The pentose phosphate pathway. Metabolism of fructose and galactose. The uronic acid pathway. The synthesis of amino sugars and glycosyl donors in glycoprotein synthesis.

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The pentose phosphate pathway

(Hexose monophosphate shunt)

Tissue location:

liver, adipose tissue (up to 50% of glucose metab.), erythrocytes, adrenal gland, mammary gland, testes, ovary etc.

(generally tissues, where the reductive syntheses or hydroxylations catalyzed by monooxygenases occur)

The other tissues use only some reactions of pentose phosphate pathway

Cell location: cytoplasma

Significance of pentose phosphate pathway

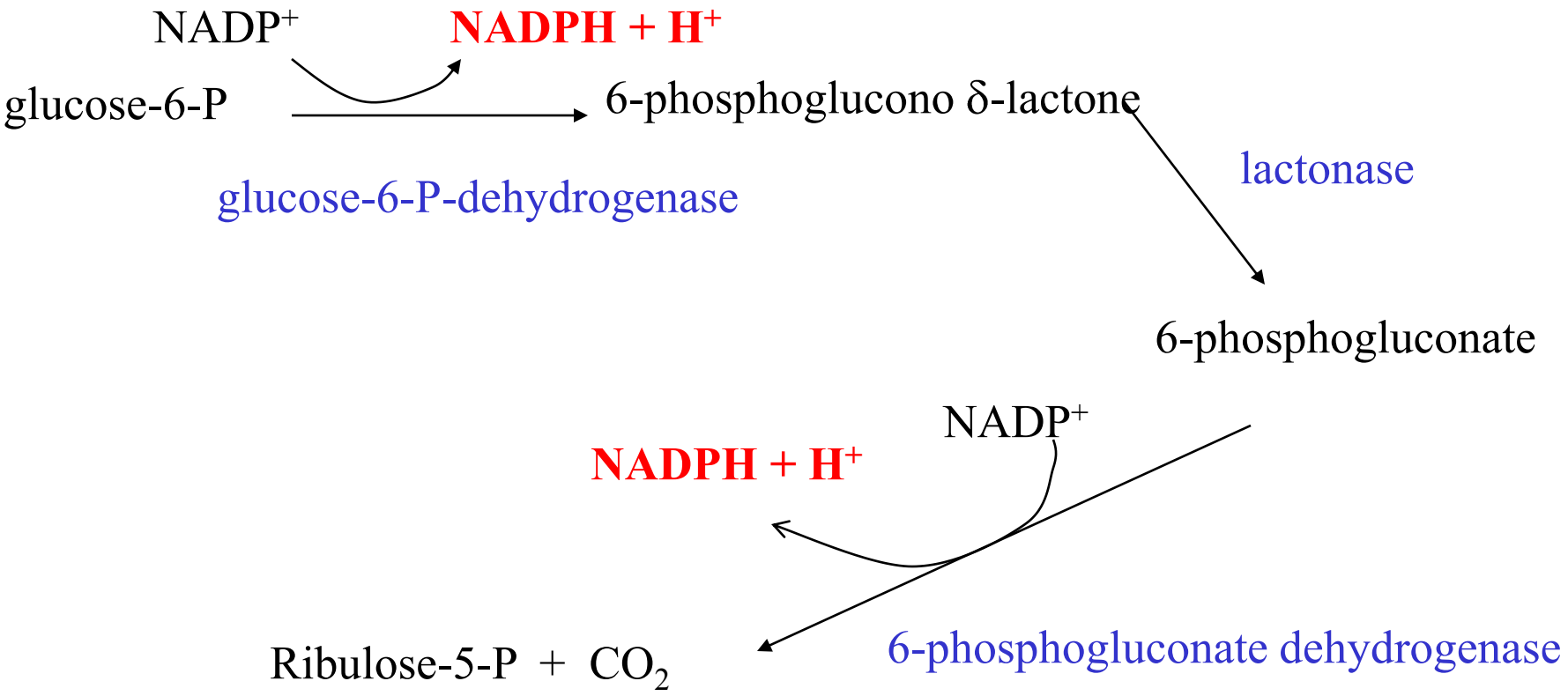
- source of NADPH (reductive syntheses, oxygenases with mixed function, reduction of glutathion)
- as a source of ribose-5-P (nucleic acids, nucleotides)
- metabolic use of five carbon sugars obtained from the diet

No ATP is directly consumed or produced

Two phases of pentose phosphate pathway

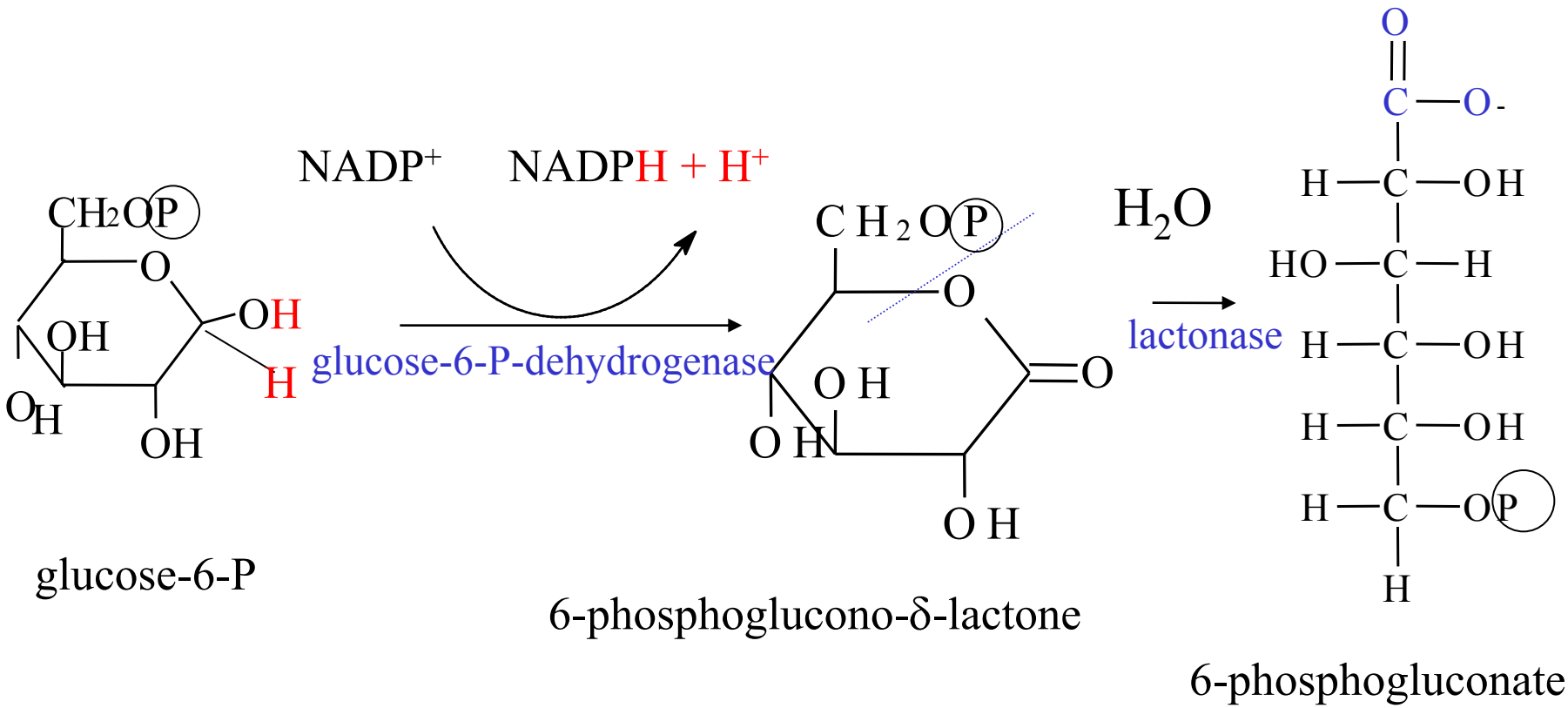
Oxidative phase	irreversible reactions
Nonoxidative (interconversion) phase	reversible reactions

Oxidative part of pentose phosphate pathway

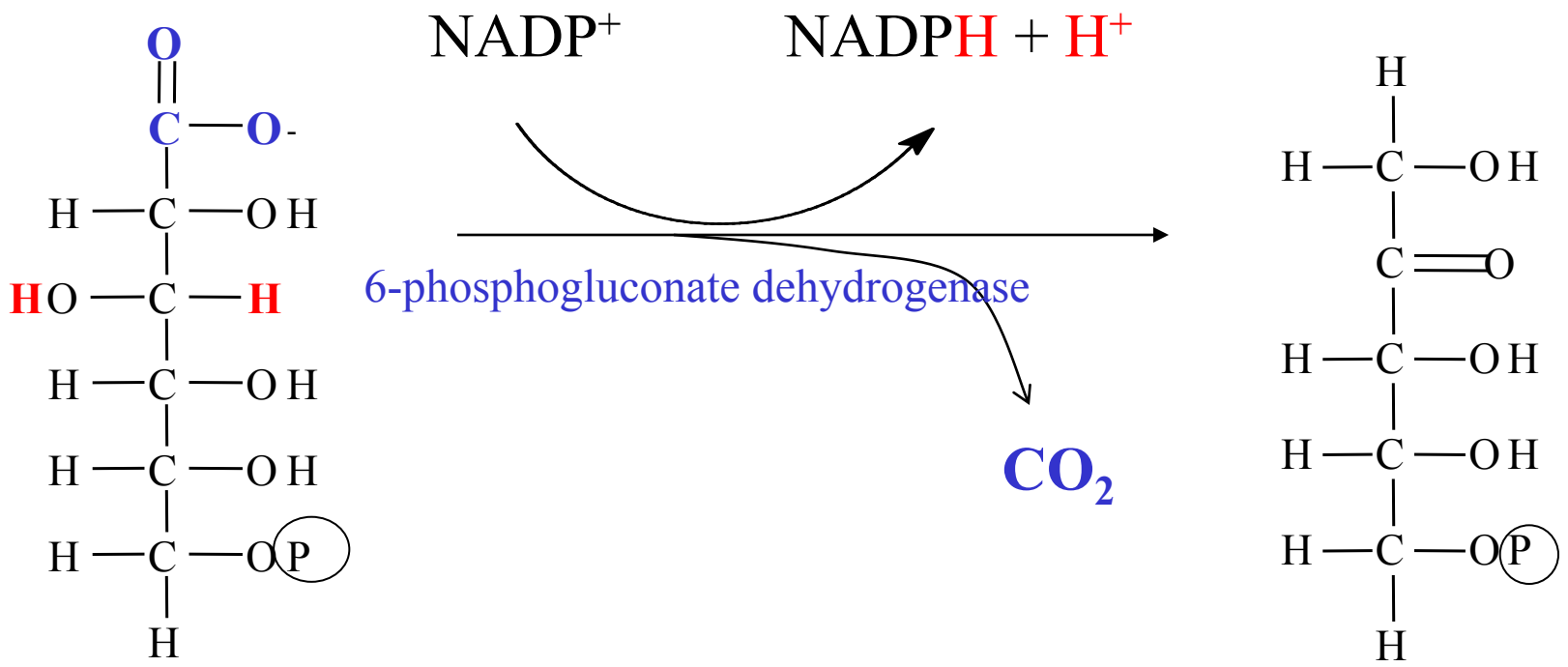


Glucose 6-phosphate dehydrogenase is the regulated key enzyme of the pathway.
Factors affecting the reaction:
inhibition by NADPH
Availability of $NADP^+$
Induction of the enzyme by insuline

Oxidative part of pentose phosphate pathway with structural formulas – formation of 6-phosphogluconate



Oxidative part of pentose phosphate pathway with structural formulas – conversion of 6-phosphogluconate



6-phosphogluconate

ribulose-5-P

The yield of oxidative phase of pentose phosphate pathway are 2 mols of NADPH and one mol of pentose phosphate

Reversible nonoxidative reactions of pentose phosphate pathwayy

Summary equation:

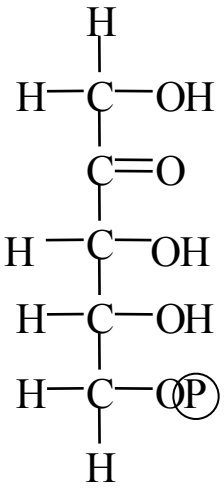
3 Ribulose-5-P $\rightleftharpoons$ 2 fructose-6-P + Glyceraldehyde-3-P

What is the significance of this phase?

