

Glycolysis, Gluconeogenesis and Glycogen metabolism

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Objectives

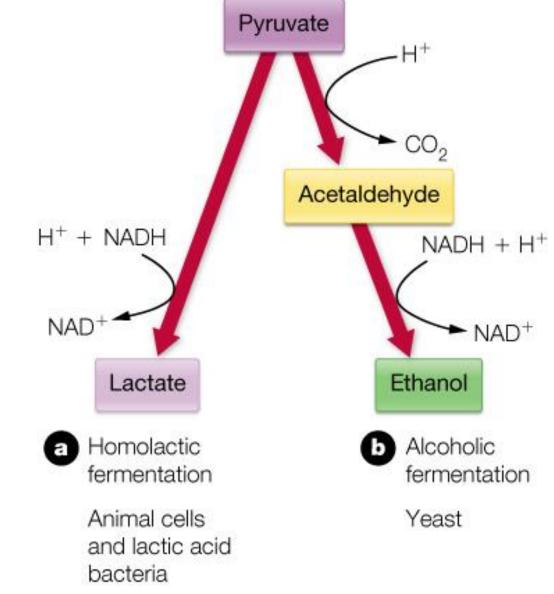
- Glycolysis continued
 - > Fermentation: What happens to pyruvate?
 - ➤ Regulation of glycolysis
- Gluconeogenesis how to make glucose (synthesis from pyruvate)
- Other sugars we can use for glycolysis
- Glycogen the storage form of glucose

Textbook Chap. 12



Anaerobic Metabolic Fate of Pyruvate

- NADH must be reoxidized to NAD+ for glycolysis to continue
 - ➤ Homolactic fermentation
 - ➤ Alcoholic fermentation (only yeast)
- Oxidation in mitochondria cannot keep up with the NADH produced by high rates of glycolysis, and anaerobic organisms lack mitochondria





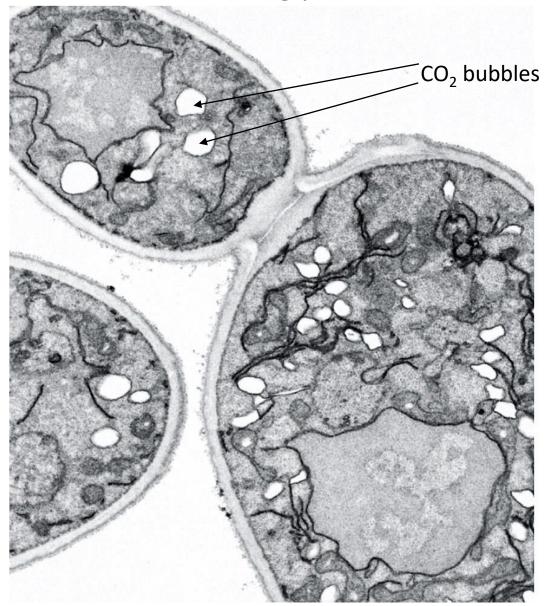
Homolactic Fermentation: lactosis or acidosis:

muscle cramps

Reactions of Alcoholic Fermentation



Fermenting yeast cells



Fermentation: The Anaerobic Fate of Pyruvate - Summary

- NADH, a substrate for the GAPDH reaction, must be reoxidized for glycolysis to continue.
- In muscle, pyruvate is reduced to lactate to regenerate NAD⁺.
- Yeast decarboxylates pyruvate to produce CO₂ and ethanol, in a process that requires the cofactor, thiamine pyrophosphate (TPP; Vitamin B1).

