

Overview of
metabolism

Focus on carbohydrates:

Inborn errors of metabolism
Metabolic syndromes
Dietary disorders

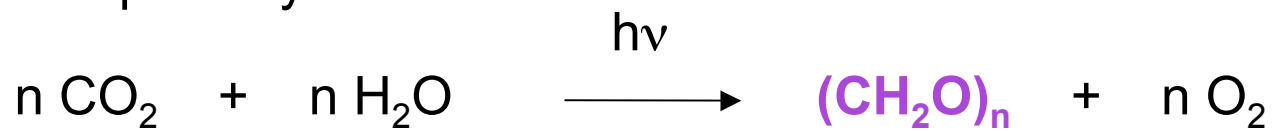
METABOLISM - understand how
energy and critical compounds are
stored, retrieved, and generated

Key knowledge base & conceptual questions

- Classify carbohydrates according to their definitions
- Discuss isomeric properties of carbohydrates
- Draw structures of the most common carbohydrates
- Discuss digestion of dietary carbohydrates

Carbohydrates

- Most abundant organic molecules in nature
- Sugars are aldehydes or ketones with two or more -OH groups
- Products of photosynthesis

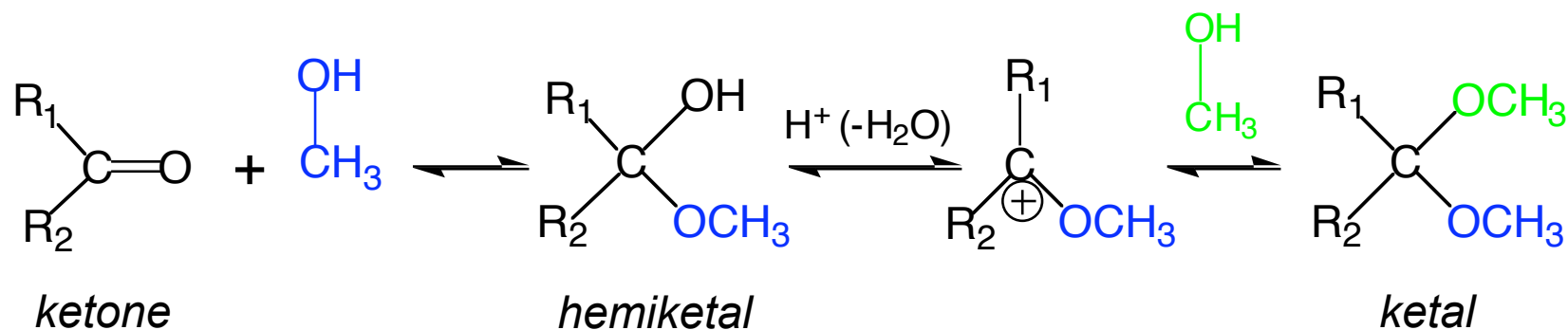
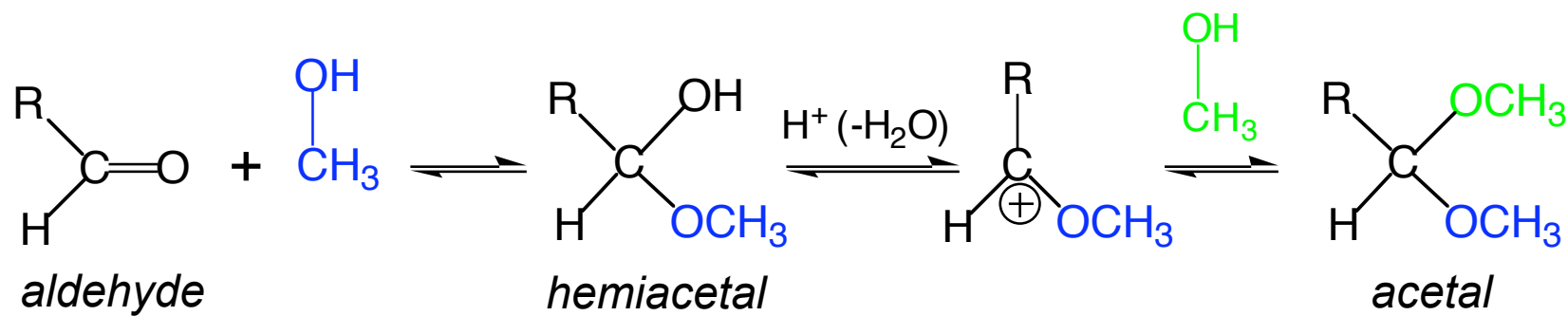


- Empirical formula
 - For simple carbohydrates, $(\text{CH}_2\text{O})_n$
 - Can be incorporated in nucleic acids and coenzymes as well as associated with proteins and lipids

Carbohydrate reactions

In living systems, an important class of reactions for sugars are reactions with an alcohol. These involve:

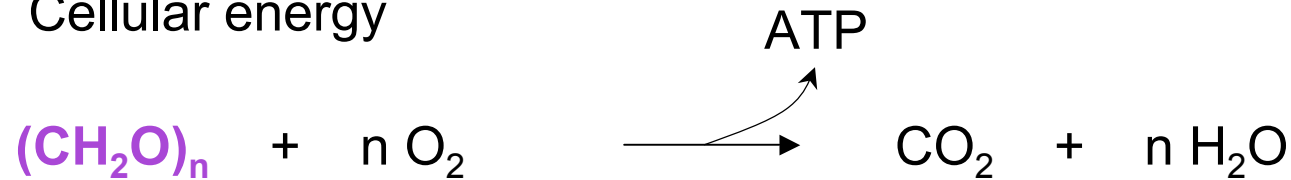
- *Formation of hemiacetals and hemiketals*
- *Formation of acetals and ketals*



Carbohydrate Function in Living Systems

- *Energy source*

- Cellular energy



- Storage form of energy

- *Structural element*

- Cell walls of bacteria
- Exoskeleton of many insects
- Fibrous cellulose of plants

- *Intercellular communication*

- Cell membrane components
- Cell surface antigens

Carbohydrate Classification:

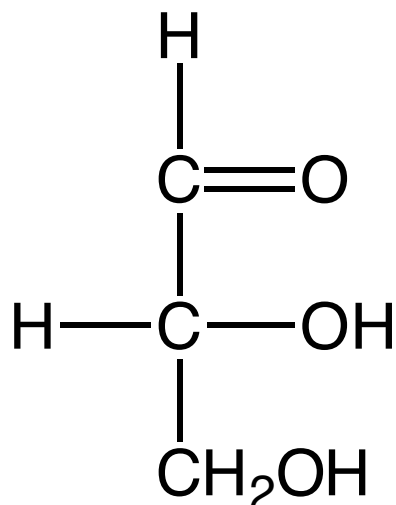
Monosaccharides

“Simple sugars”

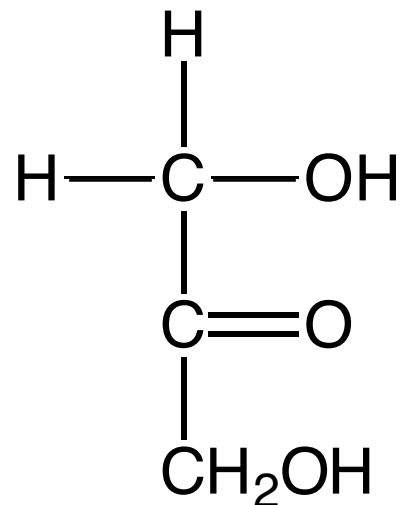
Polyhydroxy aldehydes or ketones that can't easily be further hydrolyzed

<u>Number of carbons</u>	<u>Name</u>	<u>Example</u>
3	Trioses	Glyceraldehyde
4	Tetroses	Erythrose
5	Pentoses	Ribose
6	Hexoses	Glucose, Fructose
7	Heptoses	Sedoheptulose
9	Nonoses	Neuraminic acid

