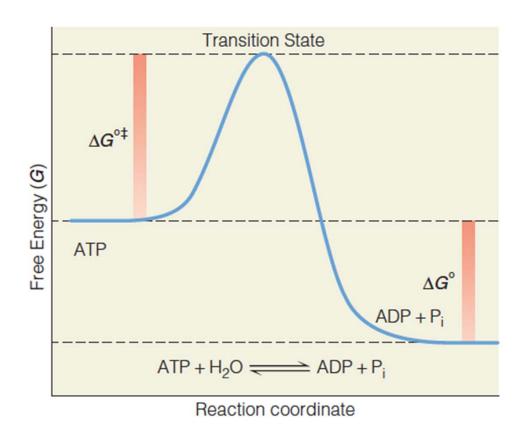
Nicotinamide nucleotides in catabolism and biosynthesis:

- •NAD+ is the cofactor for most enzymes that act in the direction of substrate oxidation (dehydrogenases).
- •NADPH usually functions as a cofactor for reductases, enzymes that catalyze substrate reduction.

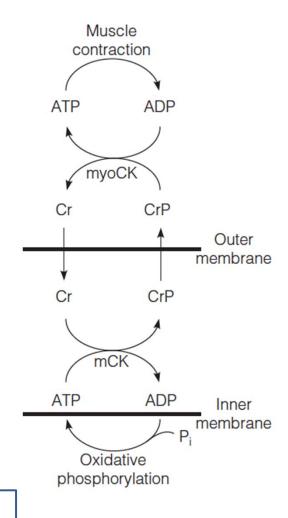


- The fundamental biological role of ATP as an energy-coupling compound is to <u>convert thermodynamically</u> <u>unfavorable processes into favorable processes</u>.
- Activated intermediates, such as ATP, allow reactions to occur under physiologically relevant concentrations of metabolic intermediates.

• **Phosphoanhydride** bonds 酐鍵 are thermodynamically unstable, but kinetically stable—large free energies of activation require enzymes to lower the activation barrier.



 ATP can drive the synthesis of higherenergy compounds, if nonequilibrium intracellular concentrations make such reactions exergonic.



ATP breakdown is usually coupled with a thermodynamically unfavorable reaction

- ATP can also drive the synthesis of compounds of even higher phosphate transfer potential, such as *creatine phosphate*.
- This compound shuttles phosphate bond energy from ATP in mitochondria to myofibrils, where that bond energy is transduced to the mechanical energy of muscle contraction.
- Creatine phosphate (CrP) is produced from creatine by the enzyme creatine kinase:

$$\begin{array}{c} \stackrel{\uparrow}{\text{NH}_2} \\ \text{H}_2\text{N} - \text{C} - \text{N} - \text{CH}_2 - \text{COO}^- + \text{ATP} & \longrightarrow & -\text{O} - \text{P} - \text{N} - \text{C} - \text{N} - \text{CH}_2 - \text{COO}^- + \text{ADP} \\ \text{CH}_3 & & \text{Creatine} \\ \end{array}$$

the phosphate released from ATP does not become Pj but instead is transferred directly to creatine

Other High-Energy compounds

table 14-6

Standard Free Energies of Hydrolysis of Some Phosphorylated Compounds and Acetyl-CoA (a Thioester)

	$\Delta G^{\prime\circ}$	
	(kJ/mol)	(kcal/mol)
Phosphoenolpyruvate	-61.9	-14.8
1,3-bisphosphoglycerate (→ 3-phosphoglycerate + P _i)	-49.3	-11.8
Phosphocreatine	-43.0	-10.3
$ADP (\rightarrow AMP + P_i)$	-32.8	-7.8
\bigcirc ATP (\rightarrow ADP + P _i)	-30.5	-7.3
ATP (\rightarrow AMP + PP _i)	-45.6	-10.9
AMP (→ adenosine + P _i)	-14.2	-3.4
$PP_i (\rightarrow 2P_i)$	-19	-4.0
Glucose 1-phosphate	-20.9	-5.0
Fructose 6-phosphate	-15.9	-3.8
Glucose 6-phosphate	-13.8	-3.3
Glycerol 1-phosphate	-9.2	-2.2
Acetyl-CoA	-31.4	-7.5

Phosphoenolpyruvate (PEP): phosphate ester bond

(glycolysis and gluconeogenesis)

1,3-bisphosphoglycerate (1,3 BPG): anhydride bond

(glycolysis, photosynthesis)

