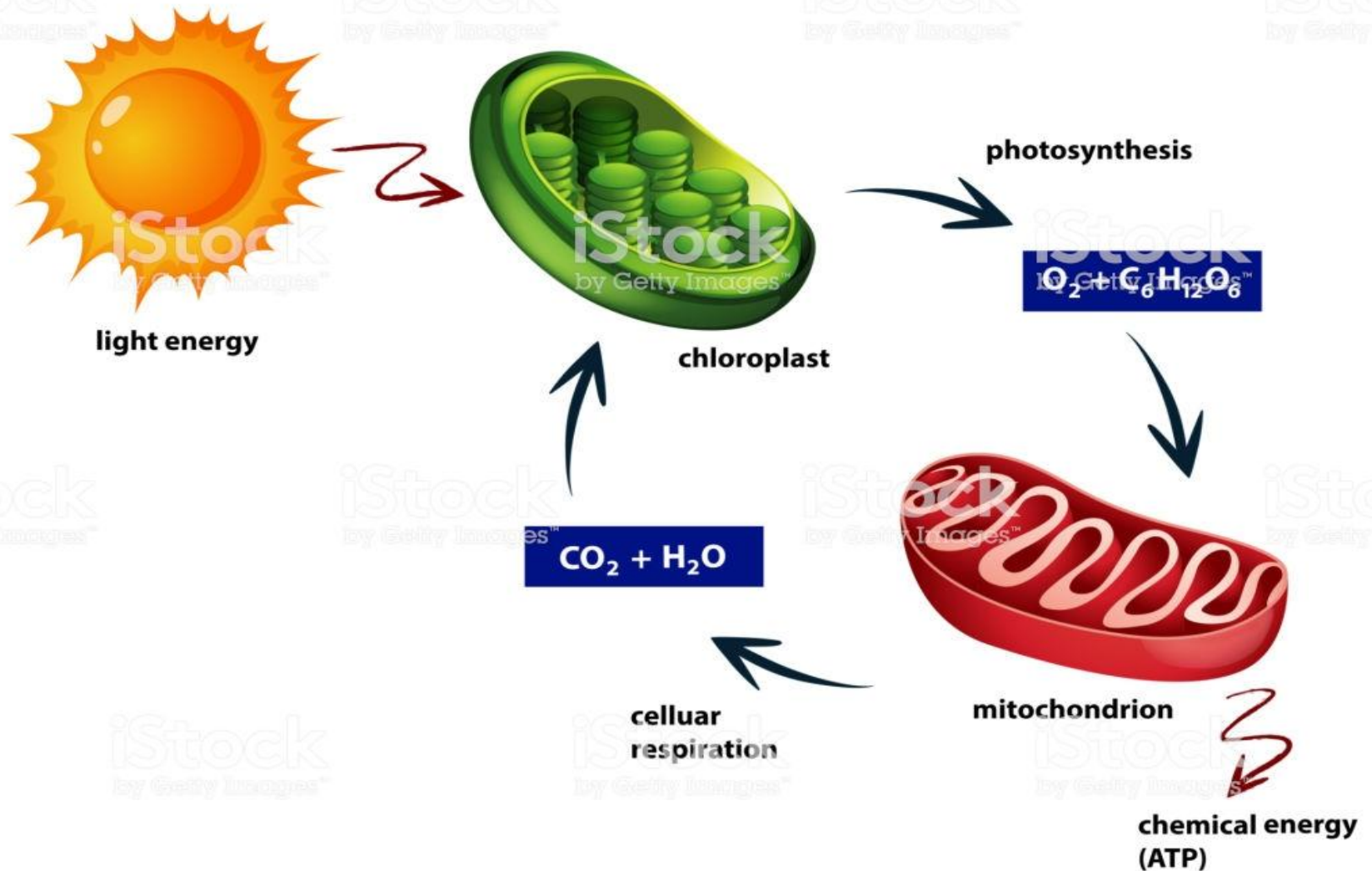


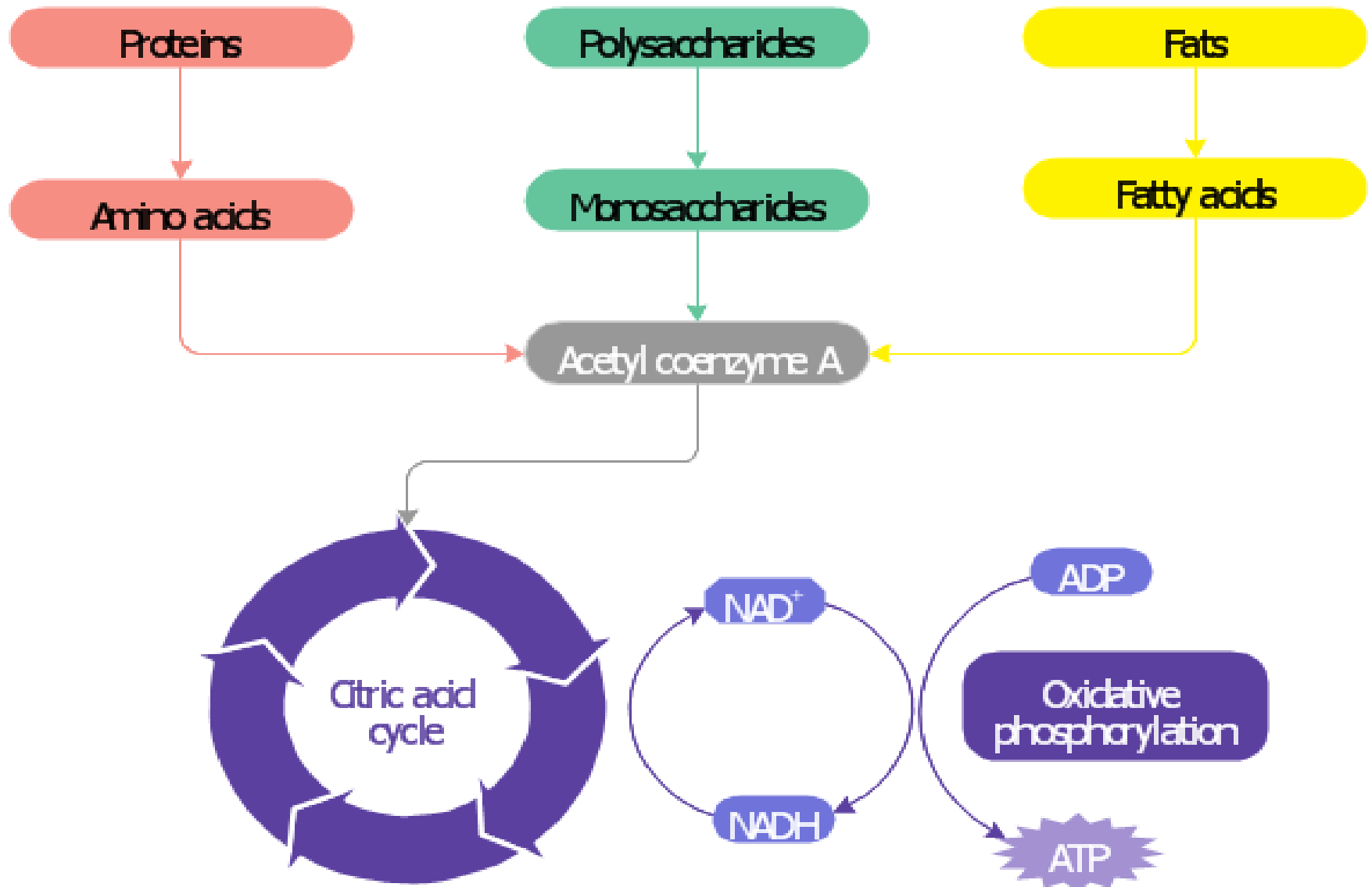
Catabolism

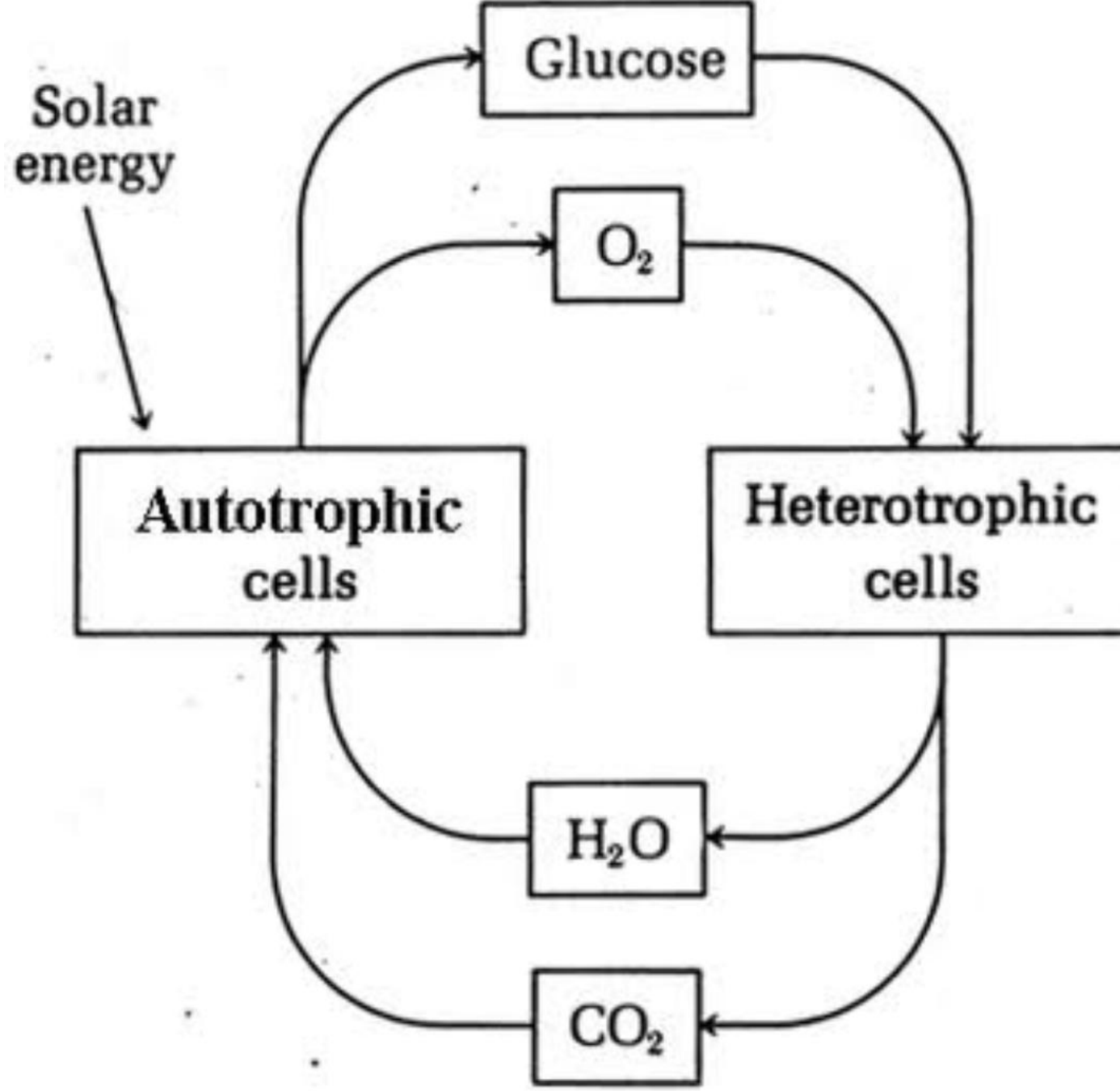
Lecture 9

Cellular Respiration



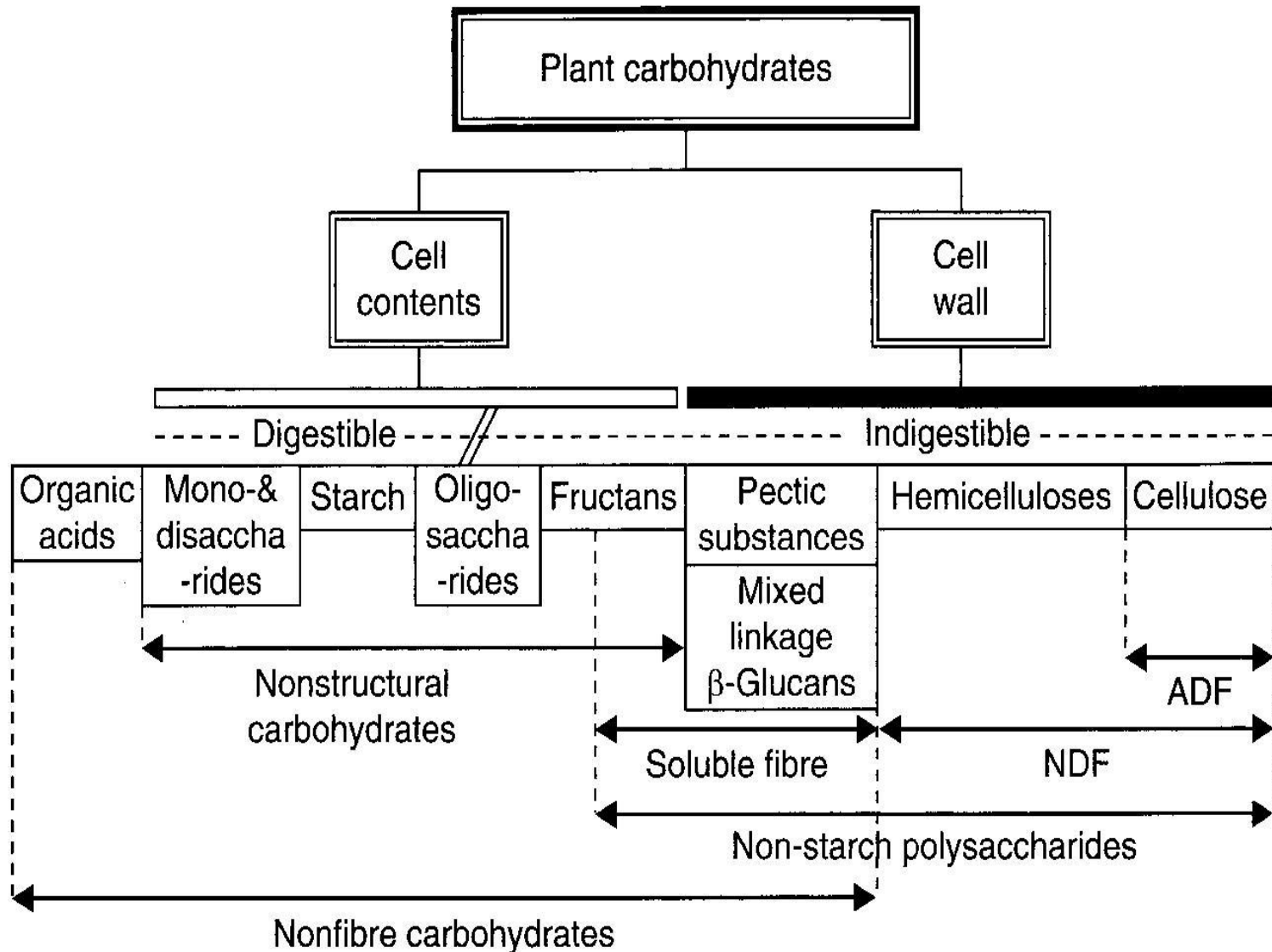
Schematic of catabolism





Carbohydrate Digestion and Catabolism

Overview of Carbohydrate Digestion and Catabolism



Carbohydrates

- Carbohydrates are composed of carbon and water and have a composition of $(\text{CH}_2\text{O})_n$.
- The major nutritional role of carbohydrates is to provide energy and digestible carbohydrates provide **4 kilocalories per gram.**

Simple Sugars

Monosaccharides

- Glucose
- Mannose
- Fructose
- Galactose

Disaccharides

- Lactose : Glucose + Galactose
- Maltose : Glucose + Glucose
- Sucrose : Glucose + Fructose

Complex carbohydrates

- Oligosaccharides
- Polysaccharides
 - Starch
 - Glycogen
 - Cellulose (Dietary fiber)