Monosaccharides: Trioses (CH_2O)₃



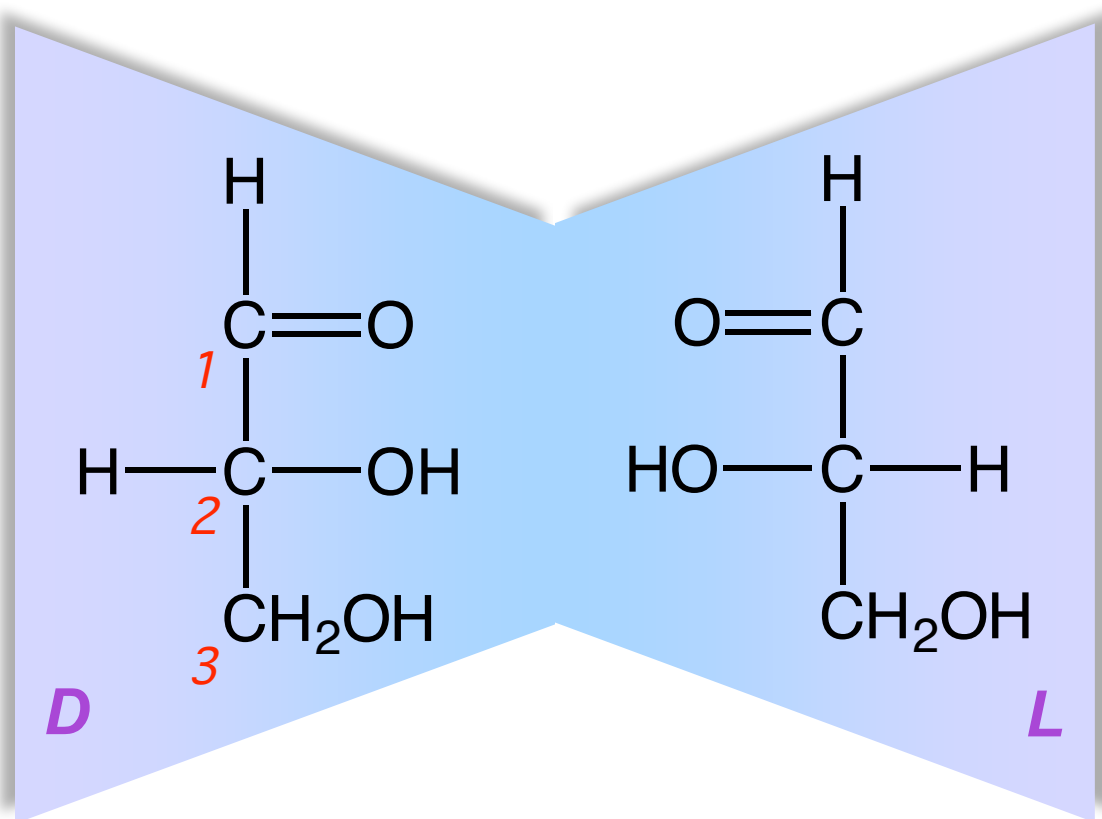
glyceraldehyde



dihydroxyacetone

Both can be written $\text{C}_3\text{H}_6\text{O}_3$ or $(\text{CH}_2\text{O})_3$

Monosaccharides: Trioses (CH_2O)₃

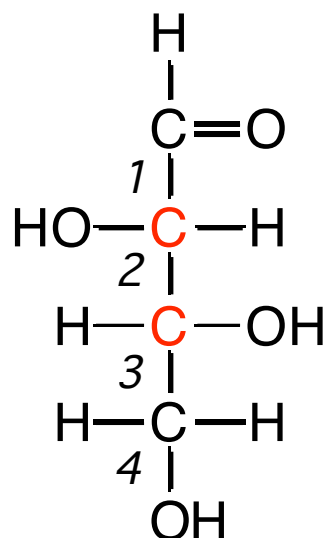


Glyceraldehyde has 1 chiral center.
(C with 4 different substituents)

The center may be D or L.

Enantiomer = mirror image

Monosaccharides: Tetroses (CH₂O)₄



threose

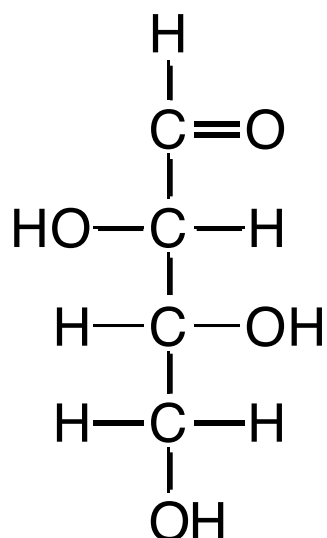
Aldo-tetroses have 2 chiral centers.

The prefix D or L refers to the orientation about the chiral carbon farthest from the carbonyl group.

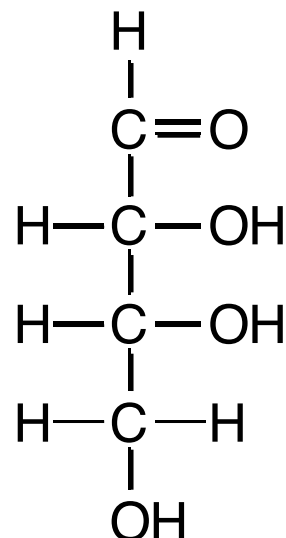
The C3 carbon provides the orientation of threose for enantiomeric names.

Related molecules with different orientations around the C2 carbon have different names.

