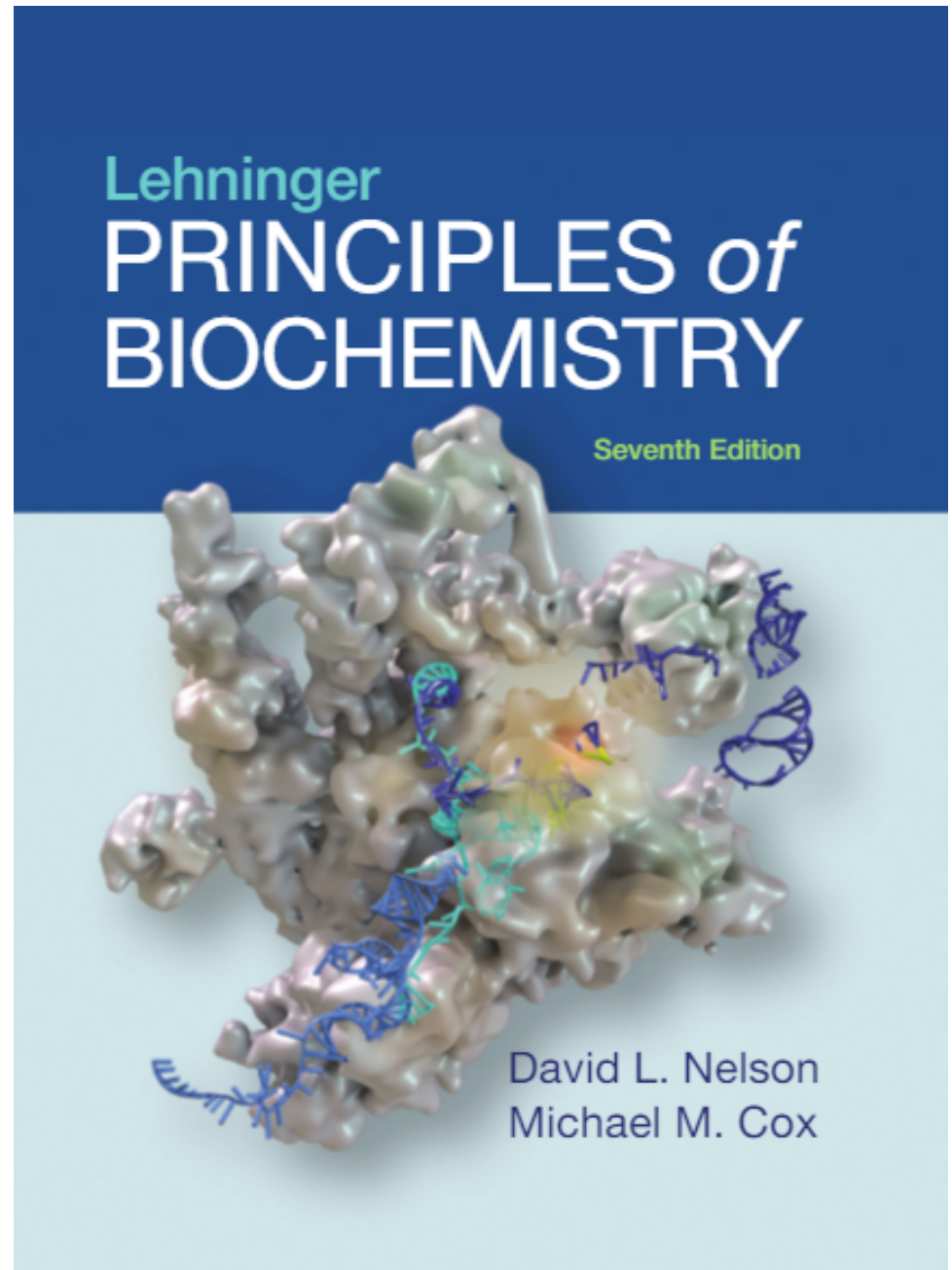


14| Glycolysis, Gluconeogenesis, and the Pentose Phosphate Pathway

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Central Importance of Glucose

- Glucose is an excellent fuel
 - Yields good amount of energy upon oxidation ($\Delta G_{\text{complete oxidation}} = -2840 \text{ kJ/mol}$)
 - Can be efficiently stored in the polymeric form
 - Many organisms and tissues can meet their energy needs on glucose only
- Glucose is a versatile biochemical precursor
 - Many organisms can use glucose to build the carbon skeletons of:
 - Some or all the amino acids
 - Membrane lipids
 - Nucleotides in DNA and RNA
 - Cofactors needed for the metabolism

Four Major Pathways of Glucose Utilization

- **Storage**
 - Can be stored in the polymeric form (starch, glycogen)
 - When there's excess energy
- **Glycolysis**
 - Generates energy via oxidation of glucose
 - Short-term energy needs
- **Pentose Phosphate Pathway**
 - Generates NADPH via oxidation of glucose
 - For detoxification and the biosynthesis of lipids and nucleotides
- **Synthesis of Structural Polysaccharides**
 - For example, in cell walls of bacteria, fungi, and plants

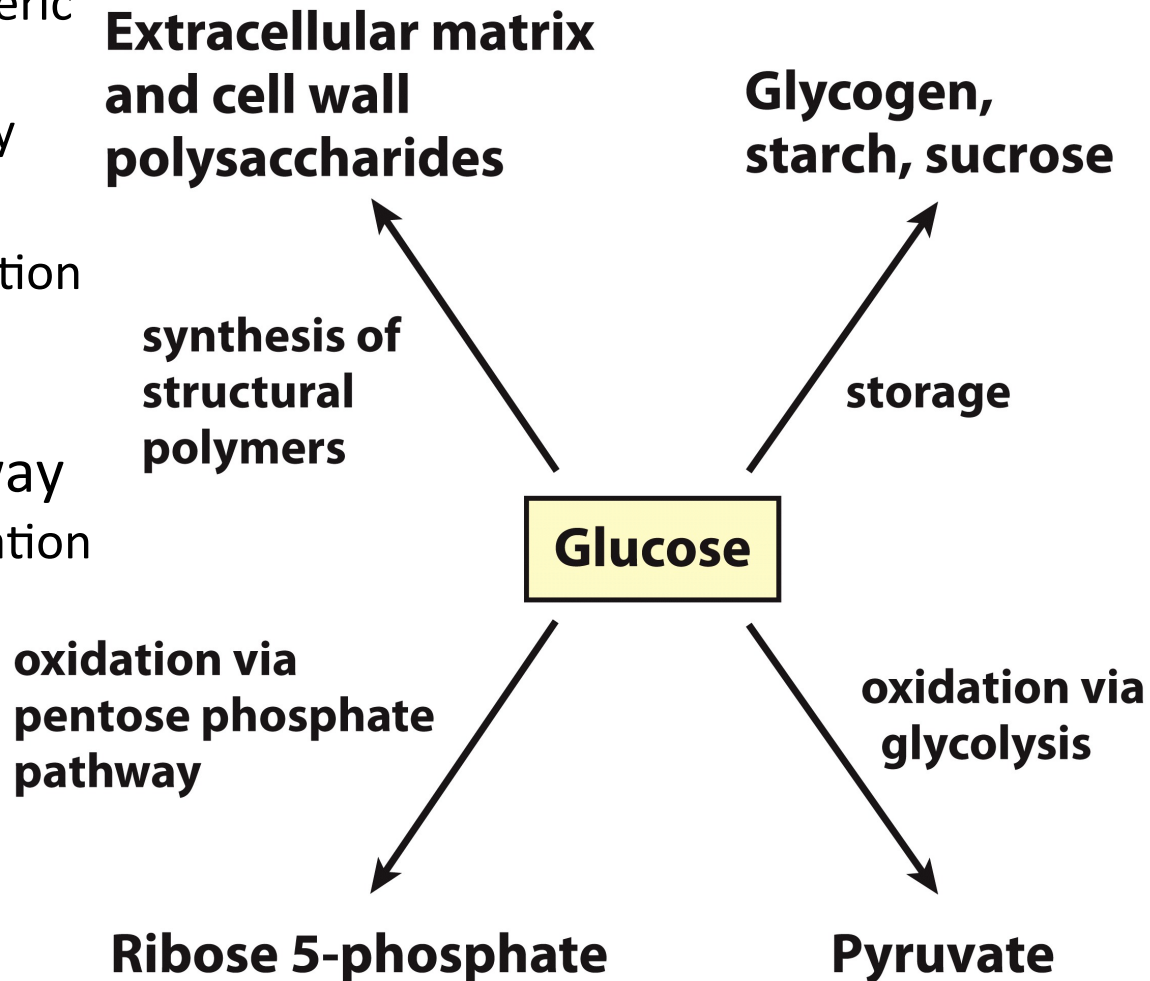
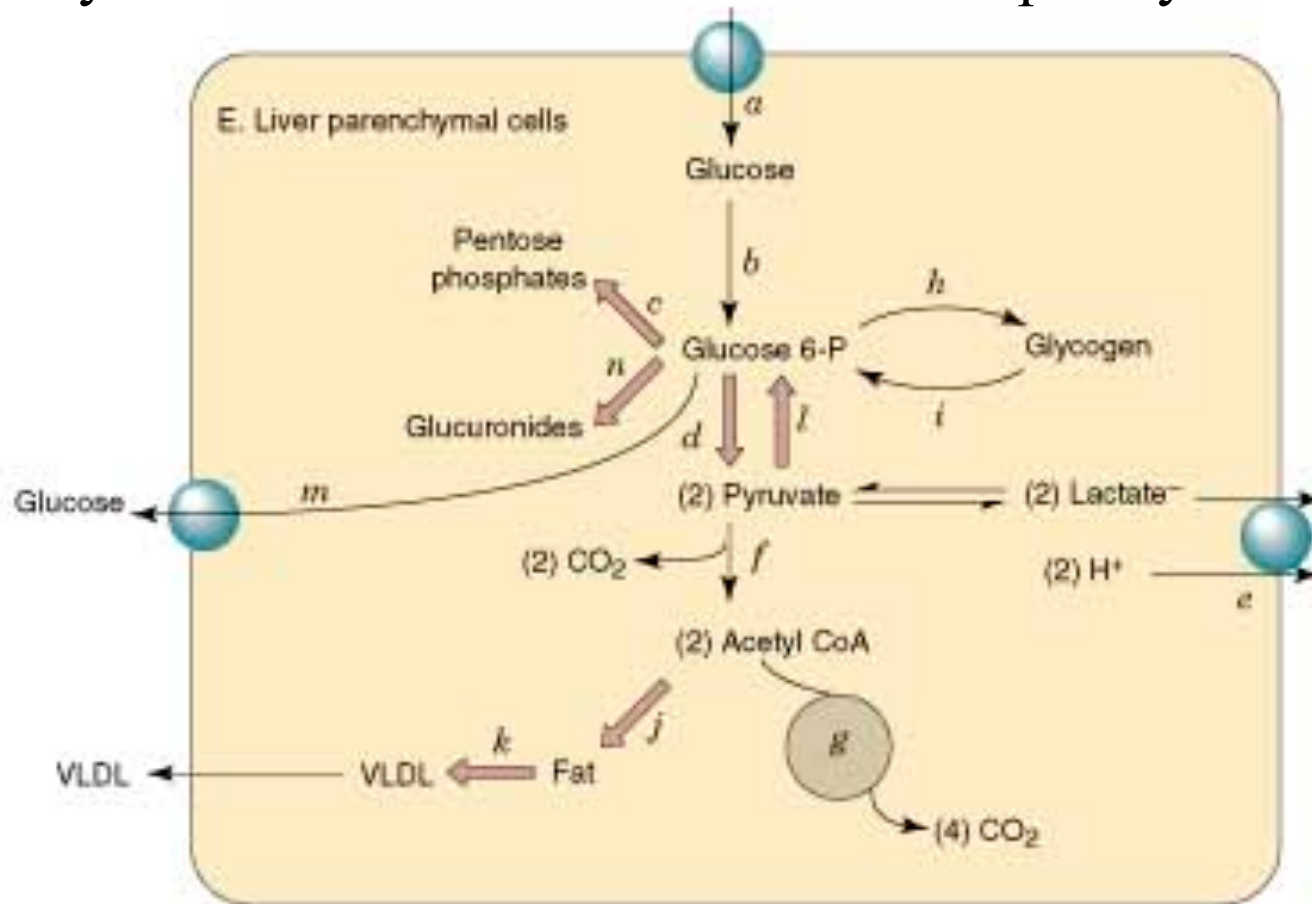