Regulation of Glycolytic Reactions based on Free **Energy Changes**

TABLE 12.1 Summary of Glycolysis						
Reaction	Enzyme	ATP yield	Δ G °′	ΔG		
Glucose (G) ATP ATP needed	Hexokinase (HK)	-1	-18.4	-33.5		
Glucose-6-phosphate (G6P)	Glucose-6-phosphate isomerase		+1.7	-2.5		
Fructose-6-phosphate (F6P) ATP ATP needed ADP Fructose-1,6-bisphosphate (FBP)	Phosphofructokinase (PFK)	-1	-15.9	-22.2		
•	Aldolase		+23.9	-1.3		
Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate (GAP) + dihydroxyacetone phosphate (DHAP)	Triose phosphate isomerase (TIM)		+7.6	~0		
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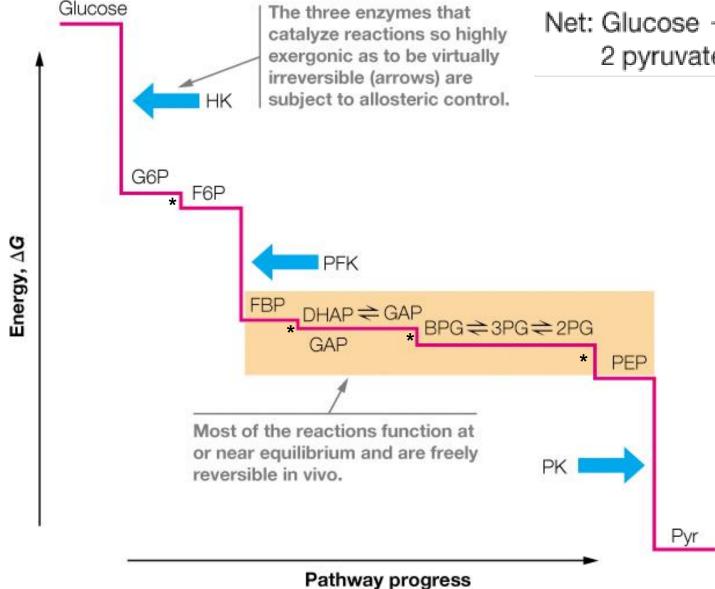
The cell only regulates reactions that have $\Delta G \ll 0$

TABLE 12.1 Summary of Glycolysis					
Reaction	Enzyme	ATP yield	ΔG°	ΔG	
Two glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate (GAP) NAD+ + P _i NADH + H+	Glyceraldehyde- 3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH)		+6.3 (+12.6)	-1.7 (-3.4)	
1,3-Bisphosphoglycerate (BPG)					
7 ADP	Phosphoglycerate kinase (PGK)	+1(+2)	-17.2 (-34.4)	~0	
3-Phosphoglycerate (3PG)	Phosphoglycerate mutase		+4.4 (+8.8)	~0	
9 H ₂ O	Enolase		-3.2 (-6.4)	-3.3 (-6.6)	
Phosphoenolpyruvate (PEP) ADP ATP Pyruvate (Pyr)	Pyruvate kinase (PK)	+1(+2)	-29.7 (-59.4)	-16.7 (-33.4)	
Net: Glucose + 2ADP + $2P_i$ + $2NAD^+ \rightarrow$ 2 pyruvate + $2ATP$ + $2NADH$ + $2H^+$ + $2H_2O$		+2	-79.9	-102.9	

Note: $\Delta G^{\circ\prime}$ and ΔG values in kJ/mol. The values in parentheses are based on doubling all the reactions past reaction 5, since the energy generation phase involves 2 three-carbon substrates per glucose molecule. ΔG values are estimated from the approximate intracellular concentrations of glycolytic intermediates in rabbit skeletal muscle.



Regulation of Glycolytic Reactions based on Free Energy Changes



Net: Glucose + 2ADP +
$$2P_1$$
 + $2NAD^+ \rightarrow$
2 pyruvate + $2ATP$ + $2NADH$ + $2H^+$ + $2H_2O$

Steps 2, 4-9 (* in figure) operate close to 0 free energy change in the cell and are therefore self-regulating, equilibrium reactions Driving force for glycolysis comes from just the 3 big "leaps":

- 1. Hexokinase (HK);
- 3. Phosphofructokinase (PFK) and
- 10. Pyruvate kinase (PK)
- Regulating these three enzymes alone will control the flux through the entire pathway.

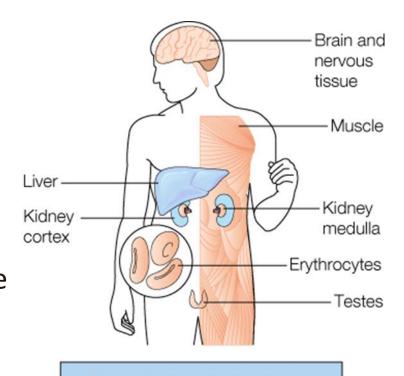
Daily requirement of glucose

- Human body needs ~160 g/day of glucose
 - 75% (~120 g/day) of this is used by the brain!
 - Body fluids carry 20 g of free glucose
 - Glycogen stores 180-200 g of free glucose
 - = about 1 day's requirement + a little more
- So we need to start producing glucose if not provided by food
- Gluco_neo(new)_genesis(generate) gathers pyruvate and lactate and converts them back to glucose
- Another glucose catabolism route is the pentose phosphate pathway (next lecture).