Monosaccharides: Tetroses (CH₂O)₄



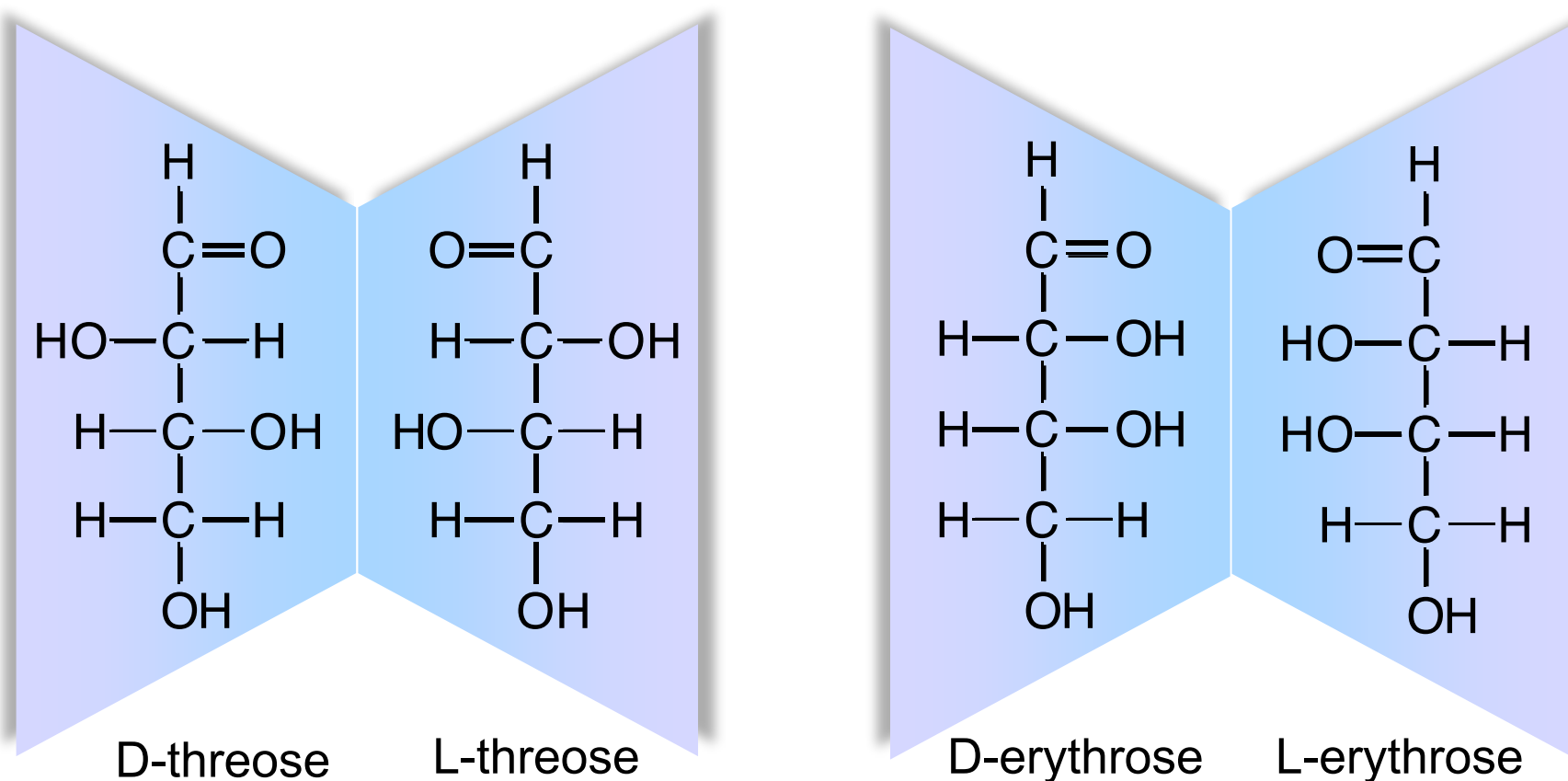
threose



erythrose

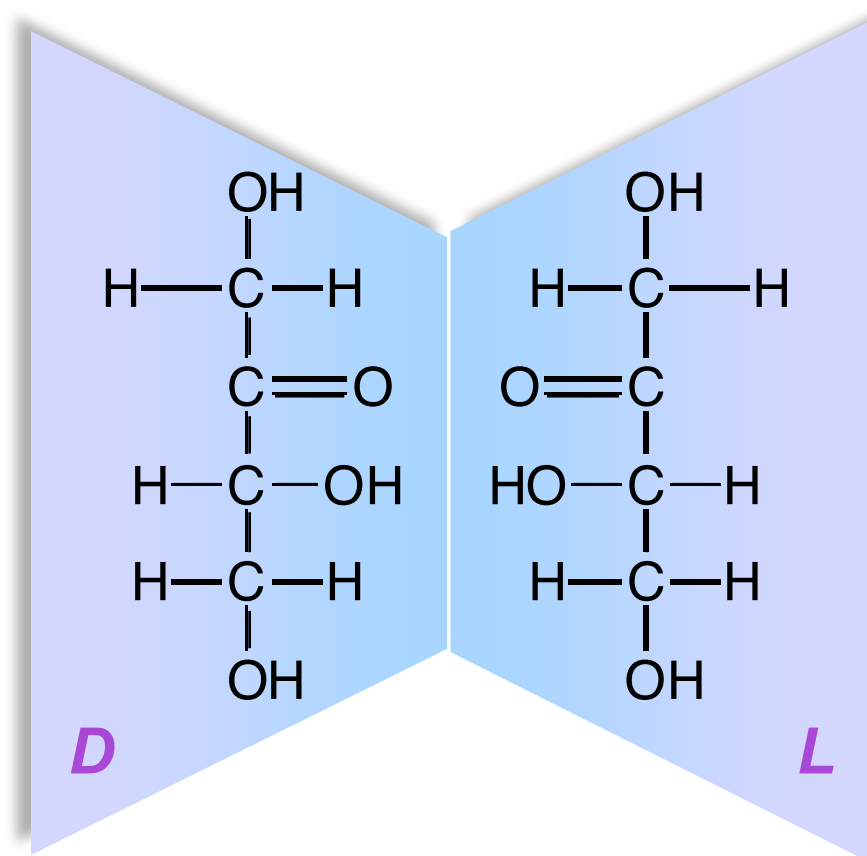
*Result: Aldo-tetroses come in two types.
Threose and erythrose are diastereoisomers.
(2ⁿ stereoisomers, where n = number of chiral centers)*

Monosaccharides: Tetroses (CH_2O)₄



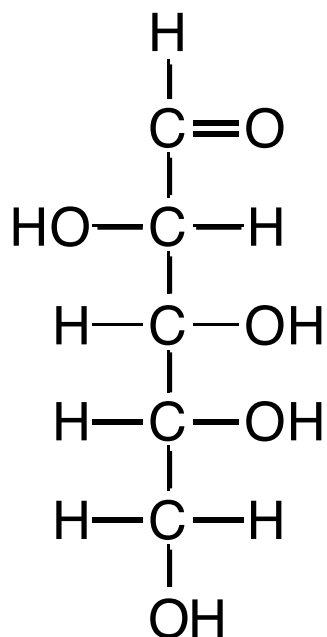
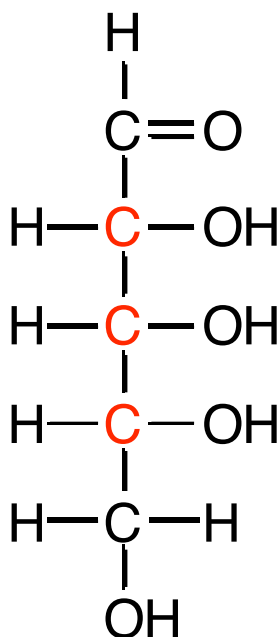
*Aldo-tetroses have 2 chiral centers and 4 stereoisomers.
(2^n stereoisomers, where n = number of chiral centers)*

Monosaccharides: Tetroses (CH_2O)₄

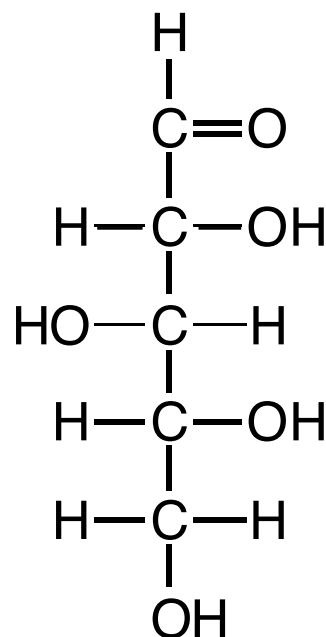


Keto-tetroses: Erythrulose has only one chiral carbon, and thus only one pair of enantiomers.

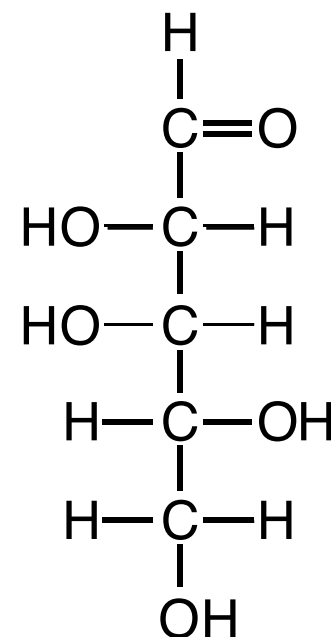
Monosaccharides: Pentoses (CH_2O)₅



D-arabinose



D-xylose



D-lyxose

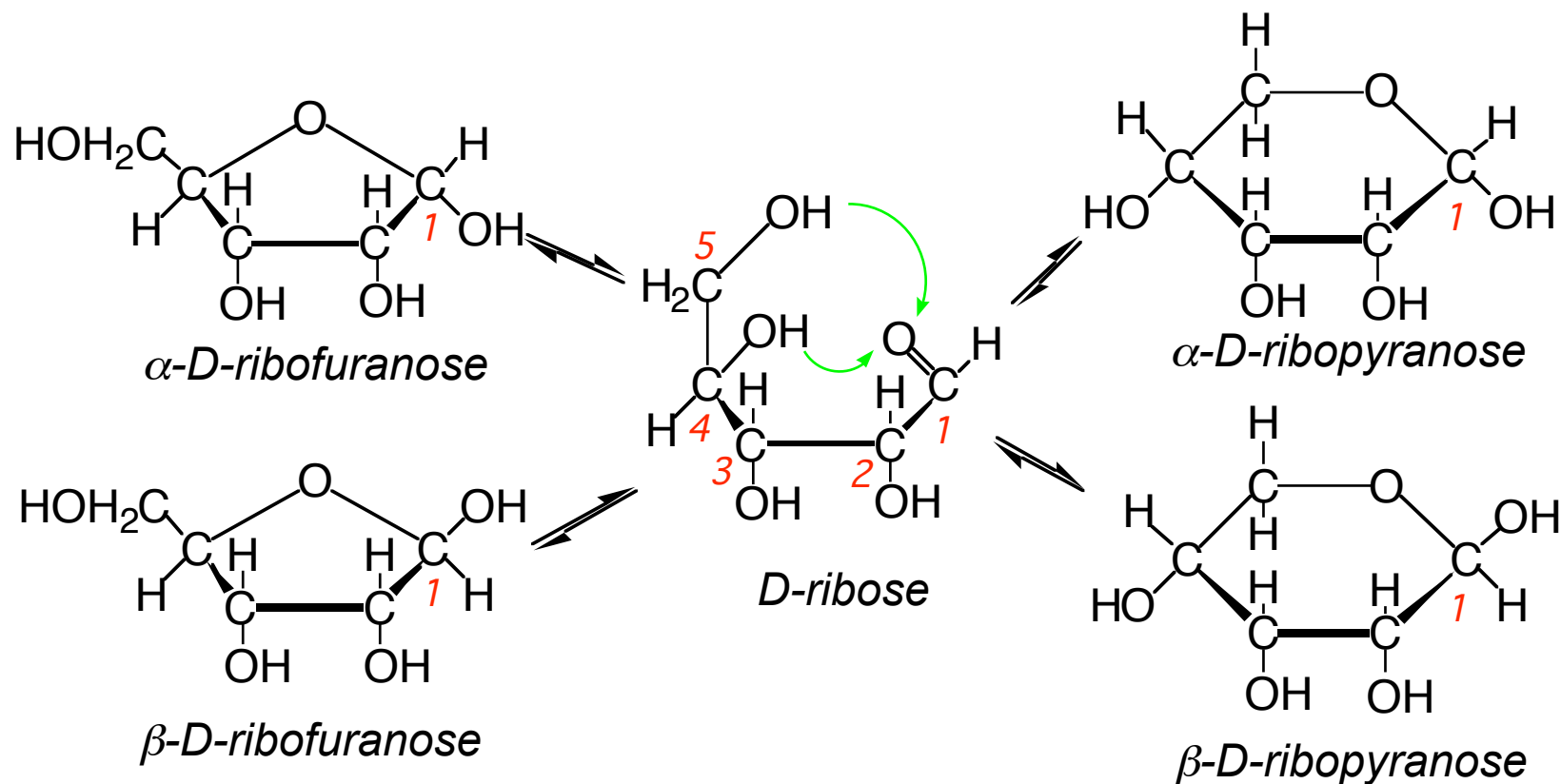
Aldo-pentoses have 3 chiral carbons.