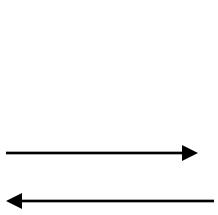
Some cells require many NADPH. Its production in oxidative phase is associated with formation of large amount of pentoses, that the cell does not need. The pentoses are converted to fructose-6-phosphate and glyceraldehyde-3-P that are inermediates of glycolysis.

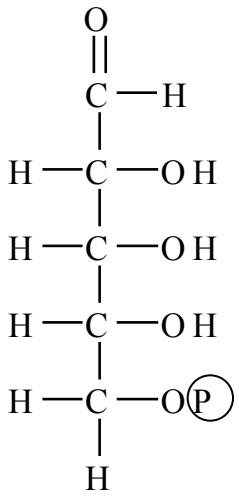
Enzymes in reversible phase of pentose phosphate pathway

Isomerase



Ribulose-5-P



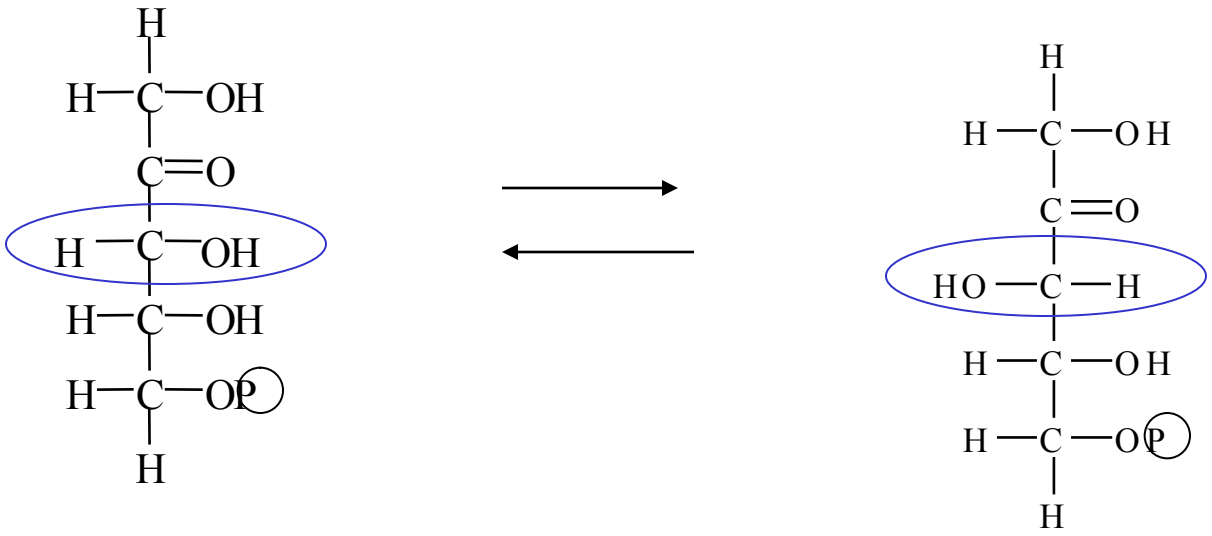


Ribose-5-P

Synthesis of nucleotides and nucleic acids

Reactions of nonoxidative phase of pentose phosphate pathway

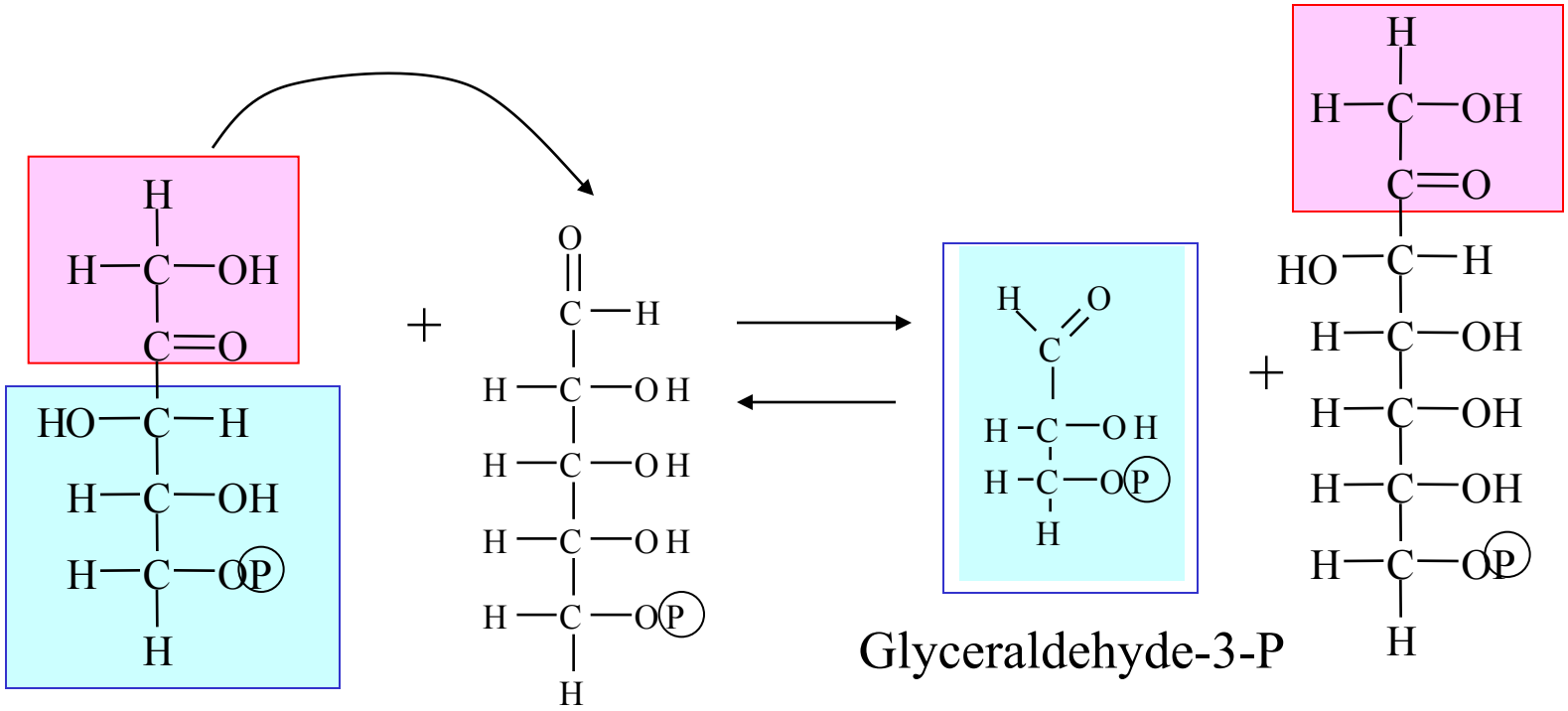
Epimerase



Ribulose-5-P

Xylulose-5-P

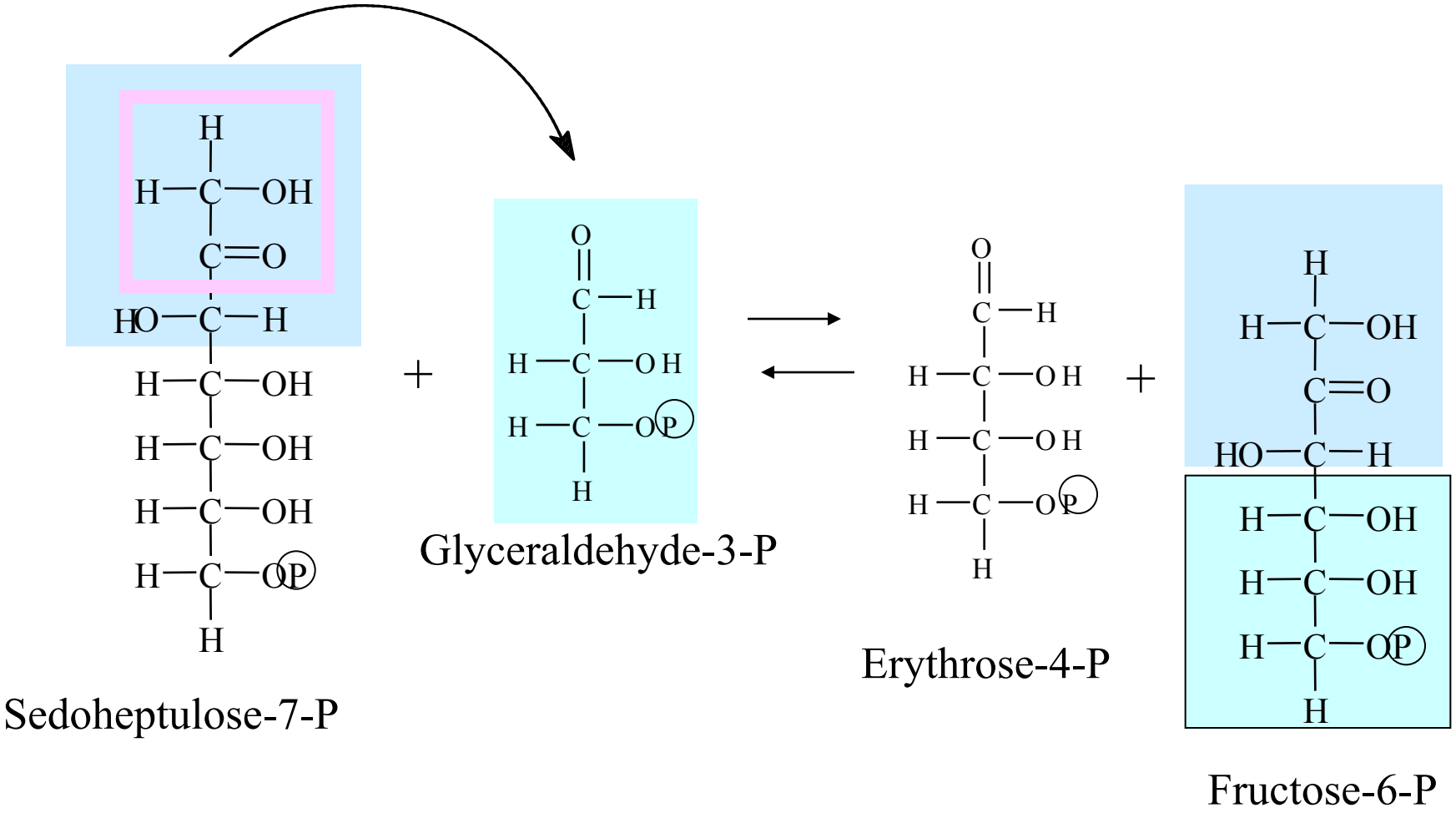
Transketolase – it transfers two-carbon units



5C + 5C ⇄ 3C + 7C

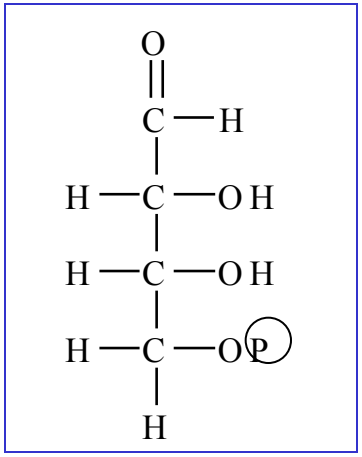
Prostetic group of transketolase: thiamine diphosphate