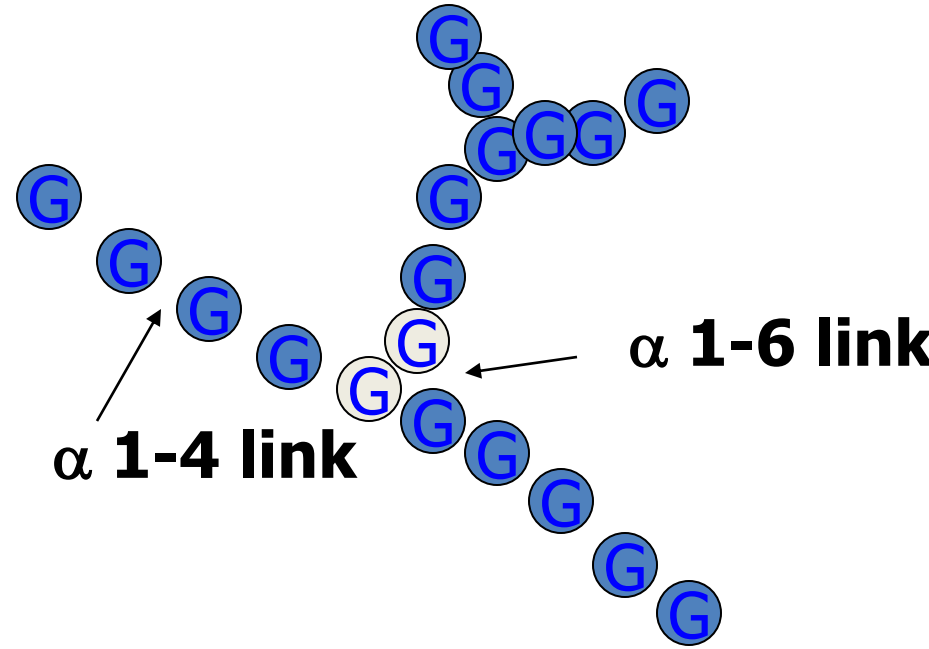
Starch

Major storage carbohydrate in higher plants

Amylose – long straight glucose chains (α 1-4)

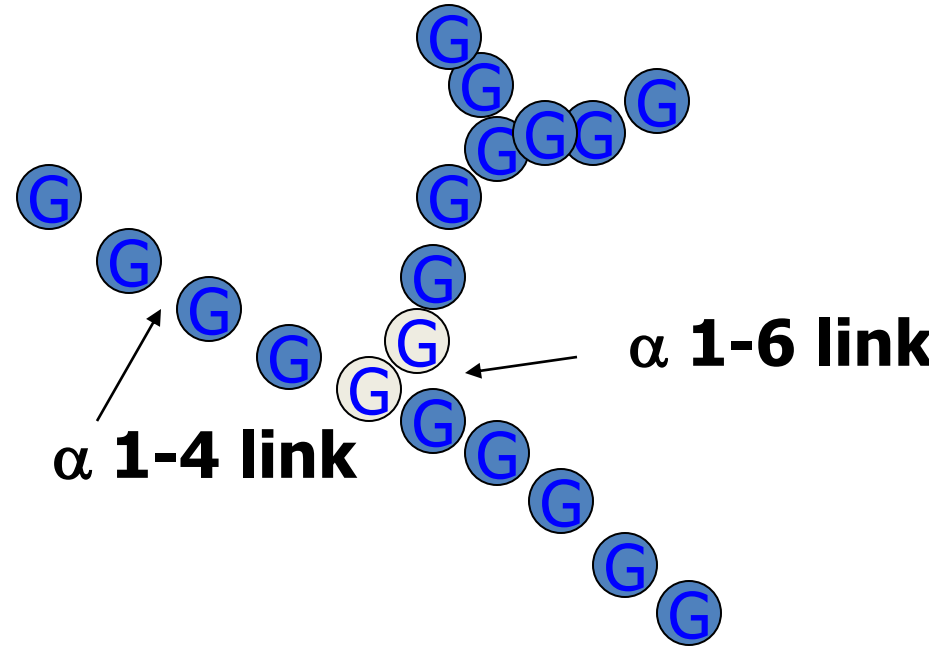
Amylopectin – branched every 24-30 glucose residues (α 1-6)

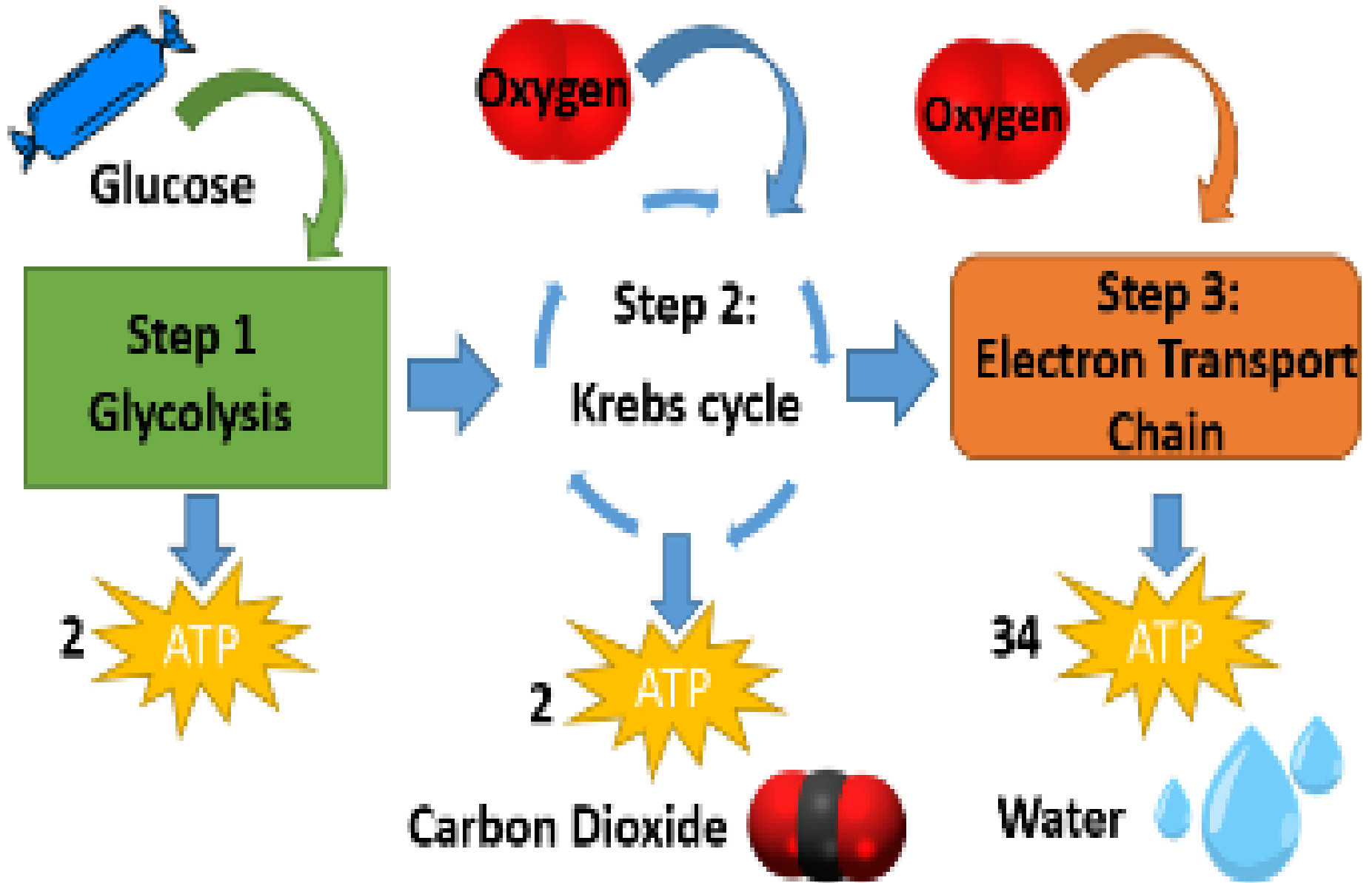
Provides 80% of dietary calories in humans worldwide



Glycogen

- Major storage carbohydrate in animals
- Long straight glucose chains (α 1-4)
- Branched every 4-8 glucose residues (α 1-6)
- More branched than starch
- Less osmotic pressure
- Easily mobilized





Stage 1: Digestion of Carbohydrates

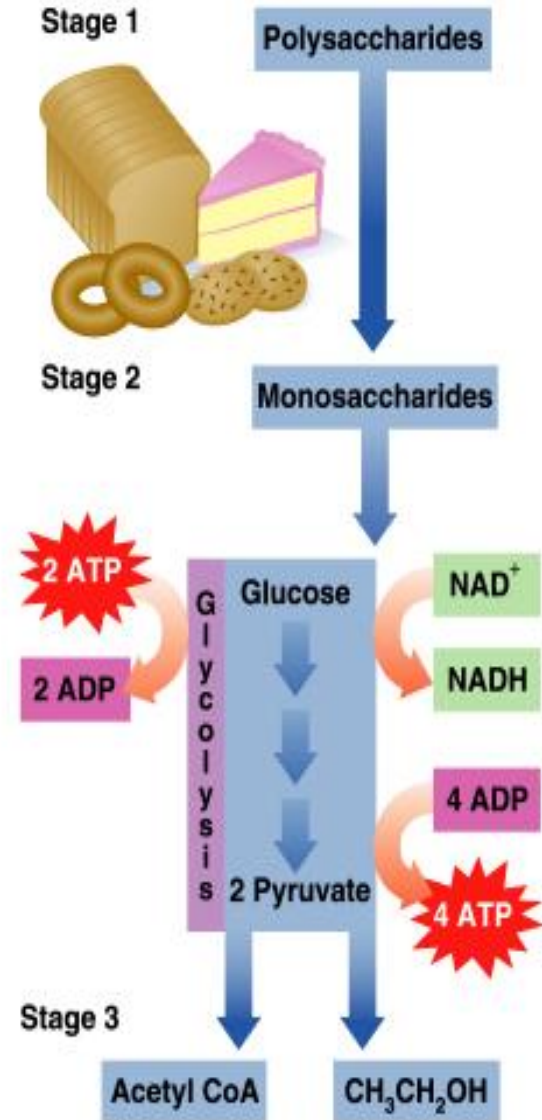
In Stage 1, the digestion of carbohydrates

- Begins in the mouth where salivary amylase breaks down polysaccharides to smaller polysaccharides (dextrins), maltose, and some glucose.
- Continues in the small intestine where pancreatic amylase hydrolyzes dextrins to maltose and glucose.
- Hydrolyzes maltose, lactose, and sucrose to monosaccharides, mostly glucose, which enter the bloodstream for transport to the cells.

Stage 2: Glycolysis

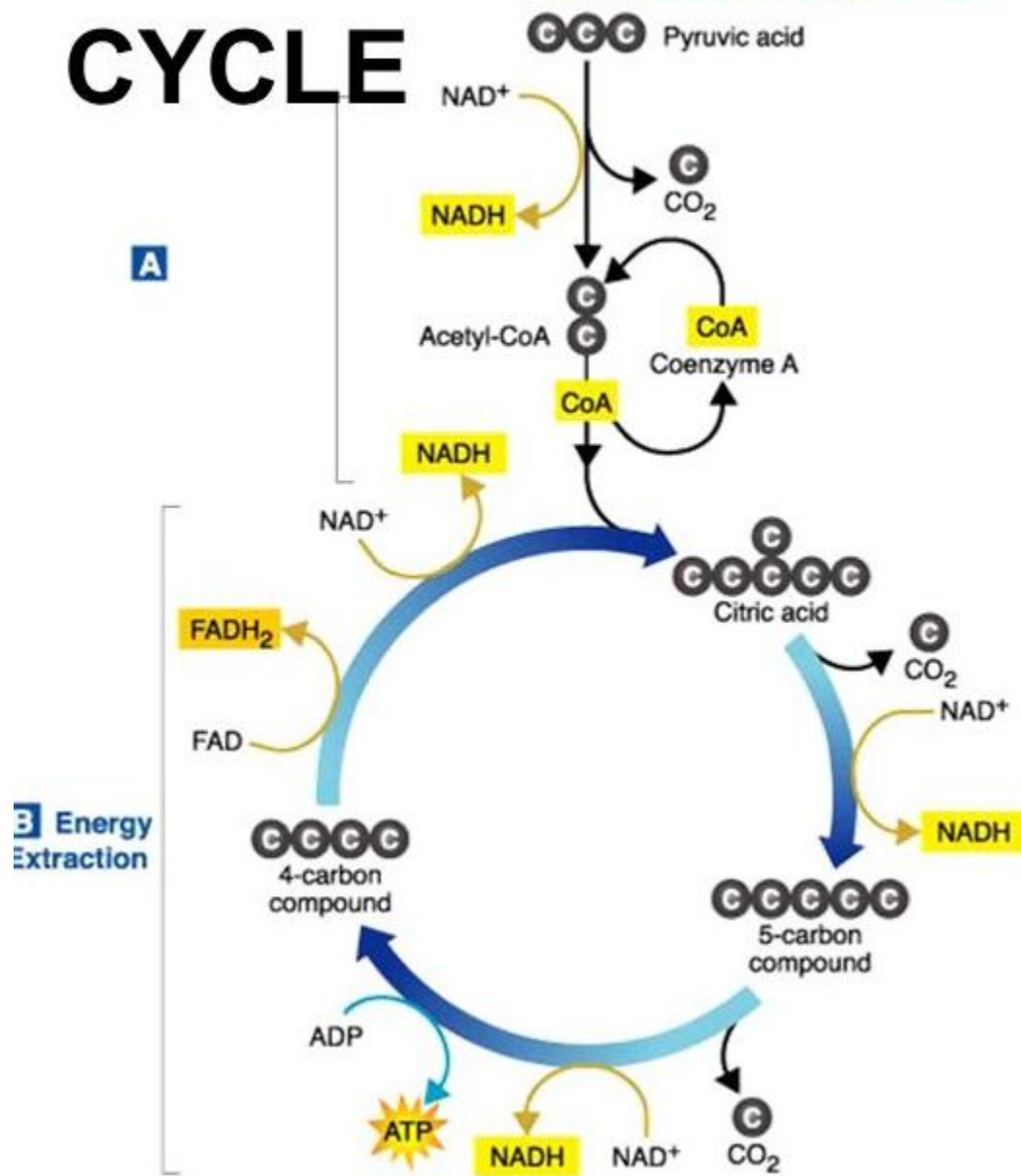
Stage 2: Glycolysis

- Is a metabolic pathway that uses glucose, a digestion product.
- Degrades six-carbon glucose molecules to three-carbon pyruvate molecules.
- Is an anaerobic (no oxygen) process.