Gluconeogenesis: making new glucose

- The <u>liver</u> and kidney can synthesize glucose from *non-carbohydrate precursors:* lactate, pyruvate, and amino acids.
- Gluconeogenesis is like glycolysis in reverse, but <u>three</u>
 <u>"irreversible" reactions must be reversed</u>
 - the pyruvate kinase reaction bypassed by the pyruvate carboxylase and phosphoenolpyruvate carboxykinase reactions, and
 - the phosphofructokinase and hexokinase reactions bypassed by phosphatase reactions.
- Glycolysis and gluconeogenesis are reciprocally regulated by allosteric effects, phosphorylation, and changes in enzyme synthesis rates.



Tissues that synthesize glucose

Tissues that use glucose as their primary energy source

FIGURE 12.9 Synthesis and use of glucose in the human body.



Irreversible Reaction in Glycolysis

Hexokinase

Glucose-6phosphatase Liver endoplasmic reticulum

Fructose-1.6-

Cytosol

bisphosphatase

Bypass in Gluconeogenesis

 Glucose-6-phosphatase (only in liver and kidneys)

Phosphofructokinase

Reaction 3 of glycolysis

Fructose1,6-bisphosphate

2 NADH
2 1,3-bisphosphoglycerate

2 ATP
2 ATP

Glucose

Glucose-6-phosphate

Fructose-6-phosphate

Reaction 1 of

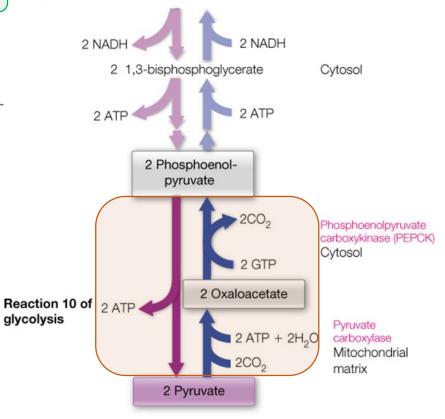
glycolysis

• Fructose-1,6-bisphosphatase

Glycolysis and Gluconeogenesis

Hydrolytic steps bypass irreversible glycolysis steps

Pyruvate kinase



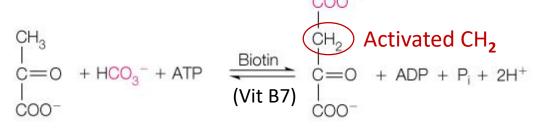
- Phosphoenolpyruvate carboxykinase
- Pyruvate carboxylase (mitochondria)



Bypass 1 – Pyruvate Carboxylase and Phosphoenolpyruvate Carboxykinase (PEPCK)

Pyruvate carboxylase

Pyruvate carboxylase



Pyruvate

Oxaloacetate

PEPCK

Overall

Pyruvate + ATP + GTP \rightarrow phosphoenolpyruvate + ADP

$$+ \text{GDP} + \text{P}_{i} + \text{H}^{+} \quad \Delta G^{\circ \prime} = -2.6 \text{ kJ/mol}$$



Compartmentation by placing one critical enzyme in another organelle in the liver (and some in the kidneys)

- Pyruvate carboxylase is in the mitochondrion!
- This pathway shuttles oxaloacetate and reducing equivalents from the mitochondrion to the cytoplasm. Blue spheres indicate inner membrane transporters. MDH = malate dehydrogenase.
- Only pyruvate and malate can cross the mitochondrial membrane – not oxaloacetate!
- Malate cannot be fed back into glycolysis!
- Prevents futile cycling as glycolysis and gluconeogenesis both occur in the cytosol.

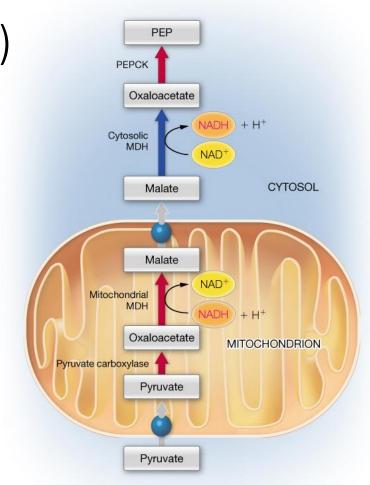


FIGURE 12.11 Compartmentation of bypass 1.