Transaldolase – it transfers three-carbon units



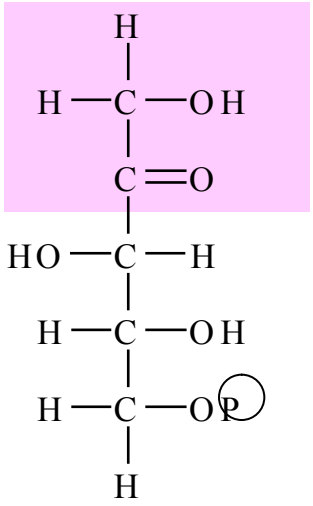
7C + 3C ⇄ 4C + 6C

Transketolase – it transfers two-carbon units

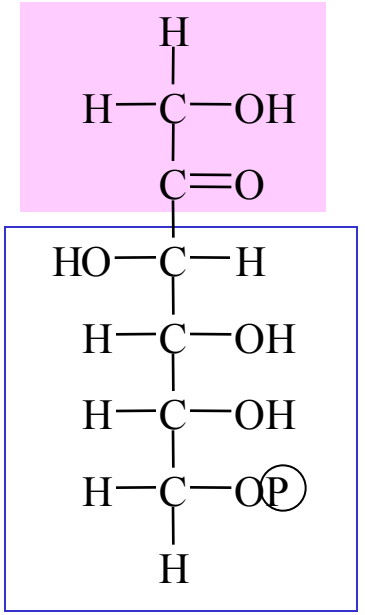


Erythrose-4-P

+

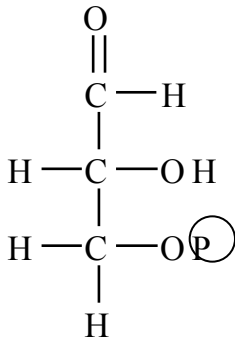


Xylulose -5-P



Fructose-6-P

+



Glyceraldehyde-3-P

4C + 5C ⇄ 6C + 3C

The summary of pentose phosphate pathway

Ribulose-5-P ⇌ Ribose -5-P

2 Ribulose-5-P ⇌ 2 Xylulose -5-P

Xylu-5-P + Rib-5-P ⇌ Glyc-3-P + Sed-7-P

Sed-7-P + Glyc-3-P ⇌ Ery-4-P + Fru-6-P

Xylu-5-P + Ery-4-P ⇌ Glyc-3-P + Fru-6-P

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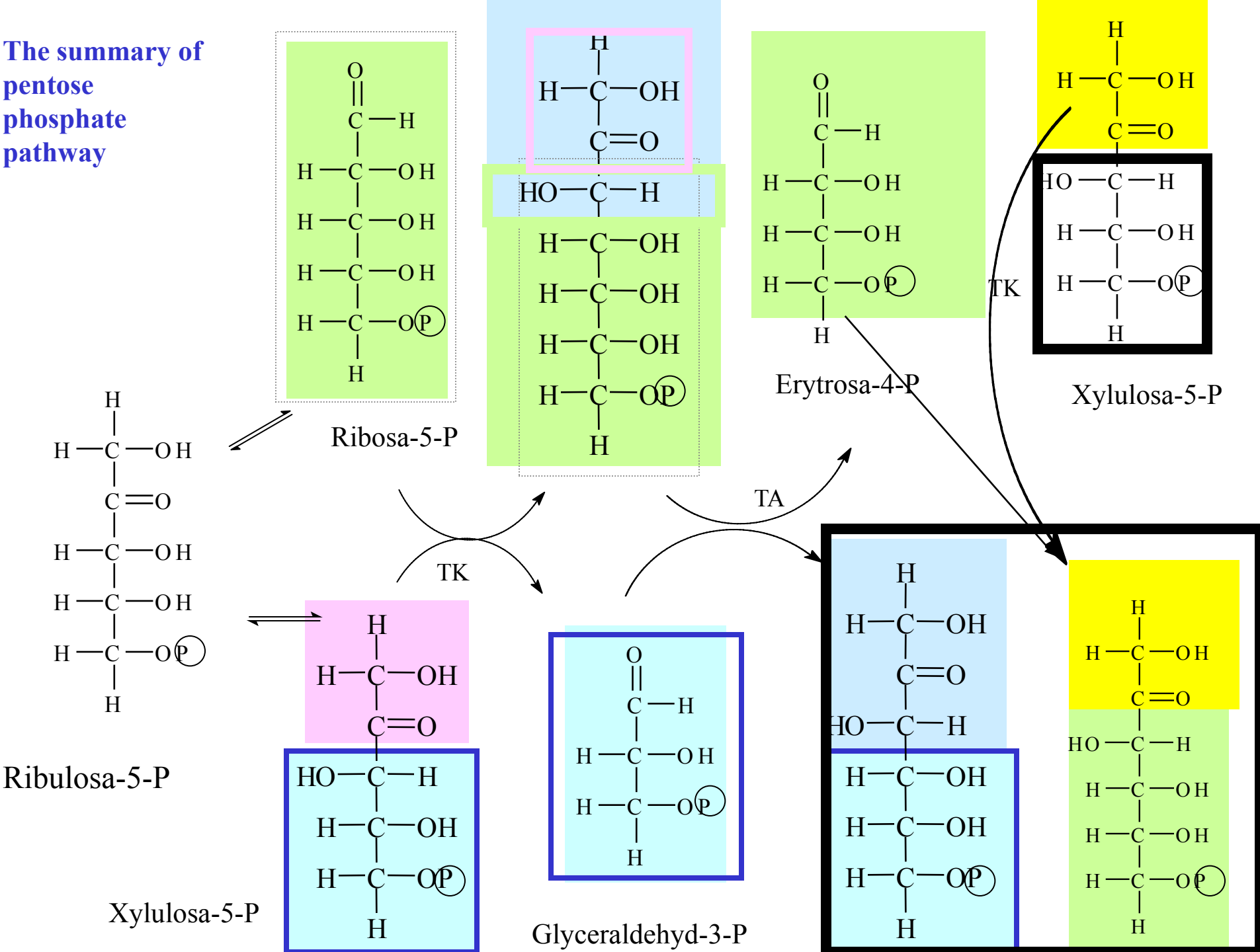
3 Ribulose-5-P ⇌ Glyceraldehyde-3-P + 2 Fru-6-P

3 x 5C ⇌ 3C + 2 x 6C

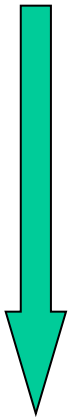
The summary of pentose phosphate pathway



Generation of ribose phosphate from intermediates of glycolysis

The reactions of nonoxidative phase are reversible.

This enables that ribose-5-phosphate can be generated from intermediates of glycolytic pathway in case when the demand for ribose for incorporation into necleotides and nucleic acids is greater than the need for NADPH.



Transketolase reaction in opposite direction

fructose-6-P + glyceraldehyde-3-P ⟷ erytrosa-4-P + xylulosa-5-P

(from glycolysis)

Transaldolase reaction in opposite direction

erytrose-4-P + fructose-6-P⟷ sedoheptulose-7-P

+ glyceraldehyde-3-P

(from glycolysis)

Transketolase reaction in opposite direction

sedoheptulose-7-P + glyceraldehyde-3-P ⟷ 2 pentose phosphates

Cellular needs dictate the direction of pentose phosphate pathway

Cellular need	Direction of pathway
NADPH only	Oxidative reactions produce NADPH, nonoxidative reactions convert ribulose 5-P to glucose 6-P to produce more NADPH
NADPH + ribose-5-P	Oxidative reactions produce NADPH and ribulose 5-P, the isomerase converts ribulose 5-P to ribose 5-P
Ribosa-5-P only	Only the nonoxidative reactions. High NADPH inhibits glucose 6-P dehydrogenase, so transketolase and transaldolase are used to convert fructose 6-P and glyceraldehyde 3-P to ribose 5-P
NADPH and pyruvate	Both the oxidative and nonoxidative reactions are used. The oxidative reactions generate NADPH and ribulose 5-P, the nonoxidative reactions convert the ribulose 5-P to fructose 5-P and glyceraldehyde 3-P, and glycolysis converts these intermediates to pyruvate

Most important reactions using NADPH

- reduction of oxidized glutathion
- monooxygenase reactions with cytP450
- respiratory burst in leukocytes
- reductive synthesis:

  synthesis of fatty acids

  elongation of fatty acids

  cholesterol synthesis

  nucleotide synthesis

  NO synthesis from arginine

NADH x NADPH / comparision

Characteristics	**NADH**	**NADPH**
formation	Mainly in dehydrogenation reactions of substrates in catabolic processes	In dehydrogenation reactions other than catabolic
utilization	Mainly respiratory chain*	Reductive synthesis and detoxication reactions Cannot be oxidized in resp. chain
Form that is prevailing in the cell	NAD^+	NADH

* Transhydrogenase in mitochondrial membrane can catalyze transfer of H from NADH to $NADP^+$

Significance of pentose phosphate pathway for red blood cells

Pentose phosphate pathway is the only source of NADPH for erc

It consumes about 5-10% of glucose in erc

NADPH is necessary for maintenance of reduced glutathione pool

$$GS\text{-}SG + NADPH + H^{+} \xrightarrow[\text{glutathionreductase}]{} 2GSH + NADP^{+}$$

Oxidized form of glutathione is generated during the degradation of hydrogen peroxide and organic peroxides in red blood cells

glutathionperoxidase

$$2GSH + HO\text{-}OH \rightarrow GSSG + 2H_2O$$

$$2GSH + ROOH \rightarrow GSSG + ROH + H_2O$$

Accumulation of peroxides in the cell triggers the haemolysis

Deficit of glucose 6-P dehydrogenase in red blood cells

Inherited disease

It is caused by point mutations of the gene for glucose 6-P dehydrogenase in chromosome X in some populations (400 different mutations)

More than 400 milions of individuals worldwide

Erythrocytes suffer from the lack of reduced glutathione

Most individuals with the disease do not show clinical manifestations. Some patients develop hemolytic anemia if they are treated with an oxidant grug, ingest favabeans or contract a severe infetion (*AAA)

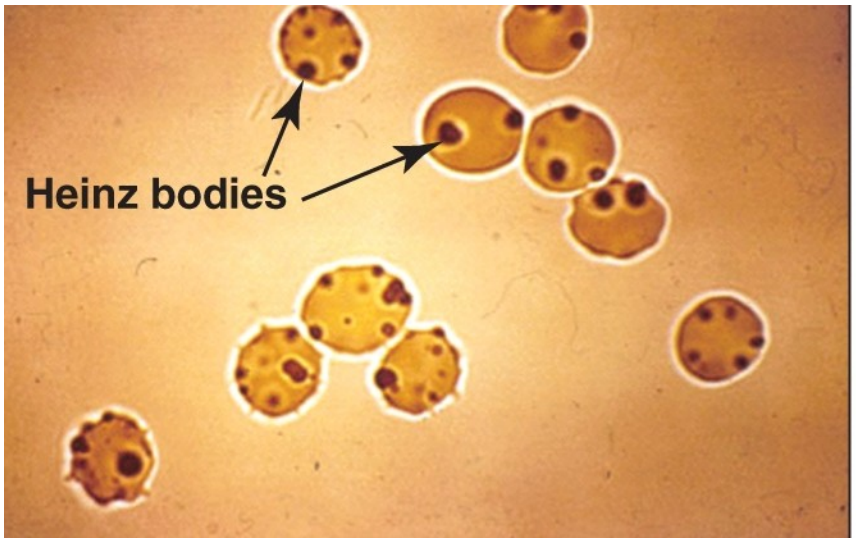
The highest prevalence in the Middle East, tropical Afrika and Asia, parts of Mediterranean

AAA* - antimalarials, antibiotics, antipyretics

Heinz bodies are present in red blood cells with glucose-6-P-dehydrogenase deficience

Deficiency of reduced glutathion results in protein damage – oxidation of sulfhydryl groups in proteins leads to the formation of denaturated proteins that form insoluble masses (Heinz bodies)

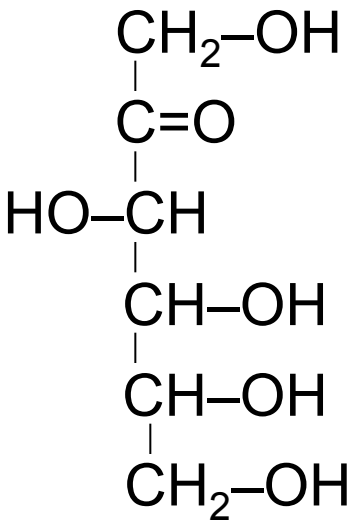
Erytrocytes are rigid and nondeformable – they are removed from circulation by macrophages in spleen and liver.

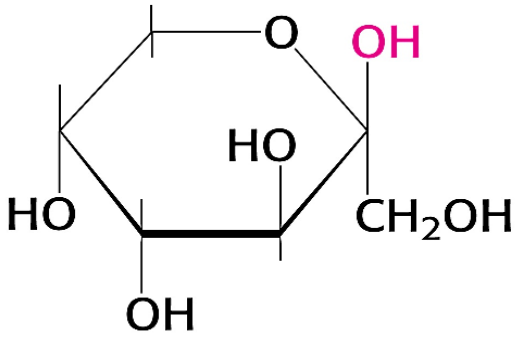


Favism

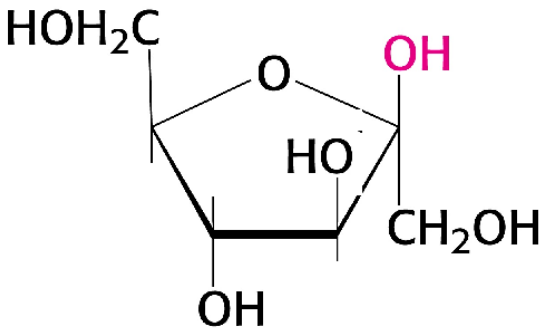
Some people with GHPD deficiency are susceptible to the fava bean (Vicia fava). Eating them results in hemolysis.

