

Carbohydrate Storage and Synthesis in Liver and Muscle: Glycogen

Glucose Fuel Storage and mobilization for oxidation

- **Introduction**
- **Structure of Glycogen** – highly branched $\alpha(1,4)$ -glucose polymer
- **Glycogenesis** – Glc incorporated into glycogen (liver & muscle, kidney)
- **Glycogenolysis** – Glucose mobilized from glycogen in liver and muscle
- **Hormonal regulation of hepatic glycogenesis vs. glycogenolysis** – insulin vs. glucagon
- **Mechanisms of glucagon action** – Signals phosphorylations, pathways flip
- **Glycogenolysis in liver** – plasma glycemia maintenance: acute vs. postabsorptive
- **Glycogenolysis in muscle** – Mobilizing glucose for ATP contraction activity
- **Regulation of glycogenesis** – replenish glycogen stores vs. immediate needs
- **Gluconeogenesis** – *de novo* (new) glucose from non carbohydrate carbon skeletons
- **Regulation of gluconeogenesis** – De novo glucose synthesis fueled by fat oxidation
- **Interconversions of fructose/galactose/mannose/glucose** – glycoproteins, etc., ...
- **Inborn errors of metabolism** – glycogen storage diseases

- **Red cells and the brain – Have an absolute requirement for blood glucose for their energy metabolism.**
- **These cells consume about 80% of the glucose (200 g, 1.1 mol, ca. 1500 kcal) consumed per day by a 70 kg human, in good health.**
- **Blood and extracellular fluid volume contains about 10 g glucose – must be replenished constantly.**
- **Assumes a blood volume = 7 L, hematocrit = 45%, and no other distribution system operates.**
- **Normally, blood [glucose] range is between 4 – 6.5 mM = glycemia (about 80 – 120 mg/dL)**

Prandial (meal): preprandial, postprandial, ... postabsorptive

- Before meal
- **hypoglycemia** (4–2.5 mM, 45 mg/dL);
 - **extreme hypoglycemia**, <2.5 mM, life-threatening hypoglycemia rapidly compromises brain function, leading to confusion and disorientation.
- After meal
- **glycemia** rapidly exceeded by absorbed glucose from digestible meal carbohydrate), rapidly becomes ...
 - **hyperglycemia** (>6.5 mM) lasts 2-3 hrs, ... glycemia
- Post meal
- **homeostasis** glycemia maintained: ~ 4-5 mM (80-100 mg %), resting [glucose].
 - **Such control due to:** in part, *glycogen synthesis* (all tissues). Up to max of 1—2 % of muscle tissue wt (work) and 4—6 % liver wt for later release of glucose from liver to supply glucose to body.

Glycogenesis vs. glycogenolysis

Liver maintains blood [glucose]

Glycogen Metabolism

Cyclic responses

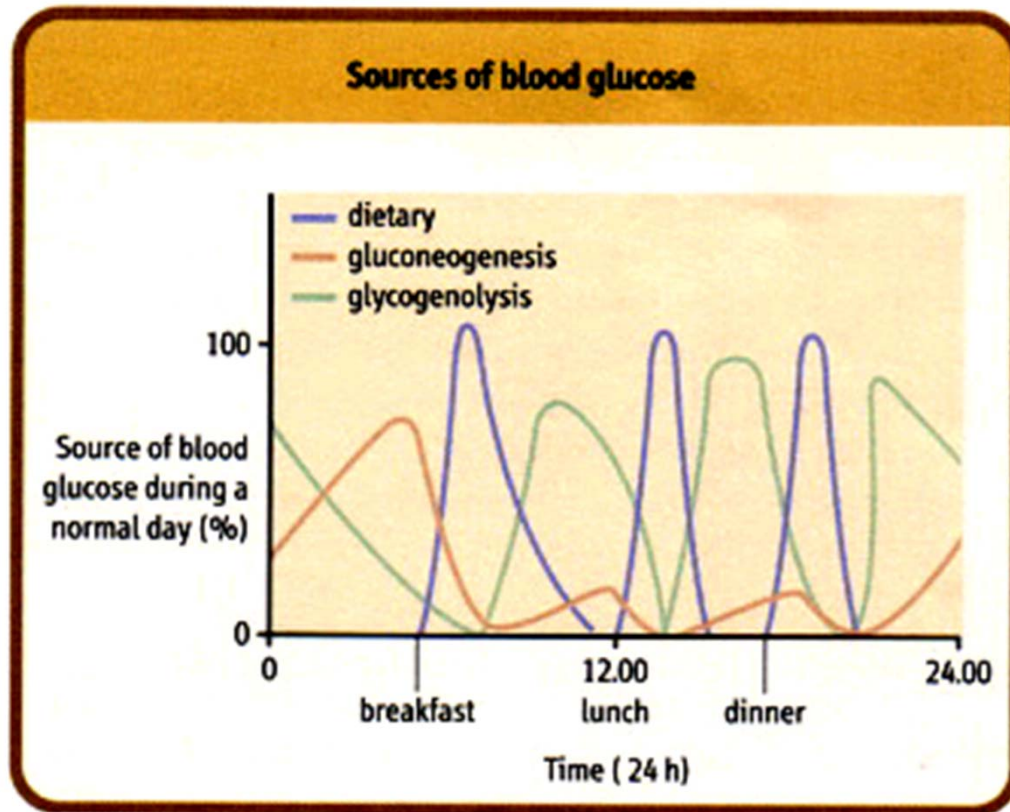


Fig. 12.1 Sources of Blood Glucose....

- **Gluconeogenesis** makes new glucose during post absorptive state, before meals, and during sleep. **Glycogenolysis** declines to near depletion of glycogen after 12-24 hrs – Liver uses gluconeogenesis to maintain blood [glucose].

- Glucose stored as glycogen: highly branched dendrite-like polymer, a polysaccharide.
 - **Glycogenesis** – glycogen synthesized during and after a meal.
 - **Glycogenolysis** releases glucose into blood (Like a controlled time-release)
- Total hepatic glycogen stores barely able to maintain blood [glucose] beyond 12 hour (fasting).

Glycogen Storage Various Tissues

Carbohydrate Metabolism Structure

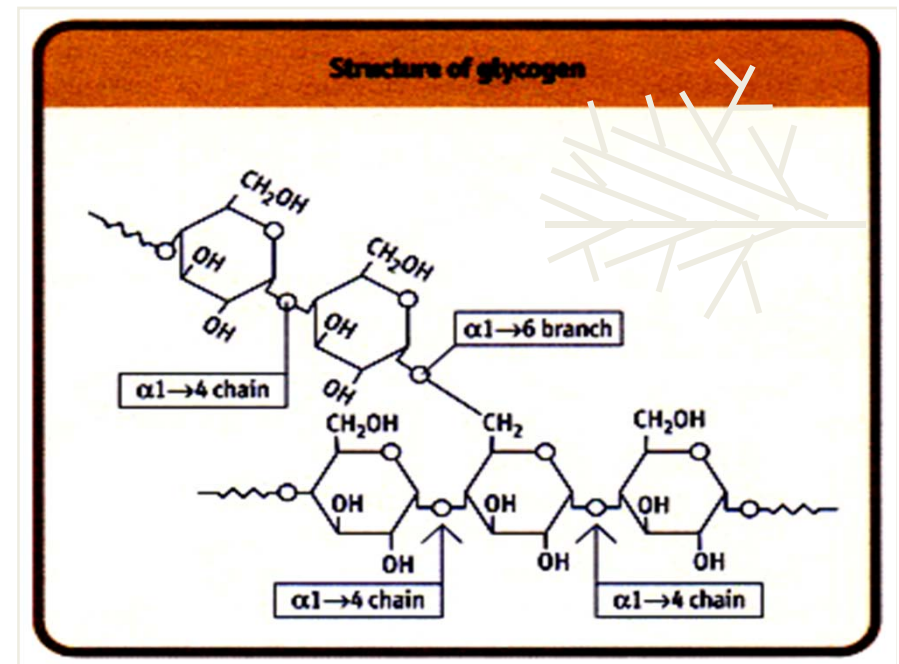
Glucose and glycogen stores in the body (70 kg adult)				
Tissue	Type	Amount	% of tissue mass	Calories
liver	glycogen	75 g	3-5 %	300
muscle	glycogen	250 g	0.5-1.0%	1000
blood and extracellular fluid	glucose	10 g	—	40

- **Blood glucose = 10 g**, tissues needs easily deplete.
- **Glycogen degraded to glucose-1P → G6P → for oxidative metabolism in tissues to synthesize ATP.**
- **Liver: G6P → G + P, by G6P phosphatase.**
- **Muscle lacks G6P phosphatase.**

Fig. 12.2 Tissue distribution of carbohydrate energy reserves (70 kg adult).

Highly branched dendritic polymer

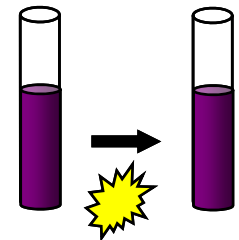
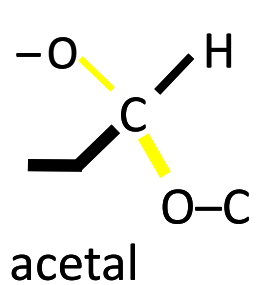
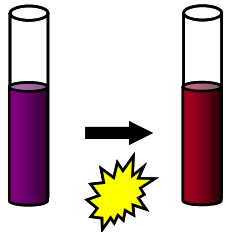
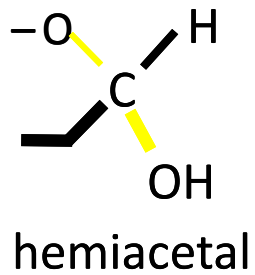
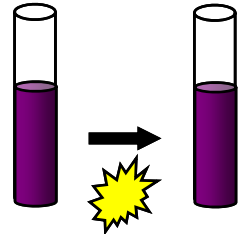
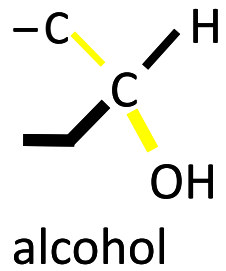
Fig. 12.3 Close-up of glycogen structure.