$2^3 = 8$ stereoisomers, i.e. 4 pairs of enantiomers

Monosaccharide cyclization

When $n > 5$, monosaccharides form stable ring structures.
Aldols form internal 'hemiacetals' (alcohol + aldehyde \longrightarrow hemiacetal)

Cyclization produces a new chiral center.
Therefore, 2 cyclic stereoisomers are formed, α and β , differing in configuration at C-1, and called anomers.

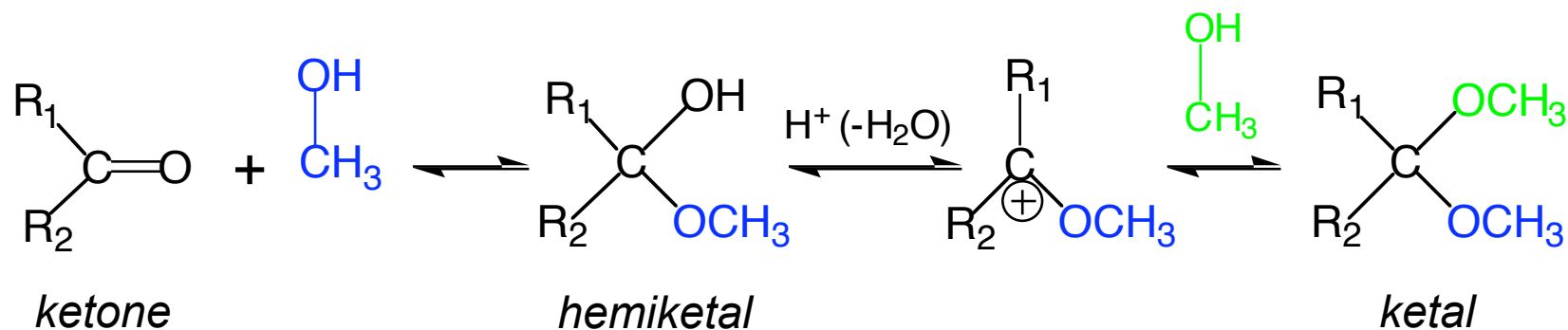
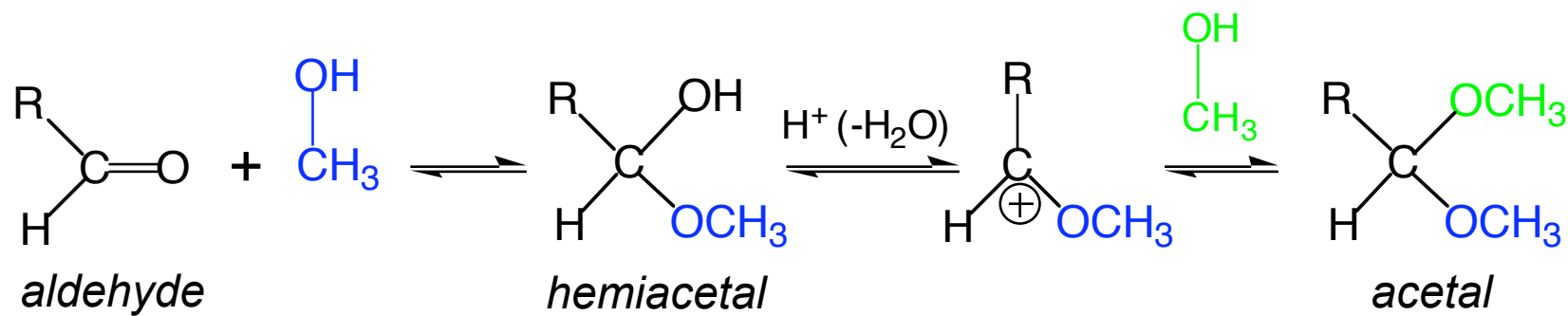


Carbohydrate reactions

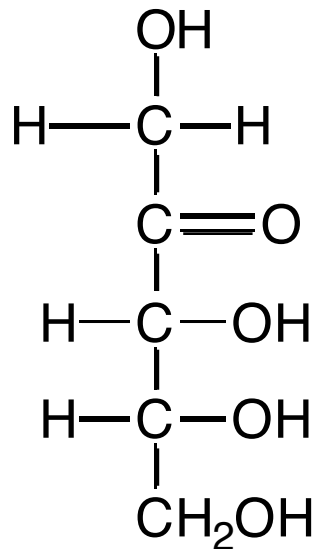
- Formation of hemiacetals and hemiketals

Important hemiacetals and hemiketals are **intramolecular**.

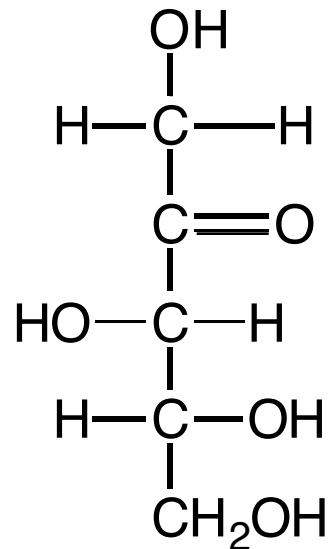
Intramolecular hemiacetals and hemiketals are essential for the formation of monosaccharide rings.



Monosaccharides: Pentoses (CH_2O)₅

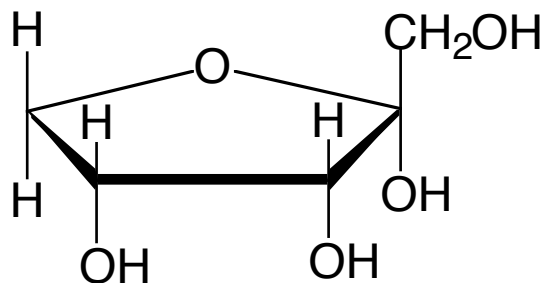


D-ribulose



D-xylulose

Keto-pentoses have 2 chiral carbons, and thus 4 stereoisomers and 2 enantiomer pairs.



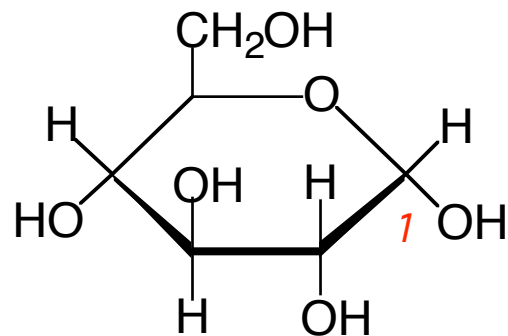
α -D-ribulose

Cyclization forms an internal 'hemi-ketal'.

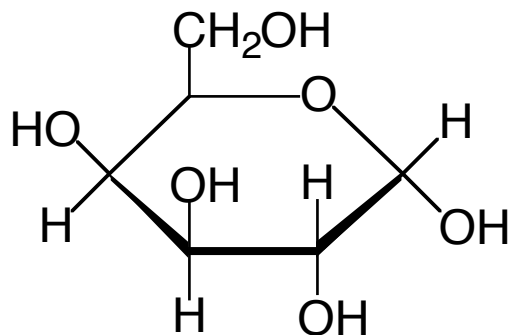
Monosaccharides: Hexoses (CH_2O)₆

Aldo-hexoses have 4 chiral carbons, and thus 16 stereoisomers and 8 enantiomer pairs.

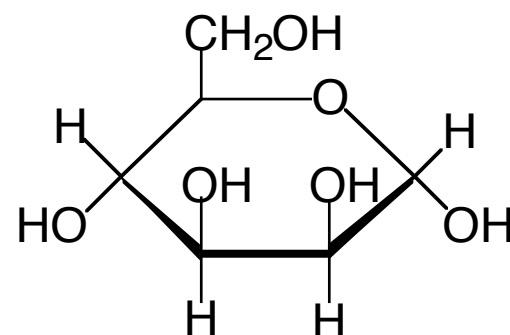
Cyclization of aldo-hexoses leads to pyranose forms, which may be α or β at C-1 (anomers).