Metabolism of fructose





β-D-Fructopyranose



β-D-Fructofuranose

Sources of fructose

Source fructose: sucrose from diet, fruits, honey, high fructose corn syrup*

For thousands of years humans consumed fructose amounting to 16–20 grams per day, largely from fresh fruits. Westernization of diets has resulted in significant increases in added fructose, leading to typical daily consumptions amounting to 85–100 grams of fructose per day.

Fructose enters most of the cells by facilitated diffusion on the GLUT V

* High-fructose corn syrup is used as a sweetener in many soft drinks, yogurts, saladd dressings etc.

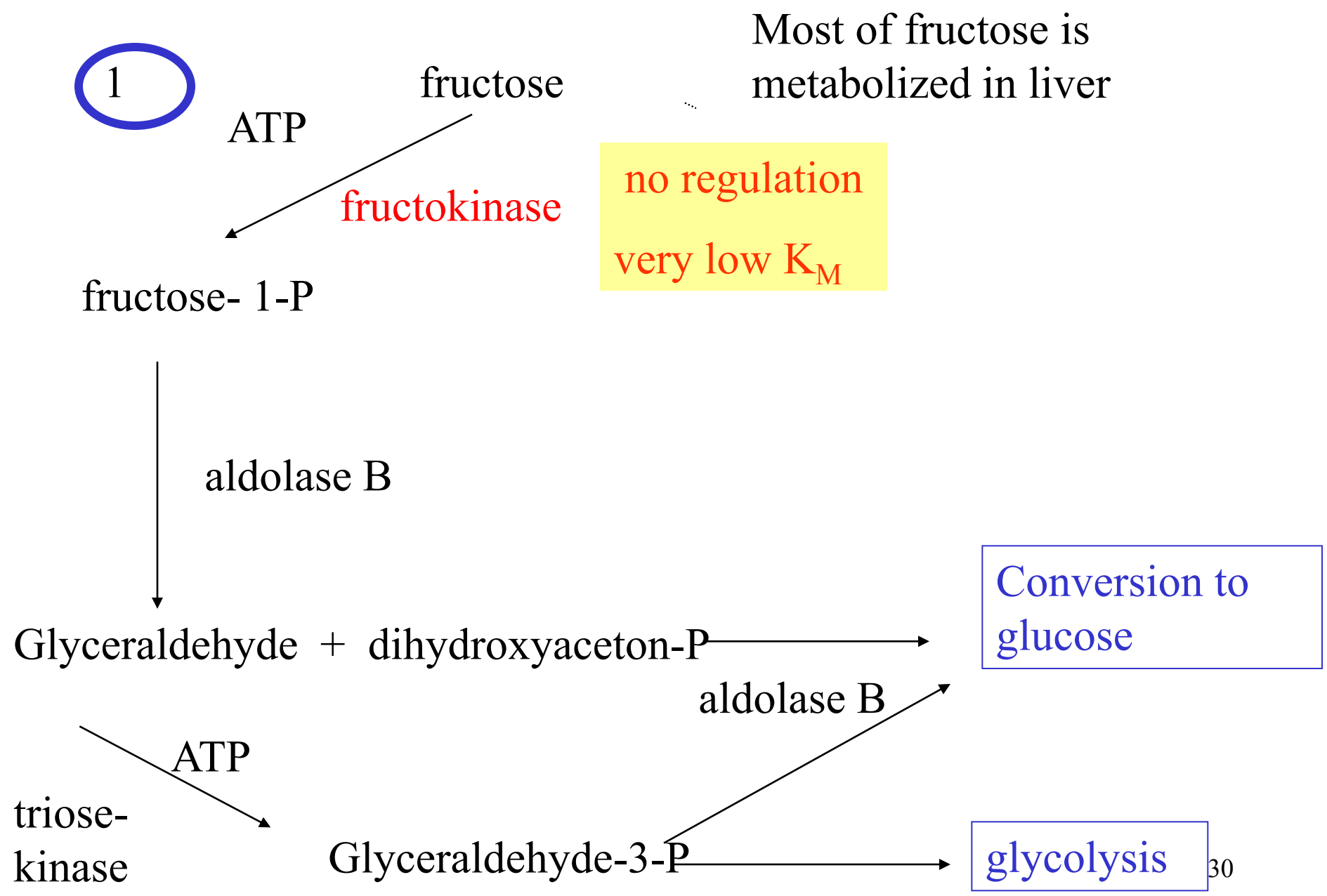
Fructose and glucose – comparison of metabolic features

	glucose	fructose
Intestinal absorption	rapid	slower
Metabolism	slower	more rapid
Half-life in blood	43 min	18 min
Place of metabolism	Most of tissues	mainly liver, kidneys, enterocytes
K_M for hexokinase	0,1 mmol/l	3 mmol/l
K_M pro fructokinase	-	0,5 mmol/l
Effect on insulin release	↑	no

Important differences between metabolism of glucose and fructose

- fructose is metabolized mainly in liver by fructokinase
- hexokinase phosphorylates fructose only when its concentration is high
- fructose is metabolized more rapidly then fructose in the liver
- fructose do not stimulate release of insulin

Metabolismus of fructose



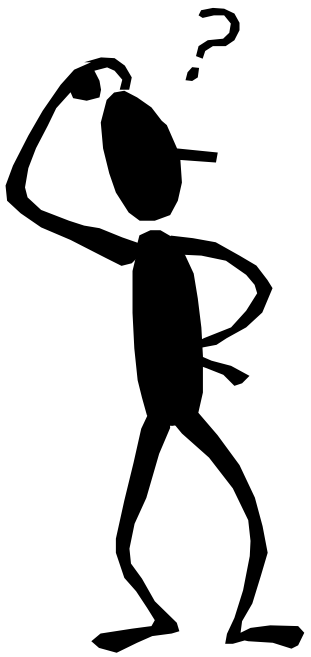
Aldolase A a aldolase B

- isoenzymes (also aldolase C is known)
- aldolase A : glycolysis (cleavage of Fru 1,6-bisP)
- aldolase B: cleavage of fructose1-P

  gluconeogenesis (synthesis of Fru-1,6-bisP)

Fructose is very rapidly metabolised in comparison with glucose.

Why ?



Metabolism of fructose

fructokinase and aldolase B (liver):

metabolismus bypasses the regulated enzymes, fructose can *continuously* enter the glycolytic pathway

⇒ rapid degradation

☺ fructose is rapid, on insulin independent source of energy

☹ high intake of fructose results in increased production of fatty acids and consequently increased production of triacylglycerols

☹ at very high fructose intake, phosphate is sequestrated in fructose -1-phosphate and synthesis of ATP is diminished

Defects in metabolism of fructose

Lack of fructokinase

- essential fructosuria

fructose accumulates in blood and is excreted into the urine

Disease is without any serious consequences.

Fructose free diet.

Diagnostics: positive reduction test with urine

negativ result of specific test for glcose

Lack of aldolase B

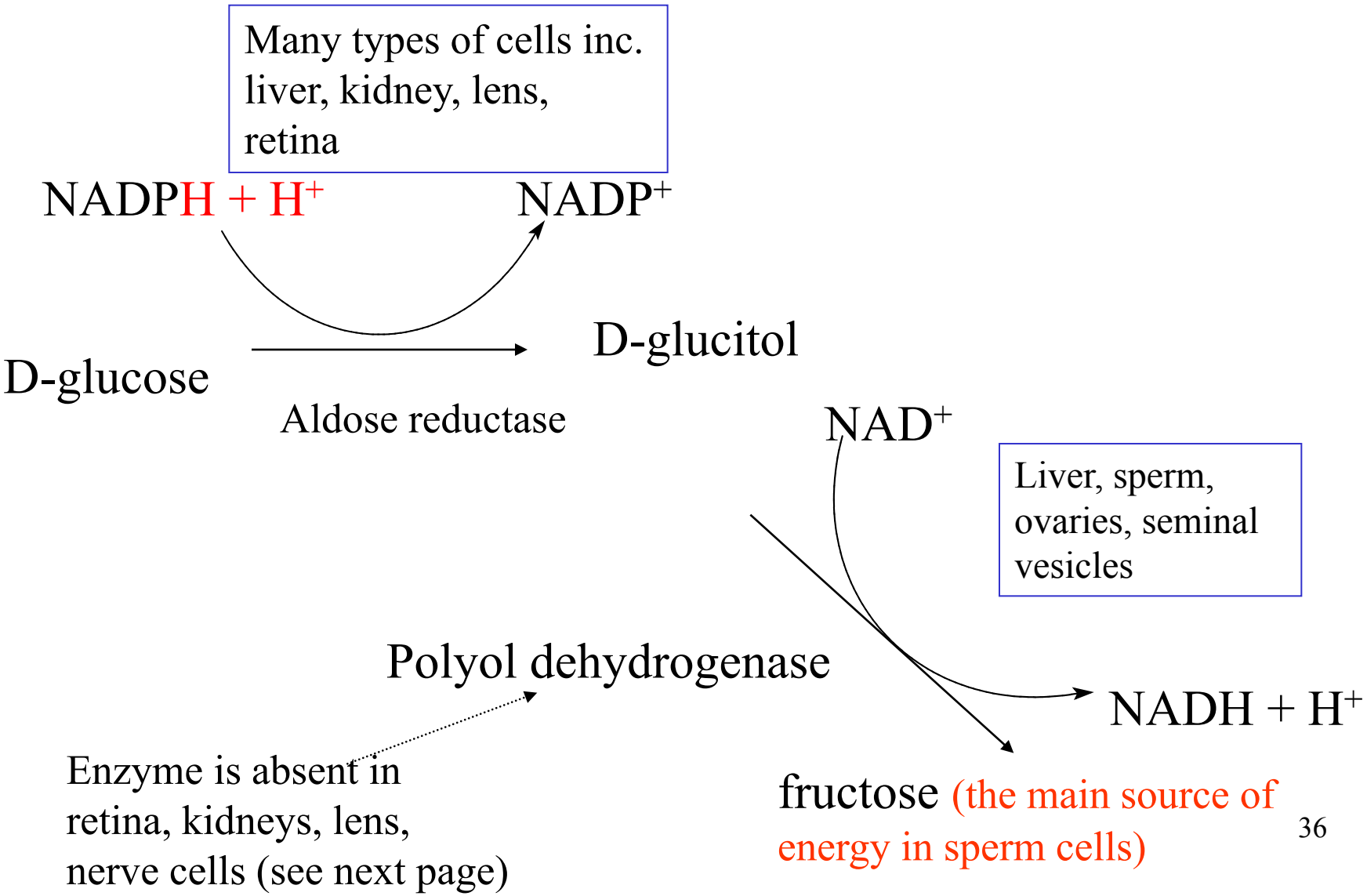
- hereditary fructose intolerance

Fructose-1-P accumulates in the liver cells to such an extent that most of the **inorganic phosphate is removed from the cytosol**.

Oxidative phosphorylation is inhibited and hypoglycaemia also appears (Fru-1-P inhibits both glycolysis and gluconeogenesis).

The intake of fructose and sucrose must be restricted.

Synthesis of fructose in polyol pathway



Polyol metabolism in diabetics

• If the blood concentration of glucose is very high (e.g. in *diabetes mellitus*), large amount of glucose enter the cells

• The polyol pathway produces glucitol.

•It cannot pass efficiently through cytoplasmic membrane

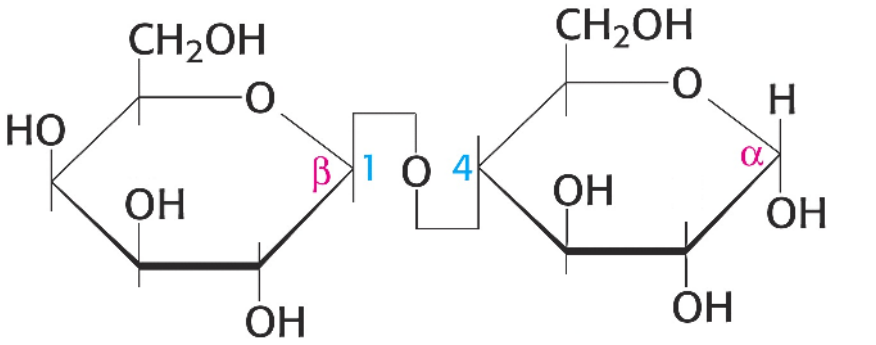
it remains „trapped“inside the cells

•When sorbitol dehydrogenase is absent (lens, retina, kidney, nerve cells), sorbitol cannot be converted to fructose and accumulates in the cell

•Some of the pathologic alterations of diabetes are attributed to this process (e.g. cataract formation, peripheral neuropathy, retinopathy and other)

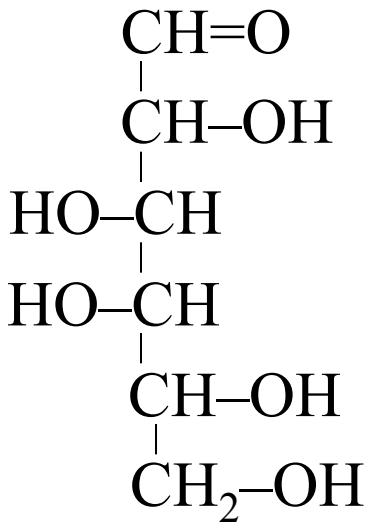
Metabolism of galactose

Galactose occurs as component of lactose in milk and in dairy products. Hydrolysis of lactose in the gut yields glucose and galactose.