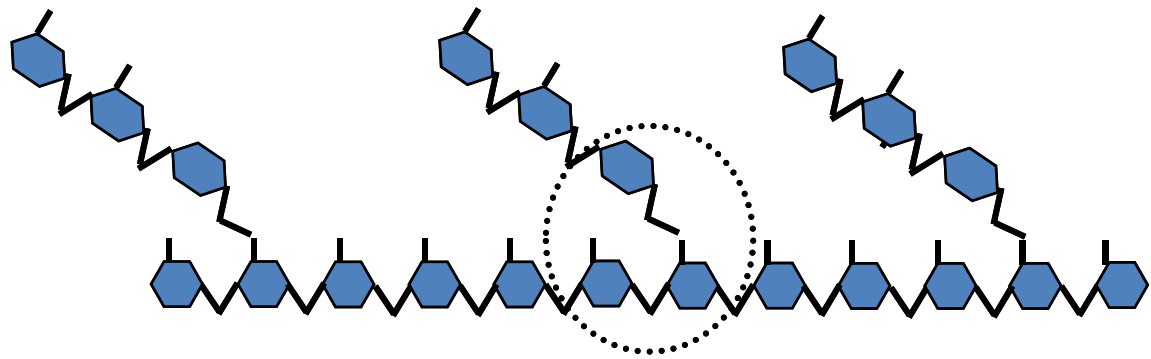
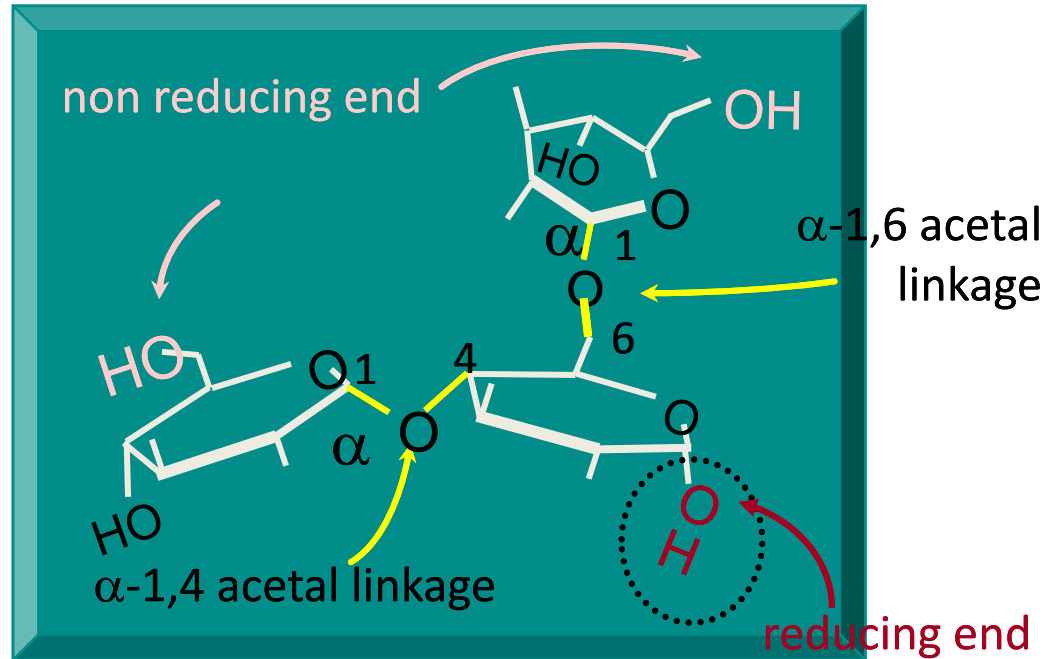
Structure of Glycogen Properties

Carbohydrate Metabolism

Benedict's solution



KEY FEATURES

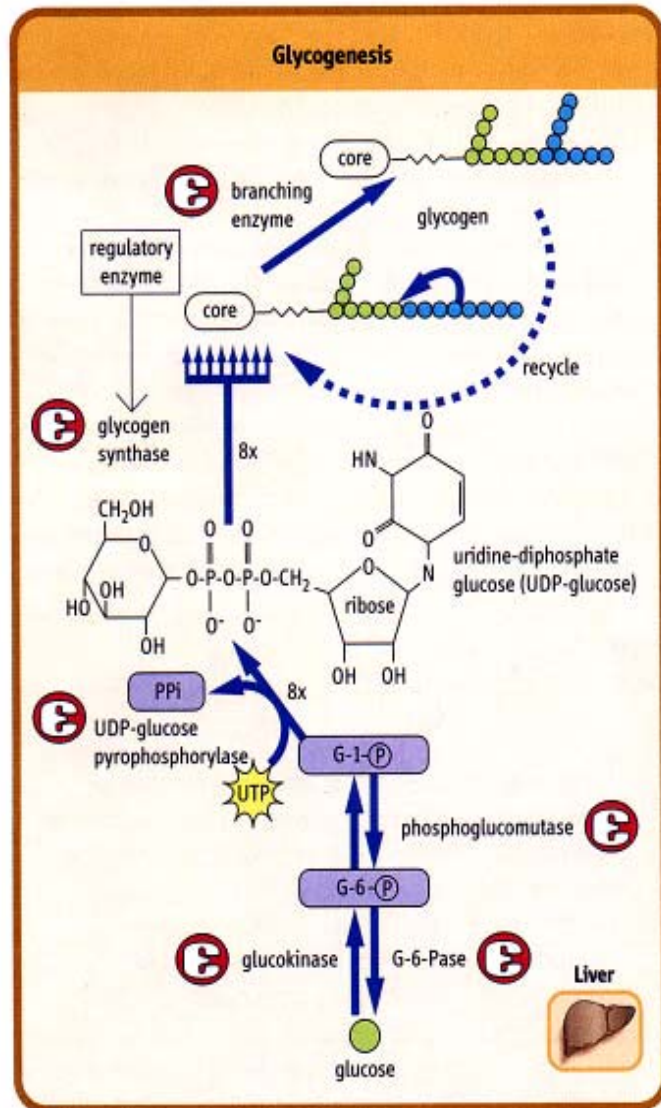


Glycogen metabolism

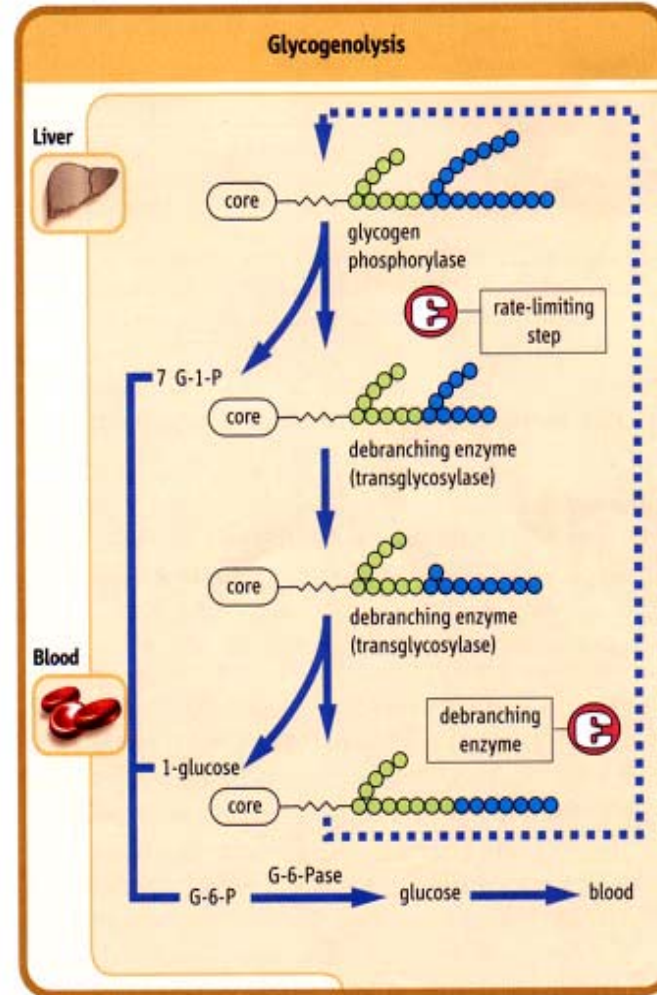
Anabolism vs. Catabolism

Carbohydrate Metabolism

Comparison



Different enzymes



- **Glycogenesis**
- **Glucose → glycogen**
 - **5 steps**
 - 1. **Glucokinase**
 - 2. **Phosphogluco-mutase**
 - 3. **UDP-Glc PPase**
 - 4. **Glycogen synthase**
 - 5. **Branching**
- **Glycogenolysis**
- **Glycogen → glucose**
 - **4 steps**
 - 1. **Glycogen phosphorylase**
 - 2. **transglycosylase**
 - 3. **transglycosylase**
 - 4. **G6Pase**

Regulatory enzyme

Rate-limiting enzyme

Fig. 12.4 Glycogenesis (L)
Glycogenolysis (R)

Priority: favor synthesis of glycogen first: save first!

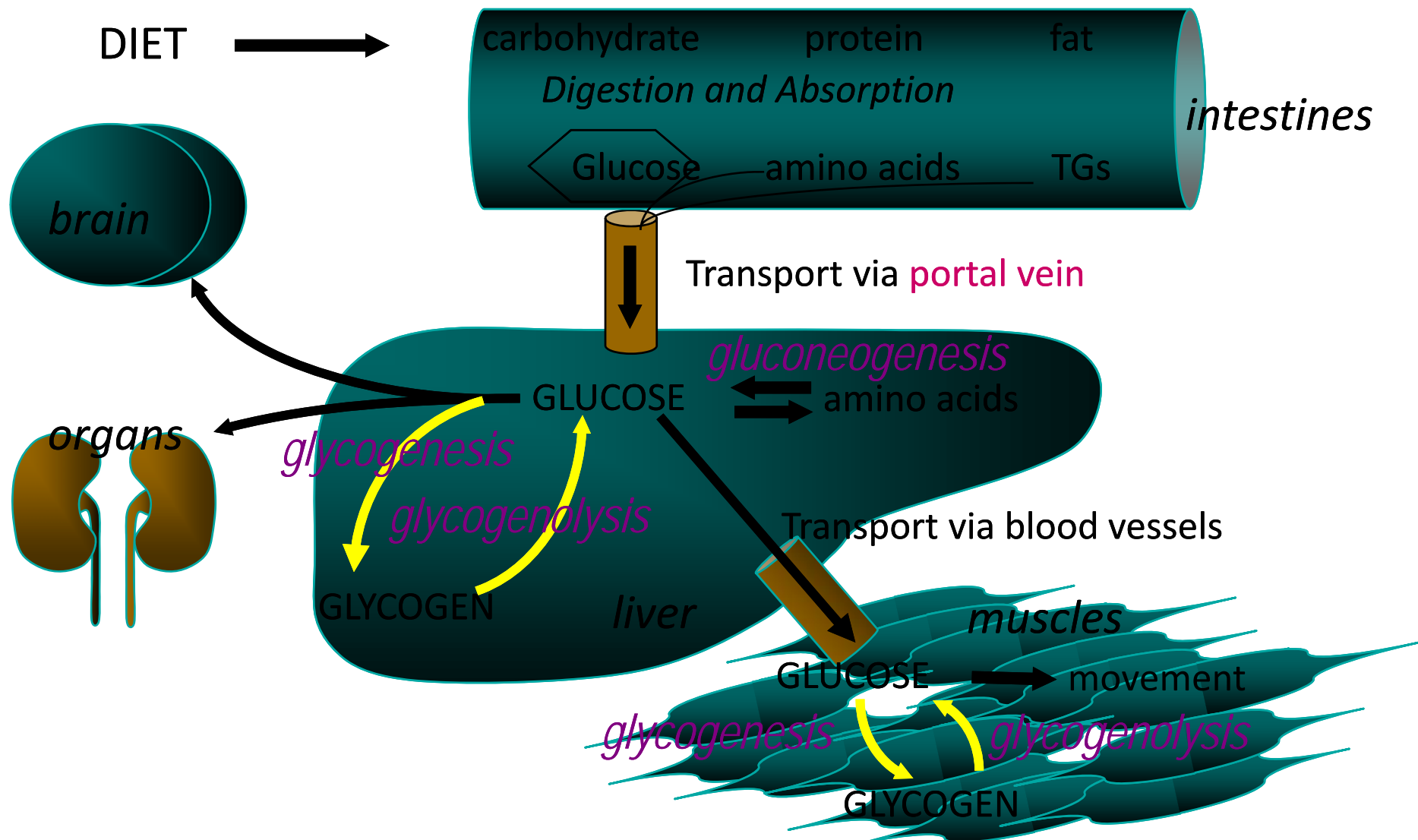
- **Portal blood:** delivers glucose-rich blood to liver during/shortly after a meal.
- **Liver rich in GLUT-2:** high capacity, low affinity ($k_m > 10$ mM), **high glucose flux.**
 - **Glucokinase (GK):** gene induced by continuous glc-rich diet.
 - **GK $K_m \sim 5-7$ mM:** activity \uparrow when portal blood [Glc] \uparrow above 5 mM.
 - **GK not G6P inhibited:** thus G6P pushed into all pathways – glycolysis, PMP, and glycogenesis (muscle uses lipid oxidative metabolism for ATP).
- **Fate of excess glucose**
 - **In Liver: goes to**
 - **glycogenesis reserve:** for maintaining post absorptive blood [glc].
 - **glycolysis:** after glycogen reserve is full.
 - **energy/ATP synthesis and triglycerides:** FAS and TGs exported to adipose tissue for storage.
 - **In muscle: glucose** \rightarrow stored in glycogen; glycolytic pyruvate formed.
 - **In adipose: glucose** \rightarrow DHAP \rightarrow glycerol \rightarrow TGs
 - **In RBC: glucose** \rightarrow pyruvate \rightarrow lactate; \rightarrow NADPH (protect from ROS)