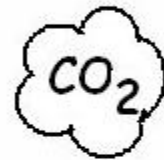


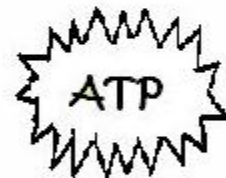
KREBS CYCLE

Krebs Cycle



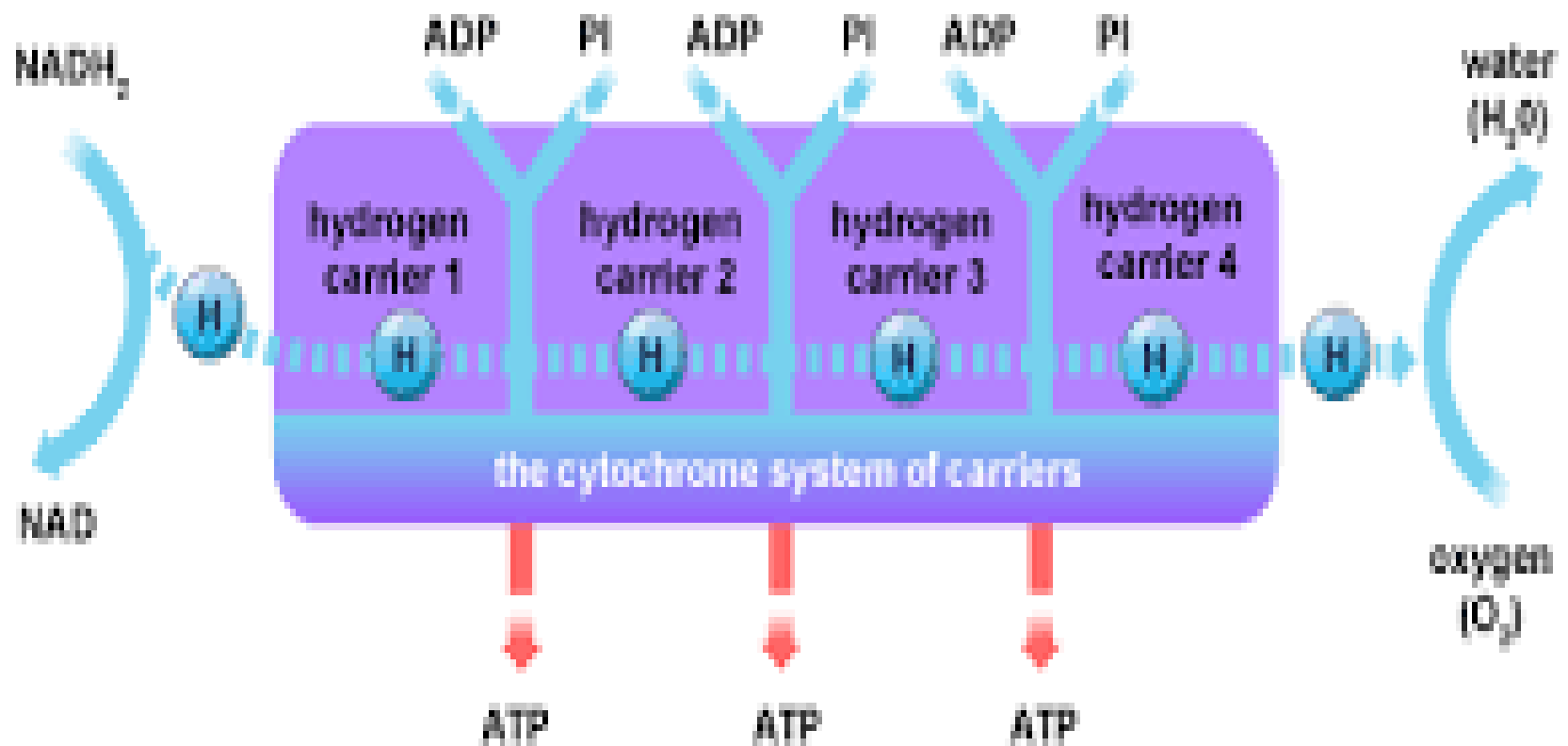
KREBS CYCLE PRODUCES

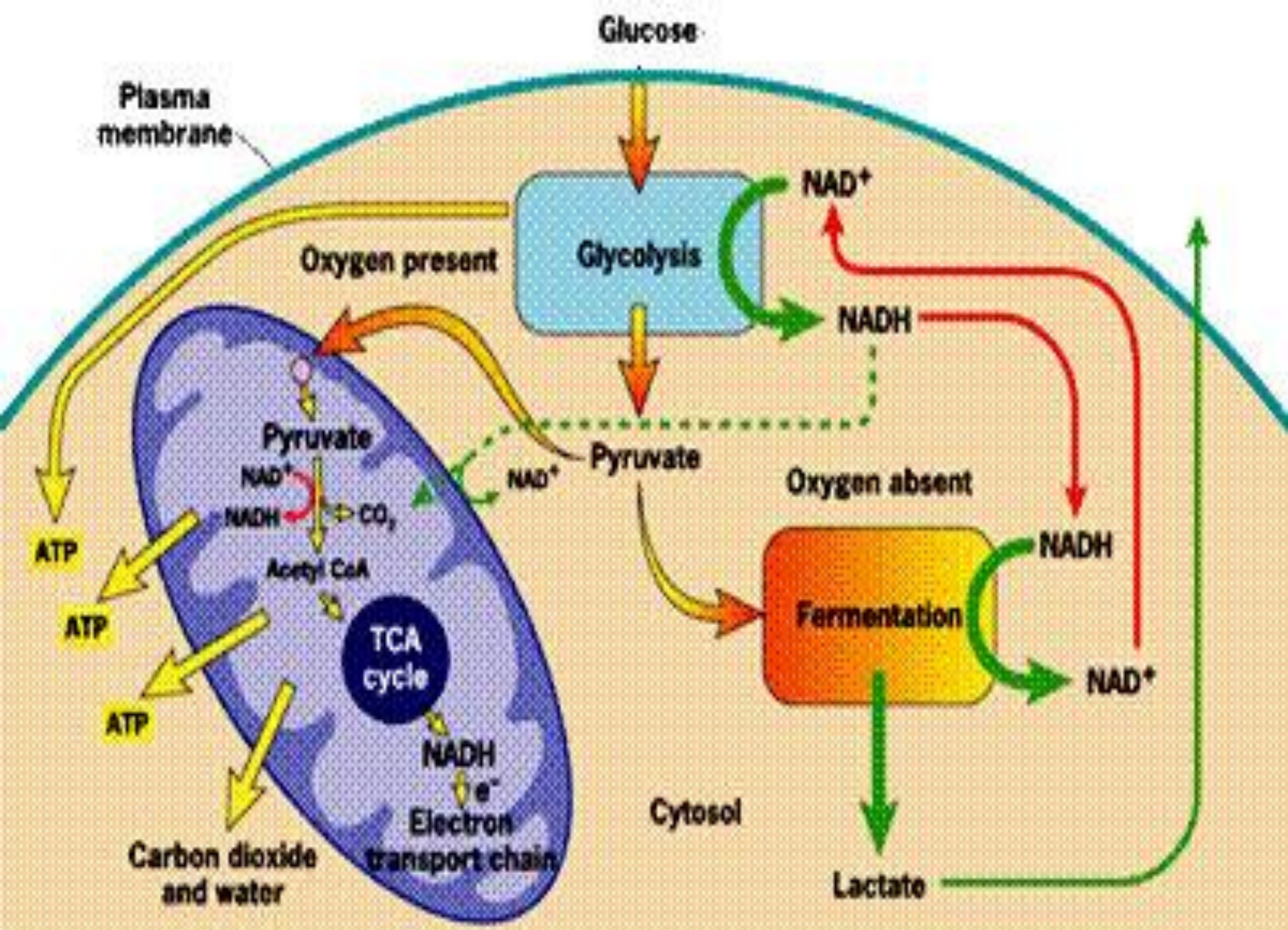










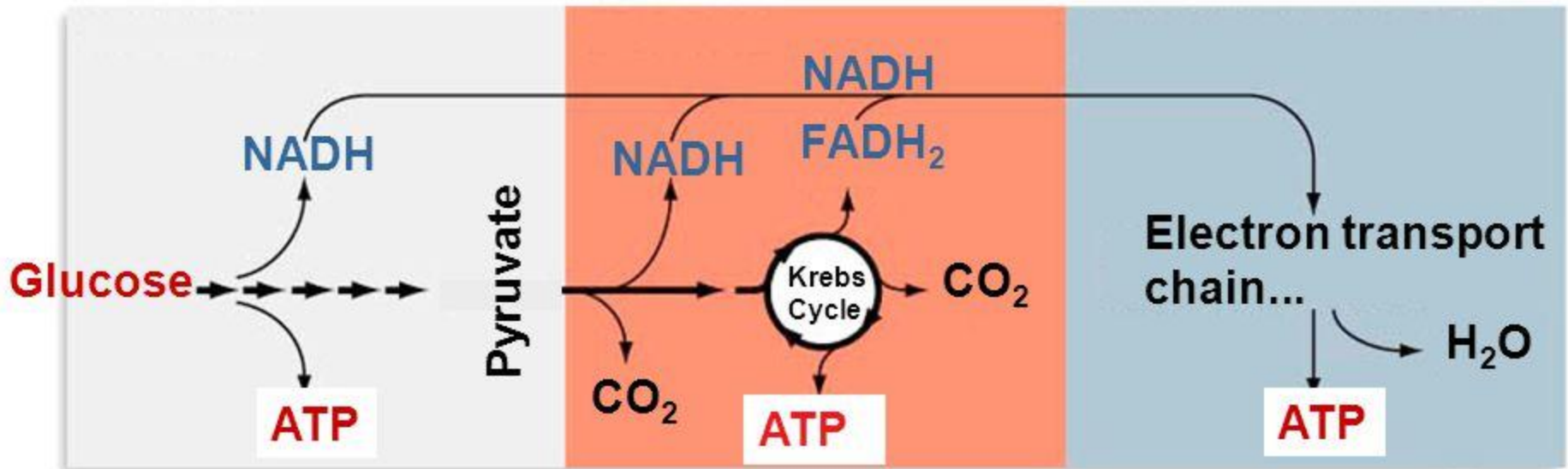


Cell Respiration is separated into 3 stages

GLYCOLYSIS

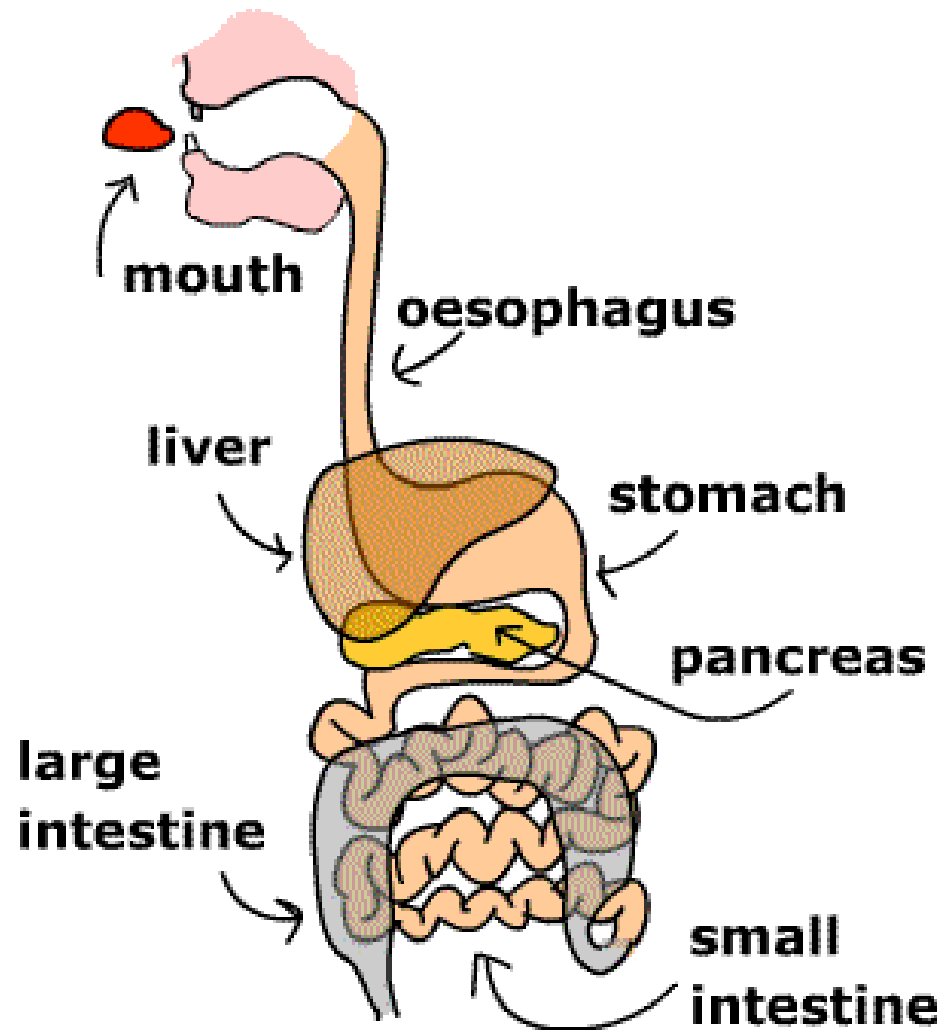
KREBS CYCLE

ELECTRON TRANSPORT AND OXIDATIVE PHOSPHORYLATION

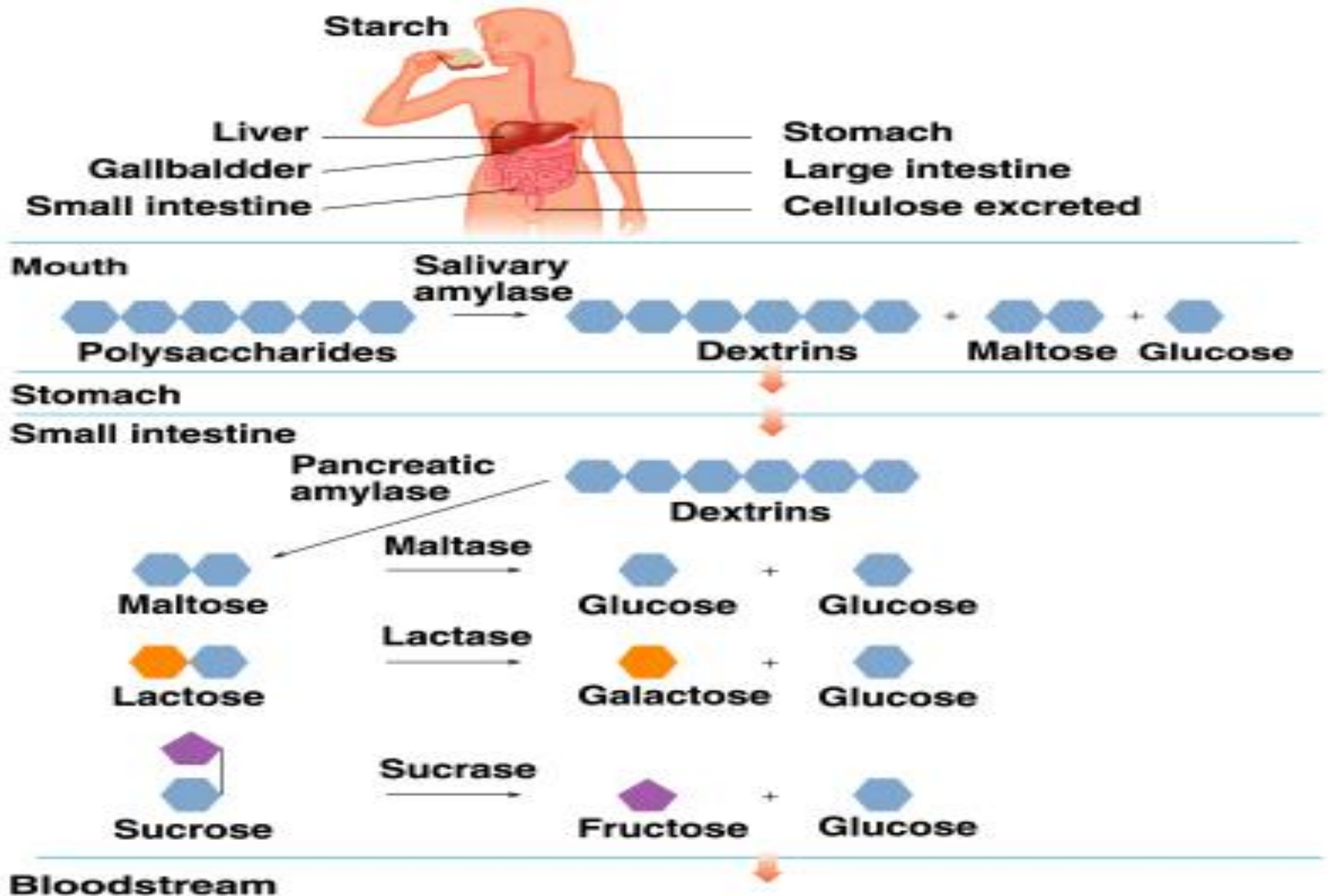


Energy/electrons are transferred from glucose to convert NAD⁺ to NADH, which is used in the ETC to make ATP

Nutrition and digestion



Digestion of Carbohydrates

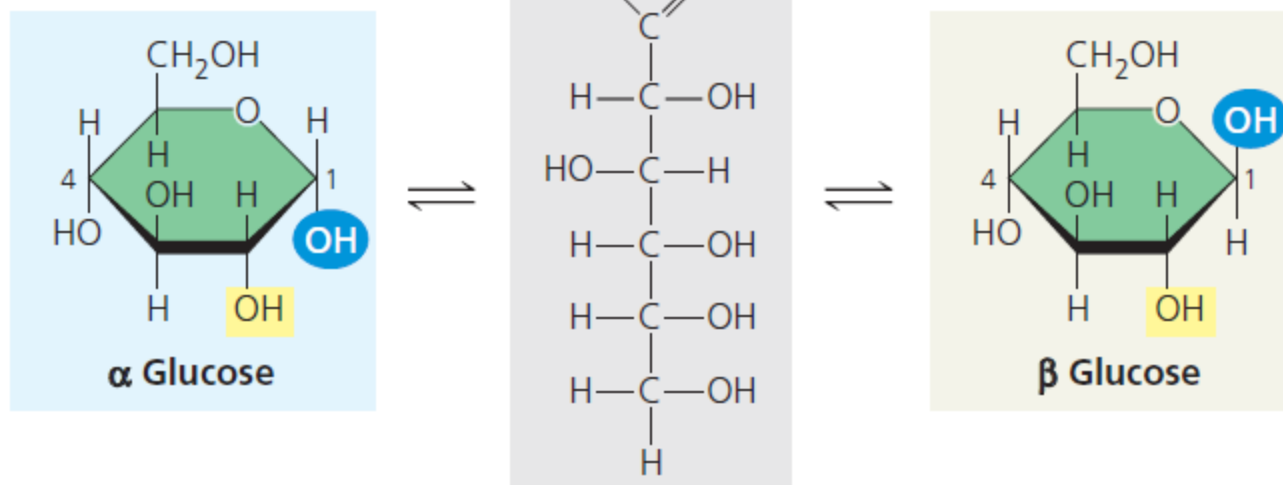


Digestion of Carbohydrates

- Monosaccharides
 - Do not need hydrolysis before absorption
 - Very little (if any) in most feeds
- Di- and poly-saccharides
 - Relatively large molecules
 - Must be hydrolyzed prior to absorption
 - Hydrolyzed to monosaccharides

Only monosaccharides can be absorbed

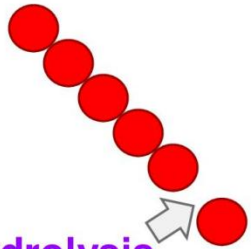
α and β glucose ring structures. These two interconvertible forms of glucose differ in the placement of the hydroxyl group (highlighted in blue) attached to the number 1 carbon.