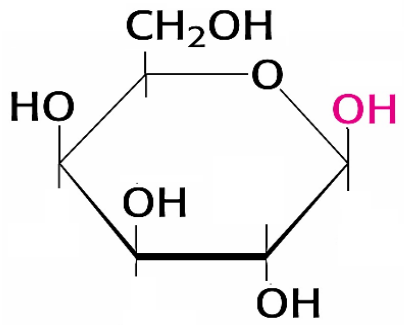


α-Lactose

β-D-Galactopyranosyl-(1→4)-α-D-glucopyranose



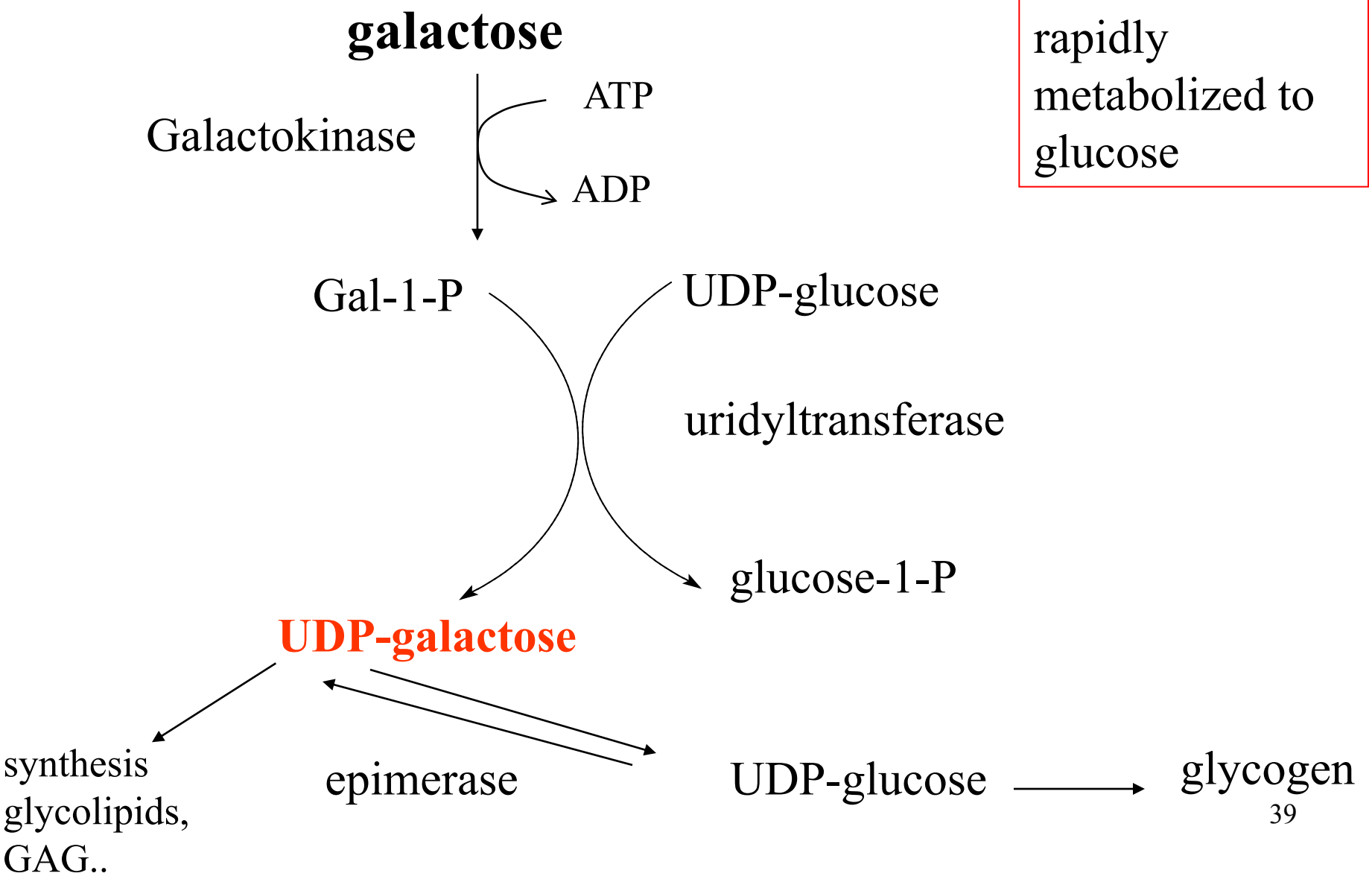
D-Galactose



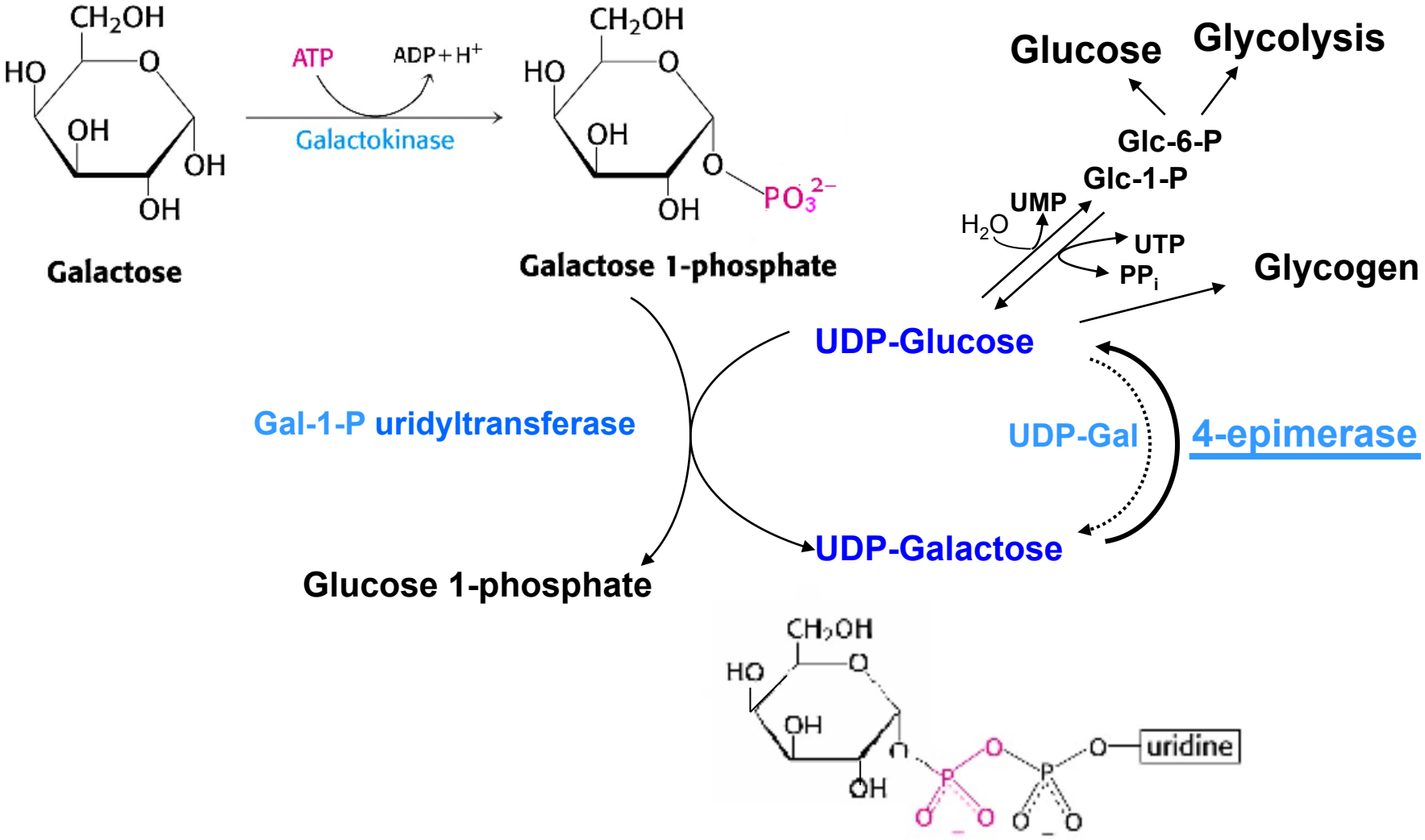
β-D-Galactopyranose

Metabolismus of galactose in the liver

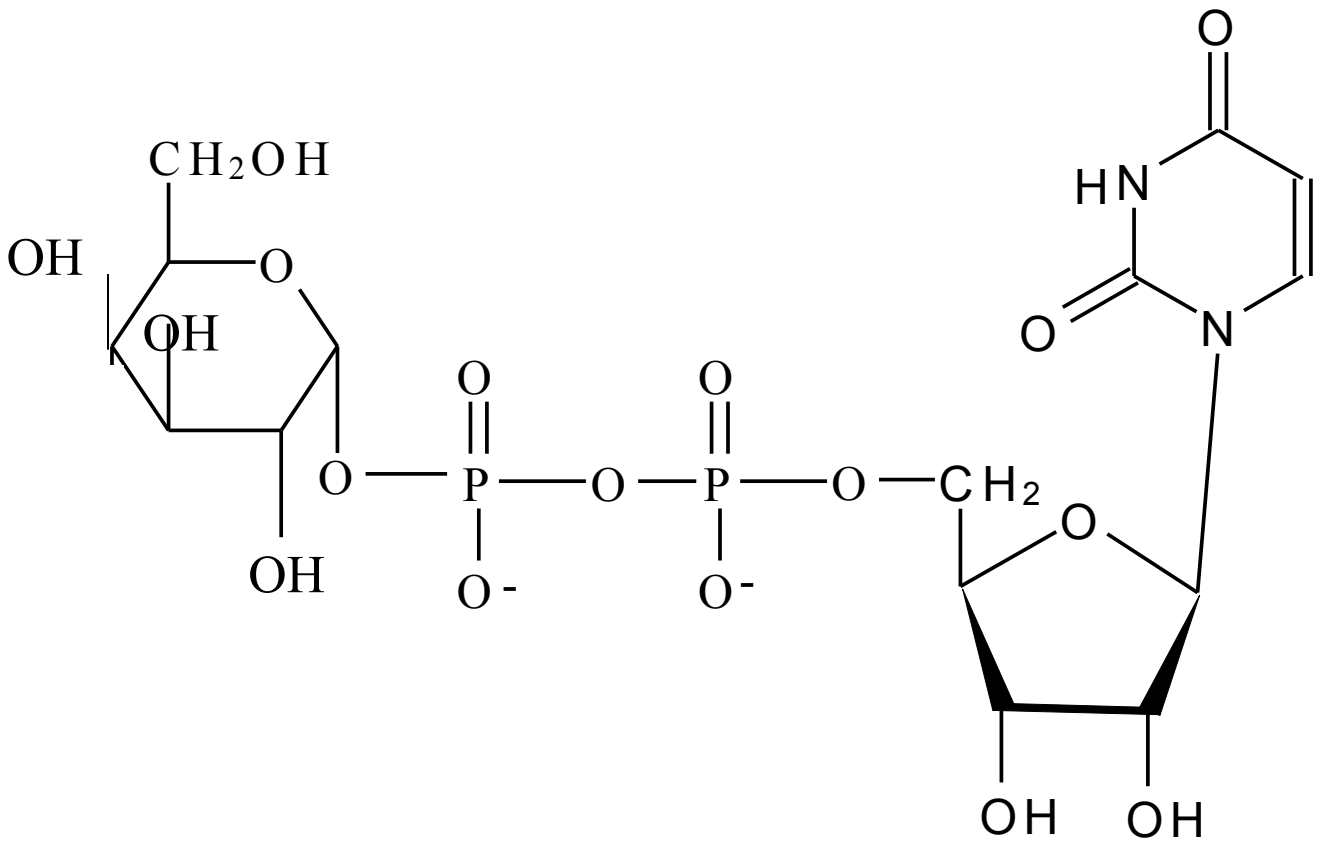
Galactose is rapidly metabolized to glucose