Fate of diet fuels

Glucose is central metabolite

Carbohydrate Metabolism

Overview of Topics



Glucagon, Epinephrine, Cortisol, Insulin

Hormonal control of glycogenolysis			
Hormone	Source	Initiator	Effect on glycogenolysis
glucagon	pancreatic α -cells	hypoglycemia	rapid activation
epinephrine	adrenal medulla	stress, hypoglycemia	rapid activation
cortisol	adrenal cortex	stress	chronic activation
insulin	pancreatic β -cells	hyperglycemia	inactivation

Fig. 12.5 Hormones involved in control of glycogenolysis.

- **Glycogenolysis: response to low blood [glc] from:**
 - Post absorptive utilization.
 - Response to stress.
- **3 hormones — activation mode:**
 - **Glucagon**—3.5 kd peptide, from α -cells of endocrine pancreas; main function: activate hepatic glycogenolysis to maintain normoglycemia.
 - **Epinephrine**—tyrosine derivative, a catecholamine from adrenal medulla activates glycogenolysis in response to acute stress.
 - **Cortisol**—adrenocortical steroid varies diurnally in plasma, but may be chronically elevated under continuously stressful conditions.

Glucagon, epinephrine (adrenalin), cortisol, insulin

- Glucagon – 3500 MW protein (29-aa): secreted by α -cells of endocrine pancreas, activates glycogenolysis to maintain normal glycemia, when blood [glucose] becomes hypoglycemic.
- Glucagon $t/2 \sim 5$ minutes. (removal from blood by receptor binding, renal filtration, proteolytic inactivation in liver.)
- Elevated blood [glucagon]: between meals; chronically elevated during fasting or low-carbohydrate diet.
- Decreased blood [glucagon]: decreases during and soon after a meal ([glucose] is very high).

Glycogenolysis is activated in response to stress

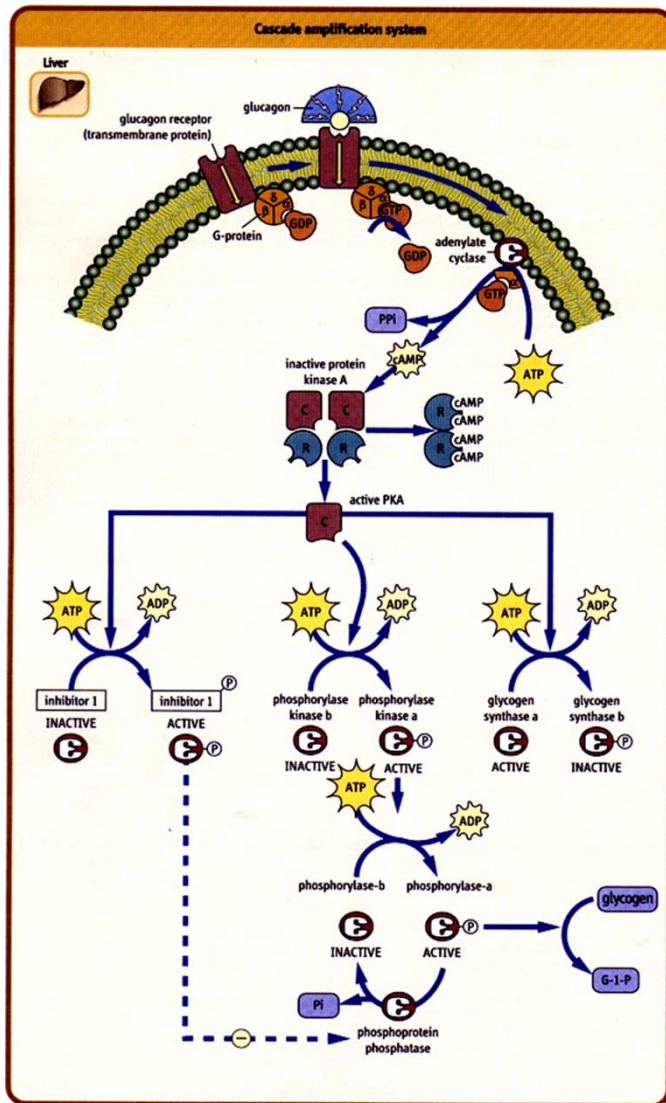
- Physiologic -- in response to increased blood glucose utilization during prolonged exercise.
- Pathologic -- as a result of blood loss.
- Psychological -- in response to acute or chronic threats.
- Acute stress (regardless of source): activates glycogenolysis through the action of catecholamine hormone, epinephrine (released by the adrenal medulla).
- During prolonged exercise: both glucagon and epinephrine contribute to stimulation of glycogenolysis.

Antagonist of glucagon, epinephrine (adrenalin), cortisol

- Insulin secreted by pancreas β -cells when blood [glucose] is high.
- Synthesized as single peptide chain zymogen: proinsulin.
- In secretory granules, selective proteolysis releases an internal peptide and a 2-chained (via 2 -S-S-) insulin hormone.
- Insulin elicits uptake and intracellular use or storage of glucose, an anabolic hormone.
- Hyperglycemia results in elevated blood [insulin] associated with fed state.
- Hyperinsulinism associated with “insulin resistance” and if chronic can lead to diabetes type-2 and related pathologies.

Glycogen Signal Transduction

Carbohydrate Metabolism Regulation Mechanism



1. Glucagon binds hepatic membrane receptor: activates cascade reactions.
2. G-protein-GDP in resting state: releases GDP, α -subunit binds GTP.
3. G-protein-GTP: conformation change, releases α -subunit:GTP complex.
4. α -GTP binds to *adenylate cyclase (AC)*.
5. AC converts $ATP \rightarrow cAMP (+PP; \rightarrow 2 P)$.
6. cAMP binds regulatory subunit of *protein kinase A*: active catalytic subunit released = *PKA*.
7. *PKA* phosphorylates 3-enzymes: uses ATP
 - Inhibitor 1 \rightarrow inhibitor-1 (+P) ACT.
 - *phosphorylase kinase b* \rightarrow *PKa* (+P) ACT.
 - *glycogen synthase a* \rightarrow *b* (+P) INACT.

Fig 12.6 Mobilization of liver glycogen by glucagon.

Glycogen Signal Transduction

Carbohydrate Metabolism Regulation Mechanism

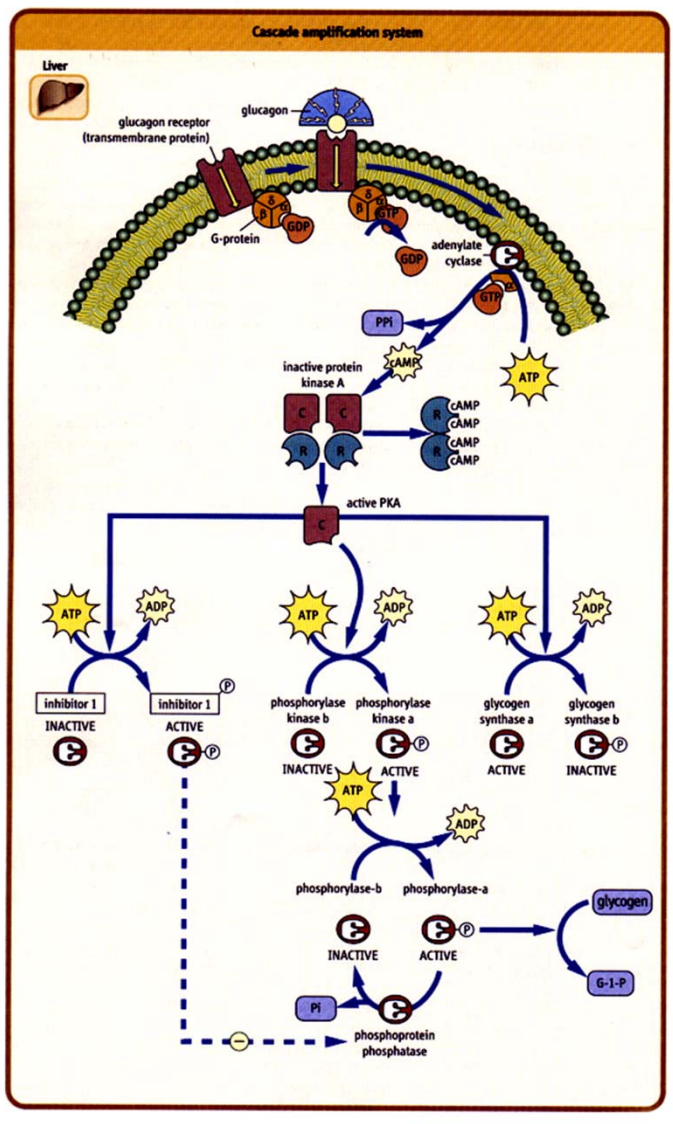


Fig 12.6 Mobilization of liver glycogen by glucagon.