Bypass 2 – Fructose 1,6-bisphosphatase

Fructose-1,6-bisphosphate +
$$H_2O \xrightarrow{Mg^{2+}}$$
 fructose-6-phosphate + Pi $\Delta G^{\circ\prime} = -16.3 \text{ kJ/mol}$

Bypass 3 – Glucose 6-phosphatase

Glucose-6-phosphate +
$$H_2O \xrightarrow{Mg^{2+}} glucose + P_i$$

 $\Delta G^{\circ\prime} = -13.8 \text{ kJ/mol}$



Energy costs

- Gluconeogenesis:
- 2 pyruvates require 2 ATPs + 2 GTPs (= 4 ATPs) to become OAA
- Reversible step catalysed by phosphoglycerate kinase requires 2 ATPs for 2 3phospho-glycerate molecules.
- Total 6 ATPs consumed or used up, compared to 4 ATPs generated in glycolysis

2 Pyruvate +
$$4ATP + 2GTP + 2NADH + 2H^{+} + 4H_{2}O \rightarrow$$

glucose + $4ADP + 2GDP + 6P_{i} + 2NAD^{+}$

$$\Delta G^{\circ\prime} = -42.7 \text{ kJ/mol}$$

• Simple Reversal of glycolysis is impossible:

2 Pyruvate +
$$2ATP + 2NADH + 2H^{+} + 2H_{2}O \rightarrow$$

glucose + 2ADP + 2P_i + 2NAD⁺
$$\Delta G^{\circ\prime}$$
 = +79.9 kJ/mol



Summary of Gluconeogenetic Reactions

TABLE 12.2 Summary of gluconeogenesis, from pyruvate to glucose

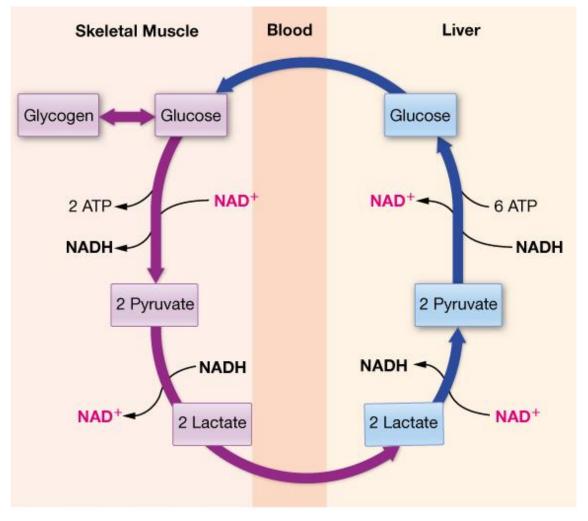
Reaction	ΔG°′(kJ/mol)
Pyruvate + HCO ₃ [−] + ATP → oxaloacetate + ADP + P _i	-3.8 (-7.6)
Oxaloacetate + GTP ⇒ phosphoenolpyruvate + CO ₂ + GDP	+1.2 (+2.4)
Phosphoenolpyruvate + H₂O ⇒ 2-phosphoglycerate	+6.4(+12.8)
2-Phosphoglycerate === 3-phosphoglycerate	-4.4 (-8.8)
3-Phosphoglycerate + ATP ⇒ 1,3-bisphosphoglycerate + ADP	+17.2 (+34.4)
1,3-Bisphosphoglycerate + NADH + H ⁺ ⇒ glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate + NAD ⁺ + P _i	-6.3 (-12.6)
Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate === dihydroxyacetone phosphate	-7.6
Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate + dihydroxyacetone phosphate ⇒ fructose-1,6-bisphosphate	-23.9
Fructose-1,6-bisphosphate + H₂O ⇒ fructose-6-phosphate + P₁	-16.3
Fructose-6-phosphate === glucose-6-phosphate	-1.7
Glucose-6-phosphate + H₂O ⇒ glucose + P₁	-13.8
Net: 2 Pyruvate + 4ATP + 2GTP + 2NADH + $2H^+$ + $4H_2O \longrightarrow glucose + 4ADP + 2GDP + 6P_1 + 2NAD^+$	-42.7

Note: The reactions in red are those that bypass irreversible glycolytic reactions; the remaining reactions are reversible reactions of glycolysis. The ΔG° values in parentheses are based on doubling the first six reactions because 2 three-carbon precursors are required to make one molecule of glucose. The individual reactions are not necessarily balanced for H⁺ and charge.



Cori Cycle

The liver is the most active gluconeogenic organ/tissue





Module 3: Sugar Metabolism

Gluconeogenesis summary

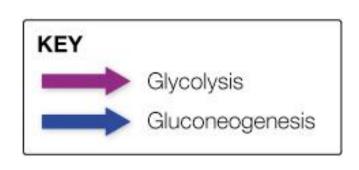
ONLY IN THE LIVER AND KIDNEYS

- 3C Pyruvate (or lactate) built up to 6C glucose by enzymes that bypass the three favourable steps of glycolysis:
 - 1. Pyruvate carboxylase and PEP carboxykinase (PEPCK) bypass pyruvate kinase (mitochondria),
 - 2. fructose-1,6-bisphosphatase (FBPase) bypasses phosphofructokinase, and
 - 3. glucose-6-phosphatase (in the liver and kidneys) bypasses hexokinase.
- Gluconeogenesis is regulated by changes in enzyme synthesis and by allosteric effectors.