Transformation of galactose into glucose in the liver

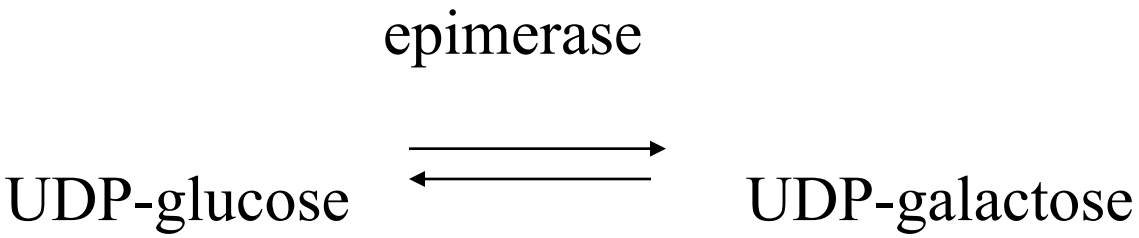


UDP-galactose (active form of galactose)



It is formed in reaction with UDP-glucose

Izomeration of glucose to galactose



reaction is reversible, can be used also for formation of glucose

Utilization of galactose

synthesis of lactose

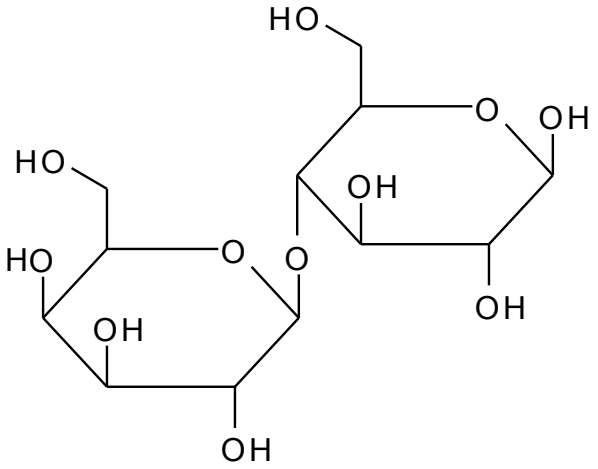
synthesis of glycolipids, proteoglycans and glycoproteins

Galactosemia

- the hereditary deficiency of Gal-1-P uridyltransferase
- Acummulation of galactose-6-P
- Interferention with metabolism of phosphates and glucose
- Conversion of galactose to galactitol in lens – kataracta
- Dangerous for newborns
- Non treated galactosemia leads to liver damage and retarded mental development
- Restriction of milk and milk-products in the diet

Biosynthesis of lactose

Unique for lactating mammary gland



UDP-galactose

glucose

Lactose synthase

Lactose (galactosyl-1,4-glucose)

Laktose synthase is a complex of two proteins:

- galactosyl transferase (present in many tissues)
- α-lactalbumin (present only in mammary gland during lactation, the synthesis is stimulated by hormone prolactin)

Metabolismus of galactose in other cells

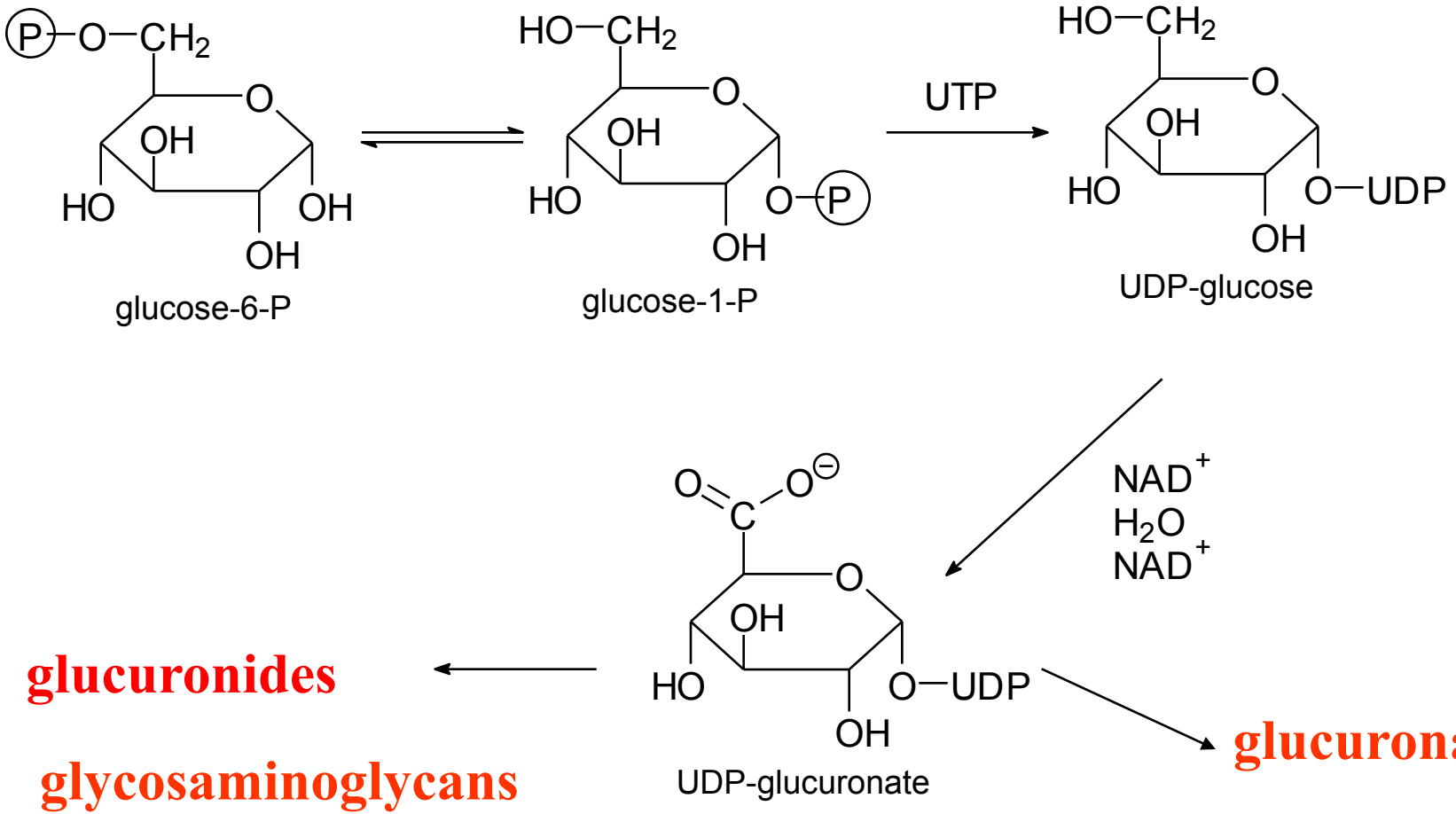
Galactose and *N*-acetylgalactosamine
are important constituents of
glycoproteins, proteoglycans, and glycolipids.

In the synthesis of those compounds **in all types of cells**, the galactosyl and *N*-acetylgalactosyl groups are transferred from UDP-galactose and UDP-*N*-acetyl-galactose by the action of **UDP-galactosyltransferase**.

The uronic acid pathway

is an alternative oxidative pathway for glucose.
It supplies **glucuronic acid**, and in most animals (not in humans, other primates, and guinea pigs) **ascorbic acid**.