- PKA phosphorylates 3-enzymes: uses ATP
 - Inhibitor 1 \rightarrow inhibitor-1 (+P) ACT.
 - *Phosphorylase Kinase b* \rightarrow *PK a* (+P) ACT.
 - *Glycogen Synthase a* \rightarrow *GS b* (+P) INACT.

Phosphorylase kinase a: uses ATP

Glycogen Phosphorylase b \rightarrow *GP a* (+P)

7. *Glycogen Phosphorylase a* : glycogenolysis releases G1P

8. *Inhibitor 1-P* keeps *phospho-protein phosphatase (PPP)* inactive: glycogen degradation continues.

Glycogen

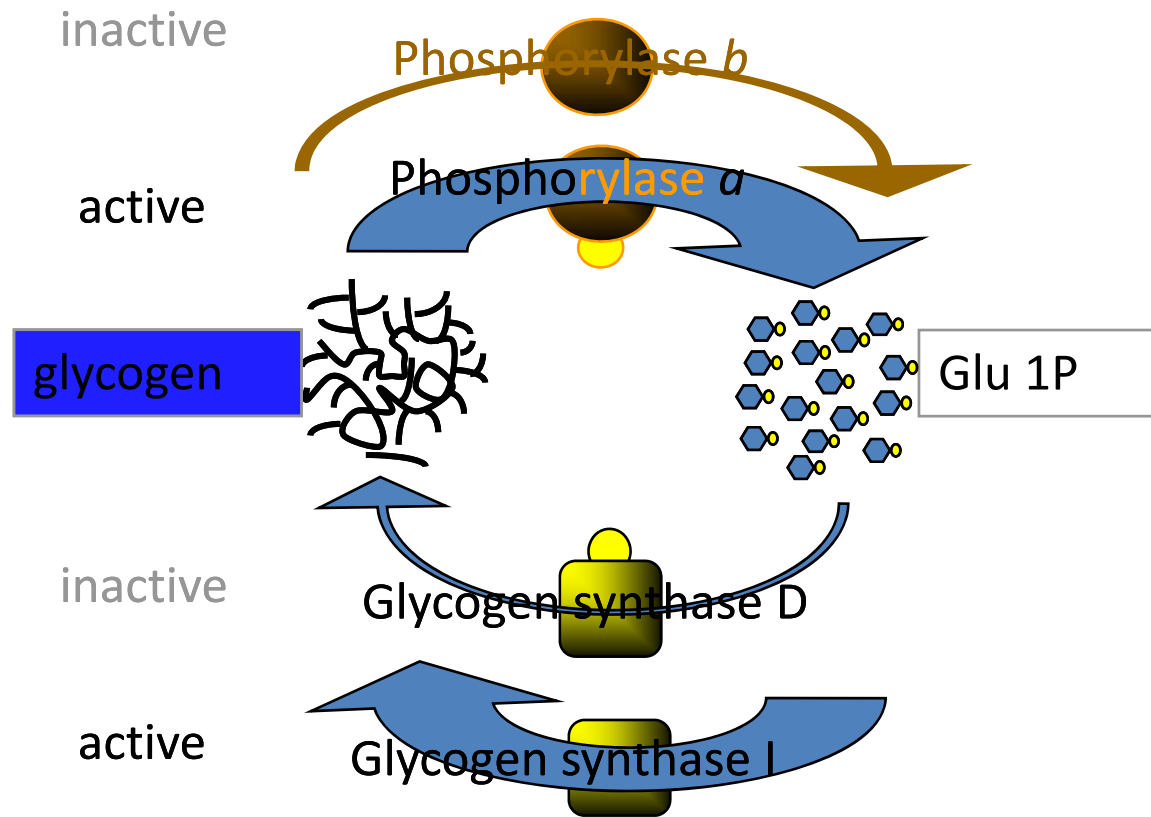
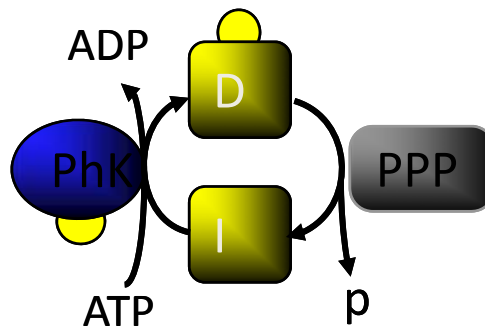
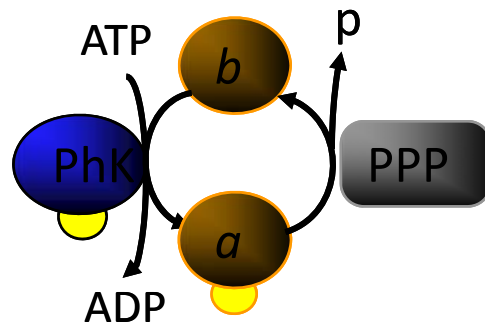
Reciprocal Synthesis and Degradation

Carbohydrate Metabolism

Regulation Mechanism

Phosphorylation-Dephosphorylation

PPP = Protein Phosphatase



Glycogenolysis floods system with G1P, G6P, and glucose

- Prandial glucose used up, glycemia falls into hypoglycemia.
- Glucagon's enzyme cascade amplification turns on liver glycogenolysis – balanced inhibition of glycogenesis. Also produces inhibition of ...
 - Protein synthesis – uses considerable ATP and GTP
 - Cholesterol synthesis – uses ATP
 - Fatty acid (FA) synthesis – uses ATP to activate acetyl CoA (malonyl CoA)
 - Triglyceride (TGs) synthesis from glycolytic DHAP derived from glucose
 - Glucose synthesis (gluconeogenesis) – uses GTP
 - Glucose utilization (glycolysis) – uses ATP
- Key enzymes phosphorylated in opposing pathways, avoids futile cycles.
- Glucagon shifts liver metabolism to keep blood [glc] glycemic to maintain vital body functions (see Ch 20).

Termination of glucagon response Carbohydrate Metabolism

Must be rapid

Hepatic mechanisms

Mechanisms of termination of hormonal response to glucagon

hydrolysis of GTP on G_{α} -subunit

hydrolysis of cAMP by phosphodiesterase

protein phosphatase activity

Fig. 12.7 Mechanisms of termination of hormonal response to glucagon.

- **Rapid, redundant shutdown mechanisms:** accompany blood [glucagon] ↓. Enzyme cascade for amplifying glycogenolysis activation is **via dephosphorylation.**
- 1. **G_{α} -GTP → G_{α} -GDP:** by phosphodiesterase
- 2. **Phosphodiesterase: cAMP → AMP**
- 3. **[cAMP] ↓, R-cAMP dissociates**
- 4. **$2R + 2C \rightarrow R_2C_2$: *adenylate cyclase* inactive again.**
- 5. **PhosphoProtein Phosphatase (PPP): removes-P;**
 - **all enz-P → enz + P; glycogenolysis stops.**
 - **Inhibitor 1, increases PPP activity.**
- **Glycogenolysis stops.**
- **Decreased blood [glucagon] accompanies rise in blood [glucose] ↑.**

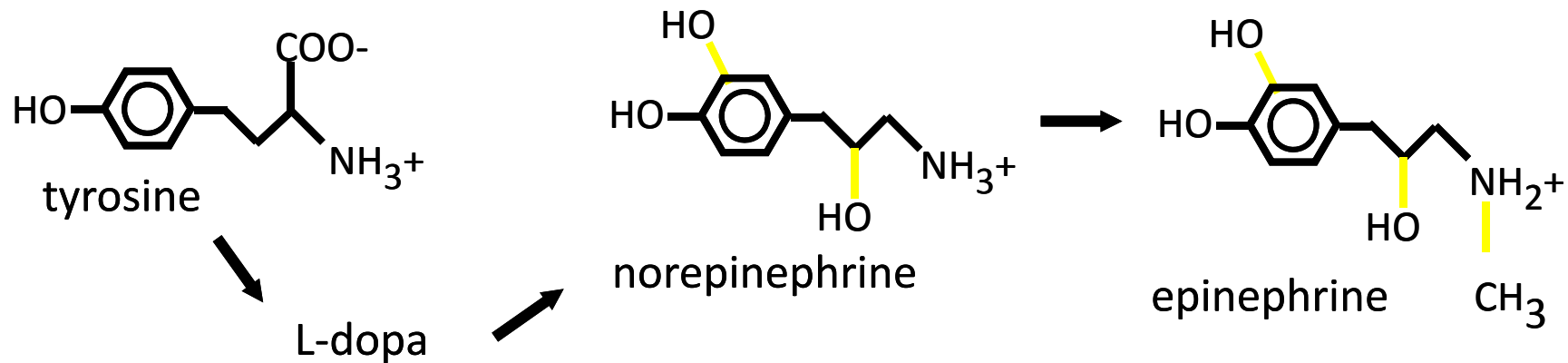
- Six rare genetic diseases affect glycogen synthesis at different enzyme deficiency steps in the pathway.

Glycogen-storage diseases			
Type	Name	Enzyme deficiency	Structural or clinical consequences
I	von Gierke's	G-6-Pase	severe postabsorptive hypoglycemia, lactic acidemia, hypertipidemia
II	Pompe's	lysosomal α -glucosidase	glycogen granules in lysosomes
III	Cori's	debranching enzyme	altered glycogen structure, hypoglycemia
IV	Andersen's	branching enzyme	altered glycogen structure
V	McArdle's	muscle phosphorylase	excess muscle glycogen deposition, exercise-induced cramps and fatigue
VI	Hers'	liver phosphorylase	hypoglycemia, not as severe as Type 1

Fig. 12.8 Major classes of glycogen-storage diseases.

Glucagon, Epinephrine, Cortisol, Insulin

- Epinephrine (Adrenaline) and precursor (norepinephrine also hormonally active), derived from tyrosine. Adrenal gland cells release when neural signals trigger the **fight-or-flight** response; many diverse physiological effects follow.
- Epinephrine stimulates release of G1P from glycogen; produces elevated intracellular [G6P]. Glycolysis increases in muscle; liver releases glucose into the bloodstream.