Starch: Amylose and Amylopectin

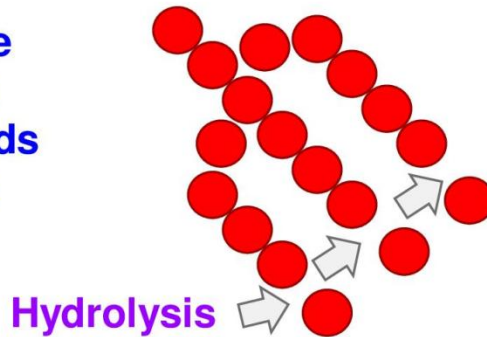
Starch is synthesised in plant in two main compounds, **amylose** and **amylopectin**. These types of starch have quite different structures, and this affects the rate of digestion, and can have a profound affect on the glycaemic index of the food containing the starch.

Amylose



Amylose is structured as straight chains of glucose units. Glucose is hydrolysed one at a time from the open ends during digestion. This produces a slow digestion rate.

Amylopectin



Amylopectin is a branched structure, similar to animal glycogen. The branched structure allows more than one glucose to be hydrolysed at a time, thus increasing the rate of digestion significantly.

Legumes contain a high content of amylose which may explain their slow rate of digestion. However, there may be other reasons to explain why legumes are resistant to digestion, including a high protein content and as the presence of enzyme inhibitors.

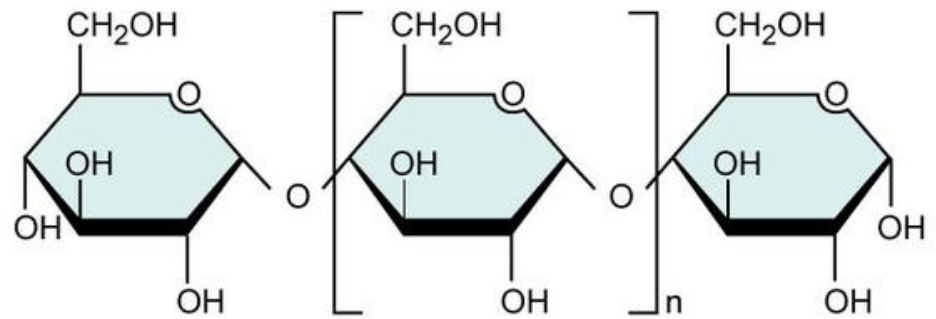
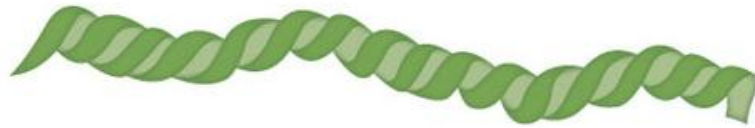
Amylose and amylopectin

- Two different glucose polysaccharides can be isolated from most starches: amylose and amylopectin.
- Amylose is a straight chain glucose polymer and usually accounts for 15-20% of the starch.
- Amylopectin is a highly branched glucose polymer and accounts for about 80-85% of the starch.

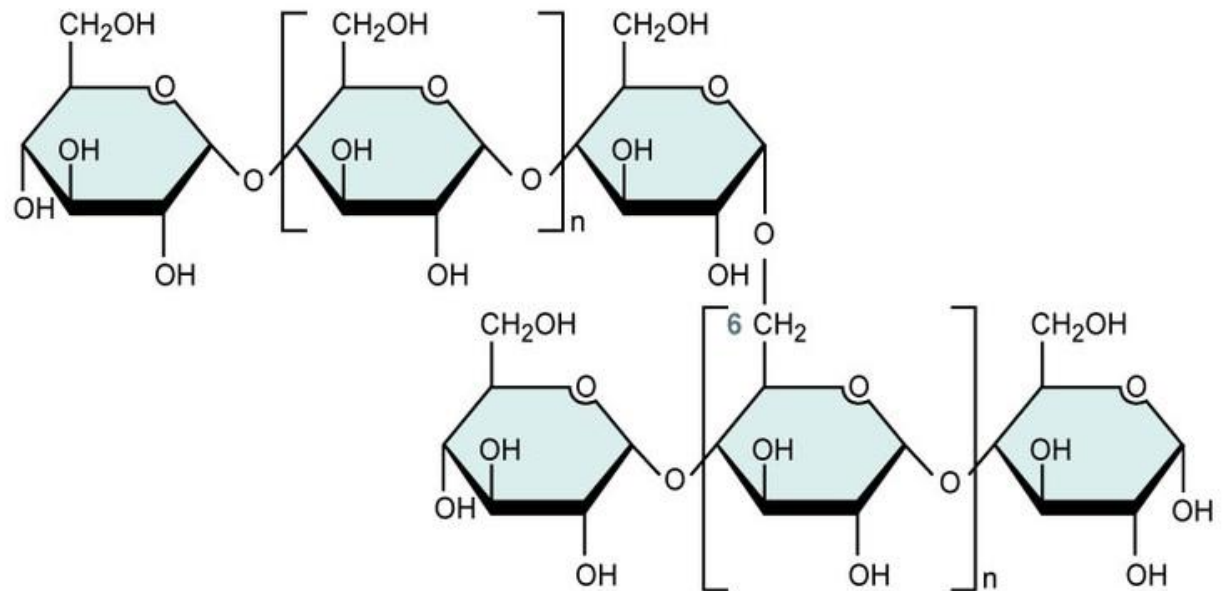
Amylose and amylopectin

- The glycosidic linkages in amylose are α 1-4, but in amylopectin they are α 1-4 and α 1-6.
- These alpha linkages can be broken down in the human digestive tract by the enzyme amylase.
- Starches contained in potatoes, rice, corn, wheat, etc. are major food sources.

Amylose



Amylopectin



Carbohydrate Digestion

- Mouth

- Salivary amylase

- Breaks starches down to maltose
 - Plays only a small role in breakdown because of the short time food is in the mouth
 - Ruminants do not have this enzyme
 - Not all monogastrics secrete it in saliva

Stomach

- Not much carbohydrate digestion
- Acid and pepsin to unfold proteins
- Ruminants have forestomachs with extensive microbial populations to breakdown and anaerobically ferment feed

Digestion in Small Intestine

- Digestion mediated by enzymes synthesized by cells lining the small intestine (brush border)

Disaccharides $\xrightarrow{\text{Brush Border Enzymes}}$ Monosaccharides

* Exception is β -1,4 bonds in cellulose

Small intestine

Portal for transport of virtually all nutrients

Water and electrolyte balance

Enzymes associated with intestinal surface membranes

- Sucrase
- α dextrinase
- Glucoamylase (maltase)
- Lactase
- peptidases

Digestion in Small Intestine

Sucrose $\xrightarrow{\text{Sucrase}}$ Glucose + Fructose

* Ruminants do not have sucrase

Maltose $\xrightarrow{\text{Maltase}}$ Glucose + Glucose

Lactose $\xrightarrow{\text{Lactase}}$ Glucose + Galactose

* Poultry do not have lactase

Carbohydrate Digestion

- Pancreas

- Pancreatic amylase

- Hydrolyzes alpha 1-4 linkages
- Produces monosaccharides, disaccharides, and polysaccharides
- Major importance in hydrolyzing starch and glycogen to maltose

Polysaccharides $\xrightarrow{\text{Amylase}}$ Disaccharides

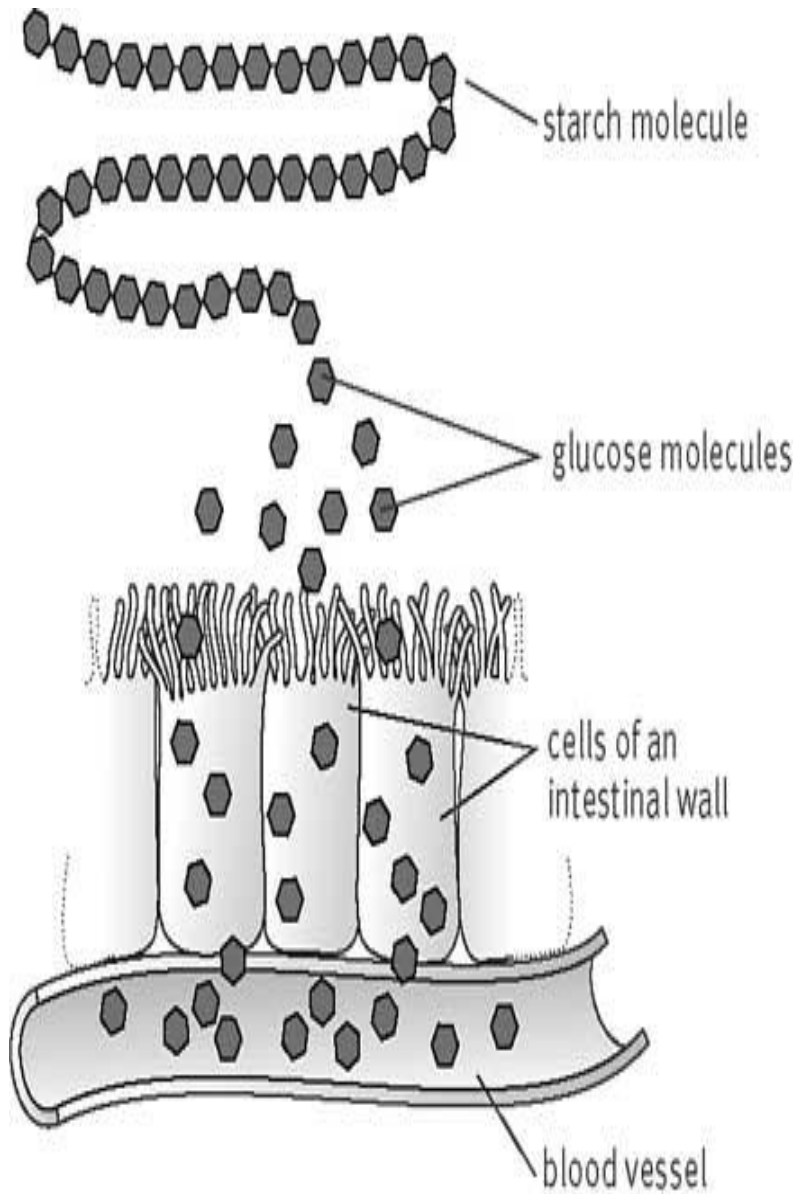
Digestion in Large Intestine

- Carnivores and omnivores
 - Limited anaerobic fermentation
 - Bacteria produce small quantities of cellulase
 - SOME volatile fatty acids (VFA) produced by microbial digestion of fibers
 - Propionate
 - Butyrate
 - Acetate

Overview Monogastric Carbohydrate Digestion

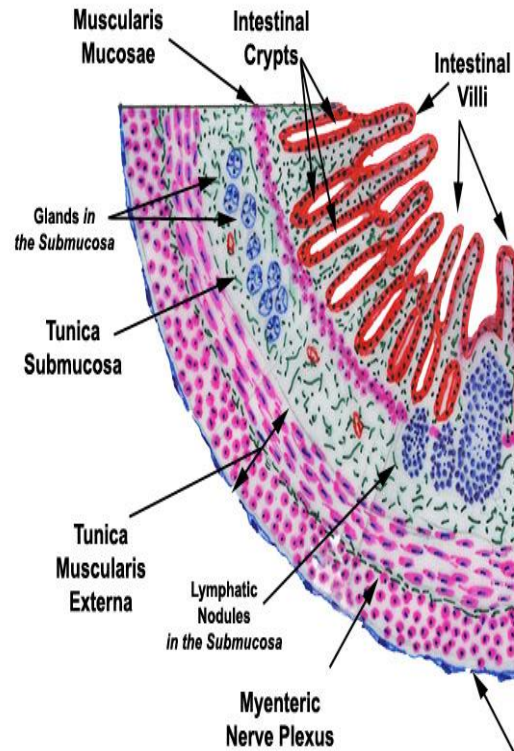
In the **monogastric** diet, starch is the primary **carbohydrate**

<u>Location</u>	<u>Enzymes</u>	<u>Form of Dietary CHO</u>
Mouth	Salivary Amylase	Starch Maltose Sucrose Lactose
		↓ ↓ ↓ ↓
Stomach	(amylase from saliva)	Dextrin→Maltose
		↓ ↓
Small Intestine	Pancreatic Amylase	Maltose
		↓ ↓ ↓
	Brush Border Enzymes	Glucose Fructose Galactose + + + Glucose Glucose Glucose
Large Intestine	None	Bacterial Microflora Ferment Cellulose