Biosynthesis and utilization of UDP-glucuronate



Examples of compound degraded and excreted as urinary glucuronides

Estrogen

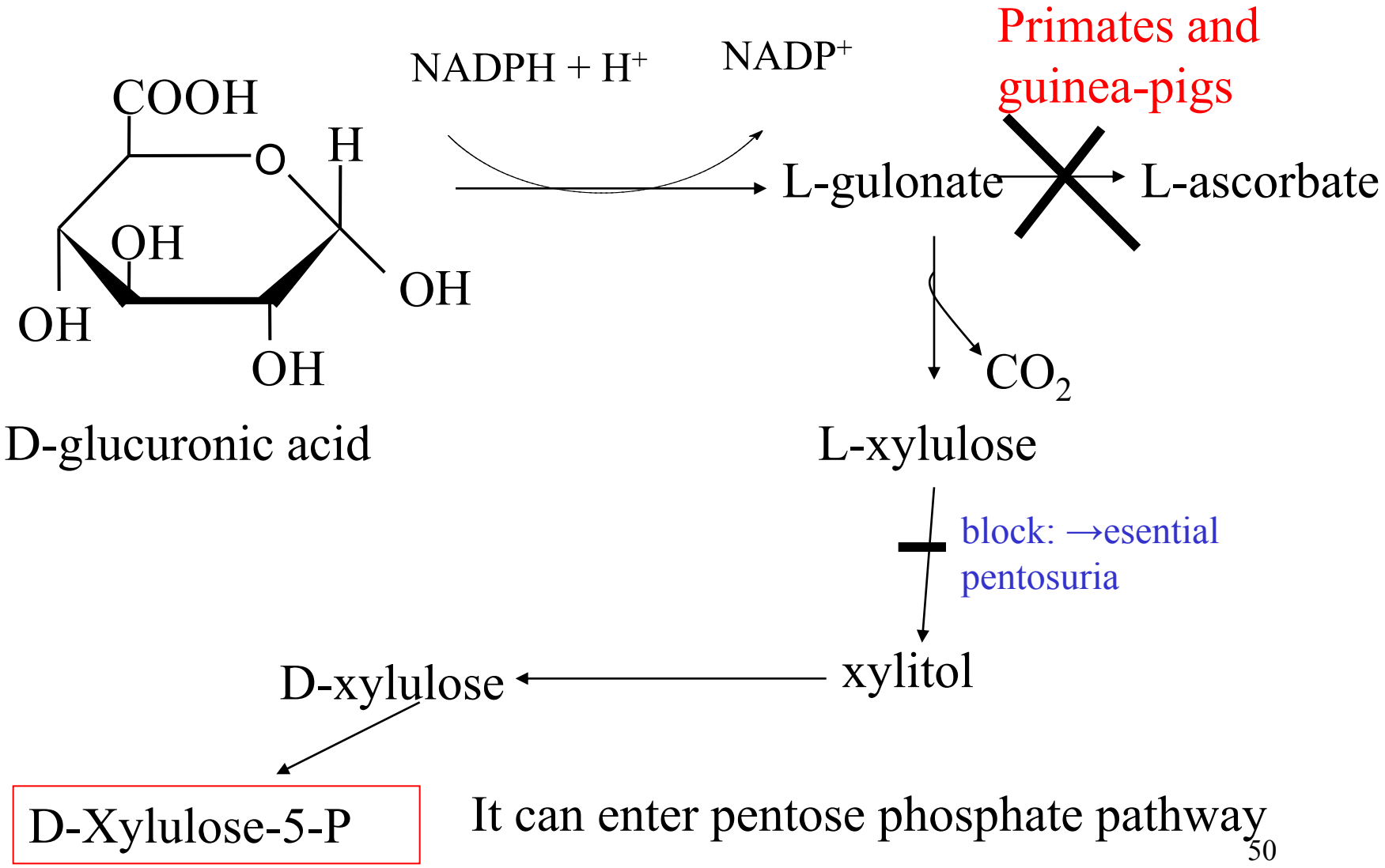
Bilirubine

Progesterone

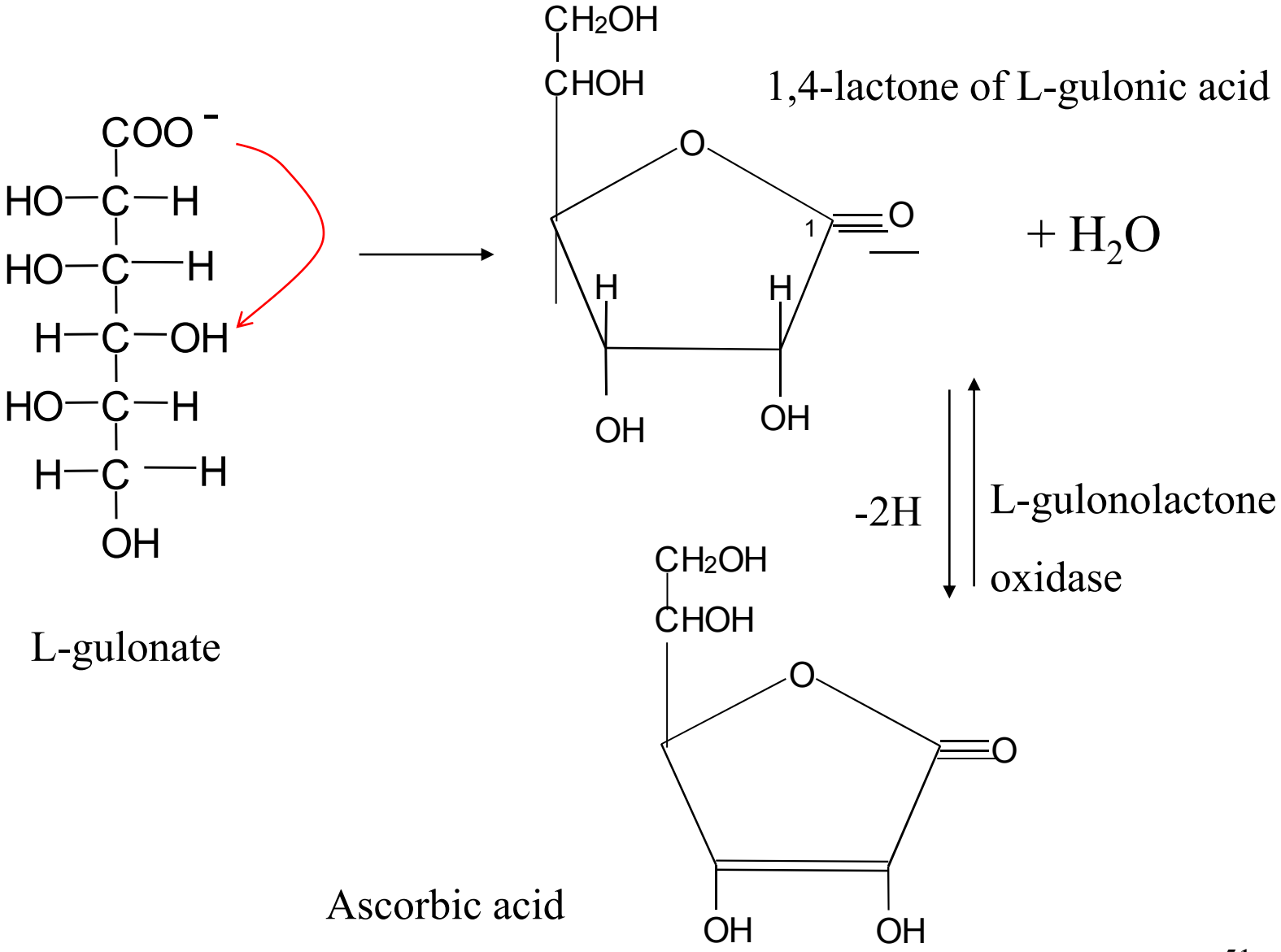
Meprobamate

Morphine

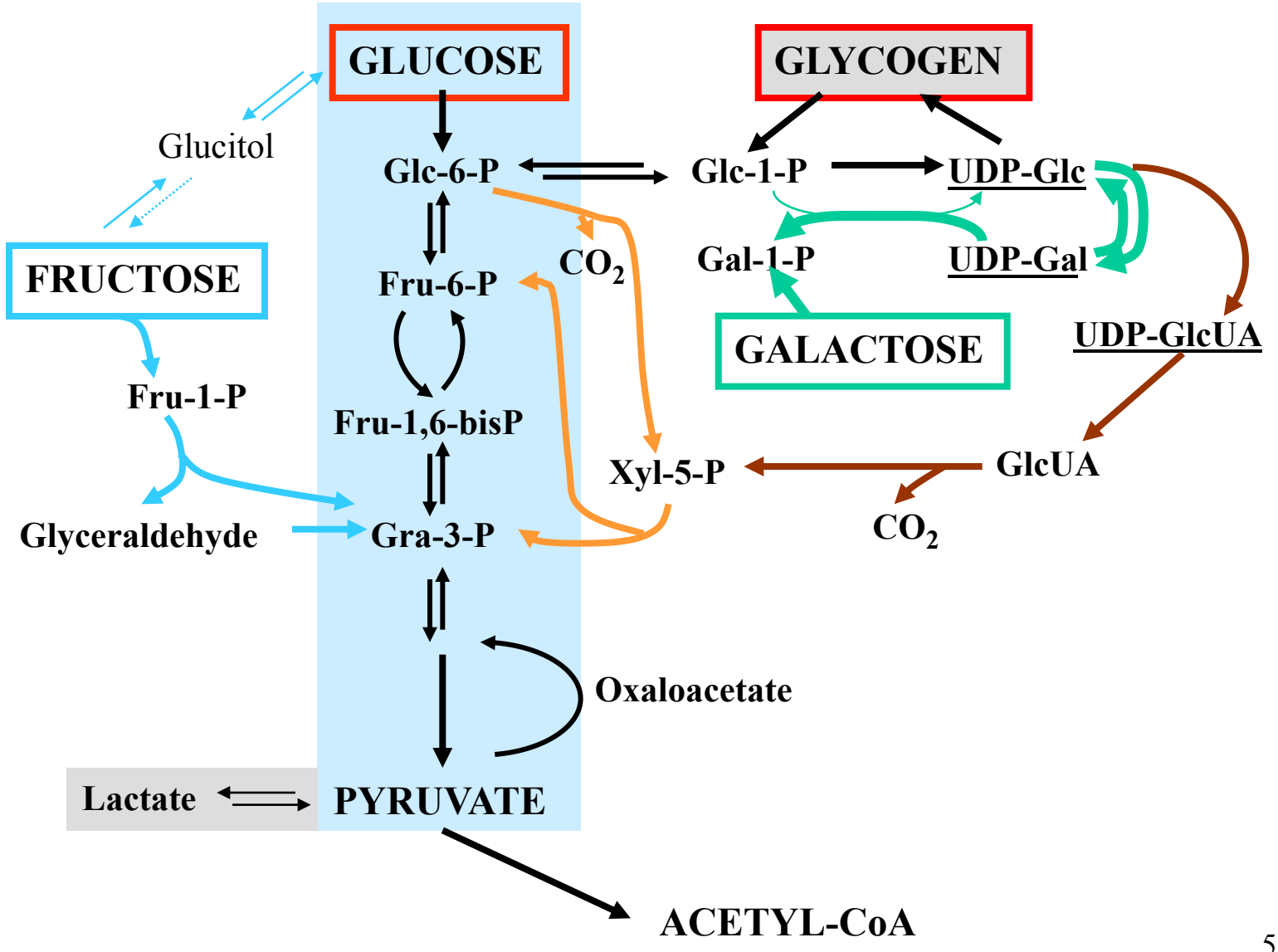
Degradation of D-glucuronic acid



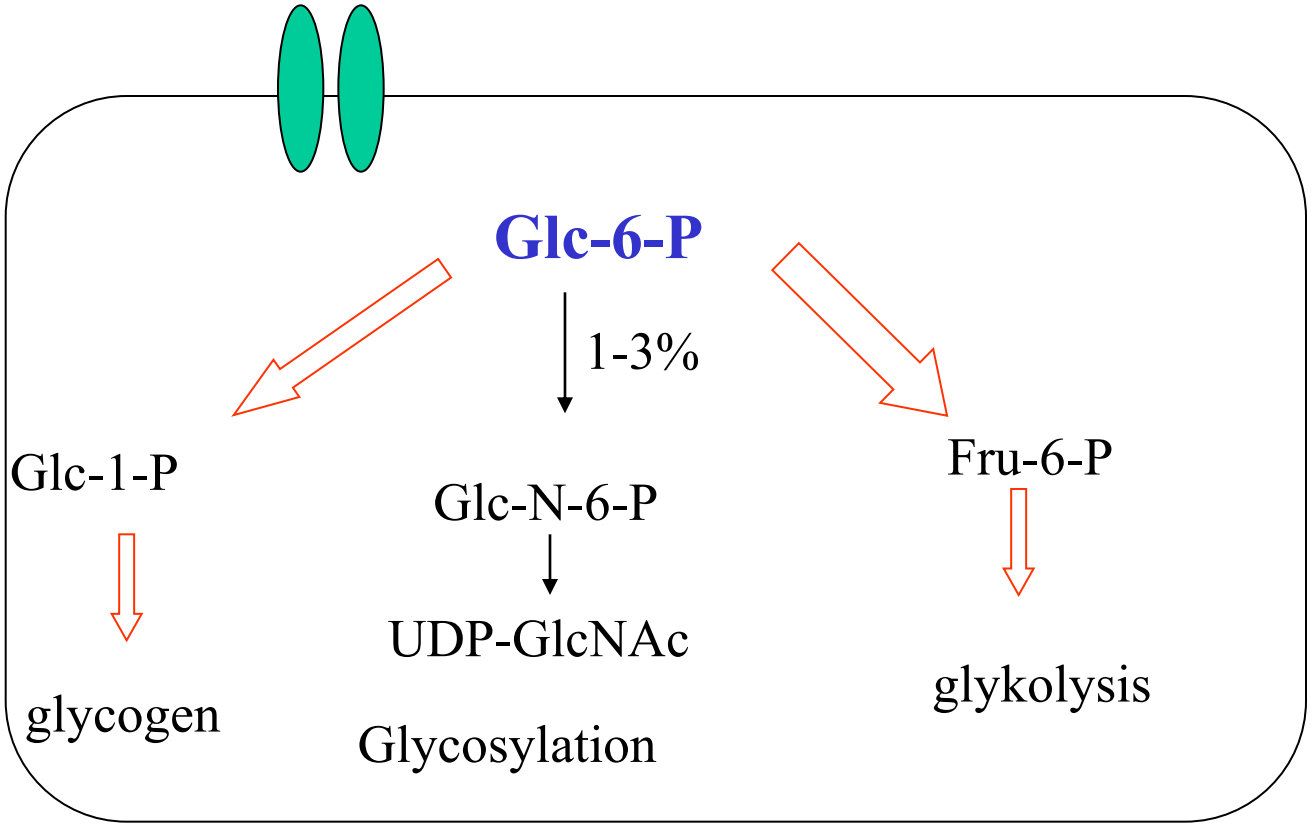
Synthesis of L-ascorbate



A brief survey of major pathways in saccharide metabolism

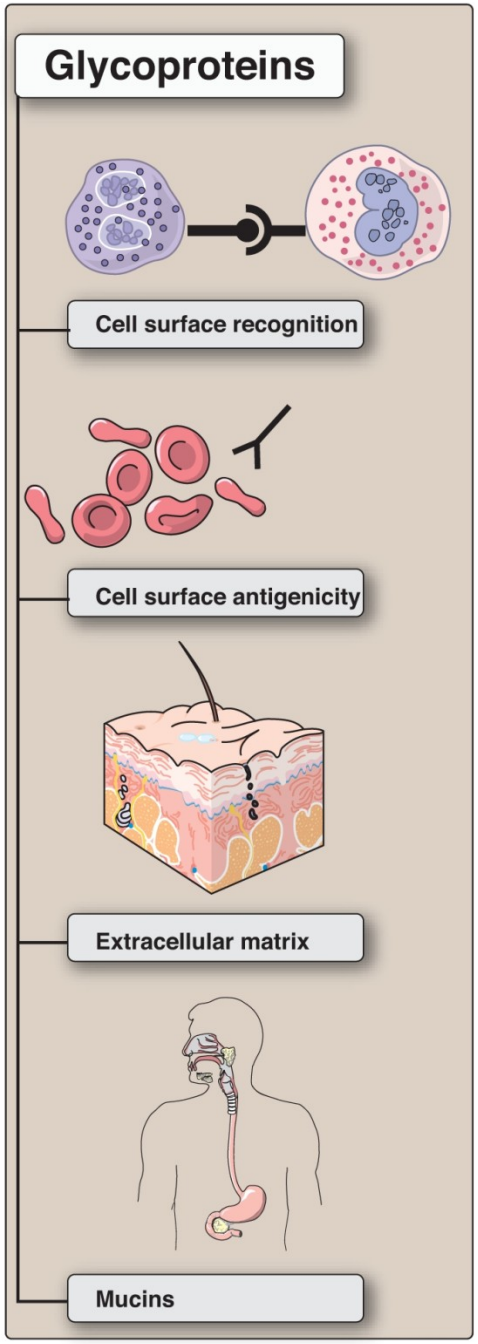


Hexosamine biosynthetic pathway - HBP



Saccharides found in glycoproteins and glycolipids

		Abbreviation:
Hexoses:	**Glucose**	**Glc**
	Galactose	**Gal**
	Mannose	**Man**
Acetyl hexosamines:	***N*-Acetylglucosamine**	**GlcNAc**
	***N*-Acetylgalactosamine**	**GalNAc**
Pentoses:	**Xylose**	**Xyl**
	Arabinose	**Ara**
Deoxyhexose (Methyl pentose):	**L-Fucose**	**Fuc**
Sialic acids:	***N*-Acetylneuraminic acid** (predominant)	**NeuNAc**