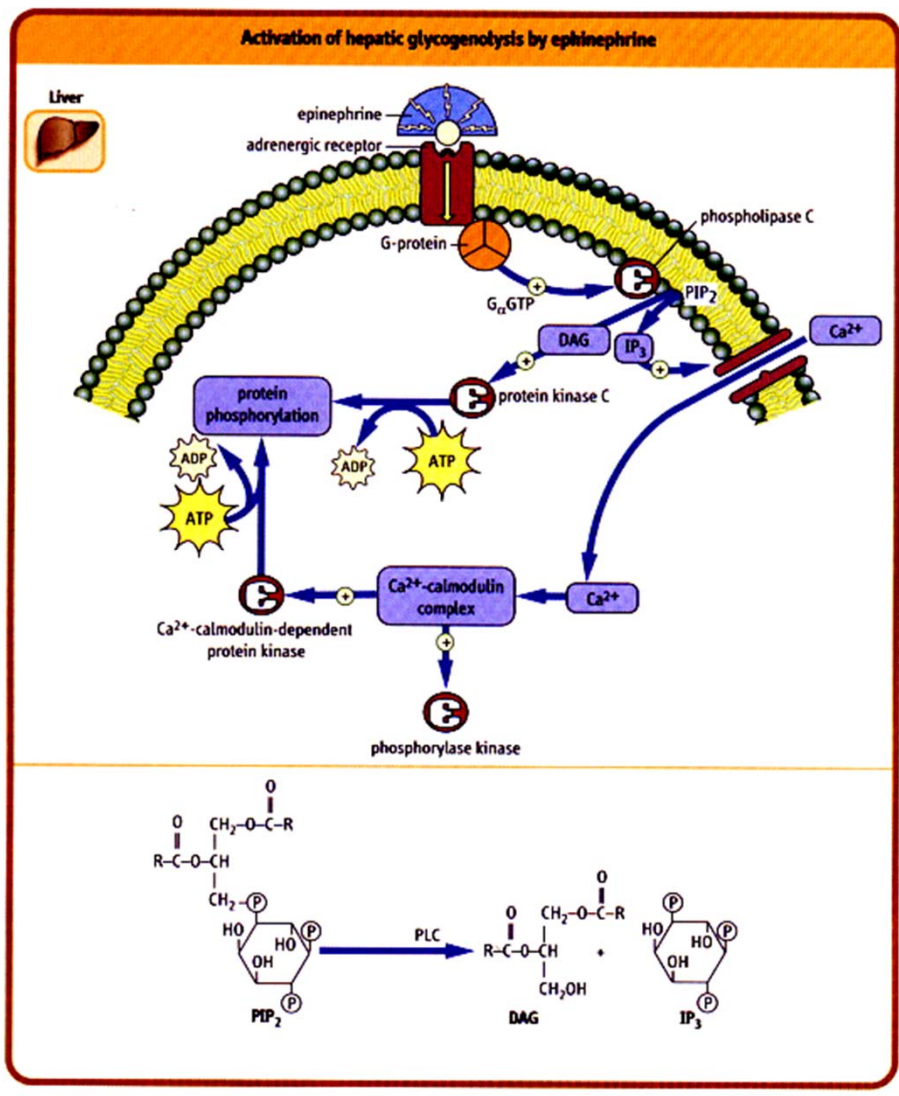


Epinephrine

Mobilizing hepatic glycogen

Carbohydrate Metabolism

Second Messengers



- **Epinephrine binds to α - and β -adrenergic receptors.**
- **Two pathways stimulated.**
- **β -receptor: similar to glucagon mechanism. G-proteins, cAMP.**
 - **Epinephrine response: augments glucagon's during severe hypoglycemia: rapid heartbeat, sweating, tremors and anxiety.**
- **α -receptor: G-proteins, active membrane isozyme of phospholipase C (PLC): specific for cleavage of membrane phospholipid (PL), and PIP₂.**
- **PIP₂ → DAG + IP₃, 2nd messengers.**
- **DAG activates PKC (like PKA).**
- **IP₃ promotes Ca²⁺ into cytosol.**
- **Ca²⁺ binds calmodulin: activates *phosphorylase kinase*, leads to activation of *glycogen phosphorylase*: glucose released to blood.**

Fig. 12.9 Glycogenolysis via α -adrenergic receptor

Protein kinase A in Muscle During Exercise

Carbohydrate Metabolism Activating Glycogenolysis

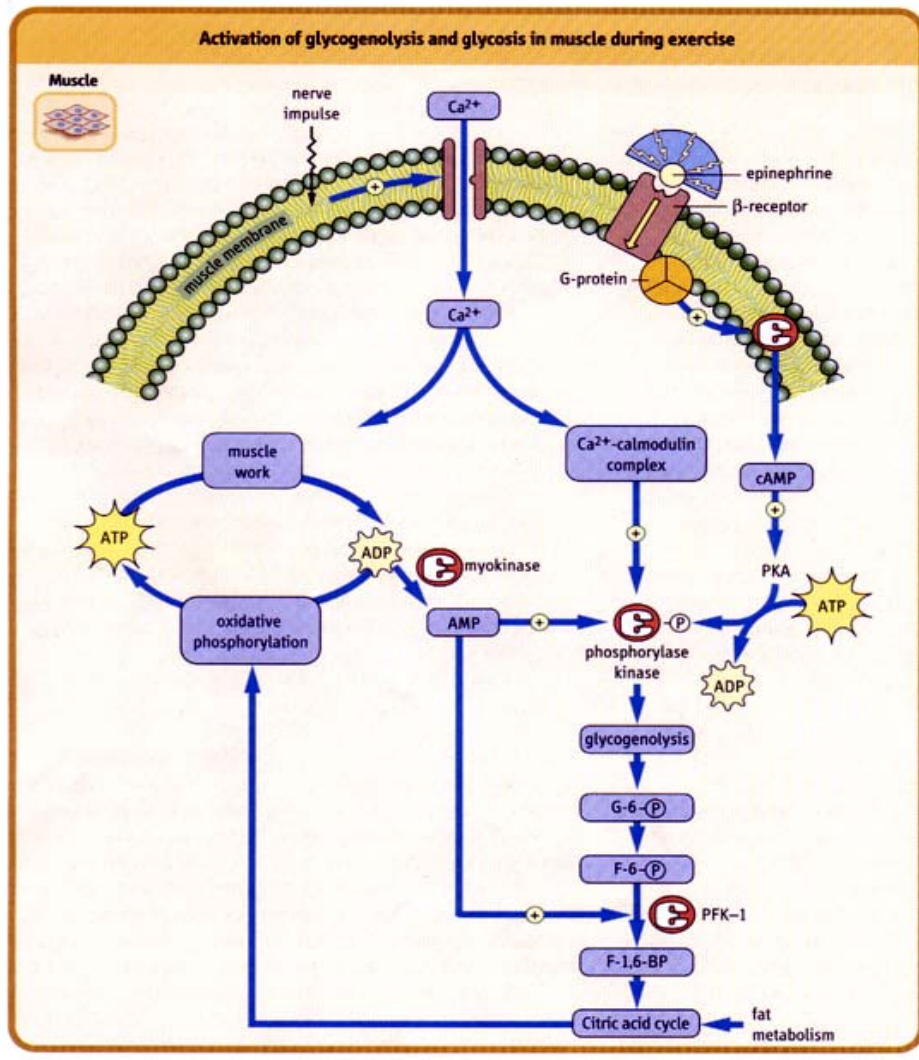


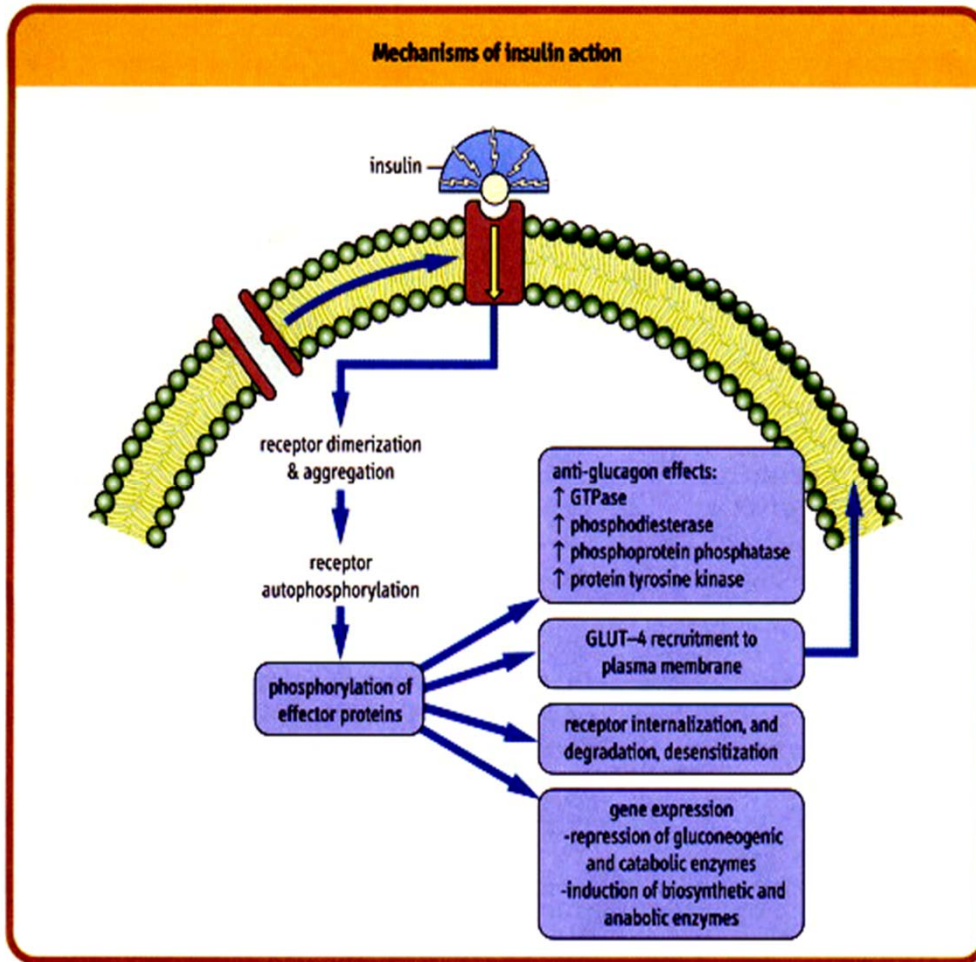
Fig 12.10 Regulation of PKA
in muscle.

Muscle lacks glucagon receptor and *G6Phosphatase* enzyme.

- Muscle reacts to epinephrine not glucagon.
- β -adrenergic receptor (cAMP) activates glycogenolysis for:
 - Fight or flight
 - Prolonged exercise
- 2 hormone independent modes:
 - Influx of Ca^{2+} activates *phosphorylase kinase* via Ca^{2+} –calmodulin complex.
 - AMP activates phosphorylase directly
- $2 \text{ADP} \leftrightarrow \text{ATP} + \text{AMP}; [\text{AMP}] \uparrow$
- AMP activates *phosphorylase*.