1,3-Bisphosphoglycerate

3-Phosphoglyceric acid

3-Phosphoglycerate

1,3-Bisphosphoglycerate⁴⁻ +
$$H_2O$$
 \longrightarrow 3-phosphoglycerate³⁻ + P_i^{2-} + H^+ $\Delta G'^{\circ}$ = -49.3 kJ/mol

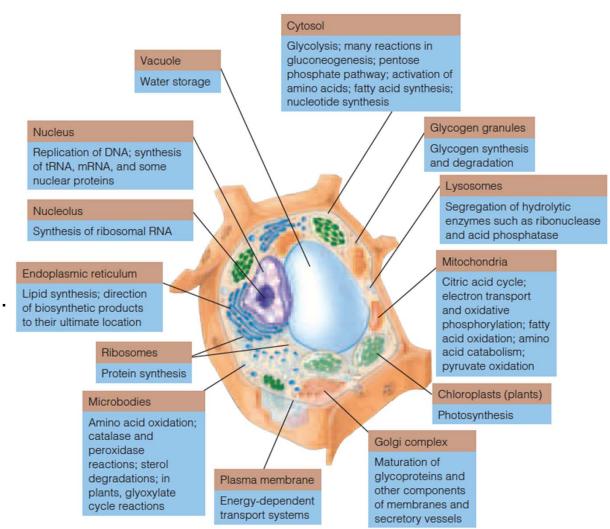
Phosphocreatine: the P-N bond

$$\begin{array}{c} COO^- \\ CH_2 \\ H \\ O-P-N-C-N-CH_3 \\ \hline O-P-N+NH_2 \\ \hline Phosphocreatine \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} H_2O \\ H_2N-C-N-CH_3 \\ \hline Phosphocreatine \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} CH_2 \\ H_2N-C-N-CH_3 \\ \hline Phosphocreatine \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} CH_2 \\ H_2N-C-N-CH_3 \\ \hline Phosphocreatine \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} CH_2 \\ H_2N-C-N-CH_3 \\ \hline Phosphocreatine \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} CH_2 \\ H_2N-C-N-CH_3 \\ \hline Phosphocreatine \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} CH_2 \\ H_2N-C-N-CH_3 \\ \hline Phosphocreatine \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} CH_2 \\ H_2N-C-N-CH_3 \\ \hline Phosphocreatine \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} CH_2 \\ H_2N-C-N-CH_3 \\ \hline Phosphocreatine \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} CH_2 \\ H_2N-C-N-CH_3 \\ \hline Phosphocreatine \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} CH_2 \\ H_2N-C-N-CH_3 \\ \hline Phosphocreatine \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} CH_2 \\ H_2N-C-N-CH_3 \\ \hline Phosphocreatine \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} CH_2 \\ H_2N-C-N-CH_3 \\ \hline Phosphocreatine \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} CH_2 \\ H_2N-C-N-CH_3 \\ \hline Phosphocreatine \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} CH_2 \\ H_2N-C-N-CH_3 \\ \hline Phosphocreatine \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} CH_2 \\ H_2N-C-N-CH_3 \\ \hline Phosphocreatine \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} CH_2 \\ H_2N-C-N-CH_3 \\ \hline Phosphocreatine \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} CH_2 \\ H_2N-C-N-CH_3 \\ \hline Phosphocreatine \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} CH_2 \\ H_2N-C-N-CH_3 \\ \hline Phosphocreatine \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} CH_2 \\ H_2N-C-N-CH_3 \\ \hline Phosphocreatine \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} CH_2 \\ H_2N-C-N-CH_3 \\ \hline Phosphocreatine \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} CH_2 \\ H_2N-C-N-CH_3 \\ \hline Phosphocreatine \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} CH_2 \\ H_2N-C-N-CH_3 \\ \hline Phosphocreatine \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} CH_2 \\ H_2N-C-N-CH_3 \\ \hline Phosphocreatine \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} CH_2 \\ H_2N-C-N-CH_3 \\ \hline Phosphocreatine \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} CH_2 \\ H_2N-C-N-CH_3 \\ \hline Phosphocreatine \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} CH_2 \\ H_2N-C-N-CH_3 \\ \hline Phosphocreatine \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} CH_2 \\ H_2N-C-N-CH_3 \\ \hline Phosphocreatine \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} CH_2 \\ H_2N-C-N-CH_3 \\ \hline Phosphocreatine \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} CH_2 \\ H_2N-C-N-CH_3 \\ \hline Phosphocreatine \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} CH_2 \\ H_2N-C-N-CH_3 \\ \hline Phosphocreatine \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} CH_2 \\ H_2N-C-N-CH_3 \\ \hline Phosphocreatine \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} CH_2 \\ H_2N-C-N-CH_3 \\ \hline Phosphocreatine \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} CH_2 \\ H_2N-C-N-CH_3 \\ \hline \end{array} \begin{array}{c} CH_2 \\ H_$$