Figure 14-1

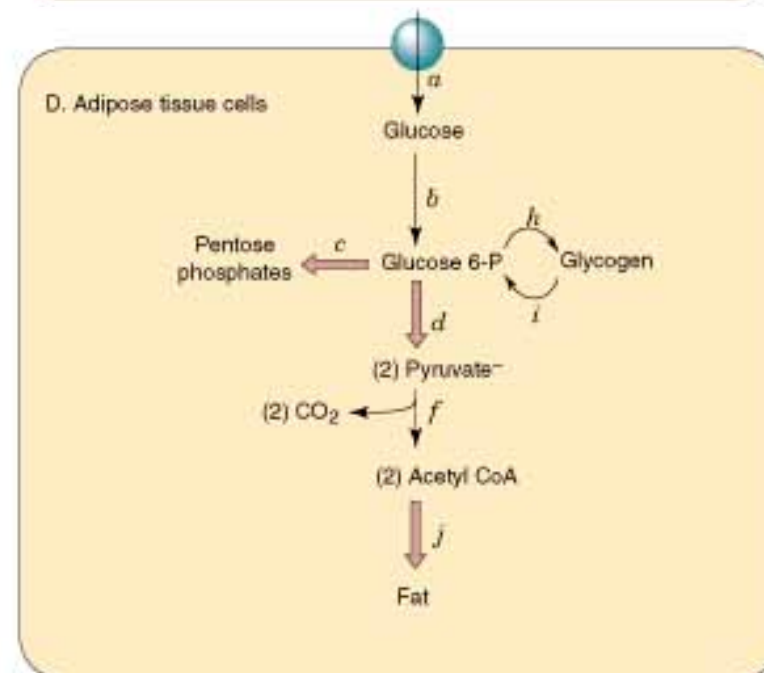
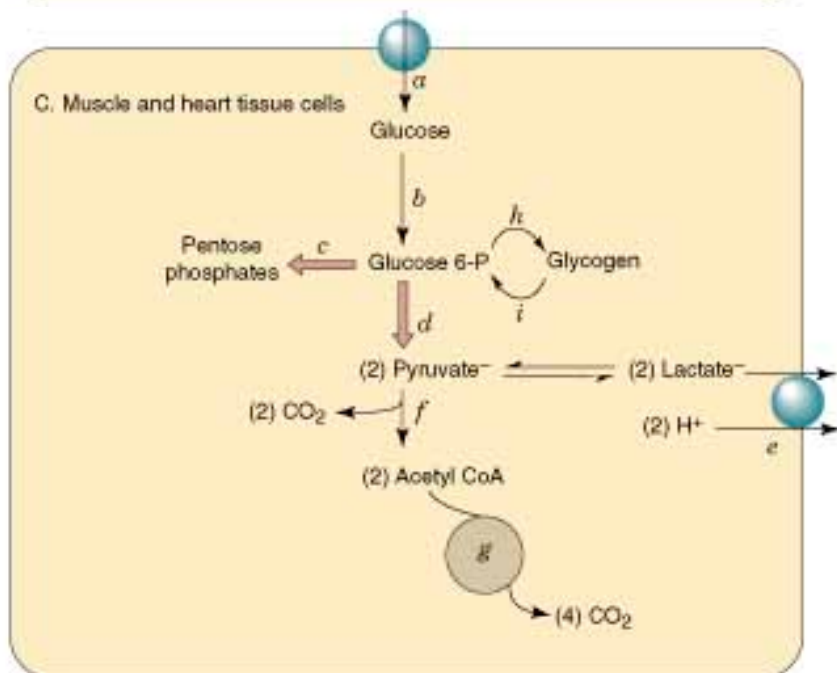
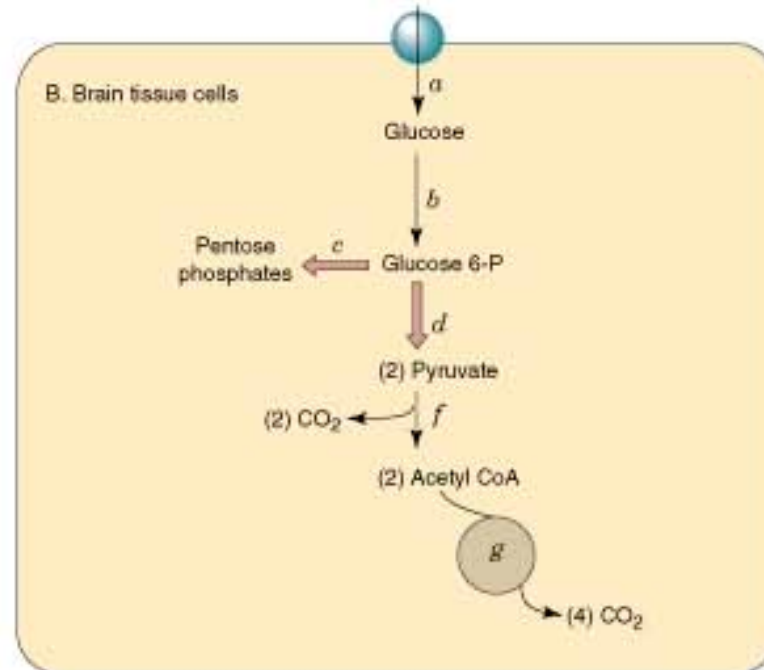
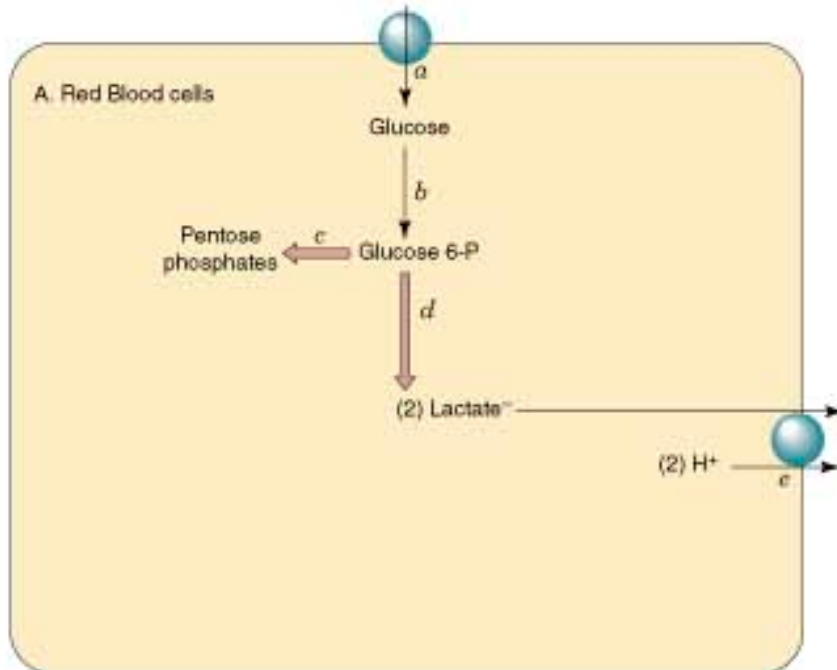
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Glucose is metabolized differently in different cells

Our study in this course is on the liver and hepatocytes...



However, there are many more cells in the body...