Regulatory effects by Insulin Receptor dimerization

Carbohydrate Metabolism Glycogenesis



■ Insulin's 2 main functions:

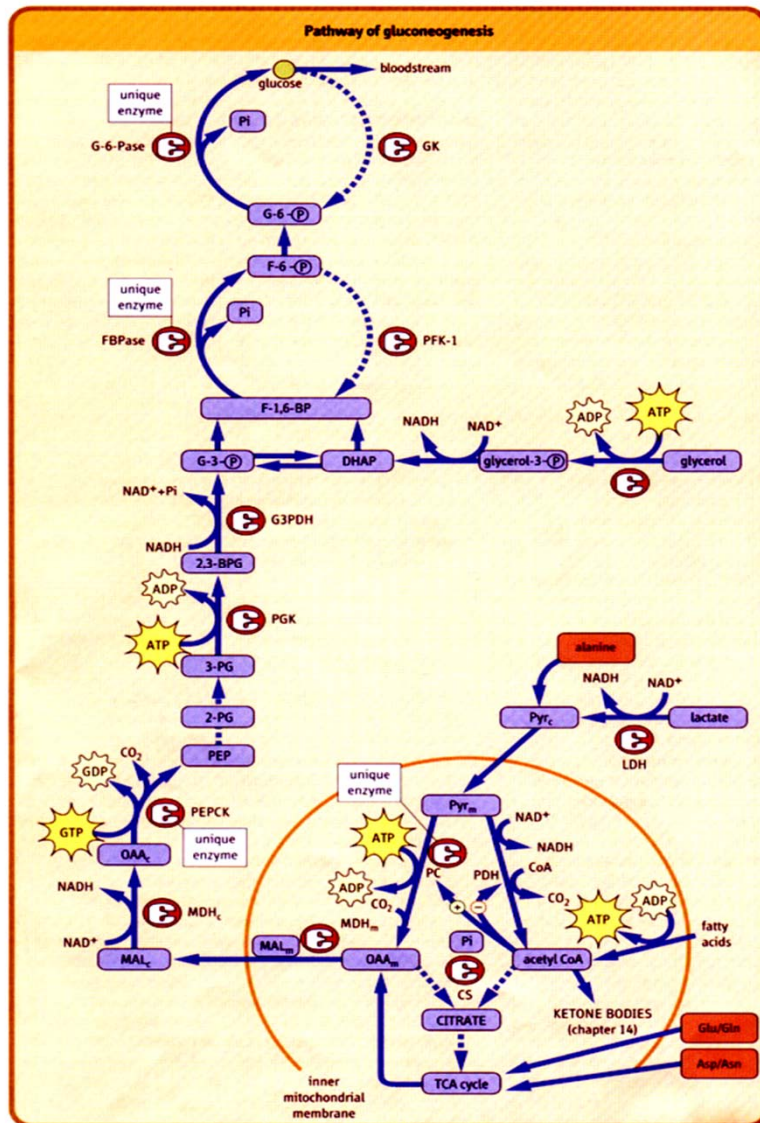
- lowers blood glucose by reversing the effect of glucagon's phosphorylation of enzymes and proteins.
- Stimulates gene expression of carbohydrate metabolism enzymes.

Fig 12.11 Regulatory effects of insulin on hepatic and muscle carbo metab.

Gluconeogenesis (GNG) Glucose from non carbohydrates

Carbohydrate Metabolism

Cytosol-Mitochondrion



3-Sources: Lactate, amino acids, glycerol

- **Gluconeogenesis:** essential during fasting and starvation, when hepatic glycogen depleted, to maintain blood glucose.
- **Energy and carbon source required:** oxidation of FA released from adipose tissue provides ATP; carbons from 3-sources.
- **Lactate from RBC and active muscle.**
- **Large muscle mass:** major source of glucogenic amino acids; transamination.
- **Glycerol from TGs: DHAP via glycerol-3P.**
- **3 glycolytic irreversible reactions: PK, PFK-1, GK** bypassed by phosphatases: FBPase, and G6Pase after PEPCKase
- **1,3BPG \rightleftharpoons 3PG is reversible, ΔG similar.**
- **Lactate cycle:** Cori cycle (ch 20). Muscle lactate and pyr \rightarrow liver-GNG \rightarrow glc, to muscle-glycolysis \rightarrow lactate
- **Glucose-alanine cycle:** [muscle: glc \rightarrow pyr \rightarrow ala] \rightarrow [liver: \rightarrow GNG \rightarrow glc] \rightarrow [muscle: glc \rightarrow pyr \rightarrow ala]...

Fig 12.12 Pathways of gluconeogenesis.

Regulating gluconeogenesis

Hormonal mechanisms

Carbohydrate Metabolism

Glycolysis vs. Gluconeogenesis

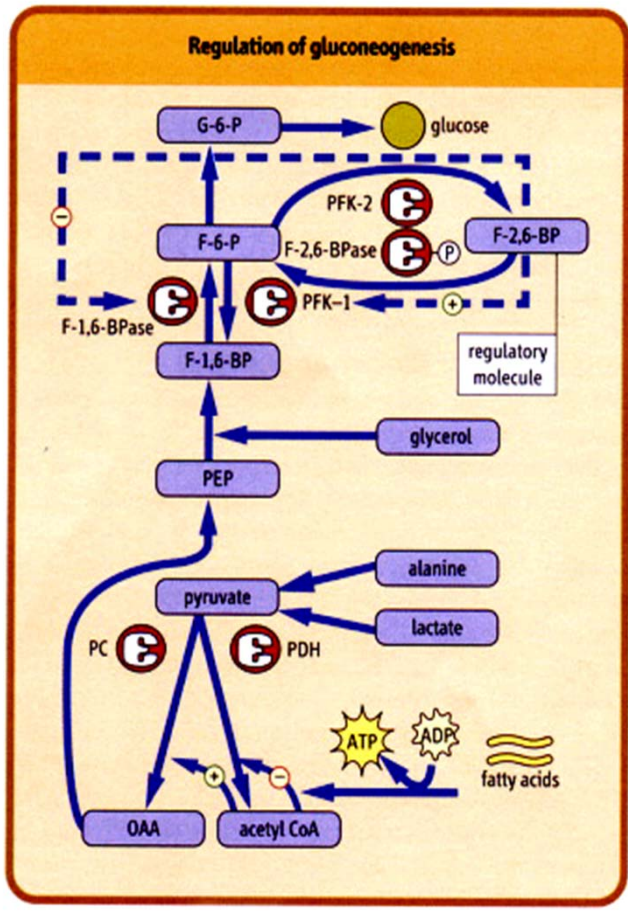


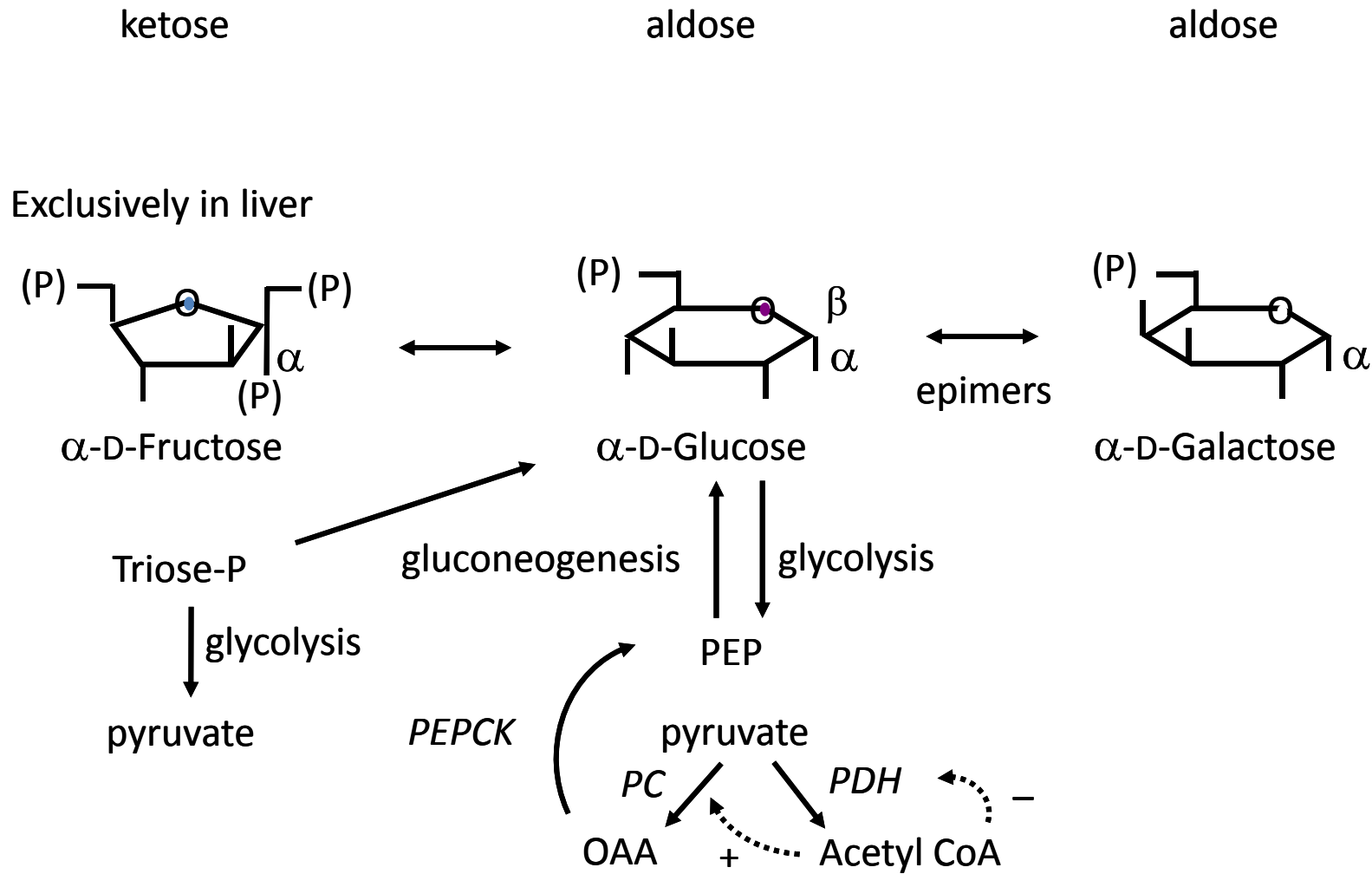
Fig. 12.13 Gluconeogenesis regulated by hepatic [F26BP] and [acetyl CoA]

Control: liver *PFK1* and *F1,6BPase*

- **Gluconeogenesis vs. glycolysis:** avoid a futile cycle; **active** GNG—inhibit glycolysis Enz-**P** or inactive GNG—**active** glycolysis. Enz
- **F26BP:** allosteric (+) regulator of **F16BP**. Made by:
- **PFK2:** F6P → F26BP; enhances glycolysis.
- **F26BPase:** F6P ← F26BP; enhances **GNG**.
- **PFK2/F26BPase:** a bifunctional, with 'P' switch:
- **PFK2/F26BPase** ⇌ **PFK2/F26BPase-P**
- **PFK1:** F6P → F16BP; F26BP ↑ Rx rate!
- **F16BPase:** F6P ← F16BP; F26BP inhibits **GNG**!
- **[acetyl CoA↑]:** slows TCA; act. **PC** [OAA↑]→Glc
- **Glucagon:** promotes **phosphorylation** (**PK**, inact.)
- **Insulin:** promotes **de-phosphorylation** (**PK** act.)
- During fasting: glucagon↑, **PK-P** inact, GNG↑, EM↓
- Eat Carbo meal: insulin↑, **PK** act, GNG↓, EM↑