Major Metabolic Control Mechanisms

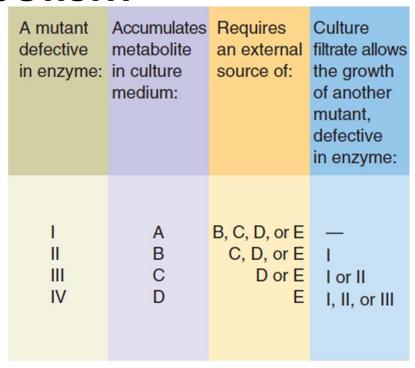
Locations of major metabolic pathways within a eukaryotic cell:

•This hypothetical cell combines features of a plant cell and an animal cell.

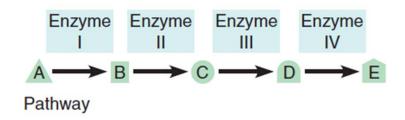


Experimental Analysis of Metabolism

- By inactivating individual enzymes, mutations and enzyme inhibitors help identify the metabolic roles of enzymes.
- The steps of a hypothetical metabolic pathway are identified by analysis of mutants defective in individual steps of the pathway.
- We can identify metabolite C as the substrate for enzyme III by the absence of this enzyme in mutants that accumulate C.
- We know that D and E follow C in the pathway because feeding either D or E to mutants defective in enzyme III bypasses the genetic block and allows the cells to grow.



Analysis of mutants



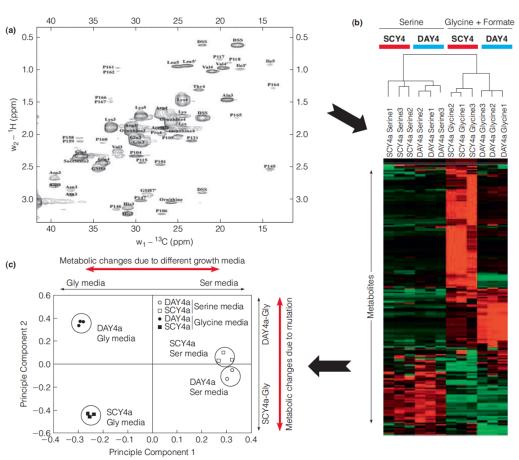
Metabolomics

- The development of these new technologies has driven the "-omics" revolution:
 - o Genomics
 - o Transcriptomics
 - o Proteomics
 - Metabolomics
- Hundreds or even thousands of specific components are measured simultaneously in a biological sample.
- Thus, it is now feasible to measure the full set of transcripts (transcriptome), proteins (proteome), or metabolites (metabolome) in a particular cell or tissue.
- The metabolome represents the ultimate molecular phenotype of a cell under a given set of conditions because all the changes in gene expression and enzyme activity eventually lead to changes in cellular metabolite levels (the metabolic state or profile).

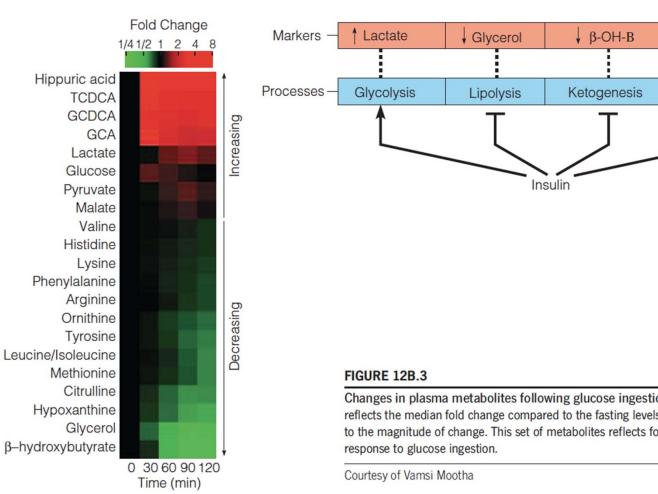
Metabolomics

Basic process of metabolic profiling:

- a) Metabolites are identified and quantified by an analytical method.
- b)Data are collected and visualized by informatics approaches.
- c)Informatics approaches are then used ^(o) to reveal relationships and patterns among the samples.



Metabolomics



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Changes in plasma metabolites following glucose ingestion. Color intensity in the heat map reflects the median fold change compared to the fasting levels. Metabolites are ordered according to the magnitude of change. This set of metabolites reflects four distinct arms of insulin action in

Amino acids

Proteolysis