Coordinated regulation of Glucose Breakdown and Synthesis phosphatase

 Glycolysis and gluconeogenesis must be controlled reciprocally to prevent futile cycles



 Regulation must also take into account the need to maintain pools of intermediates for other biosynthetic purposes

Glucose

G₆P

F6P

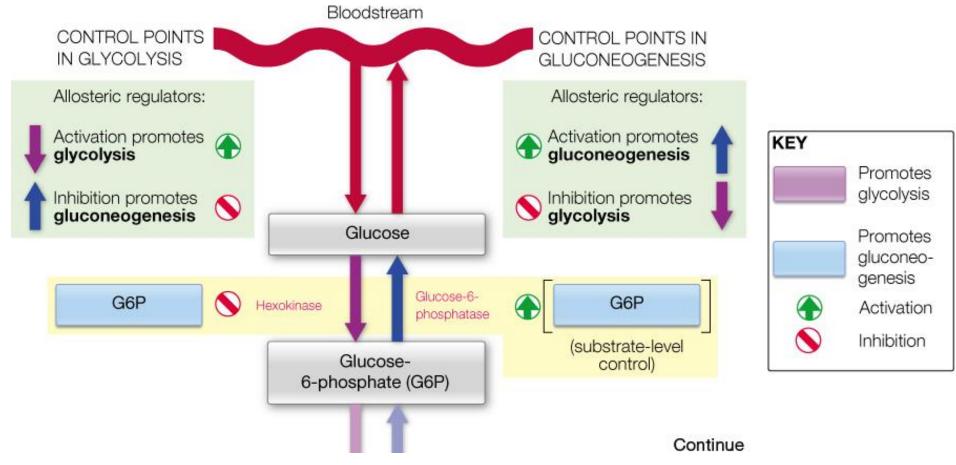
FBP

FBPase

Hexokinase

PFK

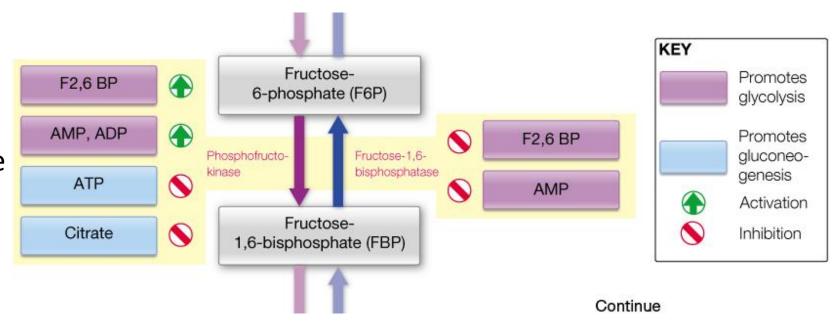
Control Point 1: Allosteric regulation by Glucose-6-phosphate

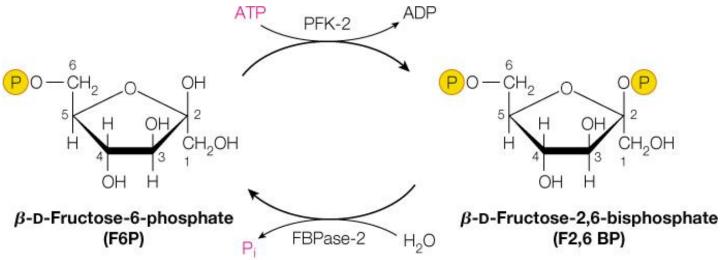




Control Point 2

- Energy charge: ATP inhibits glycolysis; AMP/ADP activate glycolysis; AMP inhibits gluconeogenesis.
- Citrate inhibits glycolysis