Fructose and galactose Sugar Interconversions

Carbohydrate Metabolism Other sugars



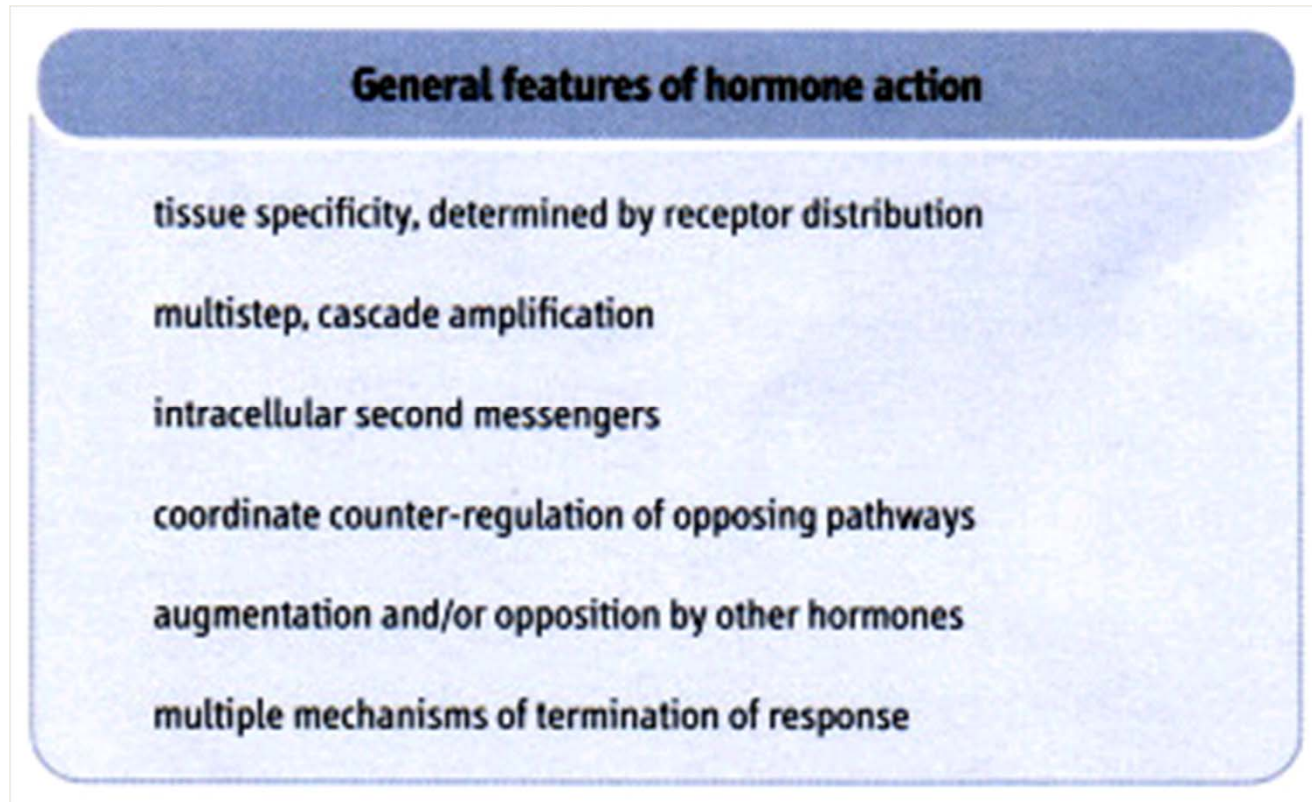


Fig. 12.14 Features of hormone action. Multihormonal regulation of gluconeogenesis illustrates fundamental principles of hormone action

- **Red cells and the brain – Have an absolute requirement for blood glucose for their energy metabolism.**
- **These cells consume about 80% of the glucose (200 g, 1.1 mol, ca. 1500 kcal) consumed per day by a 70 kg human, in good health.**
- **Blood and extra cellular fluid volume contains about 10 g glucose, which must be replenished constantly.**
- **Assumes a blood volume = 7 L, hematocrit = 45%, and no other distribution system operates.**
- **Normally, blood [glucose] range is between 4 – 6.5 mM
(about 80 – 120 mg/dL)**

- **Liver can synthesize glucose from *non carbohydrate* precursors.**
- **Amino acids supply carbon skeletons, as does glycerol.**
- **During starvation*, liver uses degraded muscle protein as the primary precursor of glucose; also lactate (from glycolysis) and glycerol (from fat).**
- **Fatty acids from triacylglycerides (TAGs) mobilized (from adipose tissue**) provide the energy for gluconeogenesis.**

* Metabolically may begin about 12 hours after the last meal.

** During well-fed states, excess glucose is converted to triacylglycerides (TGs) in adipose cells.

GLUT-2 transporter – getting GLUCOSE in and out of cell

- **A high capacity GLUT-2 transporter (low-affinity, $K_m > 10 \text{ mM}$) allows glucose free entry into and exit from liver cells across the plasma membrane.**
- **Liver cells have a large number of GLUT-2, so high [glucose] coming from the portal blood can easily enter the cytoplasm.**

Keeping glucose in the cell – investing for metabolism

- Glucokinase (GK) specifically phosphorylates glucose to glucose-6-phosphate (G6P) trapping glucose inside cell. Liver has copious amounts of GK.
- GK gene is inducible (more GK made) when a high carbohydrate diet is continued.
- $K_{m_{GK}} \sim 5\text{--}7 \text{ mM}$, GK becomes more active when portal blood [glucose] exceeds 5 mM (100 mg %).
- G6P is not a product inhibitor of GK! (G6P inhibits hexokinase)

What fates await G6P?

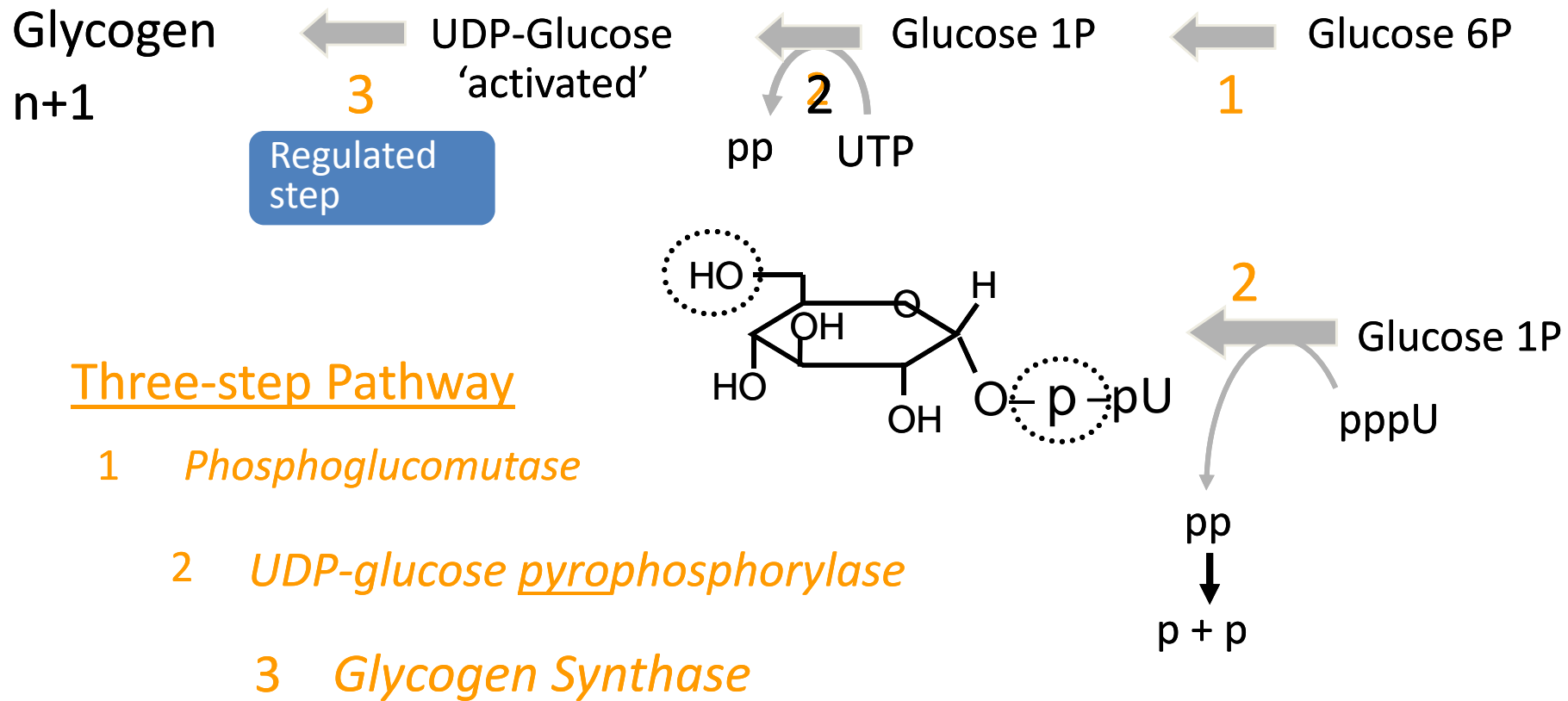
After a carbohydrate meal, G6P floods the cell via GK G6P forced into several major pathways:

- **Glycogenesis – yields highly branched, dense glucose polymer. After glycogen is replenished, then ...**
- **Glycolysis – oxidizes excess G6P to pyruvate (and lactate) for energy production and triglyceride (TAG) synthesis for export to adipose cells...and**
- **Pentose phosphate pathway – yields NADPH (and ribose and other sugars) for fatty acid synthesis (there goes the waistline!)**