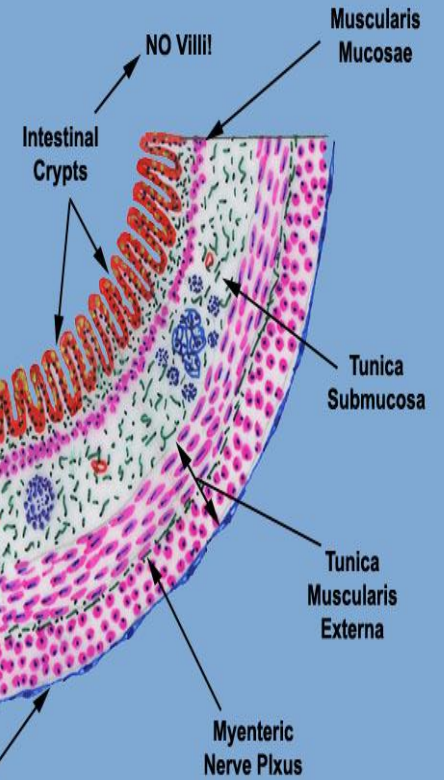


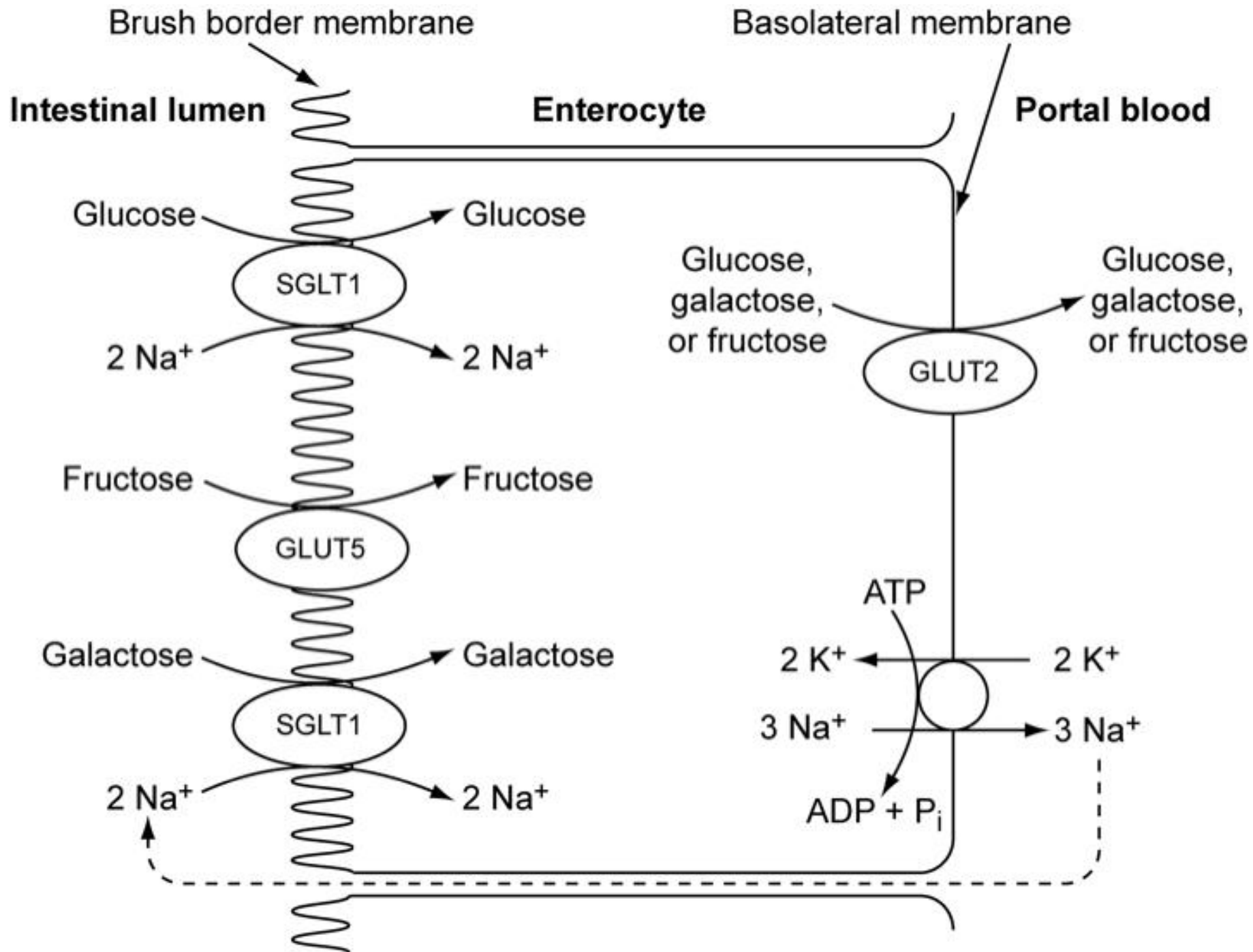
Elizabeth Morales

SMALL INTESTINE



LARGE INTESTINE





Small Intestine

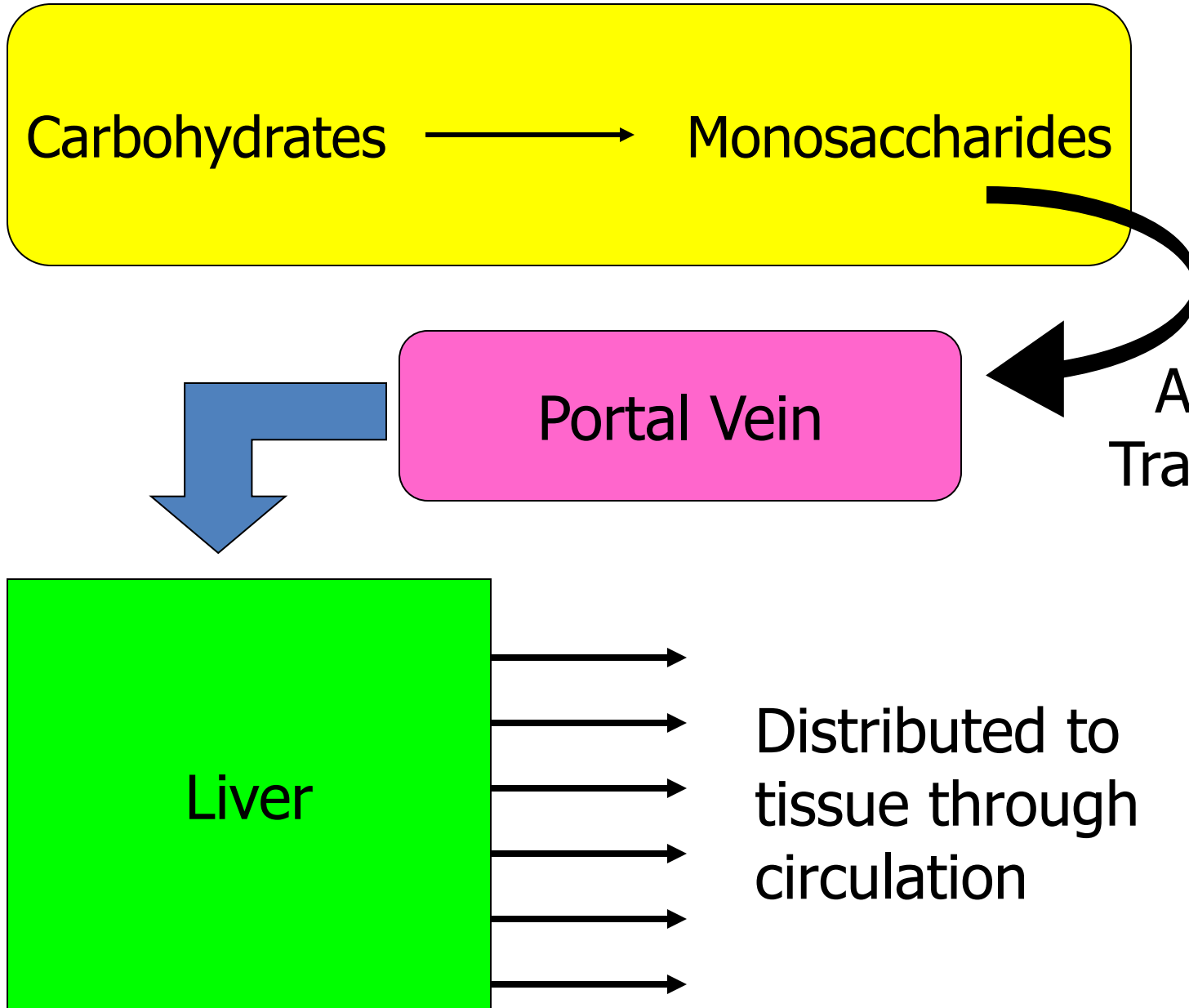
Carbohydrates → Monosaccharides

Active
Transport

Portal Vein

Liver

Distributed to
tissue through
circulation



Digestion and Absorption

Non-ruminant

Ruminant

CHO in feed

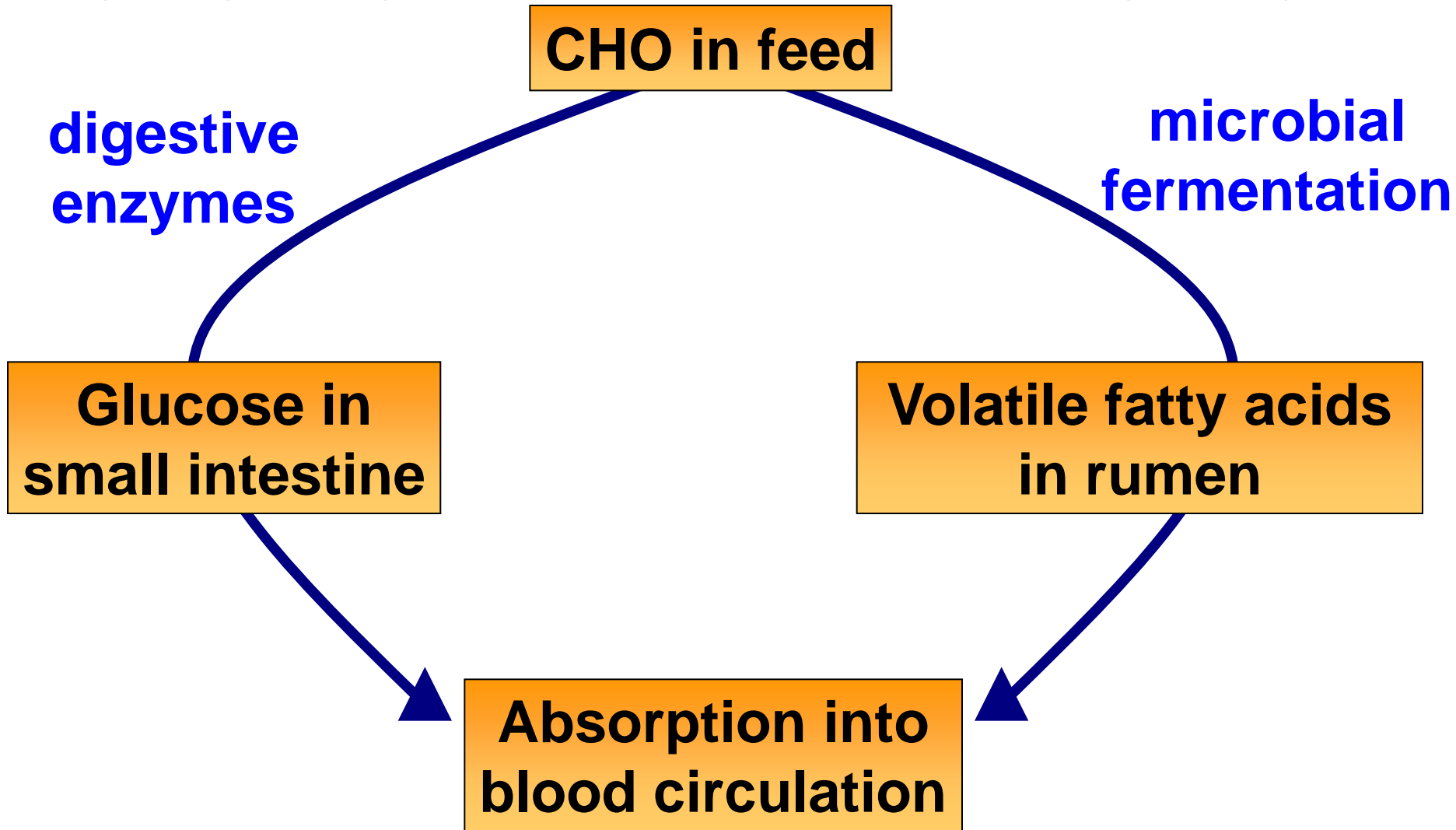
**digestive
enzymes**

**microbial
fermentation**

**Glucose in
small intestine**

**Volatile fatty acids
in rumen**

**Absorption into
blood circulation**



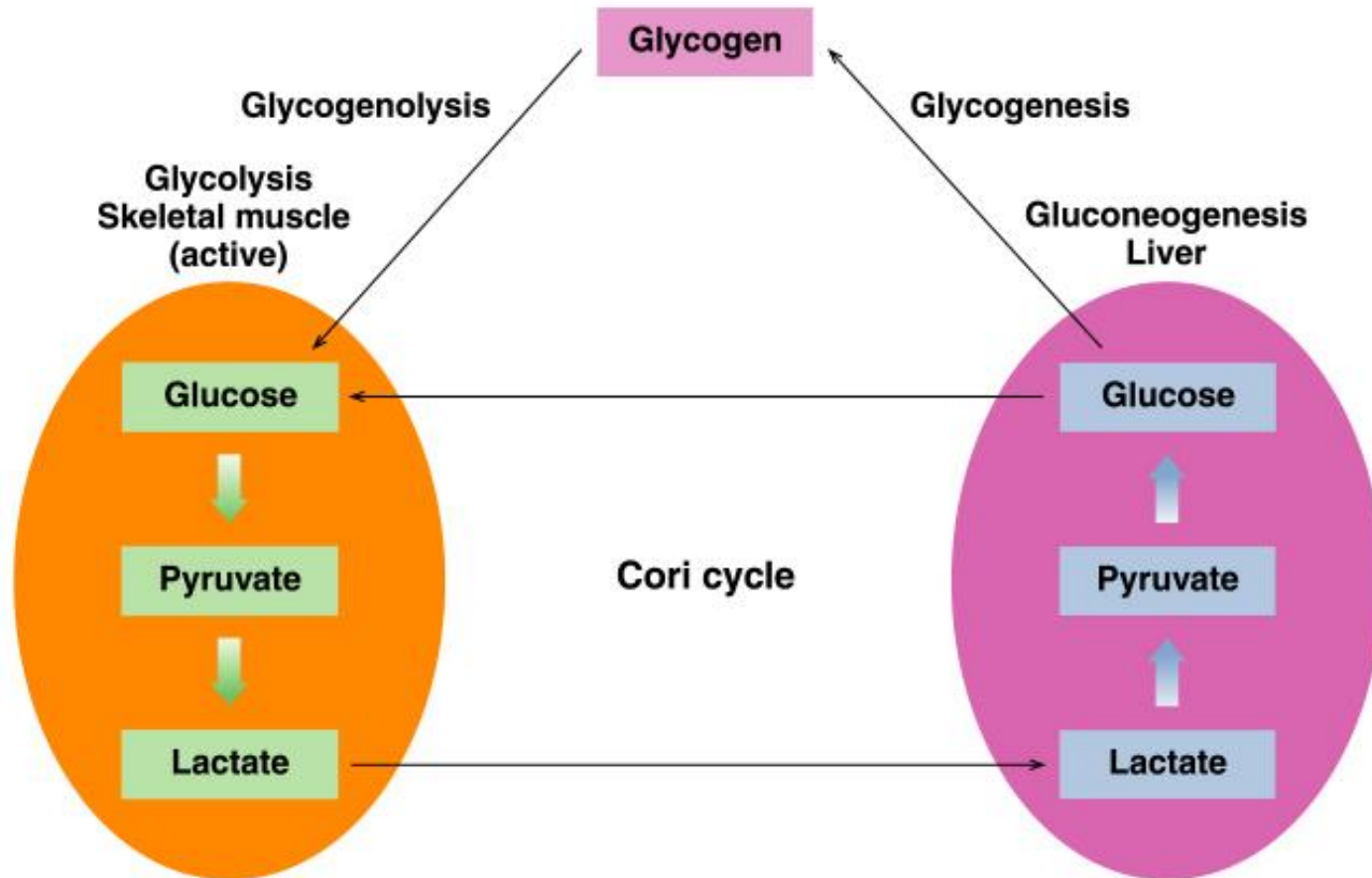
Microbial Populations

- Cellulolytic bacteria (fiber digesters)
 - Produce cellulase - cleaves $\beta 1 \rightarrow 4$ linkages
 - Primary substrates are cellulose and hemicellulose
 - Prefer pH 6-7
 - Produce acetate, propionate, little butyrate, CO_2
 - Predominate in animals fed roughage diets

Summary of Carbohydrate in Monogastrics

- Polysaccharides broken down to monosaccharides
- Monosaccharides taken up by active transport or facilitated diffusion and carried to liver
- Glucose is transported to cells requiring energy
 - Insulin influences rate of cellular uptake

Glycogen Metabolism



Timberlake, *General, Organic, and Biological Chemistry*. Copyright © Pearson Education Inc., publishing as Benjamin Cummings

Regulation of Glycolysis and Gluconeogenesis

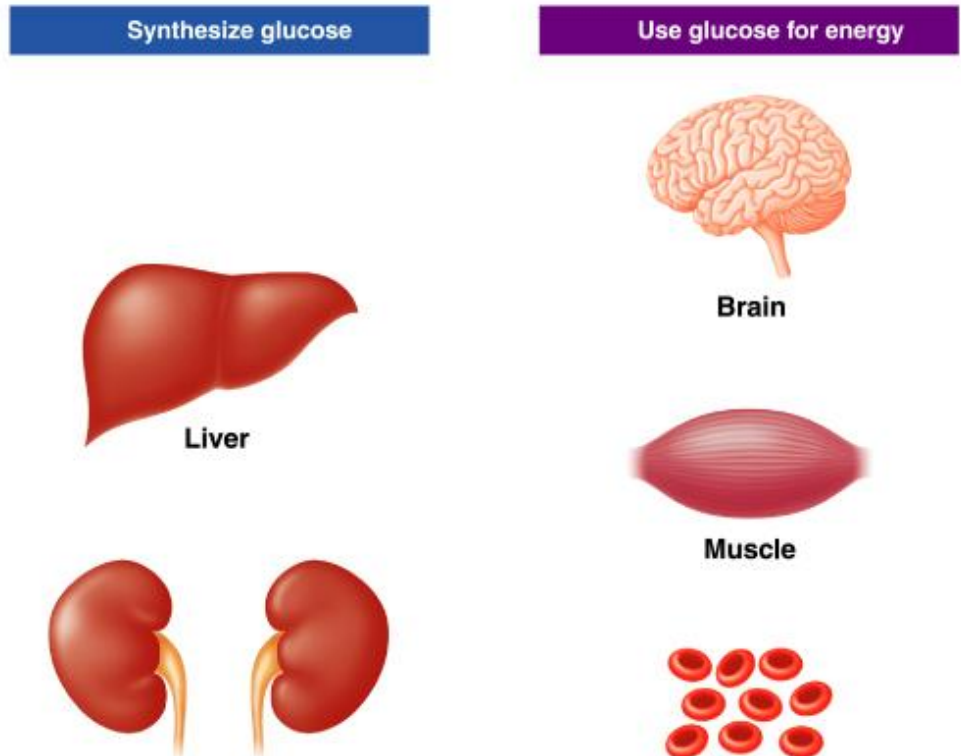
Regulation occurs as

- High glucose levels and insulin promote glycolysis.
- Low glucose levels and glucagon promote gluconeogenesis.