Glycolysis: Importance

- Almost universal central pathway of glucose catabolism
- Glycolysis occurs in ALL human cells
- Sequence of enzyme-catalyzed reactions by which **glucose** is converted **into pyruvate**
 - Pyruvate can be further aerobically oxidized
 - Pyruvate can be used as a precursor in biosynthesis
- Some of the oxidation-free energy is captured by the **synthesis of ATP and NADH**
- Research of glycolysis played a large role in the development of modern biochemistry
 - Understanding the role of coenzymes
 - Discovery of the pivotal role of ATP
 - Development of methods for enzyme purification

Glycolysis: Overview

- In the evolution of life, glycolysis probably was one of the earliest energy-yielding pathways
- It developed before photosynthesis, when the atmosphere was still anaerobic
- Thus, the task upon early organisms was:
How to extract free energy from glucose anaerobically?
- The solution:
 - First: Activate it by phosphorylation
 - Second: Collect energy from the high-energy metabolites
- Glycolysis is a sequence of 10 reactions, 5 are preparatory and 5 are energy-yielding (two phases of glycolysis)

Glycolysis: The Preparatory Phase

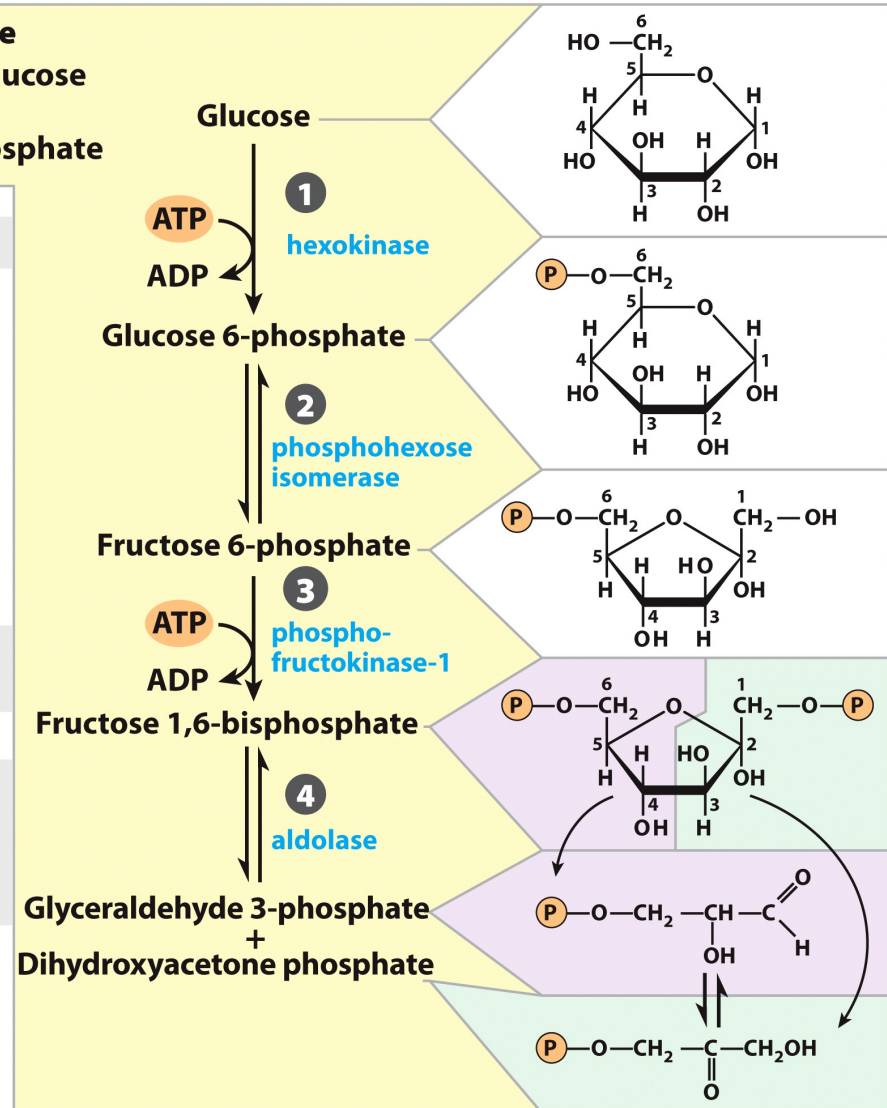
2 ATP molecules are used to *raise the free energy* of the intermediates

(a) Preparatory phase
Phosphorylation of glucose and its conversion to glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate

first priming reaction

second priming reaction

cleavage of 6-carbon sugar phosphate to two 3-carbon sugar phosphates



The “*lysis*” step of glycolysis

Figure 14-2 part 1

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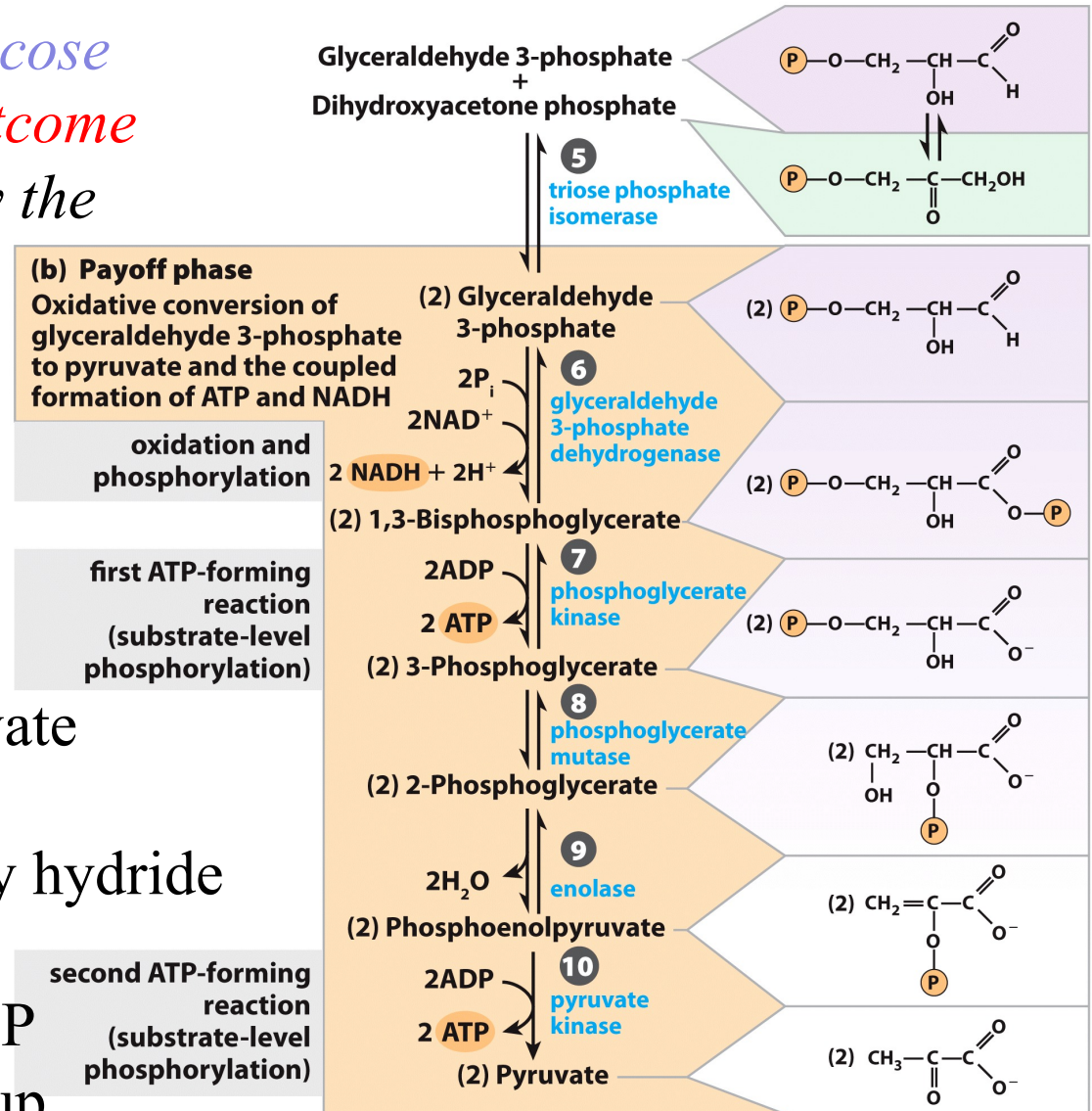
For *each molecule of glucose* that passes through the preparatory phase, *two molecules of glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate* are formed.

Glycolysis: The Payoff Phase

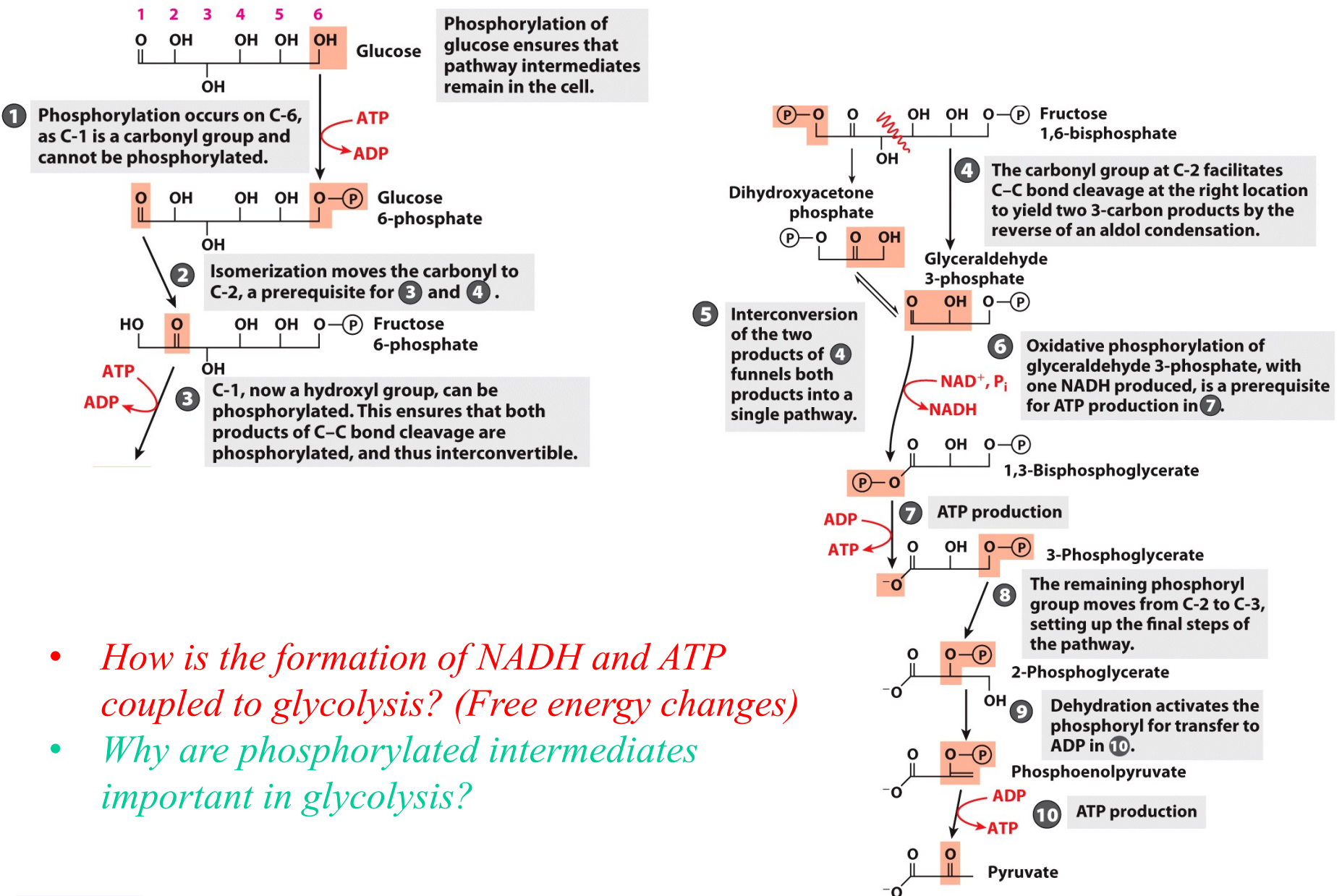
4 ATP are produced per glucose
2 ATP/glucose is the net outcome
 Energy is also conserved by the
 formation of *2 NADH*
 molecules