β -D-glucopyranose



β -D-galactopyranose

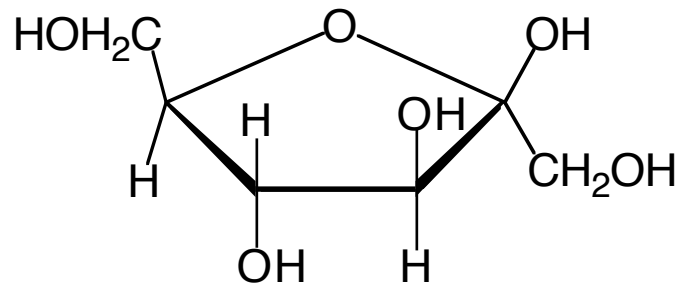


β -D-mannopyranose

Monosaccharides: Hexoses (CH_2O)₆

Keto-hexoses have 3 chiral carbons, and thus 8 stereoisomers and 4 enantiomer pairs.

Cyclization of keto-hexoses leads to furanose forms, which may be α or β at C-1 (anomers).



β -D-fructofuranose

Heptoses (CH_2O)₇ and octoses (CH_2O)₈ do exist,
but they are rare in nature

Summary of carbohydrate isomerism nomenclature

Configurational isomers:

<i>ISOMER</i>	<i>DEFINITION</i>	<i>EXAMPLE</i>
enantiomers	stereoisomers that are mirror images of one another	D-threose & L-threose
diastereoisomers	stereoisomers that are not enantiomers of one another	D-threose & D-erythrose
anomers	stereoisomers of ring structures - they differ in configuration about C-1	α -D-glucopyranose & β -D-glucopyranose
epimers	D-sugars differing in configuration at a single chiral center	D-glucose & D-mannose

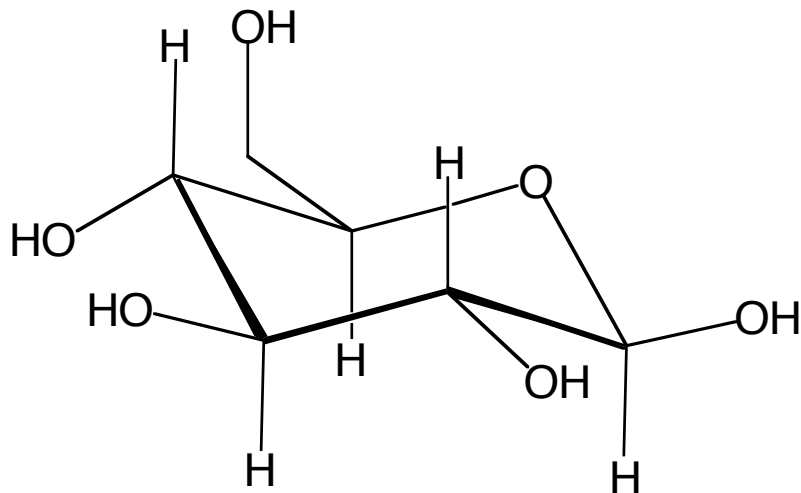
Conformational isomers

molecules with the same stereochemical configuration, but differing in 3-dimensional conformation

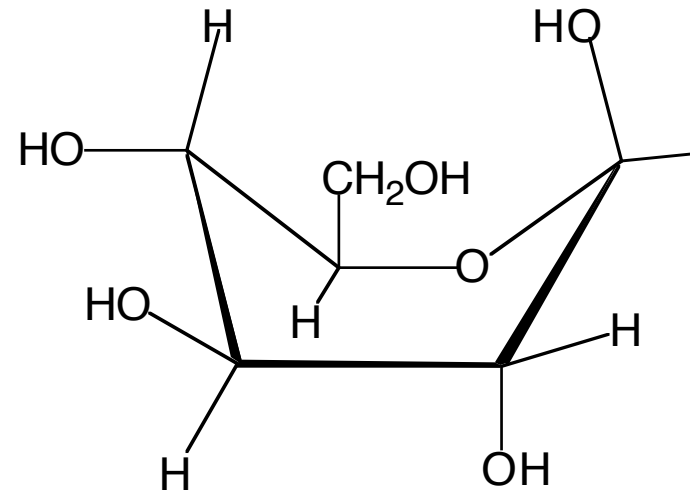
chair & boat form of β -D-glucopyranose

Conformational isomers

Conformations of pyranose rings: chair and boat

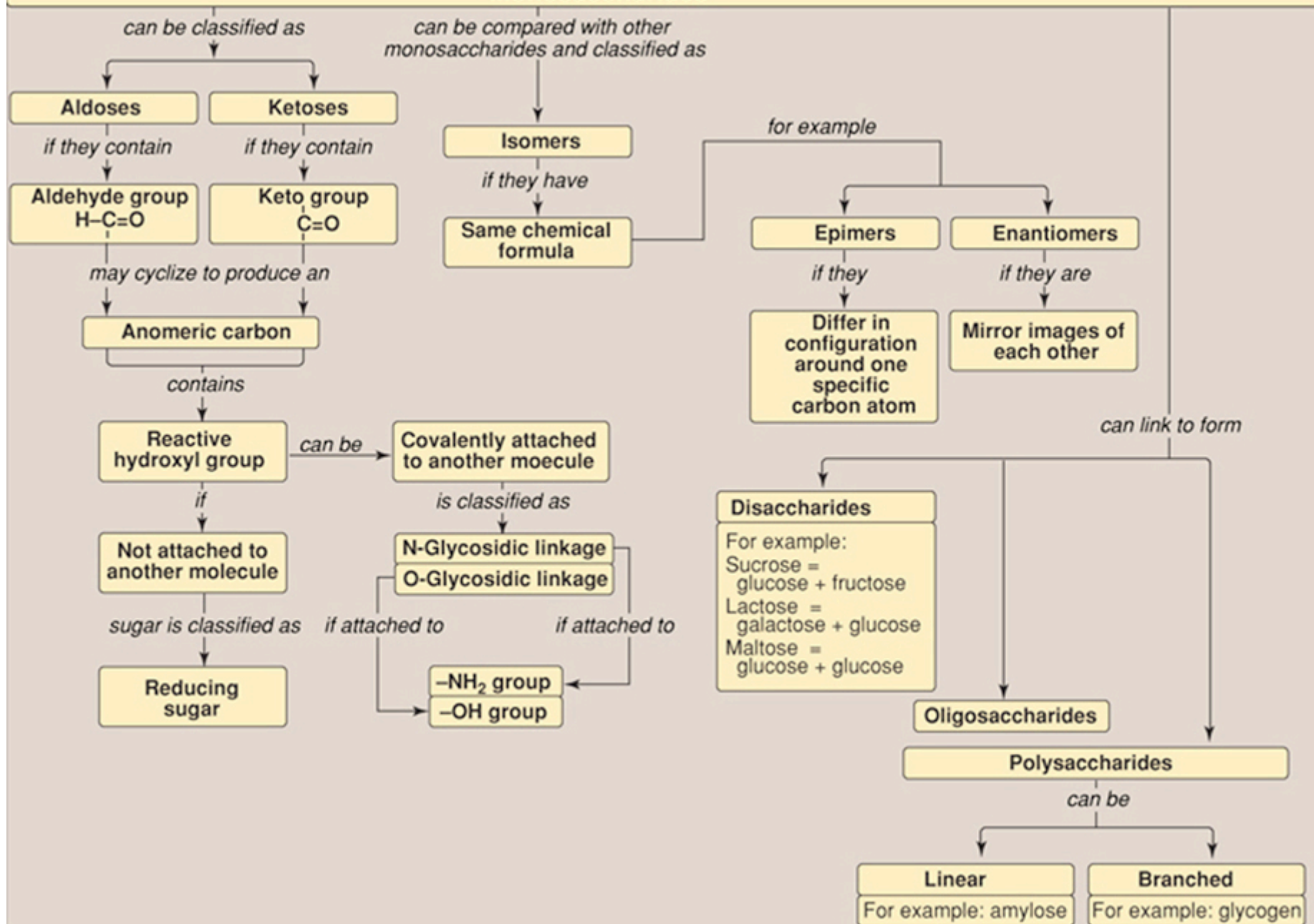


β -D-glucopyranose
chair form



β -D-glucopyranose
boat form

Monosaccharides

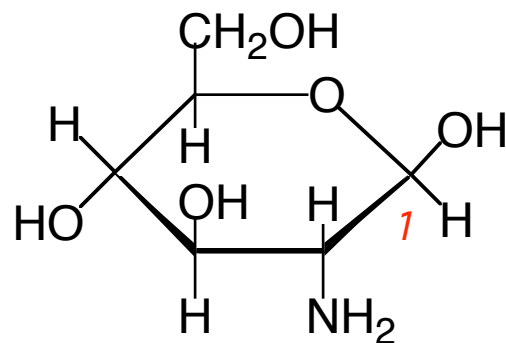


Derivatives of monosaccharides

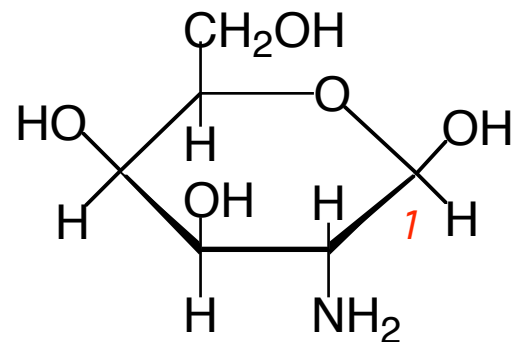
- May be produced by replacing an -OH group **with** another substituent
- May be produced by attaching **to** an -OH group of another substituent

Examples:

1. Amino sugars



β -D-glucosamine



β -D-galactosamine

Derivatives of monosaccharides

2. Phosphate esters

ATP
nucleic acids

glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate
glucose-1-phosphate
glucose-6-phosphate
fructose-6-phosphate

Hydrolysis to yield sugar + P_i $\Delta G^\circ = -12$ to -20 kJ/mol

Therefore, ATP can act as a phosphate donor to these sugars and the phosphosugar hydrolysis can drive other coupled, unfavorable reactions.