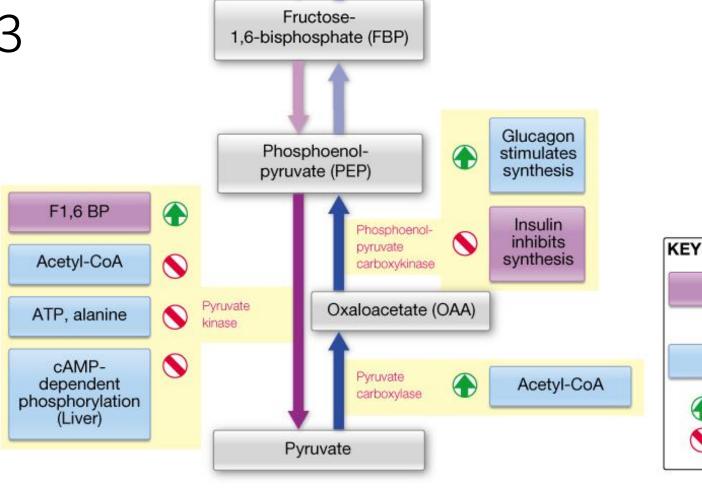
 F2,6BP activates glycolysis and inhibits gluconeogenesis. F2,6BP is synthesized by the bifunctional PFK-2/FBPase-2, which is distinct from the enzymes found in glycolysis and gluconeogenesis



Module 3: Sugar Metabolism

Control Point 3

- ATP inhibits glycolysis
- F1,6BP activates glycolysis
- Acetyl-CoA (made from pyruvate) inhibits glycolysis and activates gluconeogenesis
- Alanine (from aa breakdown) makes pyruvate; inhibits glycolysis
- Hormones: glucagon activates and insulin inhibits gluconeogenesis.





Promotes glycolysis

Promotes

gluconeo-

Activation

Inhibition

genesis

Towards exam prep

- Compare and contrast glycolysis and gluconeogenesis
 - Hormonal control of glycolysis and gluconeogenesis
 - Also glycogen metabolism
- Which pathway to choose, when there is
 - low blood glucose level
 - high blood glucose level



Utilization of Sugars Other Than Glucose

- Glycolysis can use other commonly available hexoses:
 - ✓ Fructose (fruit sugar),
 - ✓ Galactose (milk sugar), and
 - ✓ Mannose (from liver cells)
- Glycerol from fat metabolism can also be used by glycolysis
- Complex carbohydrates (starch from plants and glycogen stored by animals) are also hydrolysed and enter glycolysis as G1P.
- ❖ 3 ATPs generated as 1st investment step bypassed
 - Glycogen and Galactose as G1P
 - also mannose and fructose that enter the pathway with 1 phosphate group

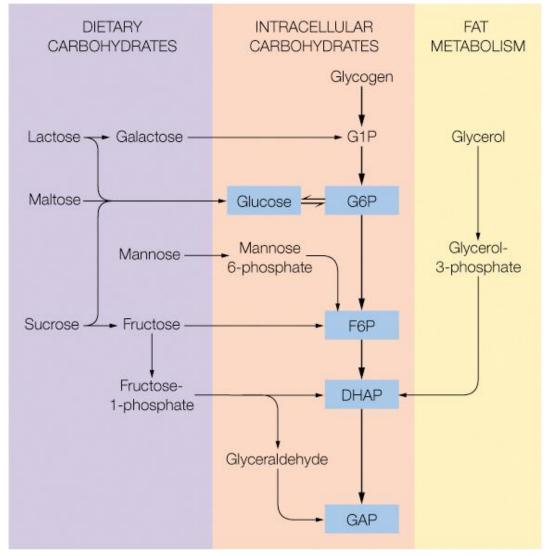


FIGURE 12.19 Routes for utilizing substrates other than glucose in glycolysis.



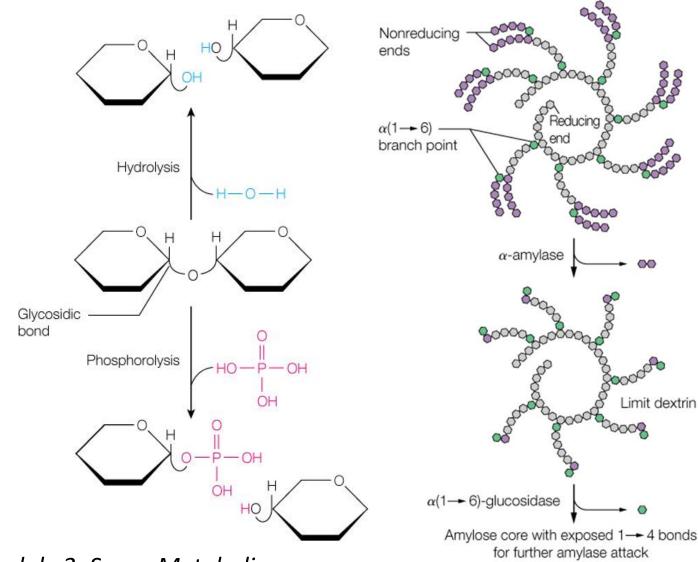
Substrates for gluconeogenesis

- Metabolites need to be converted to the 4C oxaloacetate to enter gluconeogenesis pathway
- The noncarbohydrate precursors to gluconeogenesis include:
 - 1. Glycolysis products: pyruvate, lactate
 - 2. Citric acid cycle intermediates
 - Amino acids except leucine and lysine (these form acetyl-CoA) these are called <u>glucogenic amino acids</u>