3 types of chemical transformations:

- Breakage** of glucose backbone to yield pyruvate (6C → 2x 3C)
- Formation** of NADH by hydride transfer to NAD^+
- Phosphorylation** of ADP by high phosphoryl group potential compounds to make ATP



Chemical Logic of Glycolysis

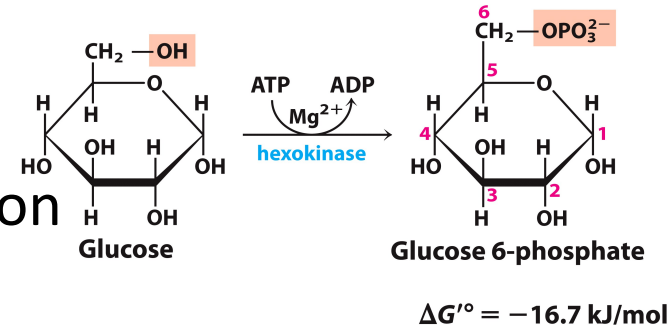


- *How is the formation of NADH and ATP coupled to glycolysis? (Free energy changes)*
- *Why are phosphorylated intermediates important in glycolysis?*

The Preparatory Phase

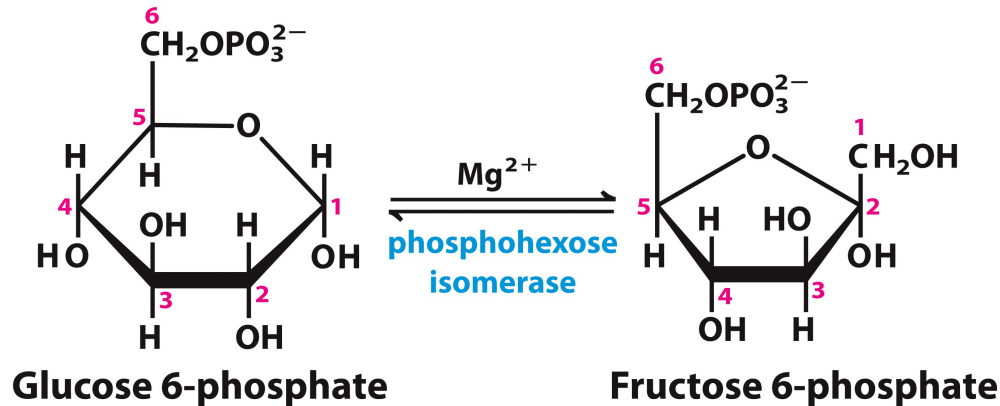
Step 1: Phosphorylation of Glucose

- Rationale
 - Traps glucose inside the cell
 - Lowers intracellular glucose concentration to allow further uptake
- This process uses the energy of ATP
- The first “priming” reaction
- Hexokinase in eukaryotes, and glucokinase in prokaryotes and liver (**isozymes**: 2 or more enzymes encoded in different genes but catalyze the same reaction)
- Soluble cytosolic enzyme (like all other glycolytic enzymes)
- **Nucleophilic oxygen** at C6 of glucose attacks the last (γ) phosphate of ATP
- ATP-bound Mg^{2+} facilitates this process by shielding the negative charges on ATP
- Regulated mainly by substrate inhibition



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Step 2: Phosphohexose Isomerization



- Rationale
 - C1 of fructose is easier to phosphorylate by PFK
 - Allows for symmetrical cleave by aldolase
- An **aldose (glucose)** can isomerize into a **ketose (fructose)** via an **enediol** intermediate
- The isomerization is catalyzed by the active-site glutamate, via general acid/base catalysis
- Product concentration kept low to drive forward

$$\Delta G'^{\circ} = 1.7 \text{ kJ/mol}$$

Mechanism of Phosphohexose Isomerase

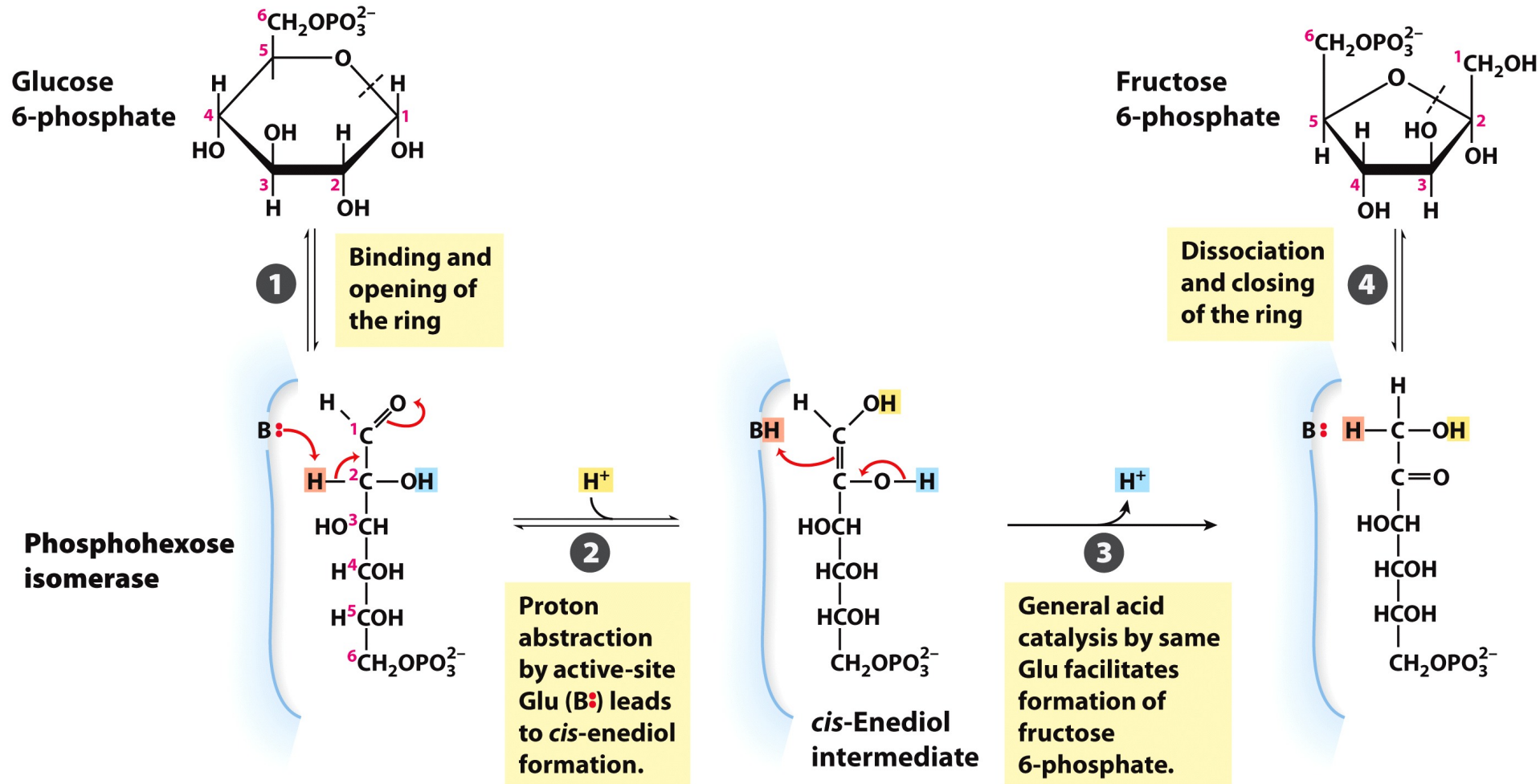
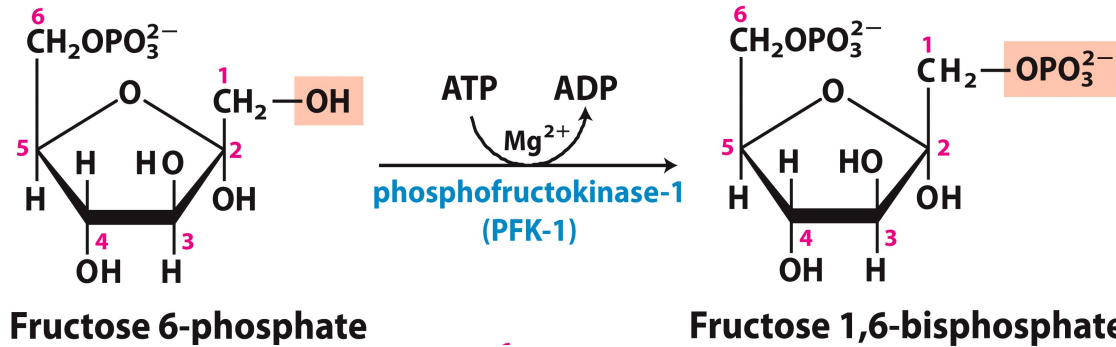