The phosphate esters of sugars can behave as ‘activated’ compounds in some metabolic reactions.

Glycosidic bonds

Simple sugars are linked in glycosidic bonds to form disaccharides and polysaccharides.

In disaccharides and polysaccharides,

- 1. The glycosidic bond is formed by elimination of water between one anomeric hydroxyl of a cyclic monosaccharide, and the hydroxyl group of a second sugar.*
- 2. The glycosidic bond is named for*
 - a) The configuration (α or β) of the -OH at the anomeric carbon,*
 - b) The number of the anomeric carbon*
 - c) The number of the carbon in the other linked, sugar unit*

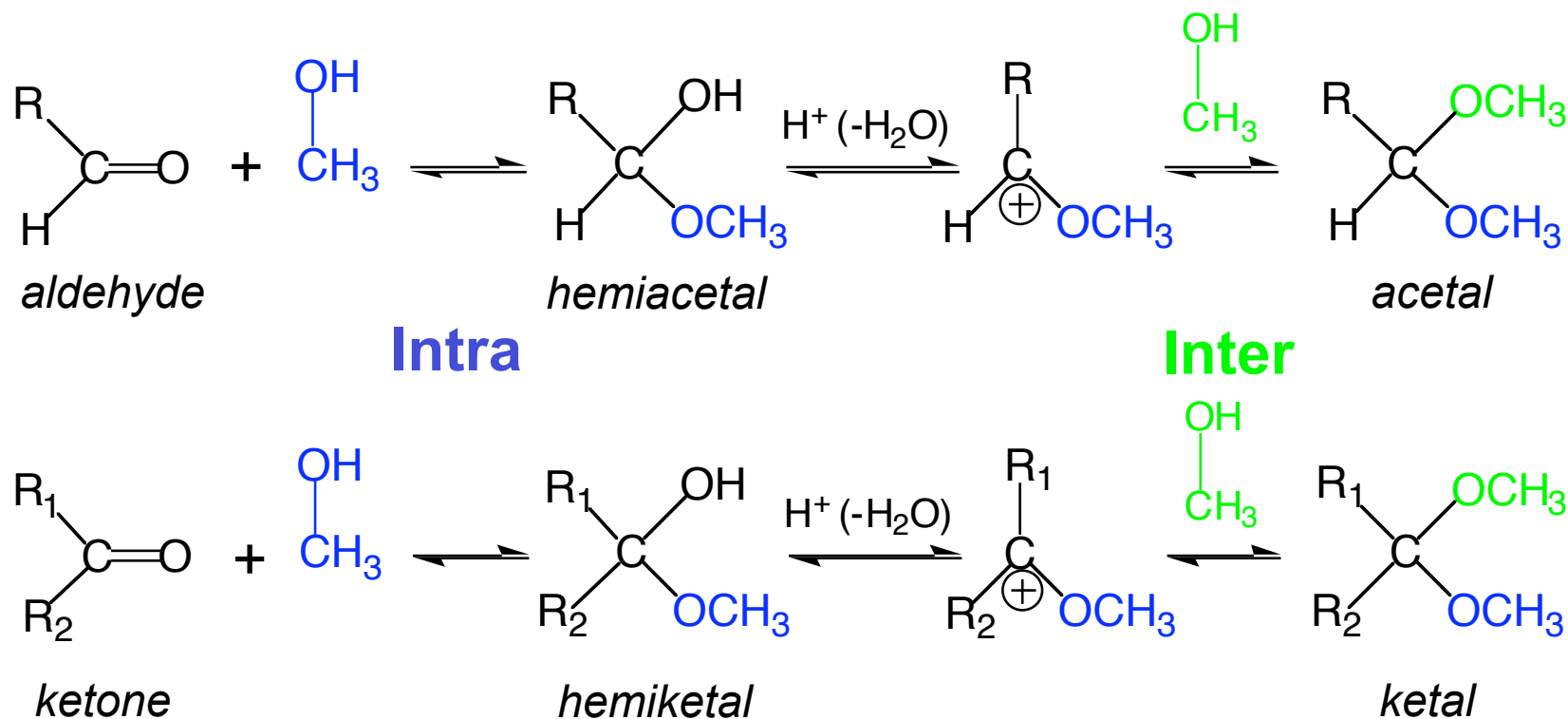
Example: lactose = galactose- β (1 \rightarrow 4)-glucose

Carbohydrate reactions

- Formation of acetals and ketals

The important acetals and ketals are glycosides.

When the 2nd alcohol is another sugar, the compound is a disaccharide and the linkage is called a glycosidic bond.

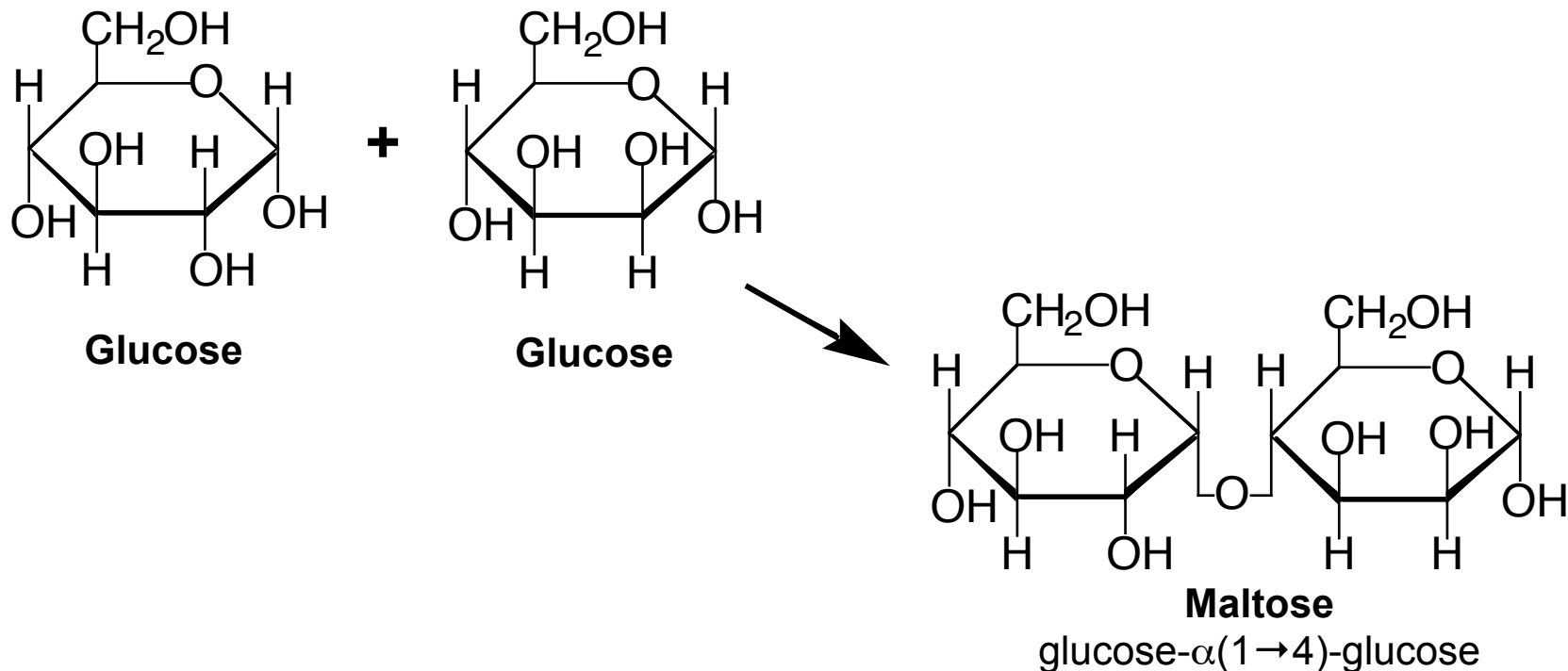


Carbohydrate reactions

- *Formation of acetals and ketals*

The important acetals and ketals are glycosides.