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Functions of glycoproteins

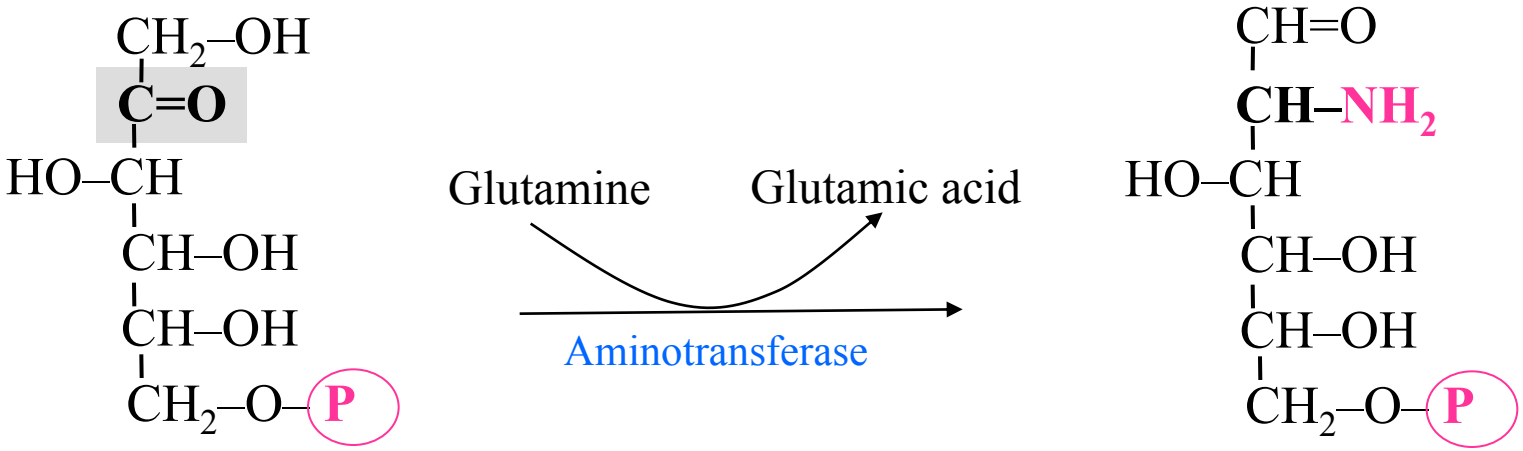
Interaction between the cells, interaction with hormones, viruses

Antigenicity (skupiny atd.)

Components of extracelular matrix

Mucines (protective effect in digestion and urogenitary systém)

Synthesis of amino sugars



Fructose 6-phosphate

Glucosamine 6-phosphate
(2-Amino-2-deoxyglucosamine 6-phosphate)

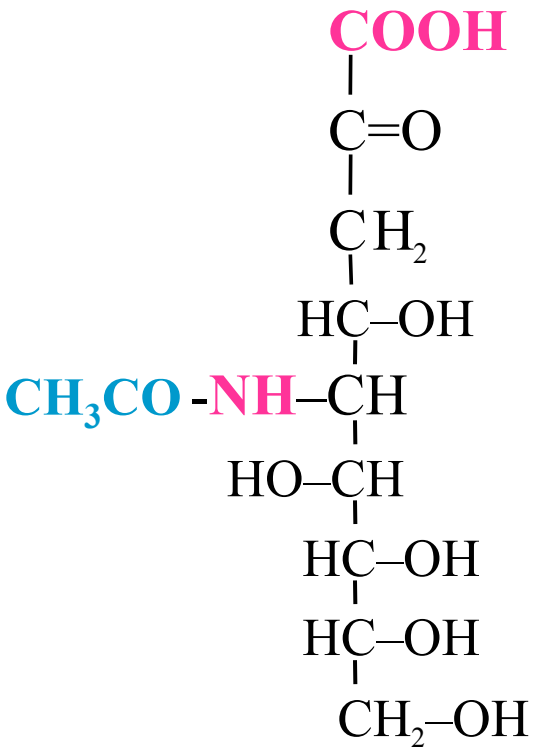
The basic amino groups **–NH_2** of amino sugars are nearly always "neutralized“ by acetylation in the reaction with acetyl-coenzyme A, so that they exist as ***N*-acetylhexosamines**.
Unlike amines, **amides (acetamido groups) are nor basic**.

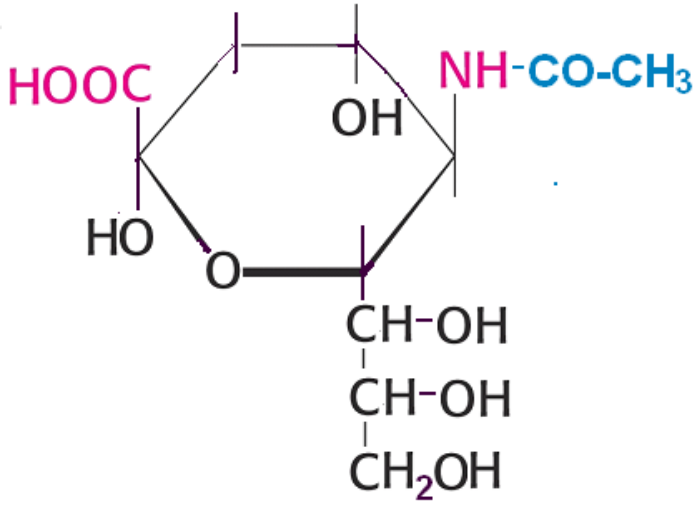
Synthesis of sialic acids

Sialic acids is the group name used for various
acylated derivatives of neuraminic acid (*N*- as well as *O*-acylated).

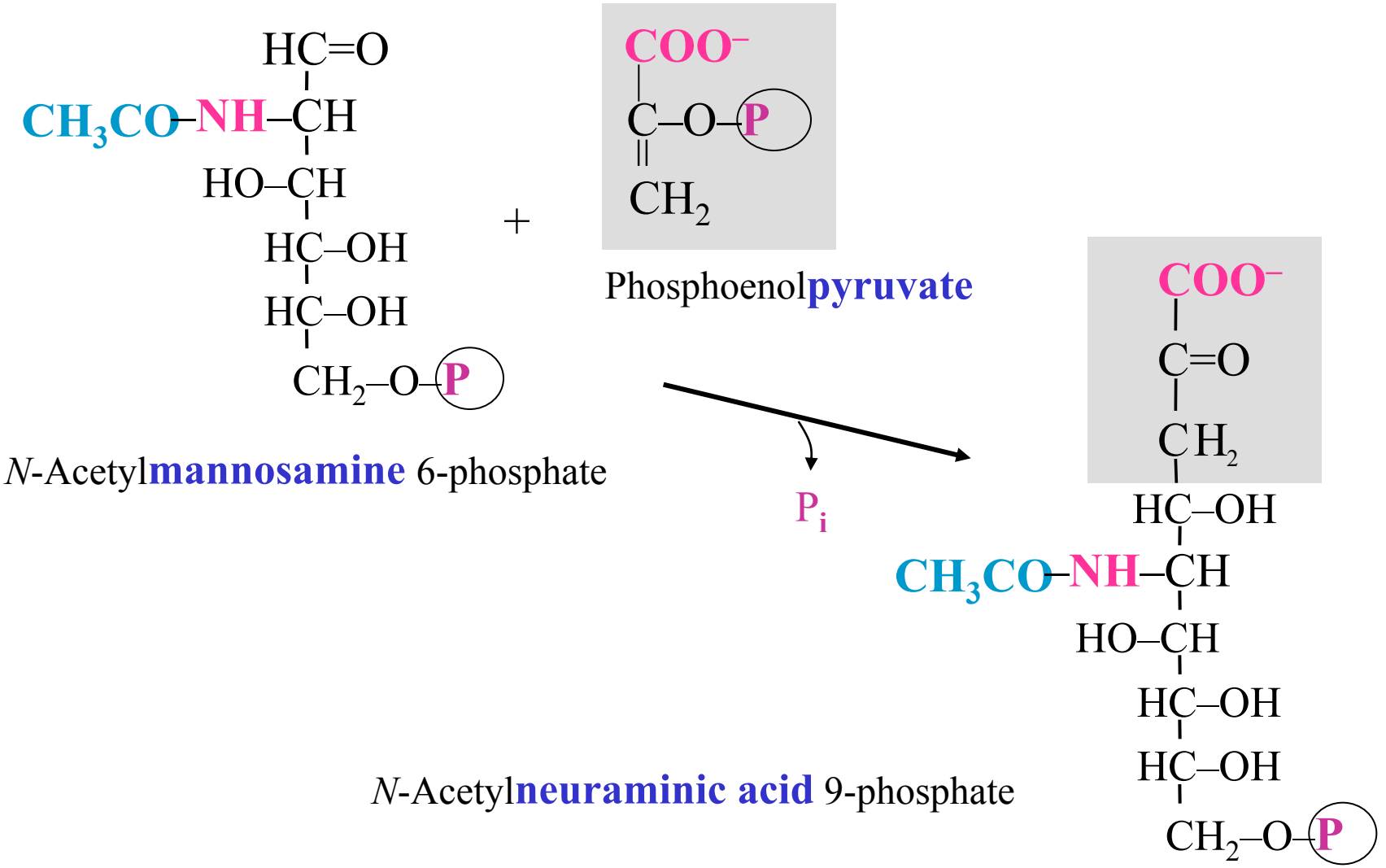
(Neuraminic acid is 5-amino-3,5-dideoxy-nonulosonic acid.)

The most common sialic acid is *N*-acetylneuraminic acid:



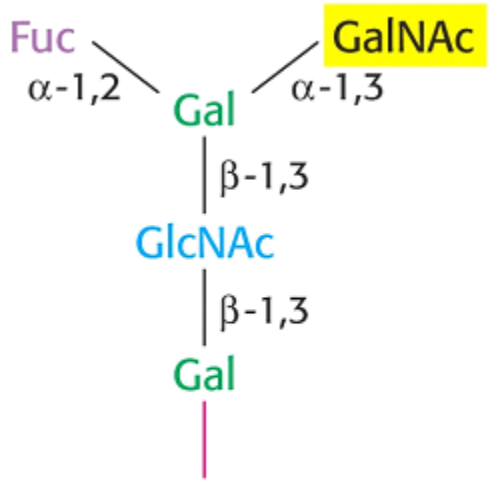


Synthesis of sialic acid:



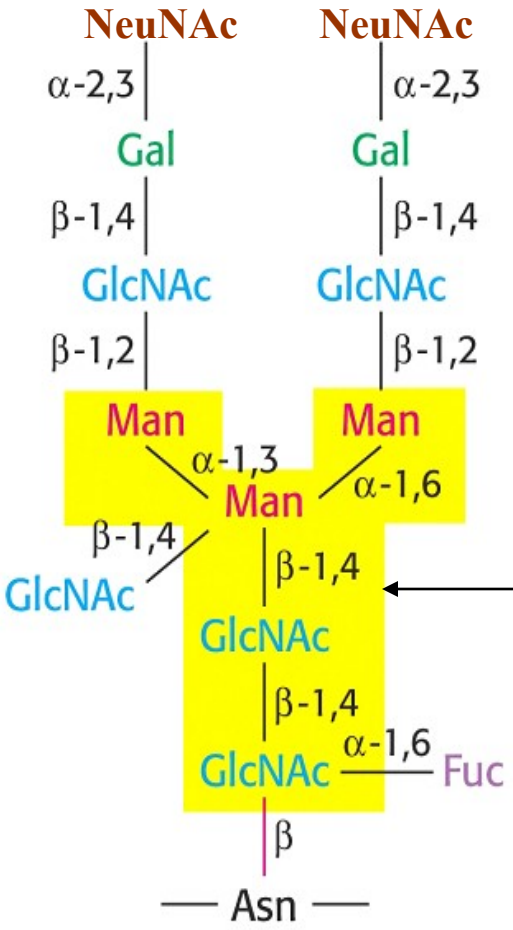
Examples of saccharidic component of glycolipids or glycoproteins:

Blood group substance A



Ceramide (**sphingolipid**) or protein

Bi-antennary component of a plasma-type (*N*-linked) oligosaccharide



The boxed area encloses the pentasaccharide core common to all *N*-linked glycoproteins.

Glycosyl donors in glycoprotein synthesis

Before being incorporated into the oligosaccharide chains, monosaccharides involved in the synthesis of glycoproteins are **activated by formation of nucleotide sugars,** similarly to formation of UDP-glucose in the reaction of glucose 1-phosphate with UTP. The glycosyls of these compounds can be transferred to suitable acceptors provided appropriate transferases are available.