Figure 14-5
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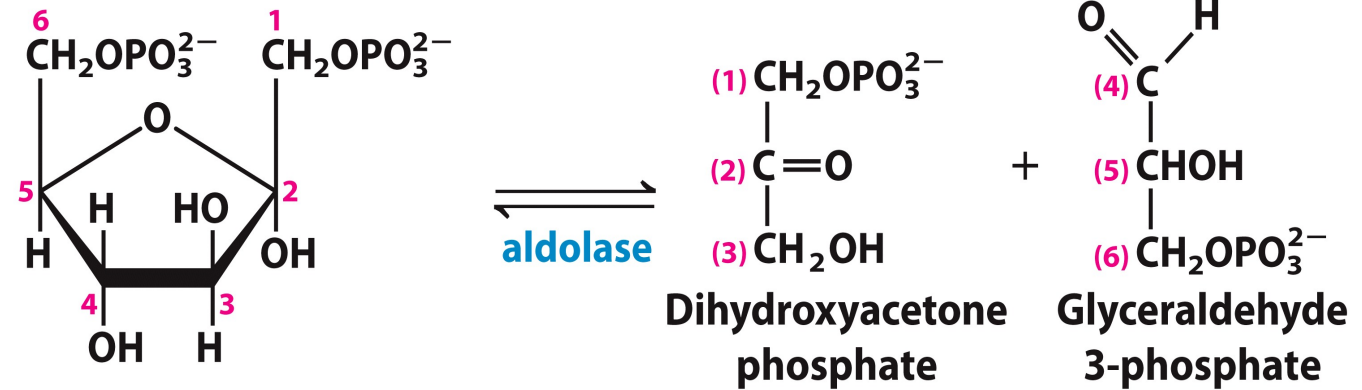
Step 3: 2nd Priming Phosphorylation



$$\Delta G'^{\circ} = -14.2 \text{ kJ/mol}$$

- Rationale
 - Further activation of glc
 - Allows for 1 phosphate/3-carbon sugar after step 4
- First Committed Step of Glycolysis
 - fructose 1,6-bisphosphate is committed to become pyruvate and yield energy whereas g-6-p and f-6-p have other possible fates
- This process uses the energy of ATP
- Phosphofructokinase-1 is highly regulated
 - By ATP, ADP, AMP, fructose-2,6-bisphosphate, and other metabolites (detailed next chapter)
 - Do not burn glucose if there is plenty of ATP

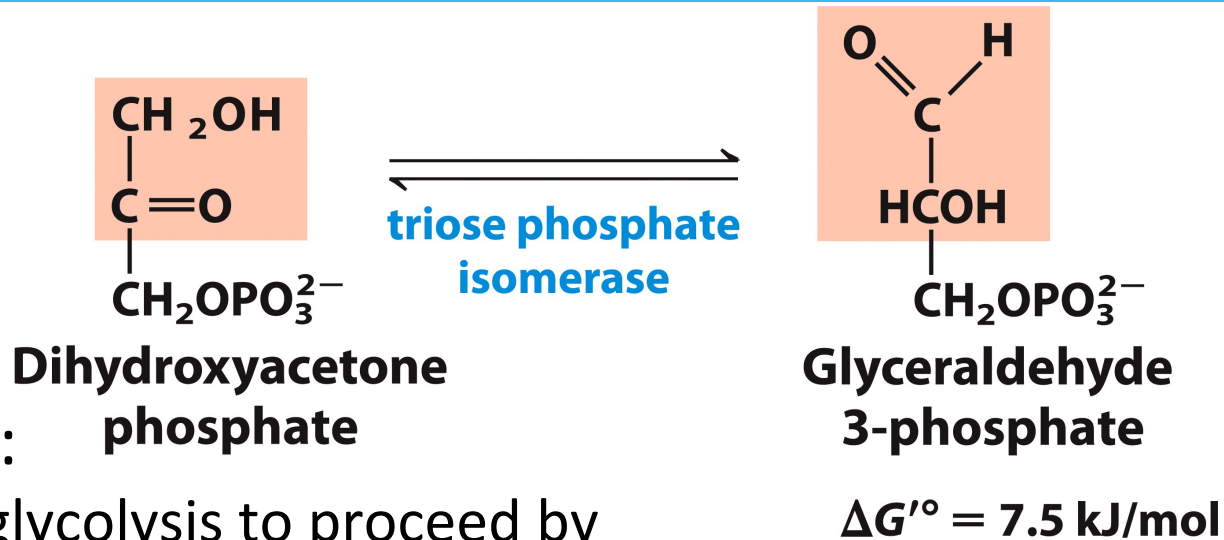
Step 4: Aldol Cleavage of F-1,6-bP



$$\Delta G'^{\circ} = 23.8 \text{ kJ/mol}$$

- Rationale
 - Cleavage of a 6-C sugar into two 3-C sugars
 - High-energy phosphate sugars are 3-C sugars
- The reverse process is the familiar aldol condensation
- Animal and plant aldolases employ covalent catalysis
- Fungal and bacterial aldolases employ metal ion catalysis
- *What is the mechanism of aldolase (class I)?*

Step 5: Triose Phosphate Interconversion



- Rationale:
 - Allows glycolysis to proceed by one pathway
- Aldolase creates two triose phosphates:
 - Dihydroxyacetone Phosphate (DHAP)
 - Glyceraldehyde-3-Phosphate (GAP)
- Only GAP is the substrate for the next enzyme
- DHAP must be converted to GAP
- Similar mechanism as phosphohexose isomerase
- Completes preparatory phase

Glucose Carbons in GAP

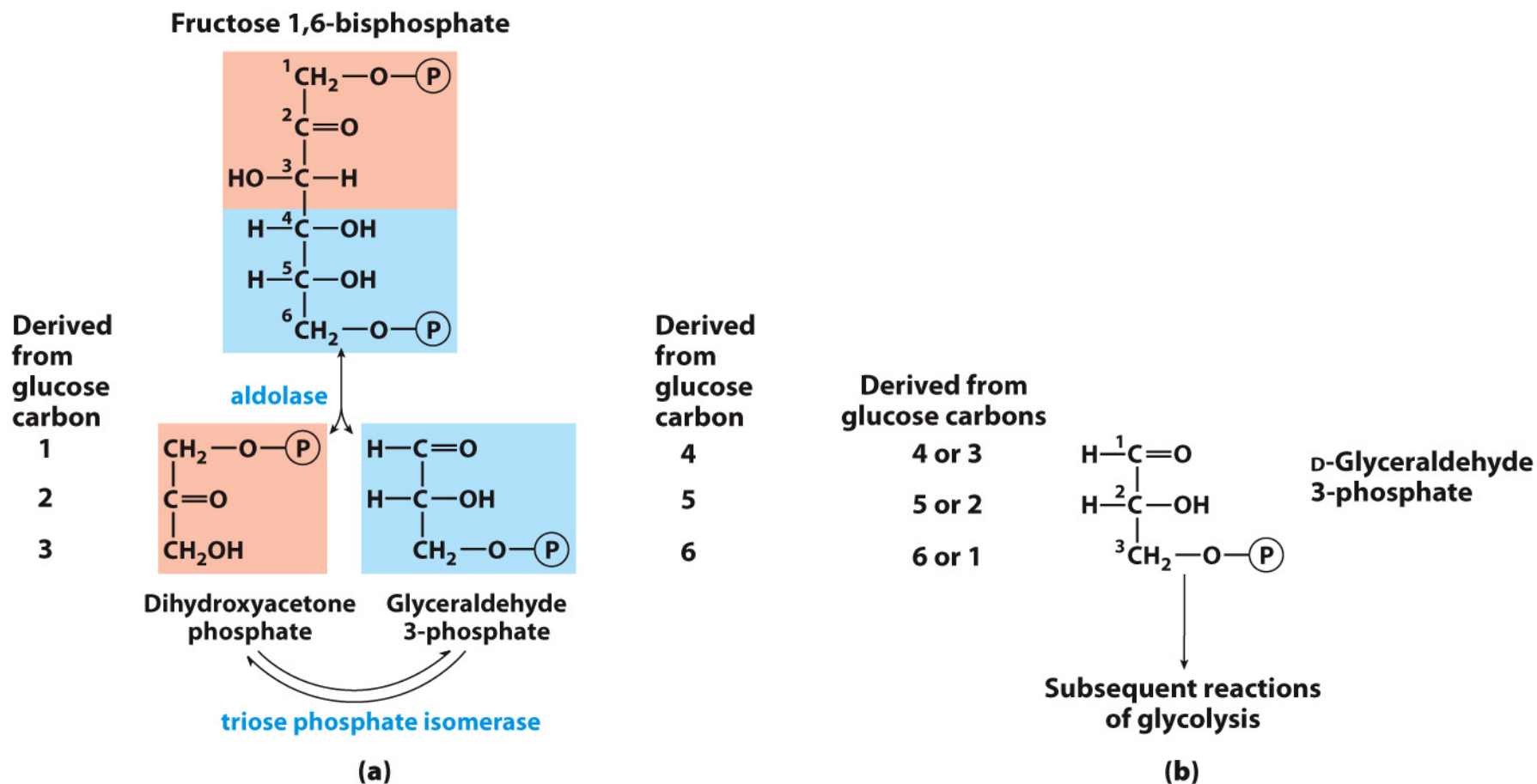


Figure 14-7

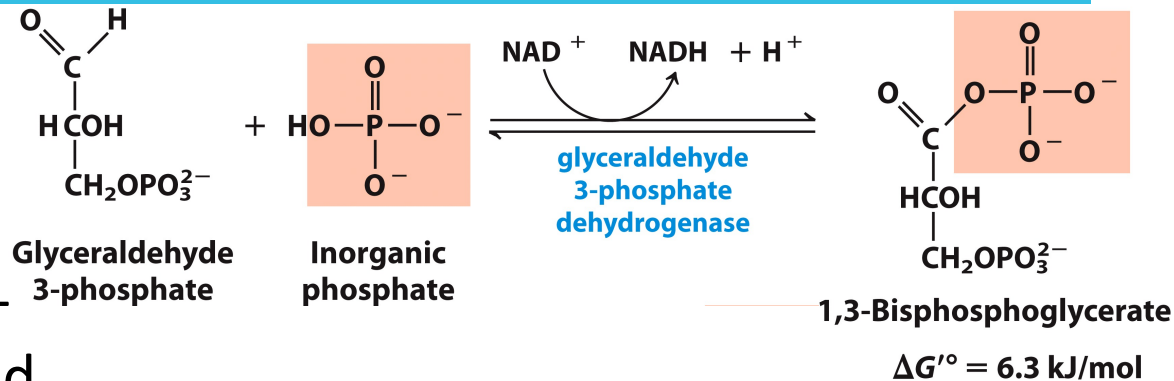
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The Payoff Phase