Utilization of Glucose

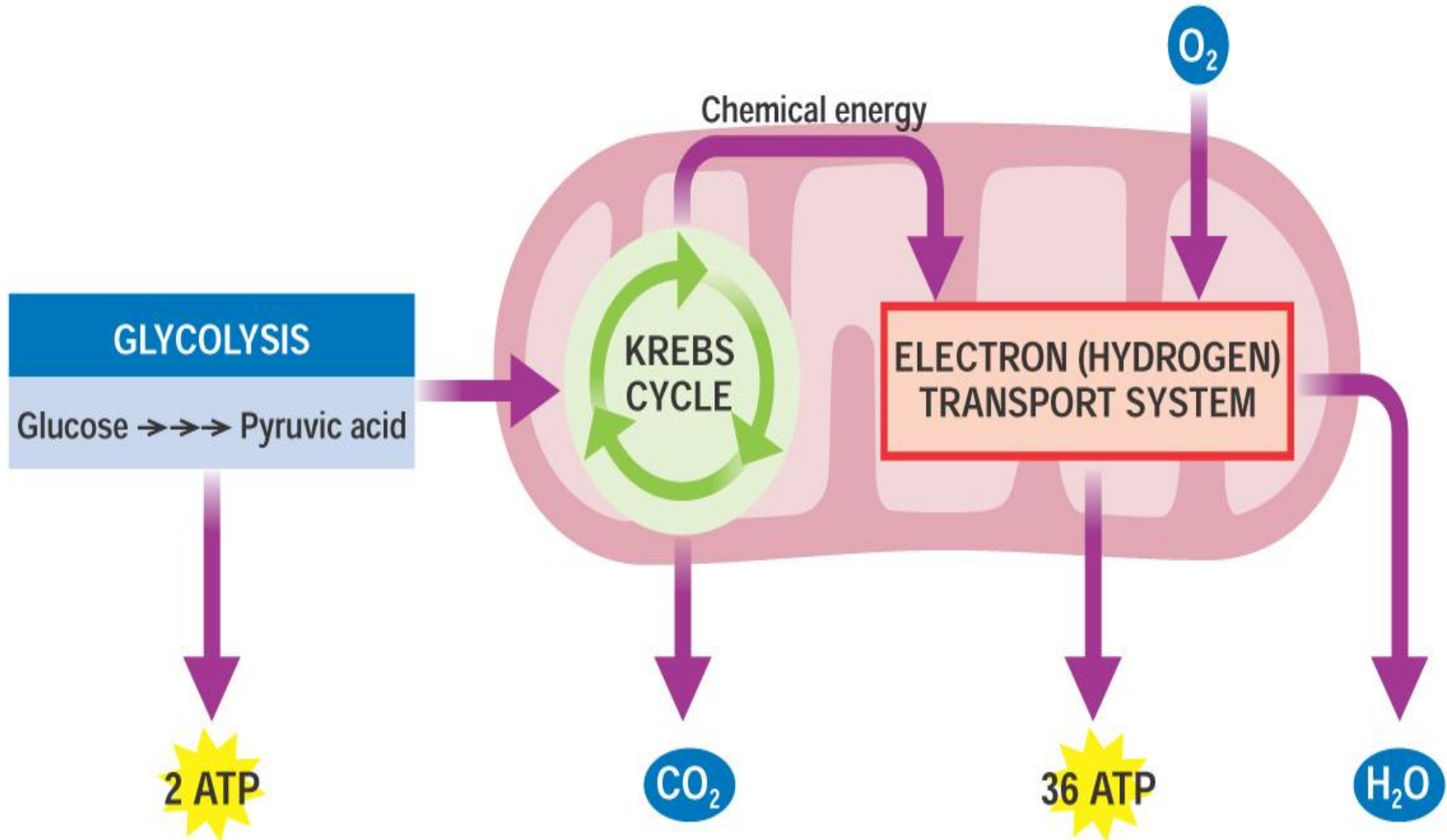
Glucose

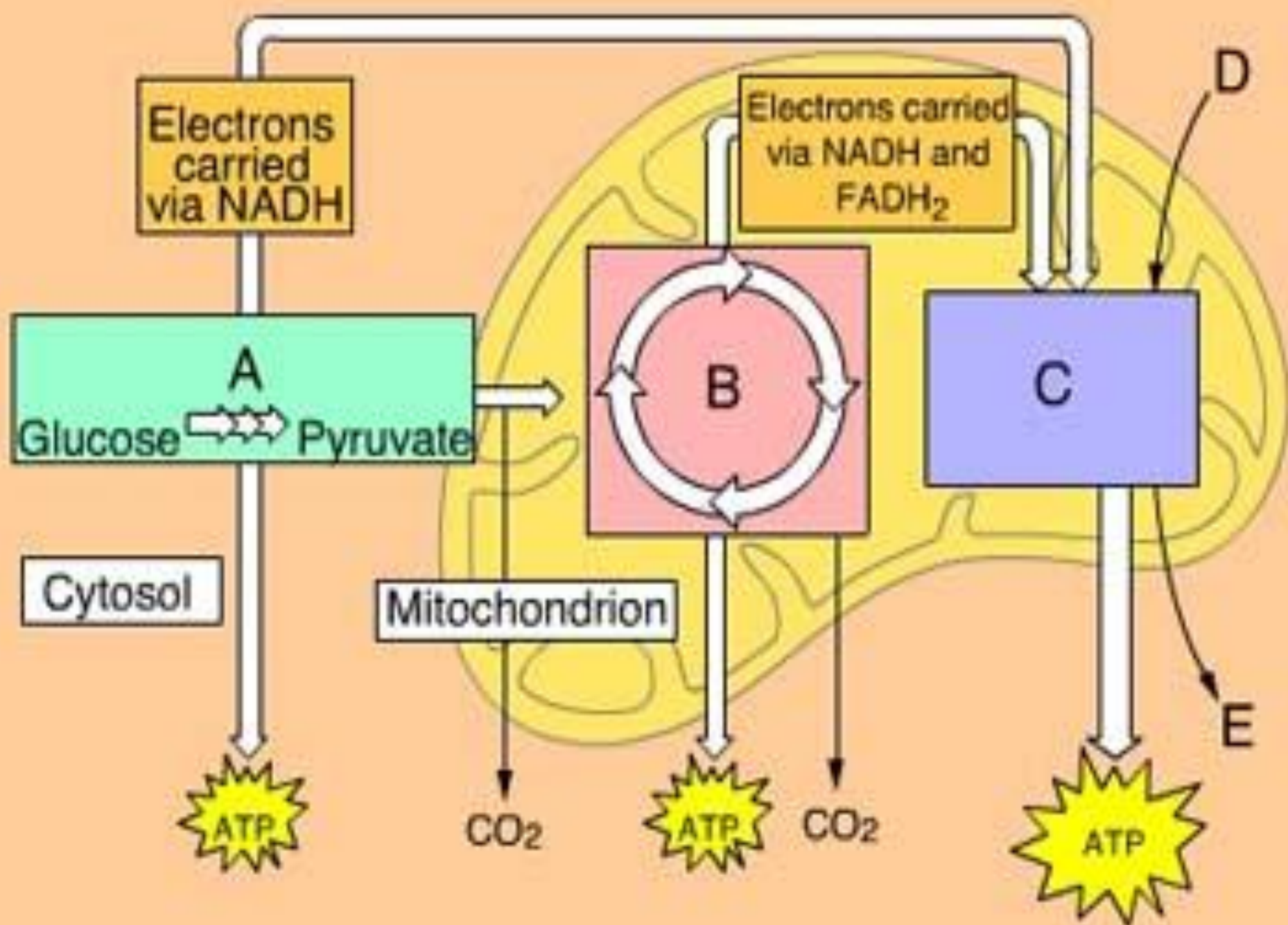
- Is the primary energy source for the brain, skeletal muscle, and red blood cells.
- Deficiency can impair the brain and nervous system.



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AEROBIC RESPIRATION -- SUMMARY





End products of glycolysis

1- In cells with mitochondria & an adequate supply of oxygen

(Aerobic glycolysis)

- ***Pyruvate***: enters the mitochondria & is converted into acetyl CoA.

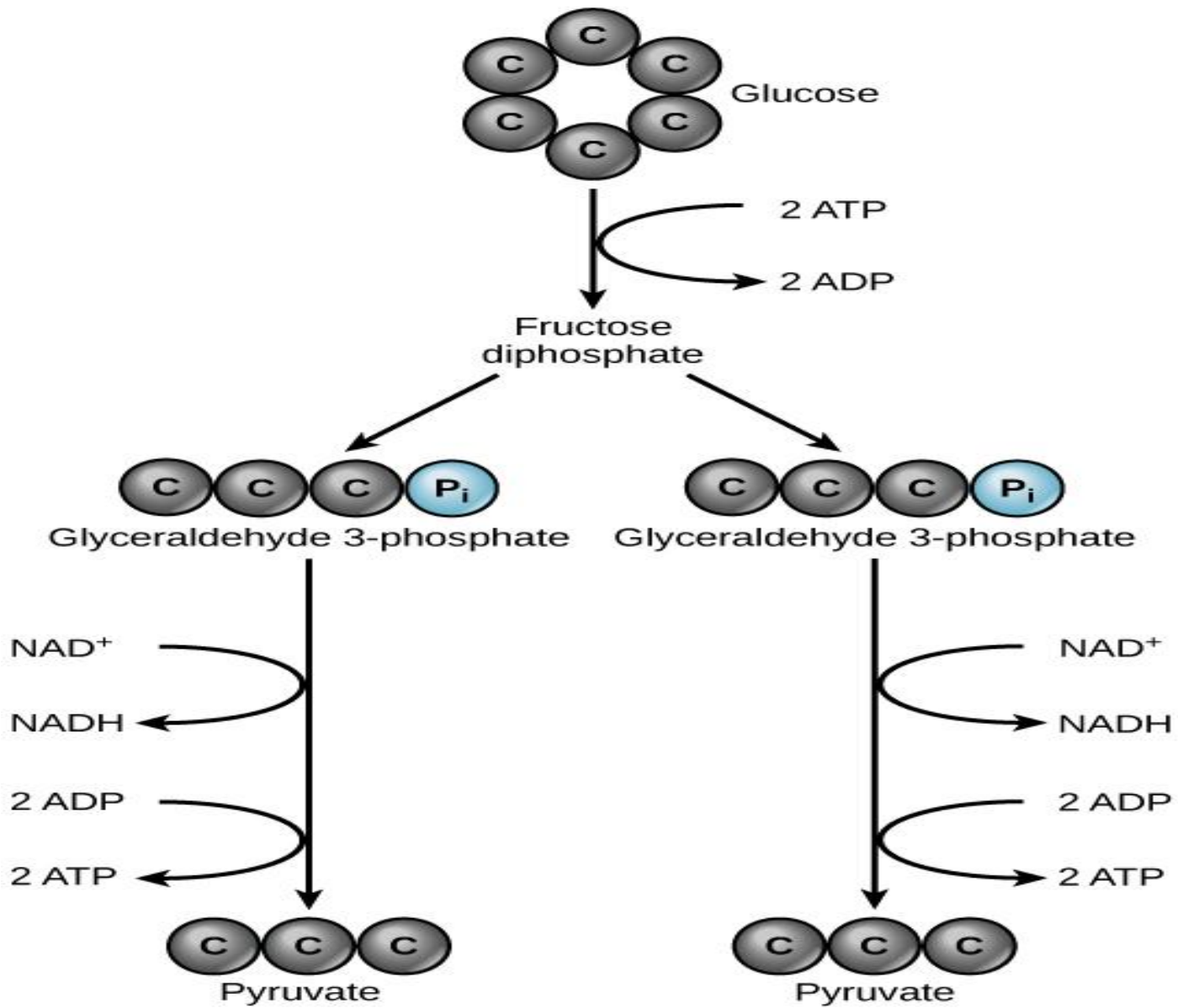
Acetyl CoA enters citric acid cycle (Krebs cycle) to yield energy in the form of ATP

- ***NADH***: utilizes mitochondria & oxygen to yield energy

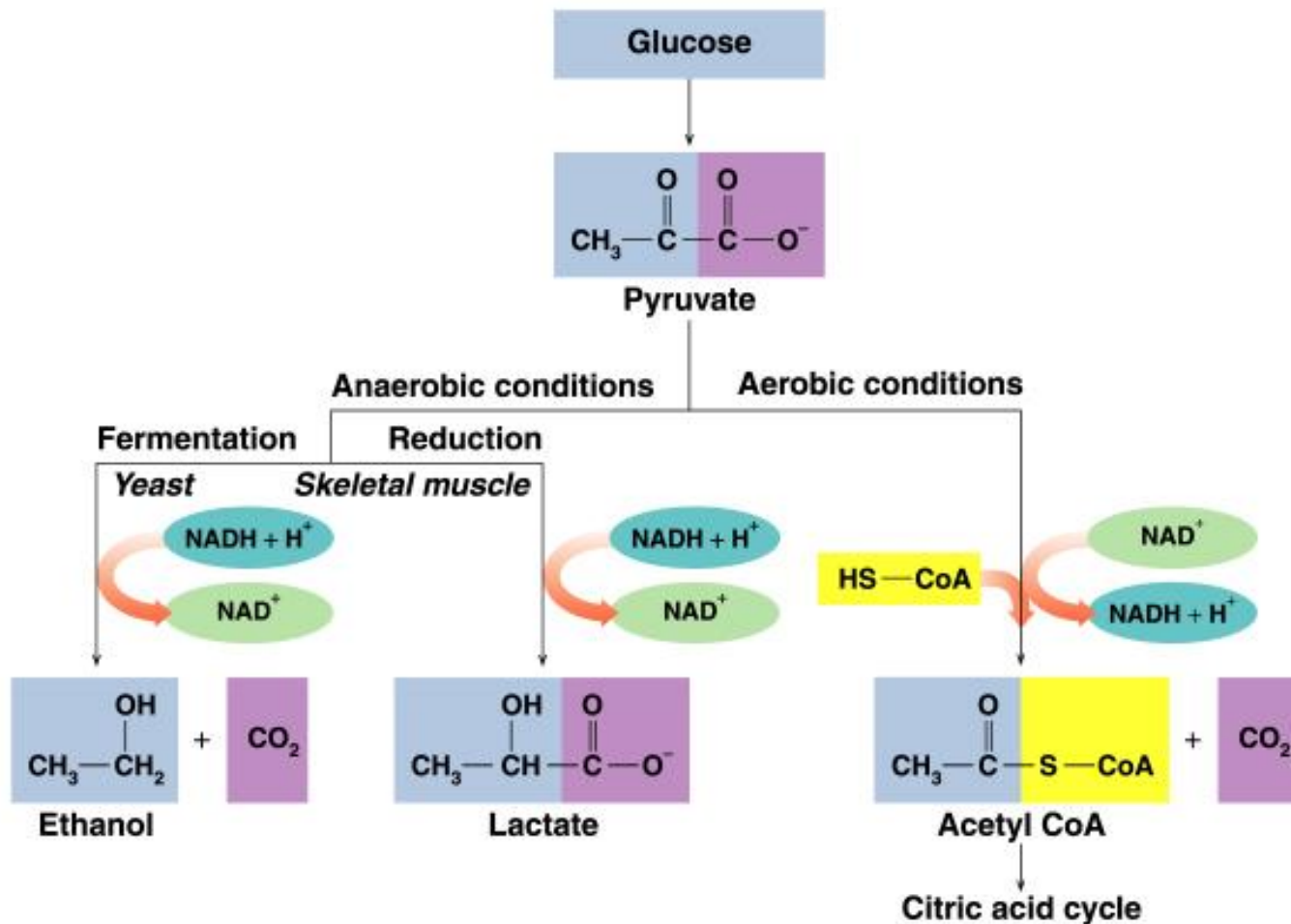
2- In cells with no mitochondria or adequate oxygen (or Both)