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Glycosidic bonds

In disaccharides and polysaccharides,

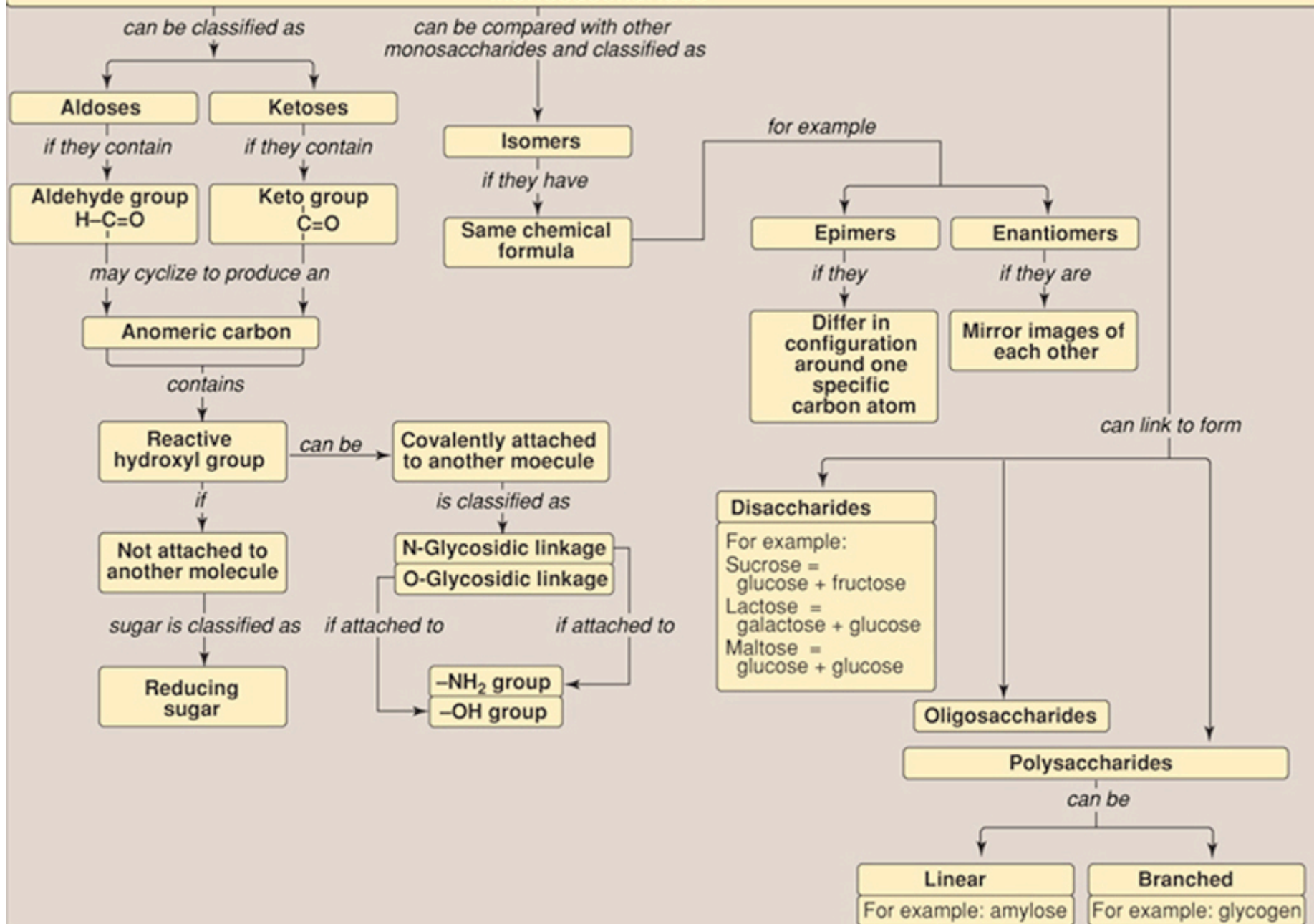
- 3. The sugar unit with a free anomeric carbon is the ‘**reducing**’ end of the disaccharide or polysaccharide.*

*The sugar unit with its anomeric carbon tied up in the glycosidic linkage is called the ‘**non-reducing**’ end.*

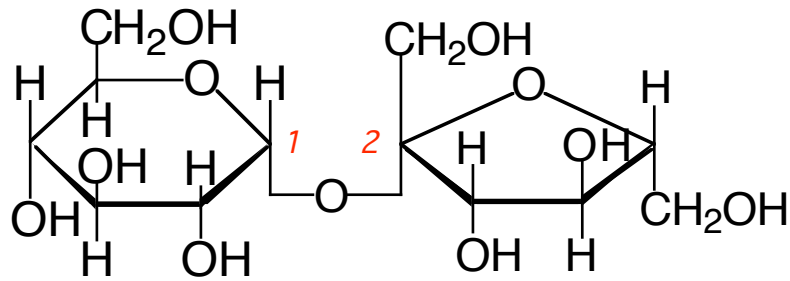
‘Reducing’ = has a potentially free aldehyde group in the linear form (not cyclized).

A free aldehyde can be oxidized by oxidizing agents such as alkaline copper (II) which gives a red color when it reacts with aldoses to give Cu_2O .

Monosaccharides



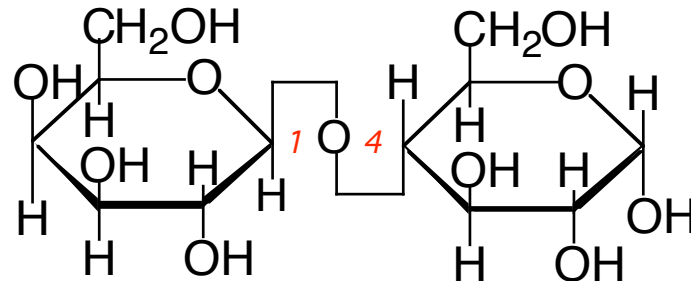
Disaccharides



Sucrose

glucose- $\alpha(1 \rightarrow 2)$ -fructose

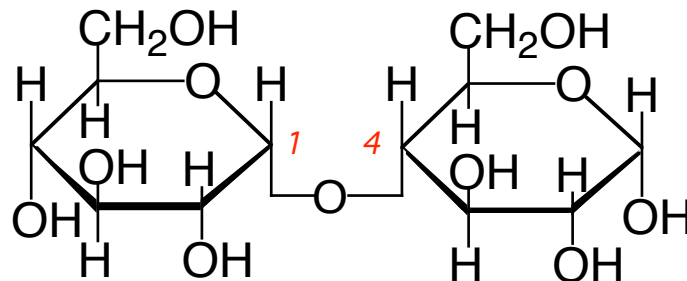
cleaved by sucrase



Lactose

galactose- $\beta(1 \rightarrow 4)$ -glucose

cleaved by lactase

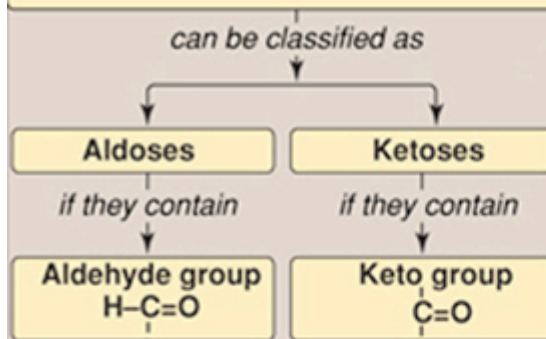


Maltose

glucose- $\alpha(1 \rightarrow 4)$ -glucose

cleaved by maltase

Monosaccharides



Disaccharides

Hydrolyzable polymers of
2 monosaccharides

Oligosaccharides

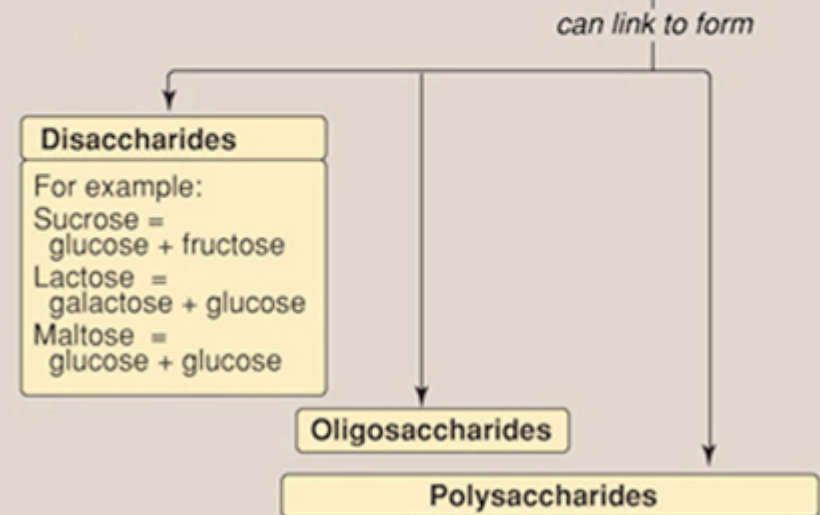
Hydrolyzable polymers of
3-12 monosaccharides