Step 6: Oxidation of GAP

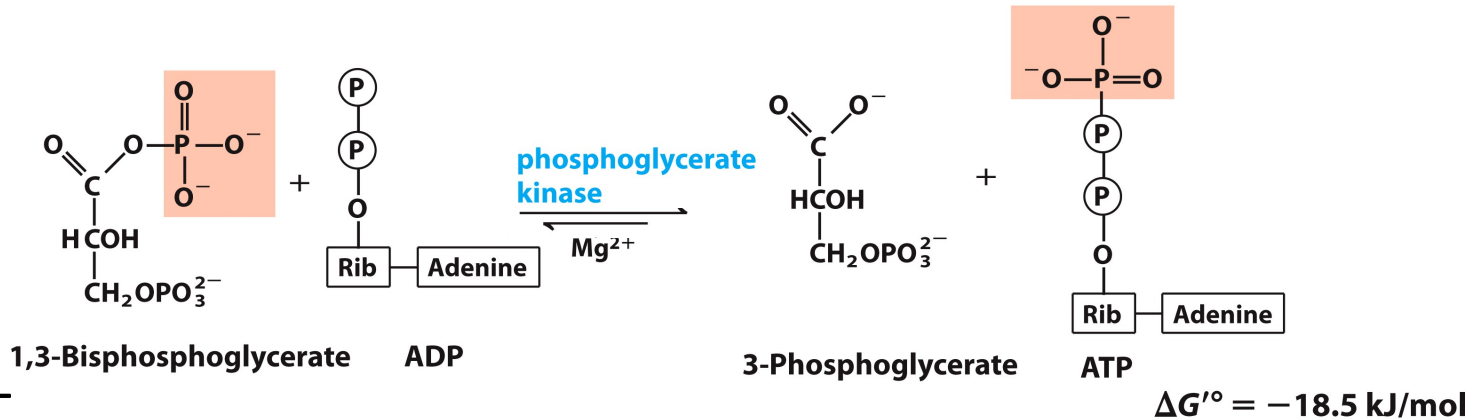
- Rationale:

- Generation of a high-energy phosphate cpd
- Incorporates inorganic phosphate **which allows for net production of ATP via glycolysis!**



- First energy-yielding step in glycolysis
- Oxidation of aldehyde with NAD⁺ gives NADH and an **acyl phosphate**
- Active site cysteine
 - Forms high-energy thioester intermediate
 - Subject to inactivation by oxidative stress
- Thermodynamically **unfavorable/reversible**
 - Coupled to next reaction to pull forward
- *What is the mechanism of GAPDH mechanism?*

Step 7: 1st Production of ATP

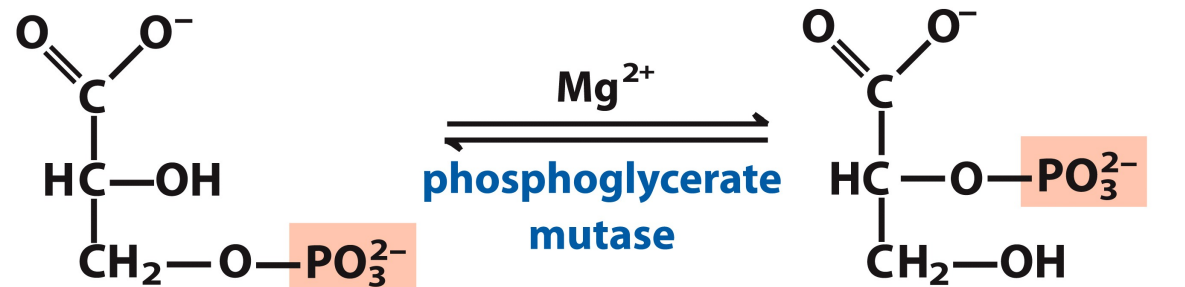


- **Rationale:**
 - Substrate-level phosphorylation to make ATP
- 1,3-bisphosphoglycerate is a **high-energy compound**
 - can donate the phosphate group to ADP to make ATP
- The enzyme is named after the reverse reaction
- **Substrate-level phosphorylation:** the formation of ATP by group transfer from a substrate
 - Is reversible because of coupling to GAPDH reaction
 - Steps 6 and 7 are strongly coupled·

$$\text{Glyceraldehyde 3-P} + \text{ADP} + \text{P}_i + \text{NAD}^+ \rightleftharpoons \text{3-phosphoglycerate} + \text{ATP} + \text{NADH} + \text{H}^+$$

$$\Delta G'^{\circ} = -12.2 \text{ kJ/mol}$$

Step 8: Migration of the Phosphate

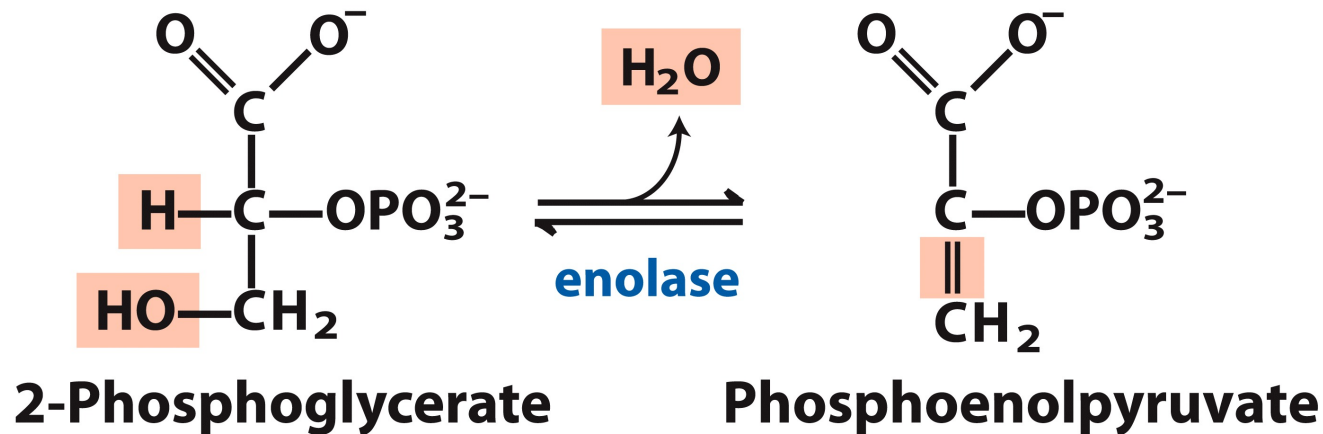


3-Phosphoglycerate

2-Phosphoglycerate

- Rationale:
 - Be able to form high-energy phosphate compound
- $\Delta G'^{\circ} = 4.4 \text{ kJ/mol}$
- **Mutases** catalyze the (apparent) migration of functional groups
- One of the active site histidines is post-translationally modified to **phosphohistidine**
- *What is the mechanism of PG mutase?*

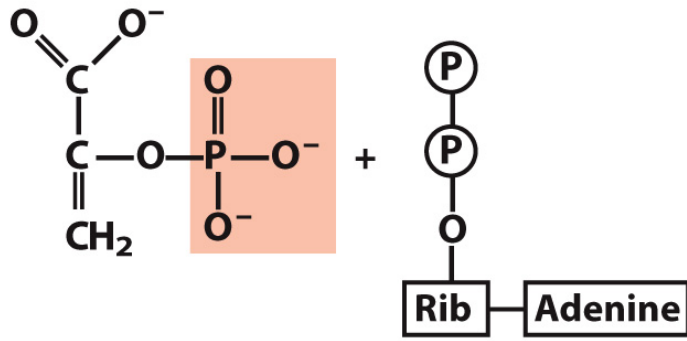
Step 9: Dehydration of 2-PG to PEP



$$\Delta G'^{\circ} = 7.5 \text{ kJ/mol}$$

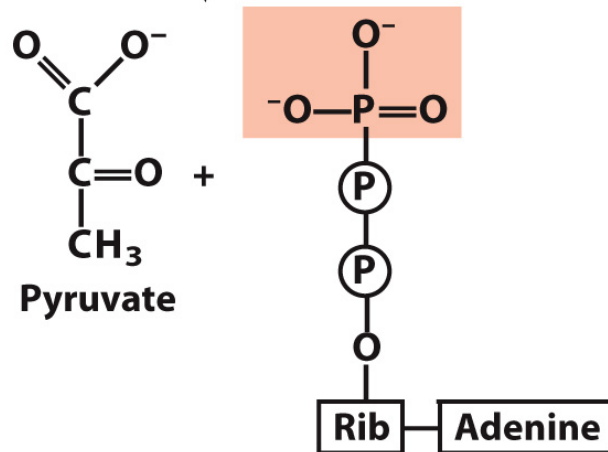
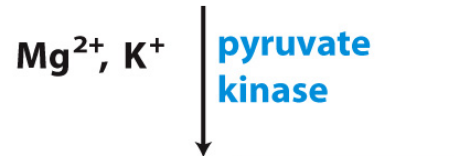
- Rationale
 - Generate a high-energy phosphate compound
- 2-Phosphoglycerate is not a good enough phosphate donor ($\Delta G'^{\circ} = -17.6 \text{ kJ/mol}$; $\Delta G'^{\circ}_{\text{PEP}} = -61.9 \text{ kJ/mol}$)
 - Product concentration kept low to pull forward

Step 10: 2nd Production of ATP



Phosphoenolpyruvate

ADP



$$\Delta G'^{\circ} = -31.4 \text{ kJ/mol}$$

ATP

- Substrate-level phosphorylation to make ATP
- net production of 2 ATP/glucose
- Loss of phosphate from PEP yields an enol that tautomerizes into ketone.
- **Tautomerization**
 - effectively lowers the concentration of the reaction product
 - drives the reaction toward ATP formation



Pyruvate
(enol form)

Pyruvate
(keto form)

Summary of Glycolysis



- Used:
 - 1 glucose; 2 ATP; 2 NAD⁺
- Made:
 - 2 pyruvate
 - Various different fates
 - 4 ATP
 - Used for energy-requiring processes within the cell
 - 2 NADH
 - Must be reoxidized to NAD⁺ in order for glycolysis to continue
- Glycolysis is heavily regulated
 - Ensure proper use of nutrients
 - Ensure production of ATP only when needed
 - Under anaerobic conditions, both the rate and the total amount of glucose consumption are many times greater than with oxygen present, **why???**

Glycolysis: Fates of Pyruvate

- In most organisms pyruvate is metabolized via one of three catabolic routes:
 1. *Citric acid cycle*: pyruvate is oxidized and decarboxylated to release CO_2 (the electrons that are moving go through ETC in mito and are used to make ATP; aerobic conditions)
 2. *Lactic acid fermentation*: after vigorous exercise, $[\text{O}_2]$ in muscles is low (**hypoxia**) NADH cannot be reoxidized to NAD^+ for glycolysis to continue → pyruvate is reduced to lactate accepting electrons from NADH (regenerating NAD^+). Certain tissues (RBC and retina) ferment pyruvate into lactate even under aerobic conditions
 3. *Alcohol fermentation*: some yeasts and plants can ferment pyruvate into ethanol and CO_2 (important for beverage production and baking)
- Pyruvate also some anabolic fates (can produce a.a. alanine or fatty acids)