'Activated' UDP-Glucose
step

Carbohydrate Metabolism Polymerization
Glycogenesis pathway

UDP-Glucose adds glucose to glycogen via **Glycogen Synthase**



{Octamer of Glucose—**glycogenin** protein} primer

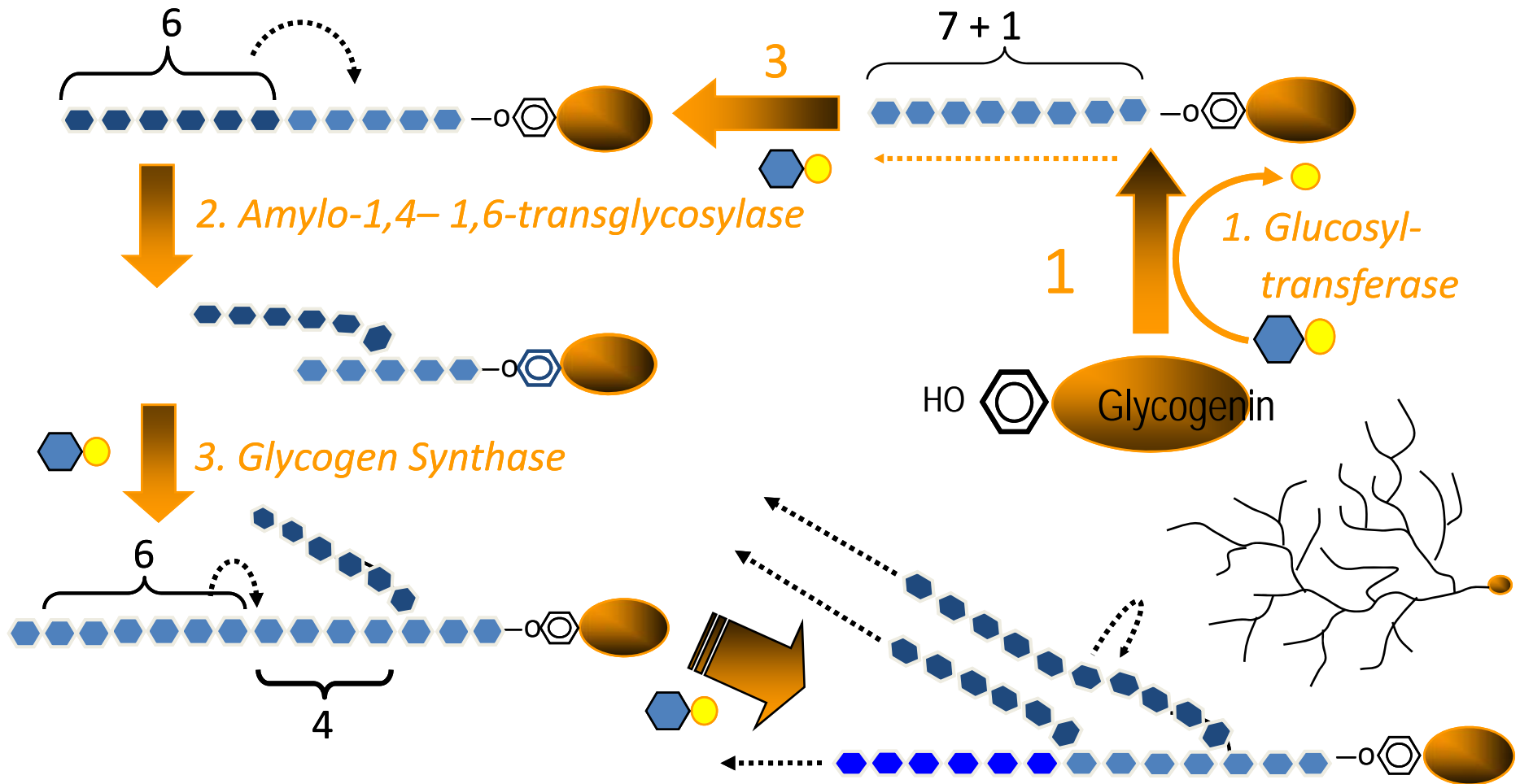
- Glycogen Synthase – requires glycogen primer eight α -1,4-linked glucose residues (at least).
- Primer = Glucose₈-Tyr_{C1}-Glycogenin (*Mr* 37,000 protein).
- Glycosyltransferase adds C₁ of Glu₁-ppU to a tyrosyl residue of **Glycogenin**; 7 UDP-Glu yield 8-mer Glucose₈-Glycogenin protein primer.
- **Glycogen Synthase** adds glu of UDP-glu to non reducing C₄-OH of Glucose-Glycogenin synthesizing a glycogen _{50,000} polymer.
- amylo-(1,4 to 1,6)-transglycolase creates the branches; transfers 6-mer to the C₆-OH so 4-residues separate branches formed by α -1,6-acetal linkage.
- All the enzymes required are associated with the glycogen for rapid synthesis of glycogen

Branching Glycogen
 α -1,6 acetal linkage

Carbohydrate Metabolism

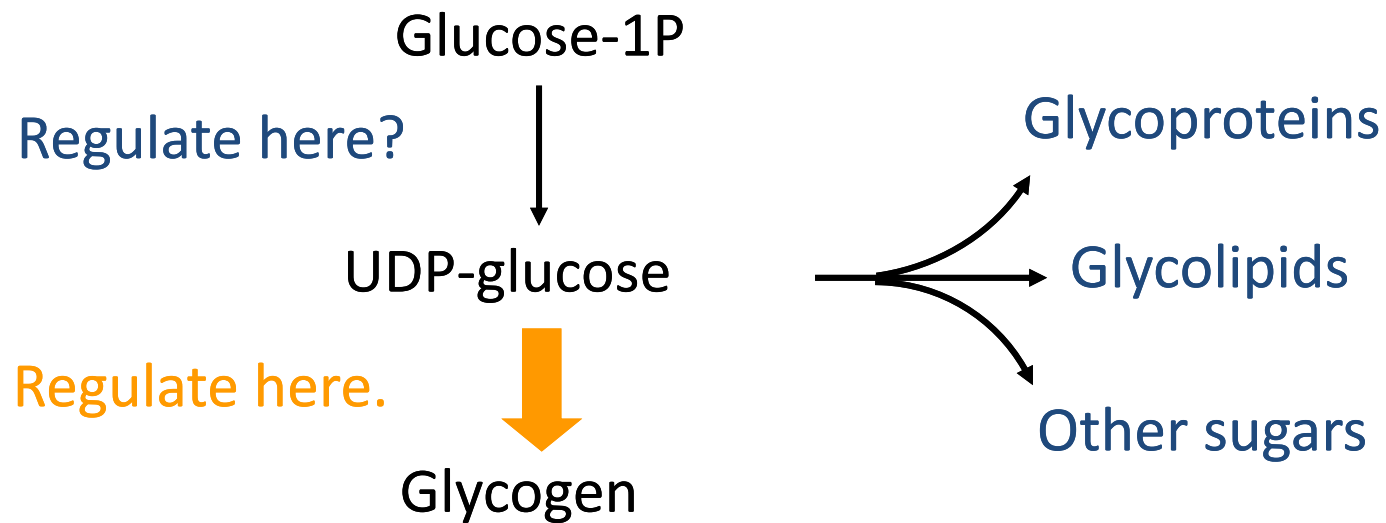
Glycogenesis pathway

UDP-glucose



Regulate a pathway after a branch branch*

- **Step 3, Glycogen synthase is regulated, not 1 or 2**



* Recall: Does the regulated, committed step of glycolysis (F1,6BP) follow this principle?

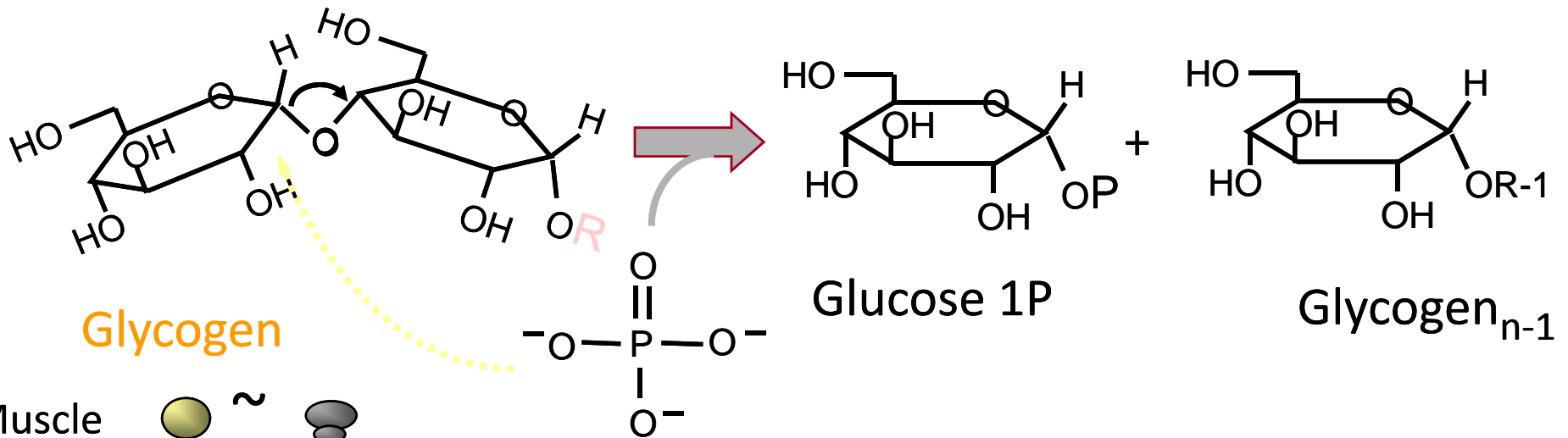
Polysaccharide Phosphorylases

Carbohydrate Metabolism

In Liver

Glycogenolysis

Using phosphate to cleave C—O bonds: phosphorolysis



Glycogen

Glucose 1P

Glycogen_{n-1}

Muscle

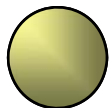


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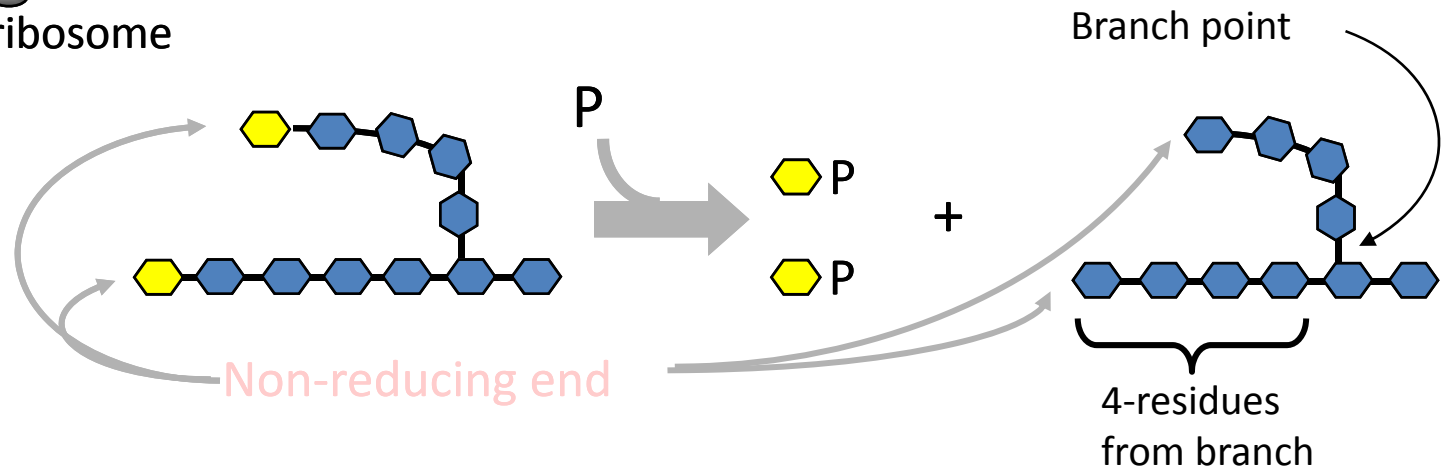


ribosome

Liver



* Glucose stored as glycogen or starch
animals plants



Glycogen Phosphorylase Liver vs. Muscle

Carbohydrate Metabolism Glycogenolysis Pathway

Fate of glycogen → glucose