Stored Sugars: Starch and Glycogen Digestion

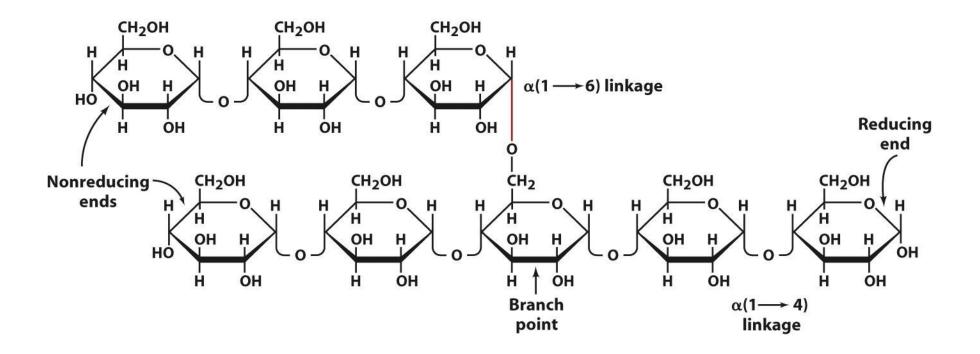
- Dietary polysaccharides are metabolized by hydrolysis to monosaccharides
- Starch forms maltose (glucose dimer), which is then broken up onto glucose
- Glycogen is mobilized as phosphorylated G1P by phosphorylation





Structure of Glycogen (recap)

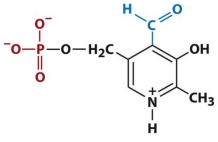
 Glycogen (<u>like starch</u>) is a polymer of glucose residues linked by α linkages





Glycogenolysis: 3 enzymatic steps of glycogen breakdown

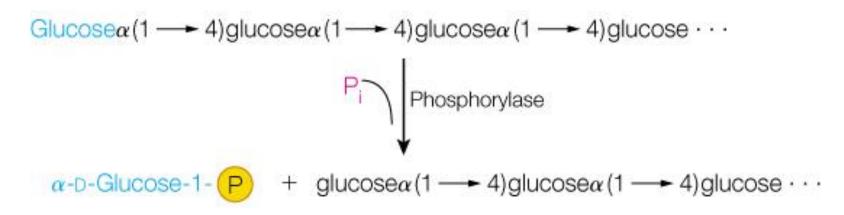
- 1. Glycogen phosphorylase cleaves $\alpha(1\rightarrow 4)$ bonds via phosphorolysis, yielding α -D-glucose-1-phosphate (G1P).
 - This enzyme requires PLP (Vitamin B6) as cofactor
 - Also can only remove glucose to within 4 units from a branch point!



Pyridoxal-5'-phosphate (PLP)

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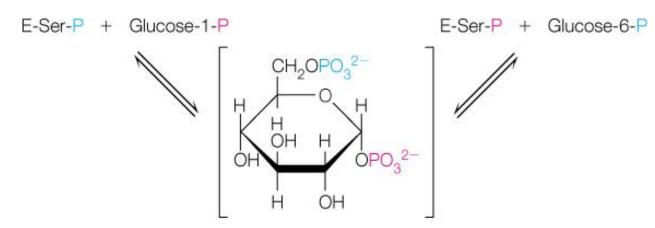
Phosphorylase reaction





3 enzymatic steps of glycogen breakdown

- 2. Glycogen debranching enzyme: removes glycogen's branches, making additional glucose residues available for breakdown by glycogen phosphorylase (step 1).
- **3. Phosphoglucomutase** converts G1P to G6P, which can be used in metabolic pathways:
 - Glycolysis or glucose-6-phosphatase generates free glucose in the liver
 - Pentose phosphate pathway or Back to glycogen!