Fates of Pyruvate

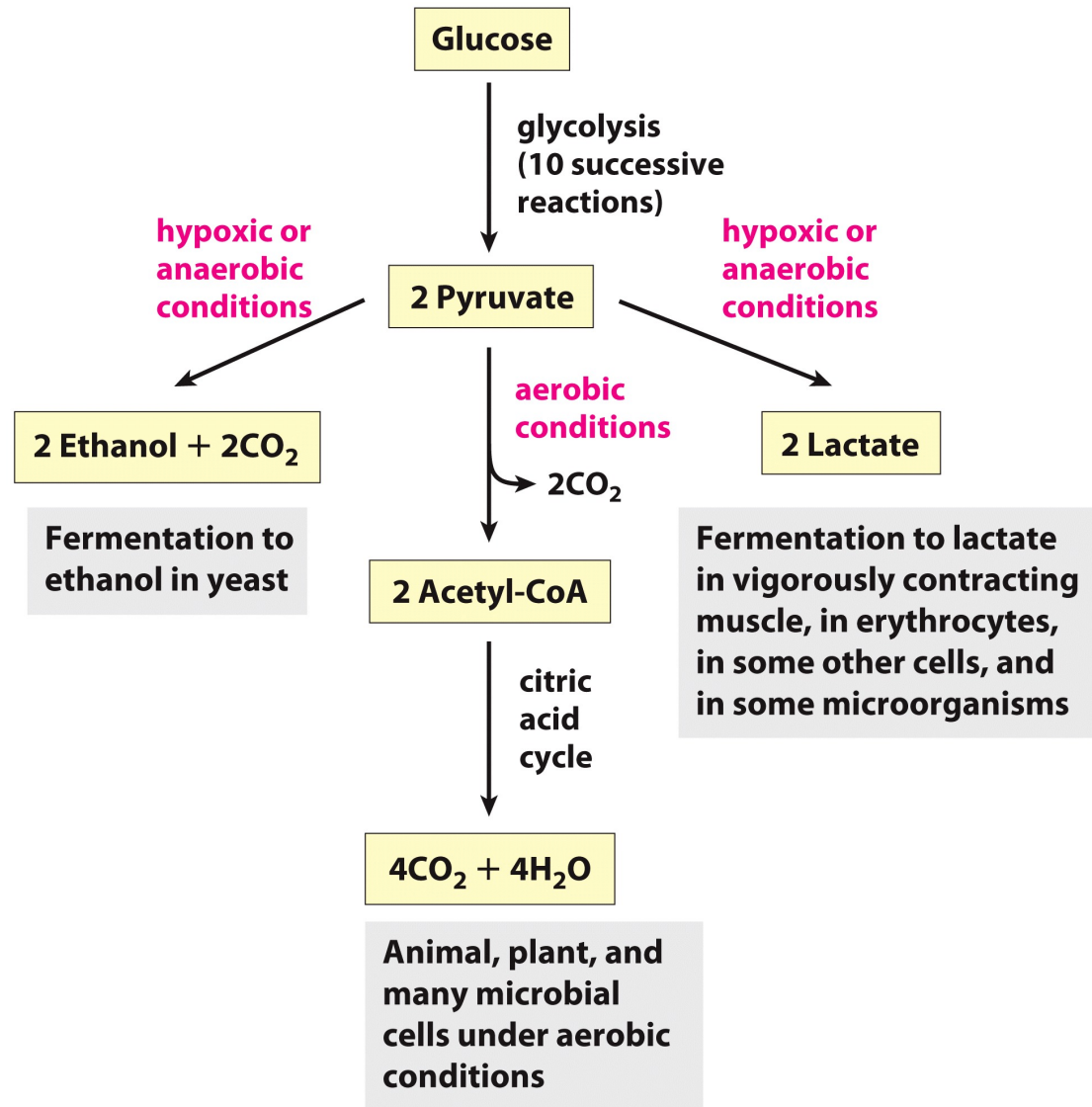


Figure 14-4

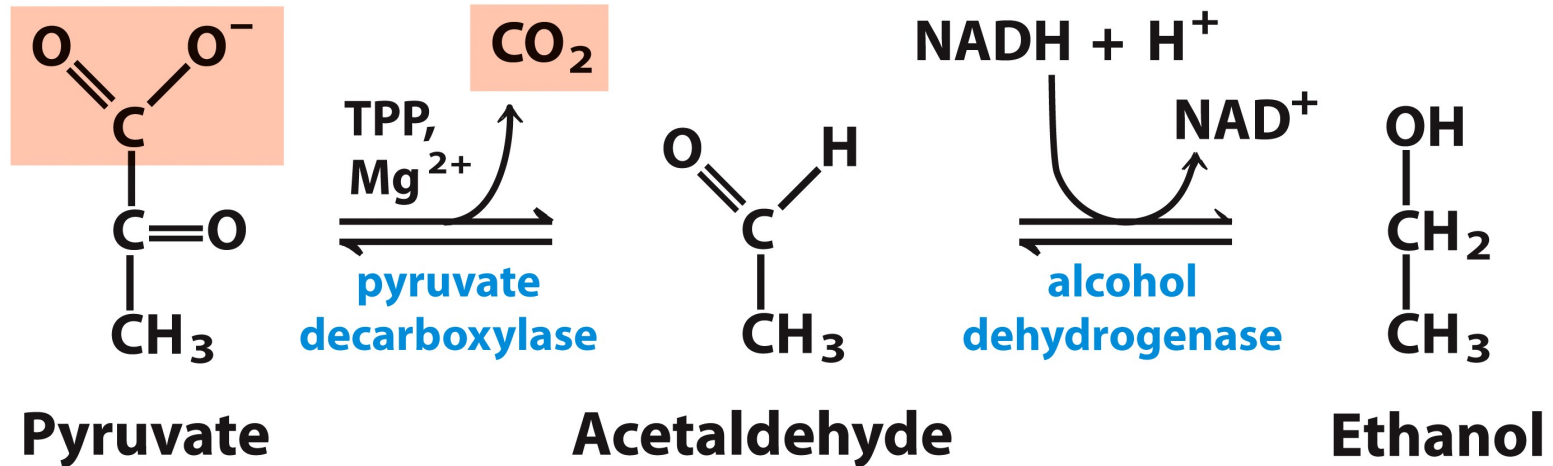
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Anaerobic Glycolysis: Fermentation

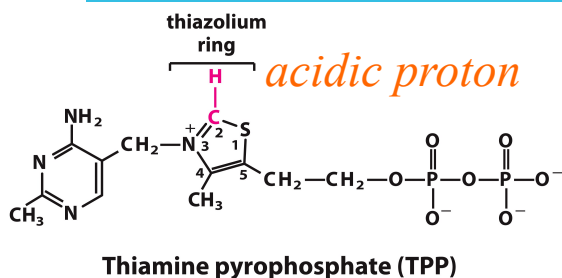
- *Generation of energy (ATP) without consuming oxygen or NAD^+*
- No net change in oxidation state of the sugars
- Reduction of pyruvate to another product
- Regenerates NAD^+ for further glycolysis under anaerobic conditions
- The process is used in the production of food from beer to yogurt to soy sauce

Yeast undergo Ethanol Fermentation



- Two-step reduction of pyruvate to ethanol, irreversible
- Humans do not have *pyruvate decarboxylase*
- Humans do express *alcohol dehydrogenase* for ethanol metabolism
- CO₂ produced in the first step is responsible for:
 - carbonation in beer
 - dough rising when baking bread
- Both steps require cofactors
 - Pyruvate decarboxylase: Mg²⁺ and thiamine pyrophosphate (TPP)
 - Alcohol dehydrogenase: Zn²⁺ and NADH

TPP is a Common Acetaldehyde Carrier



- Coenzyme derived from vitamin B₁ (thiamine)
- Lack of B₁ → *beriberi* (swelling, pain, paralysis and death)
- Cleavage of bonds adjacent to carbonyl groups
- Thiazolium ring of TPP stabilizes carbanion intermediates by providing an electrophilic structure into which the carbanion electrons can be delocalized by resonance "electron sinks"