(Anaerobic glycolysis)

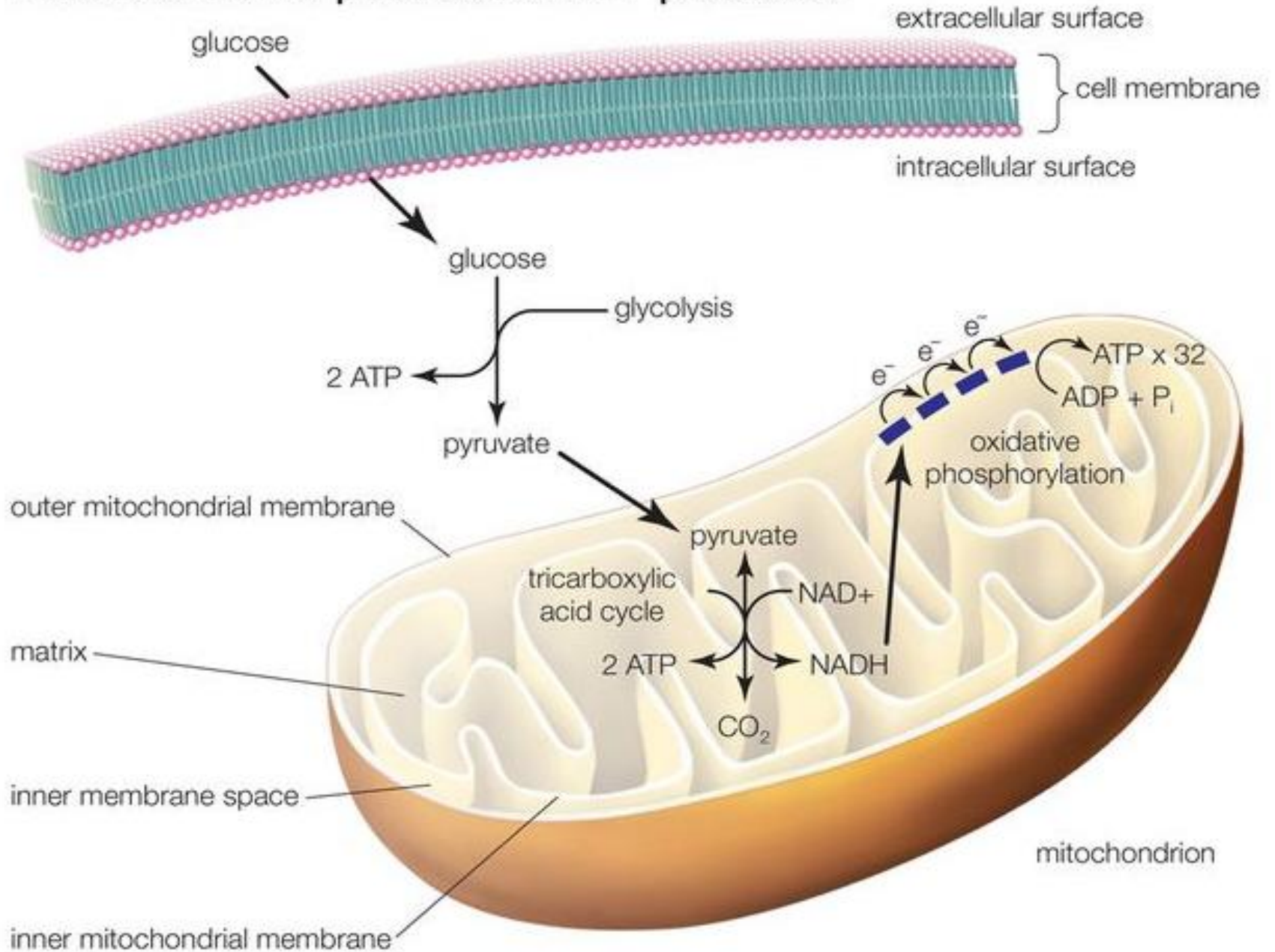
Lactate: formed from pyruvate (by utilizing NADH)