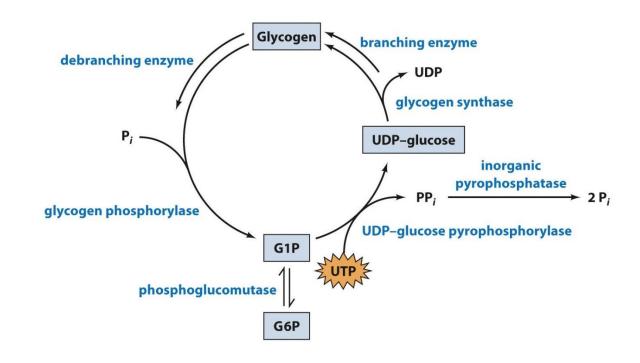


Enzyme-bound glucose-1,6-bisphosphate



Glycogen Synthesis

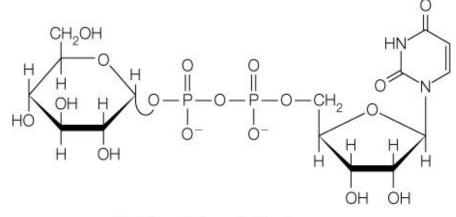
- Glycogen synthesis involves a series of conversions from glucose to glucose-6phosphate, to glucose-1-phosphate, to UDP-glucose, and finally to glycogen.
- **UTP** provides energy for this process.
- UDP-glucose is an activated form of the glucose molecule.
- Glycogen is extended from a primer built on and by the protein glycogenin.





Glucose -lexokinase → ADP Glucose-6-P Phosphoglucomutase CH2OH Glucose-1-P UTP Uridine UDP-Glc pyrophosphorylase ΔG°'~0 CH₂OH **UDP-Glc** OH Glycogen primer Glc Glycogen synthase $\Delta G^{\circ}' = -13.4$ CH2OH CH2OH Glycogen Glc_{n+1}

1. Synthesis of UDP-Glucose



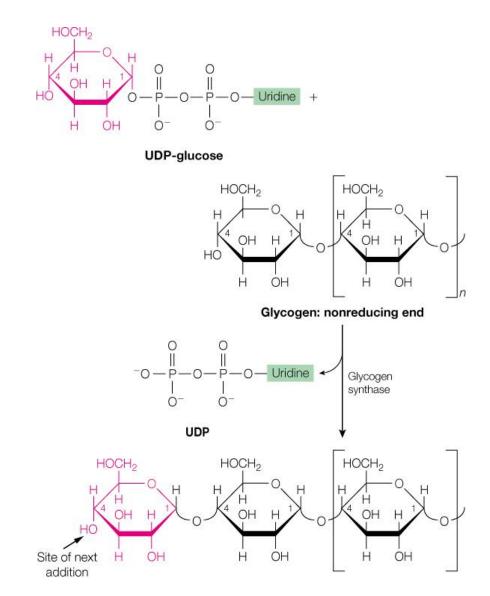
Uridine diphosphate glucose (UDP-Glc)

UDP-glucose is an activated form of glucose for glycogen synthesis



2. Synthesis of Glycogen from UDP-Glucose

Using UDP-glucose, $\alpha(1\rightarrow 4)$ -linked glycogen is synthesized by **glycogen synthase**





The Glycogen Branching Process

Glycogen branches are added by an amylo- $(1,4\rightarrow1,6)$ transglycosylase, which transfers 6 to 7 residues from a branch terminus at least 11 residues long



Glycogen synthesis summary

- Glycogen synthesis requires a different pathway in which G1P is activated by UTP to form UDP-glucose.
- Glycogen synthase adds glucosyl monomer units to the end of a growing glycogen molecule.
- Mostly in the liver but also in muscle cells, when there is excess glucose.
- Branching increases the density of glucose monomers in glycogen.



Glycogen Metabolism and Human Disease

In the liver: mainly hepatomegaly (enlarged liver) and hypoglycemia (low blood sugar) – others below cause muscle cramps and weakness:

TABLE 12.3 Human congenital defects of glycogen metabolism

Туре	Common Name	Enzyme Deficiency	Glycogen Structure	Organ Affected
la	von Gierke disease	Glucose-6-phosphatase (ER)	Normal	Liver, kidney, intestine
lb		Glucose-6-phosphate transporter (ER)	Normal	Liver
III	Cori or Forbes disease	Debranching enzyme	Short outer chains	Liver, heart, muscle
IV	Andersen disease	Branching enzyme	Abnormally long unbranched chains	Liver and other organs
٧	McArdle disease	Muscle glycogen phosphorylase	Normal	Skeletal muscle
VI	Hers disease	Liver glycogen phosphorylase	Normal	Liver, leukocytes
VII	Tarui disease	Muscle phosphofructokinase	Normal	Muscle
IX		Liver phosphorylase kinase	Normal	Liver
		Glycogen synthase	Normal	Liver