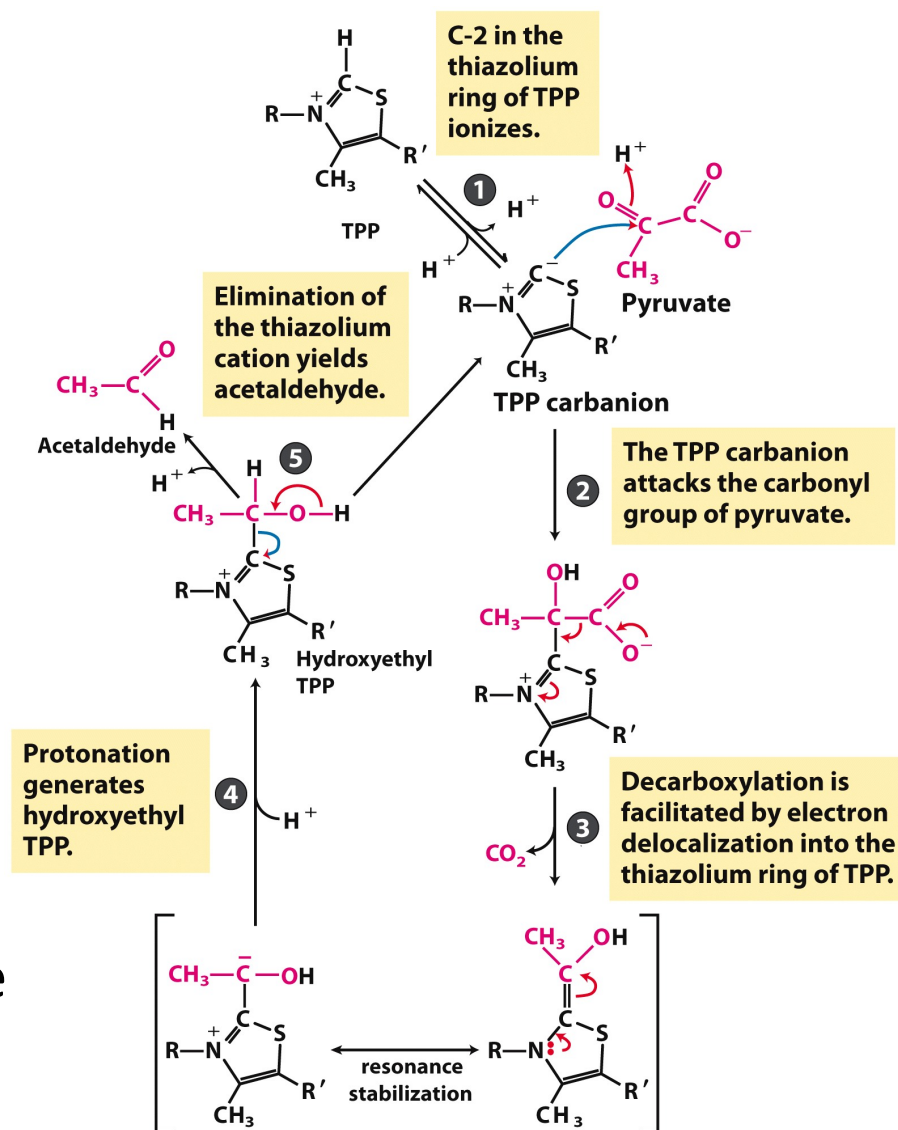
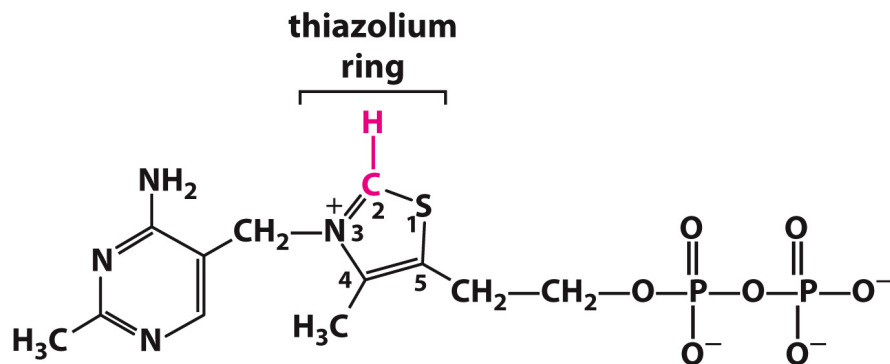


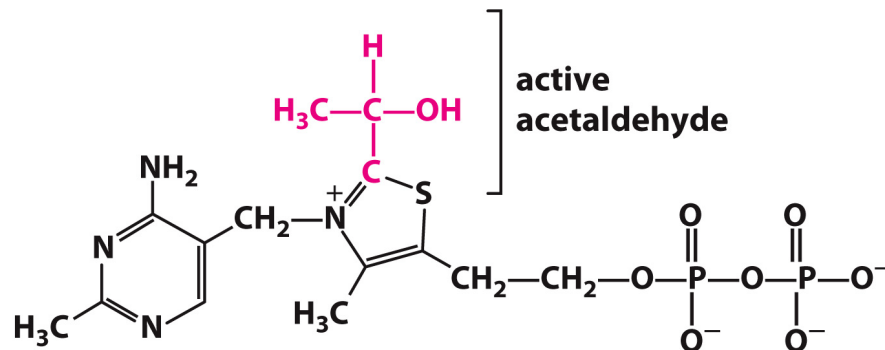
Figure 14-15c
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TPP Is a Common Acetaldehyde Carrier



Thiamine pyrophosphate (TPP)

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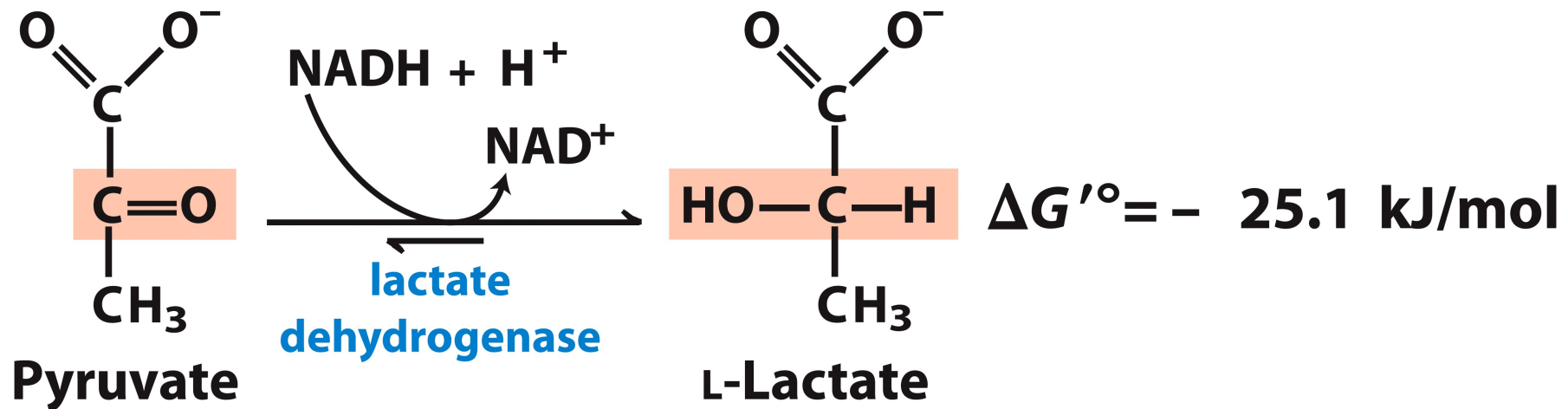
Hydroxyethyl thiamine pyrophosphate

Figure 14-15b
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TABLE 14-1 Some TPP-Dependent Reactions			
Enzyme	Pathway(s)	Bond cleaved	Bond formed
Pyruvate decarboxylase	Ethanol fermentation	$\text{R}^1-\text{C}(=\text{O})-\text{C}(=\text{O})\text{O}^-$	$\text{R}^1-\text{C}(=\text{O})\text{H}$
Pyruvate dehydrogenase α -Ketoglutarate dehydrogenase	Synthesis of acetyl-CoA Citric acid cycle	$\text{R}^2-\text{C}(=\text{O})-\text{C}(=\text{O})\text{O}^-$	$\text{R}^2-\text{C}(=\text{O})\text{S-CoA}$
Transketolase	Carbon-assimilation reactions Pentose phosphate pathway	$\text{R}^3-\text{C}(=\text{O})-\text{C}(\text{OH})(\text{H})-\text{R}^4$	$\text{R}^3-\text{C}(=\text{O})-\text{C}(\text{OH})(\text{H})-\text{R}^5$

Table 14-1
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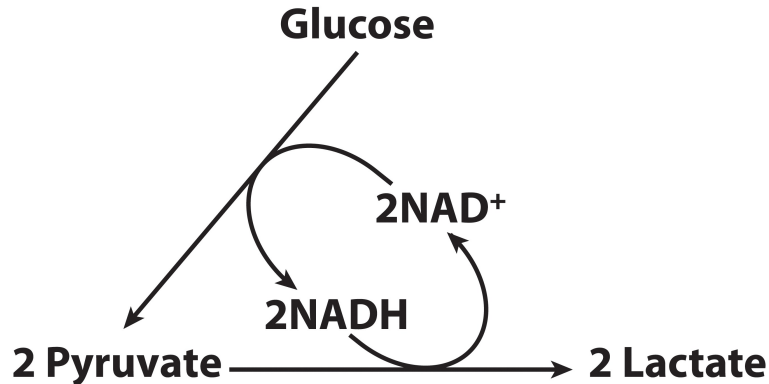
Animals undergo lactic acid fermentation



- Reduction of pyruvate to lactate, reversible
- Equilibrium favors lactate formation
- During strenuous exercise, **lactate builds up in the muscle**
 - Generally less than 1 minute (even most toned athletes cannot sprint at highest speeds for more than a minute!)
- The acidification of muscle prevents its continuous strenuous work

Lactic Acid Fermentation

- *No net change in NAD^+ or $NADH$ levels*



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- Lactate can be transported to the liver to be converted to glucose (the Cori cycle)
- Requires a recovery time
 - High amount of oxygen consumption to fuel gluconeogenesis
 - Restores muscle glycogen stores
 - Heavy breathing is required to replenish oxygen to repay the “oxygen debt”

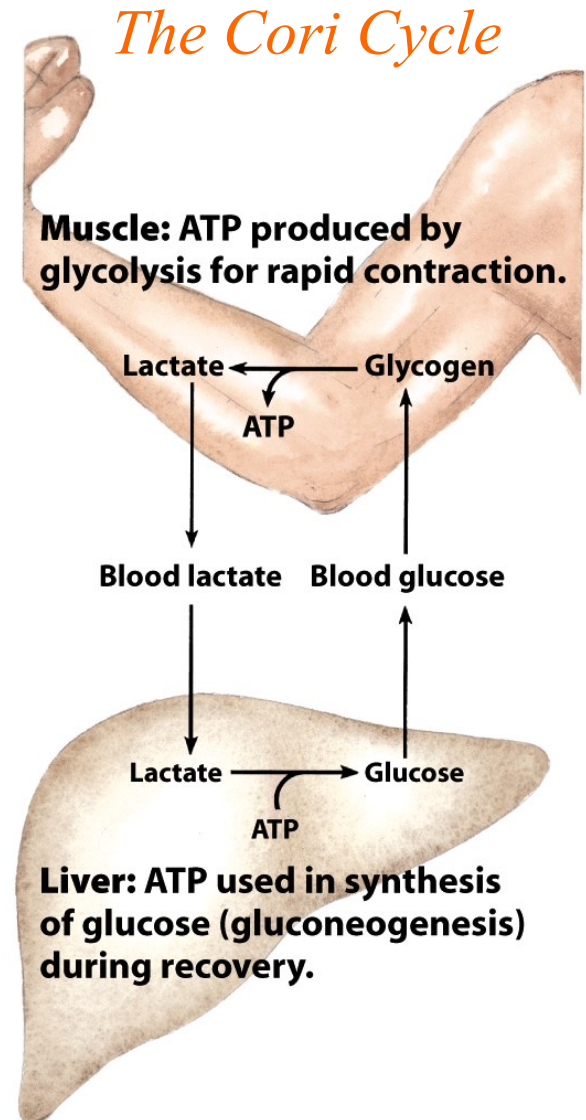


Figure 23-20
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