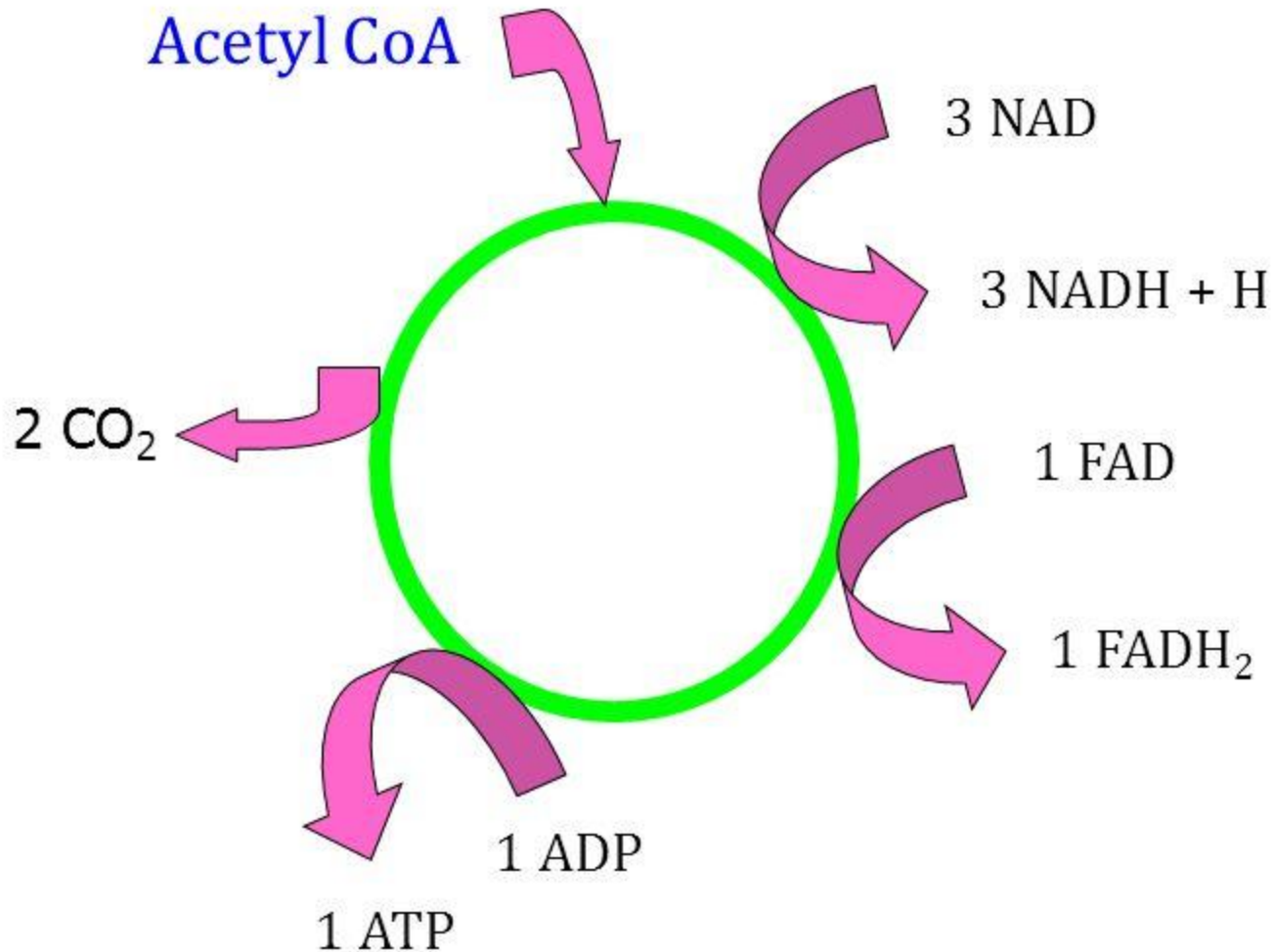
Pathways for Pyruvate

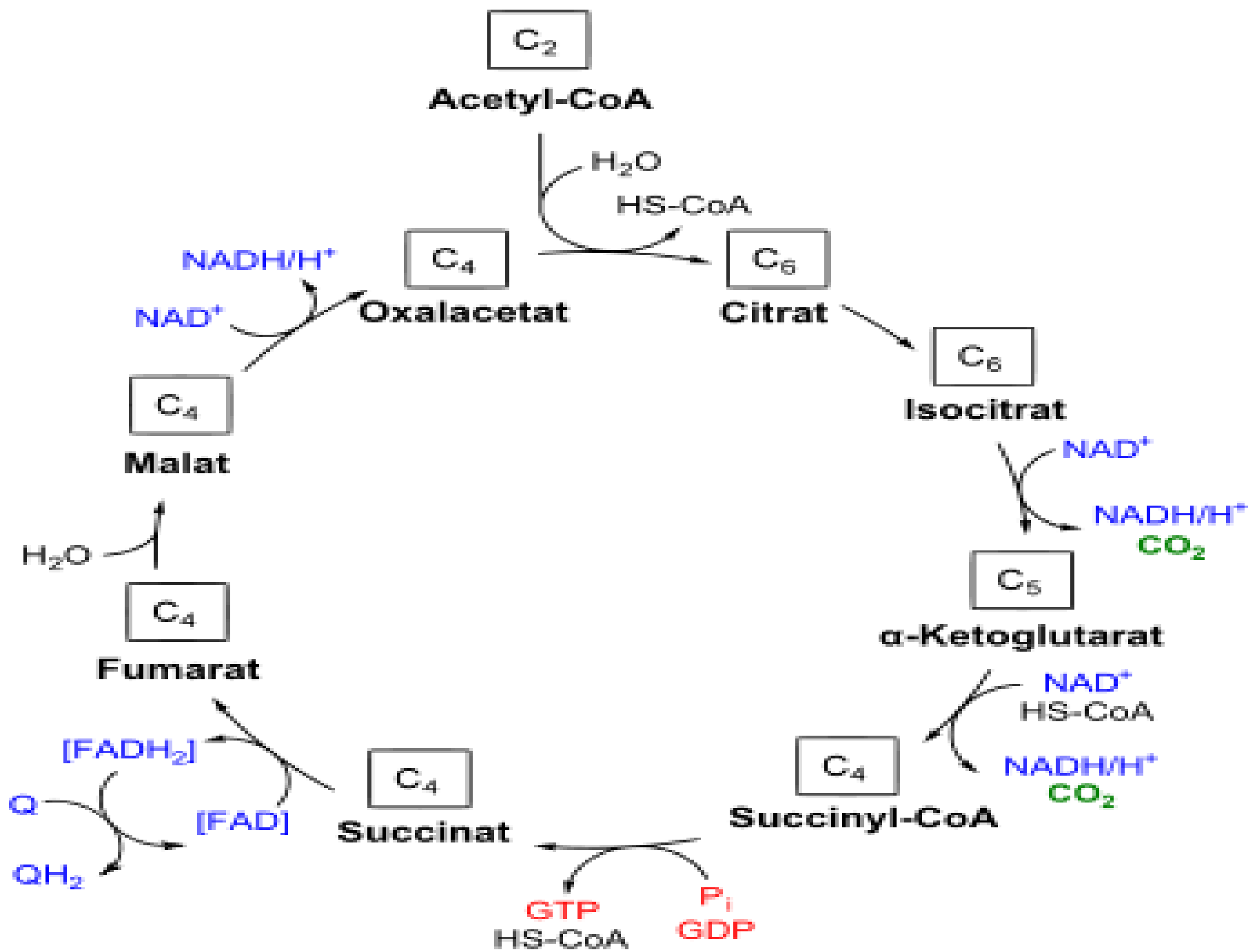


Basic overview of processes of ATP production

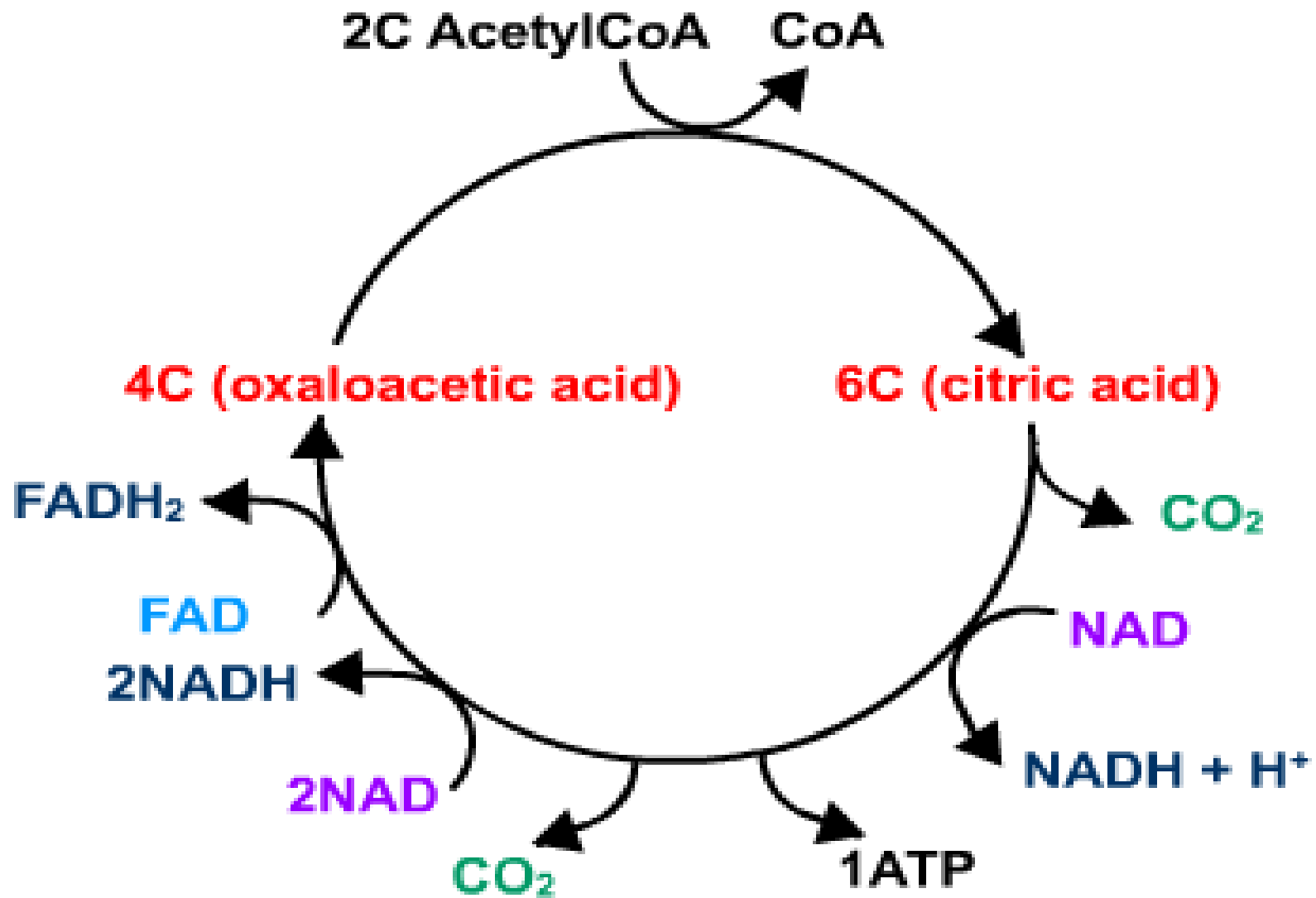


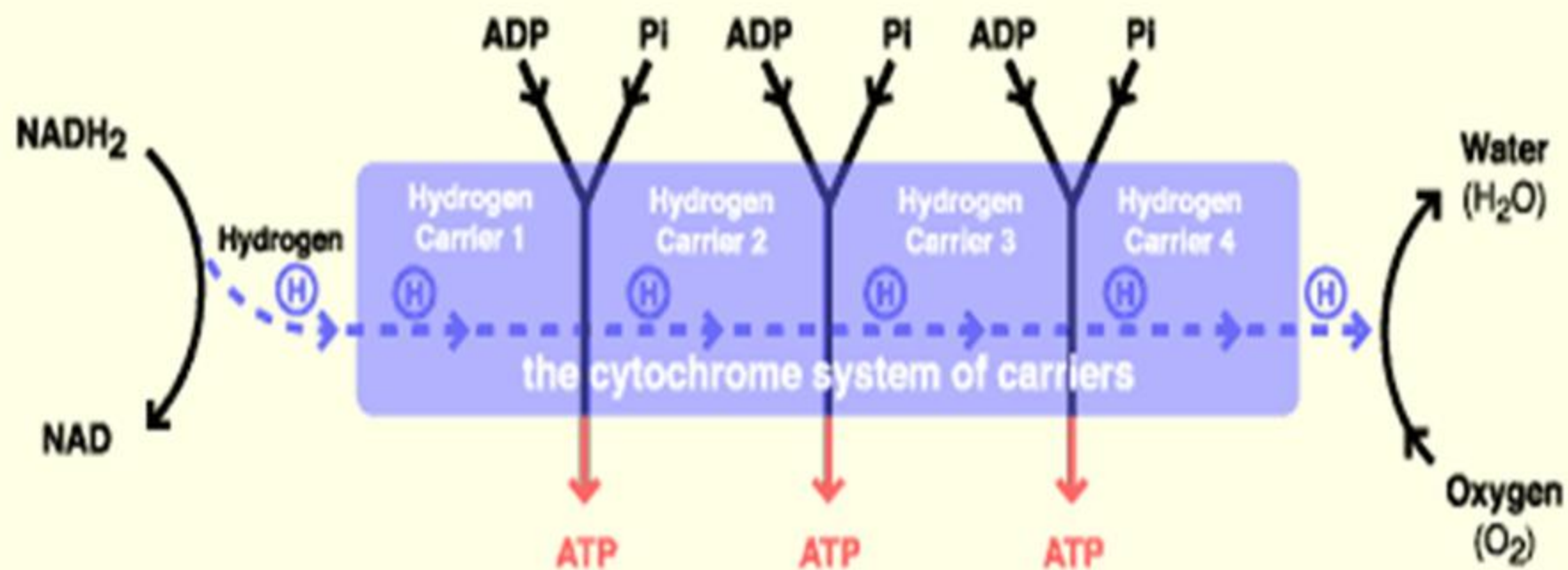
Citric Acid Cycle CYCLE - SUMMARY



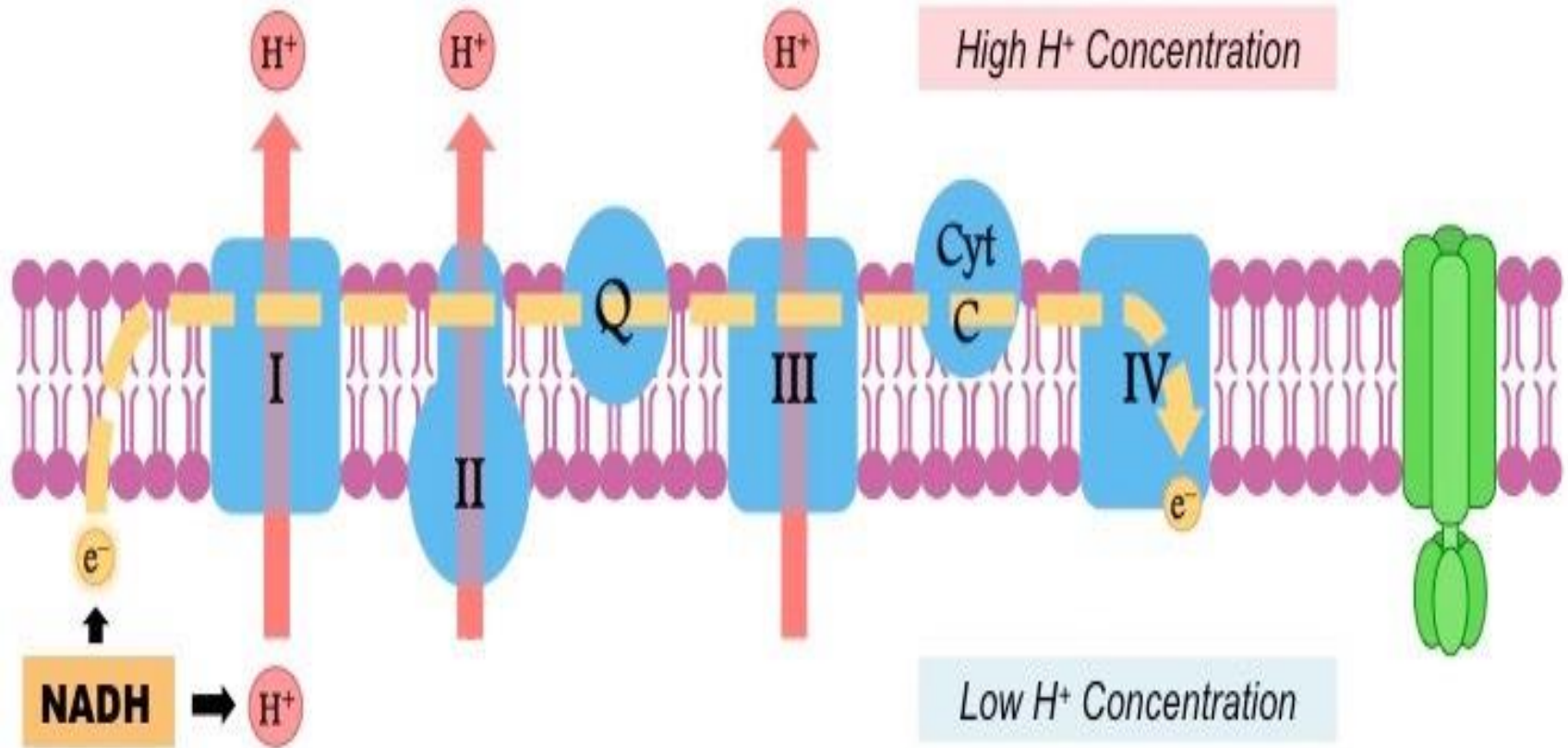


Krebs cycle



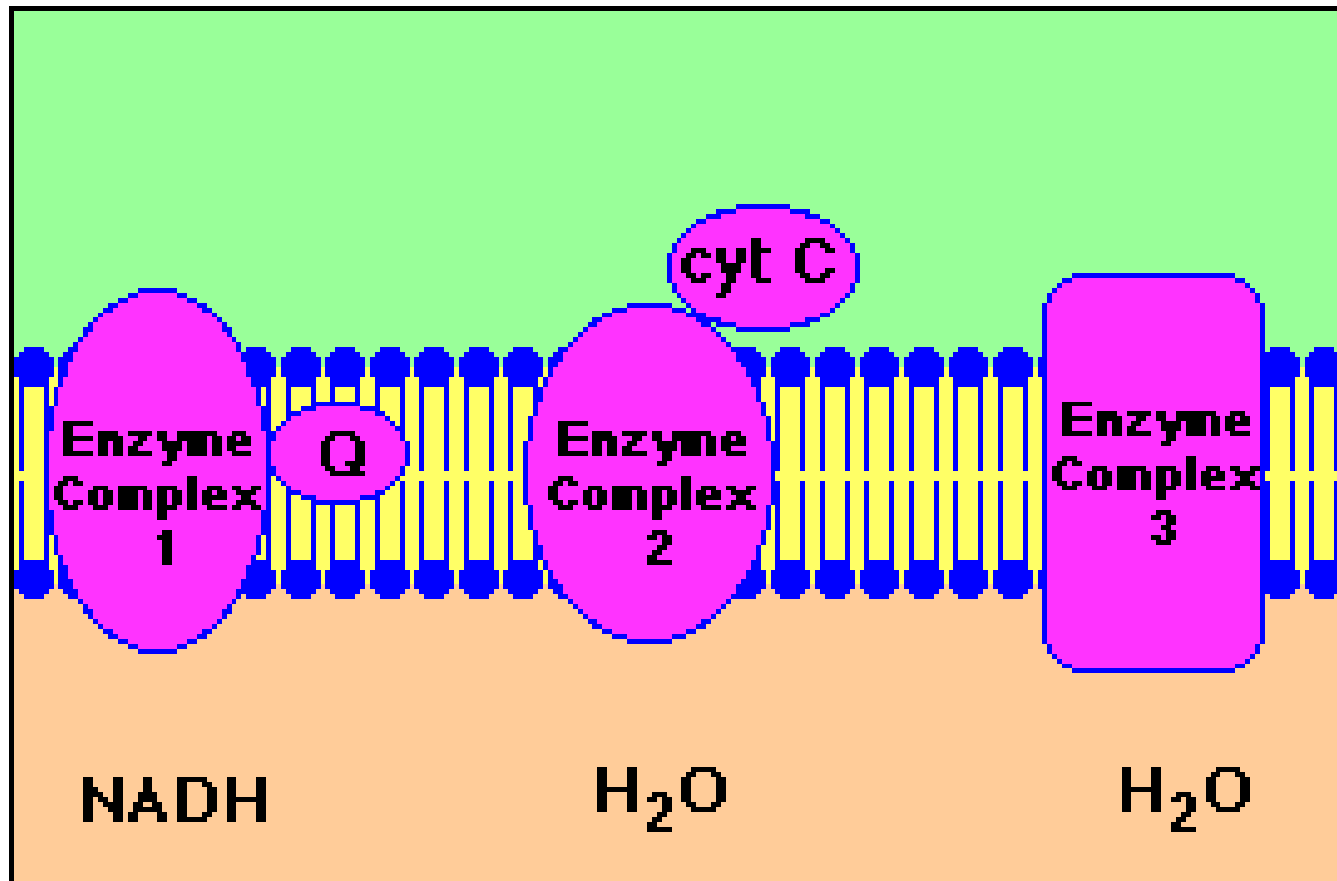


Step One: Generating a Proton Motive Force (PMF)

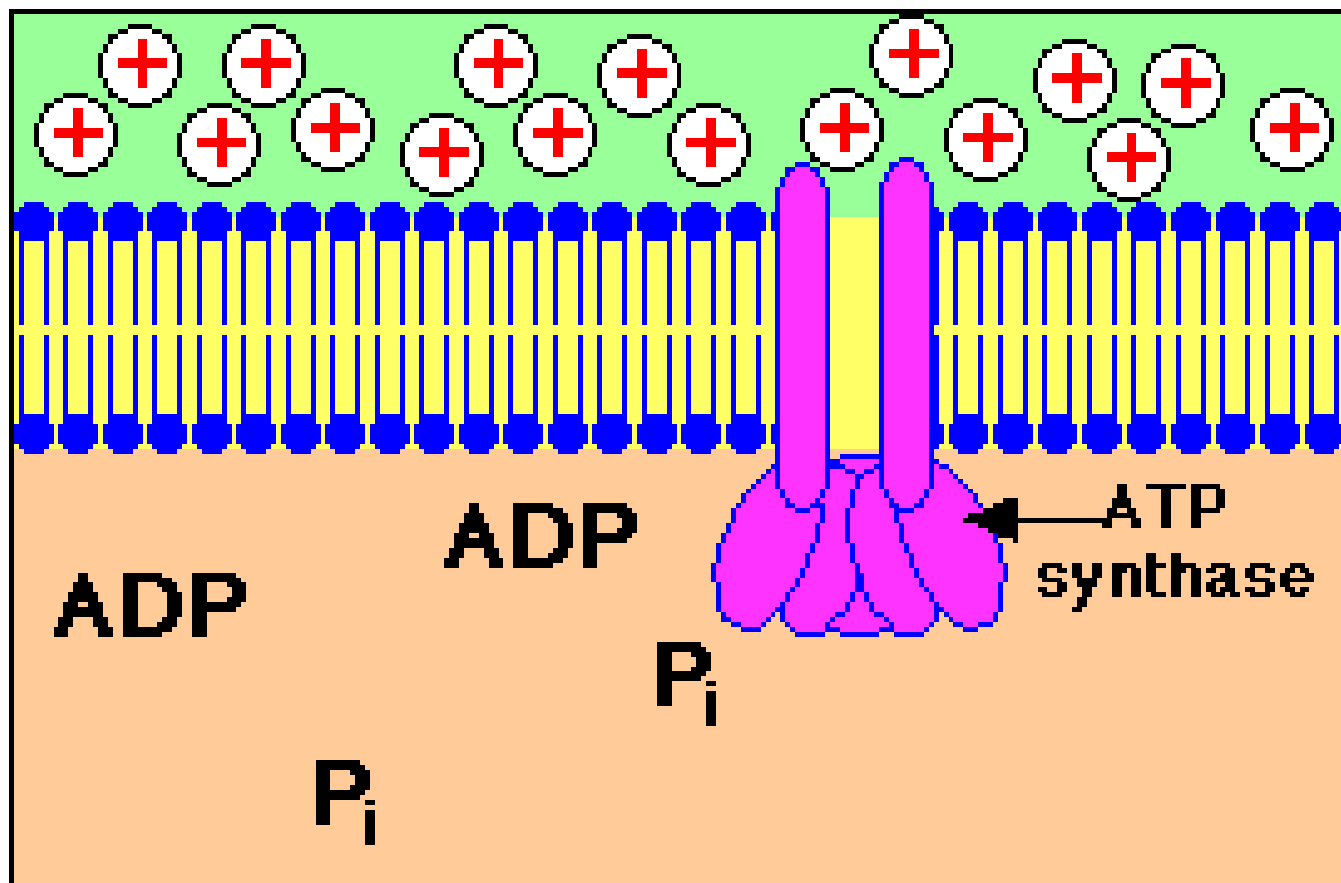


High energy electrons released by hydrogen carriers are shuttled through the electron transport chain. The released energy is used to translocate H^+ ions from the matrix, creating an electrochemical gradient.

Q : cytochrome c – oxidoreductase



1. Protons are moved across the membrane, from the cytosol to the intermembrane space.
2. Electrons are transported along the membrane, through a series of protein carriers depicted as "Q" and "cyt C" in the diagram.
3. **Oxygen is the final electron acceptor**, combining with electrons and H⁺ ions to produce water.



Summary of Cellular Respiration

p.16

<i>Reaction</i>	<i>Location</i>	<i>Purpose</i>	<i>ATP YIELD</i>
Glycolysis	CYTOPLASM	SPLIT Glucose into 2 Pyruvate	2 ATP
Kreb Cycle	MATRIX	USE PYRUVATE YIELDS CO ₂ FILLS ELECTRON CARRIERS	2 ATP
Electron Transport Chain	CRISTAE INNER MEMBRANE	CONVERT ELECTRONS TO ATP, O ₂ accepts electrons = WATER	32 ATP