Polysaccharides

Hydrolyzable polymers of > 12
monosaccharides

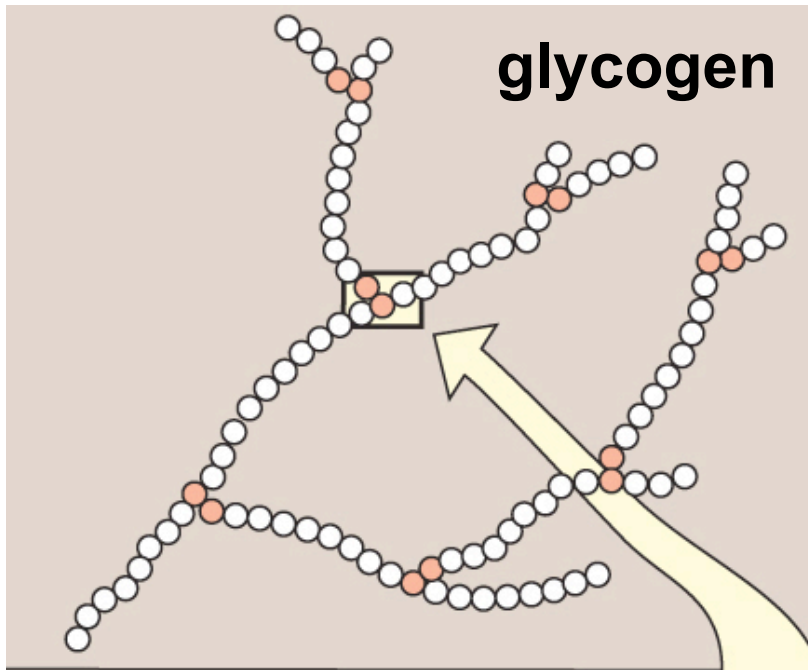
Homopolysaccharide

Heteropolysaccharide



Polysaccharides

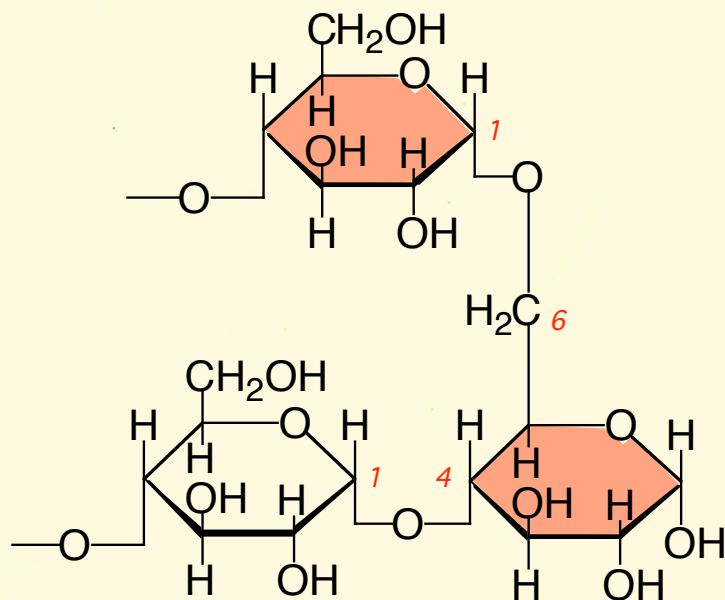
Type of polysaccharide	Function	Building units	Glycosidic bond linkage
Glycogen	Storage in animals	Branched polymer of glucose	α 1,4 and α 1,6
Starch	Storage in plants	Unbranched or branched polymer of glucose	α 1,4 (amylose) α 1,6 (amylopectin)
Cellulose	Structure in plants	Unbranched polymer of glucose	β 1,4



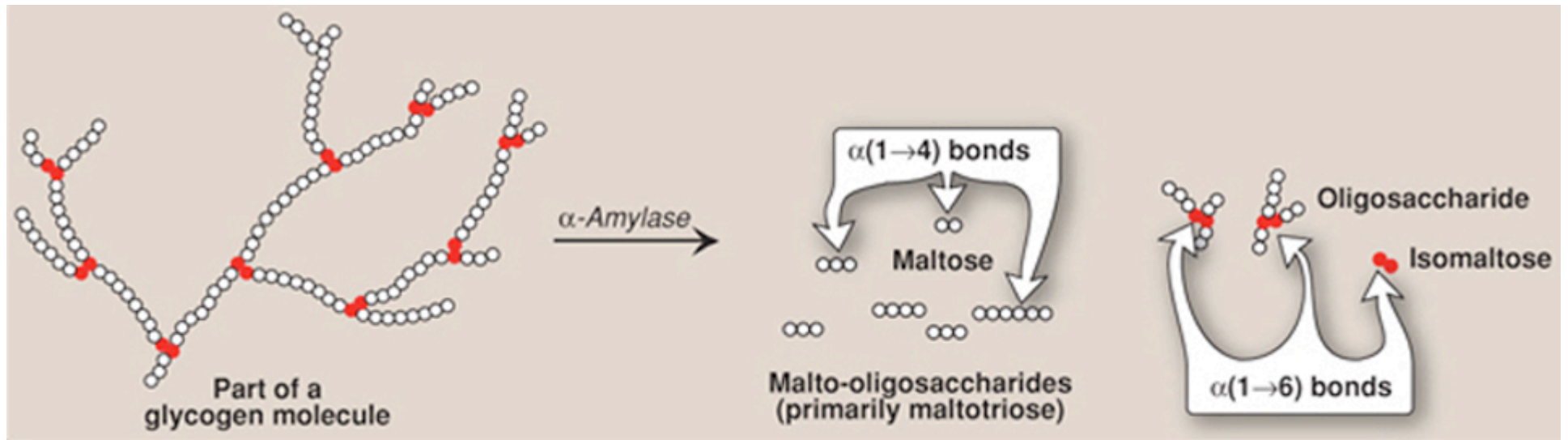
Polysaccharides: glycogen

Some polysaccharides are branched.

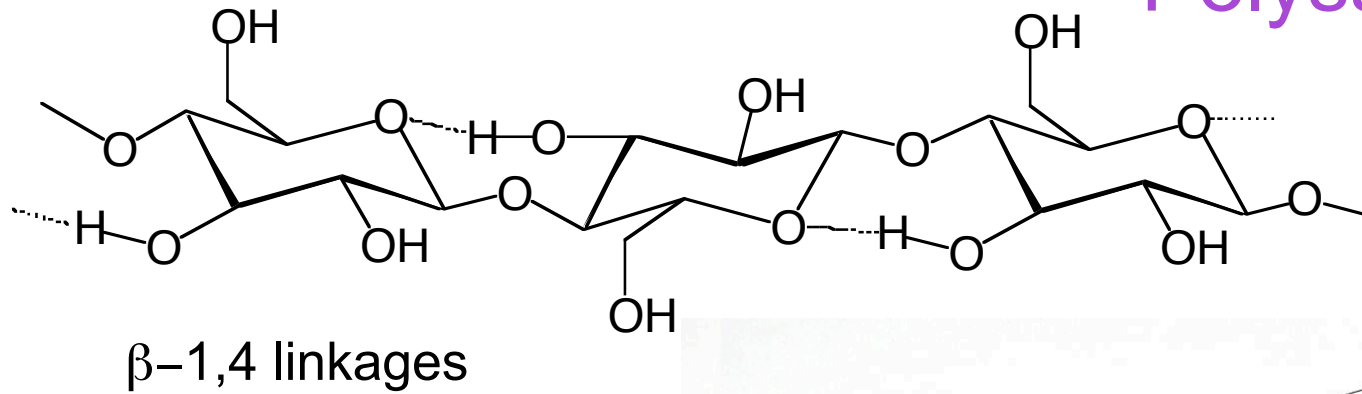
Chemical bonds at the branch points are different from those in the linear polysaccharide.



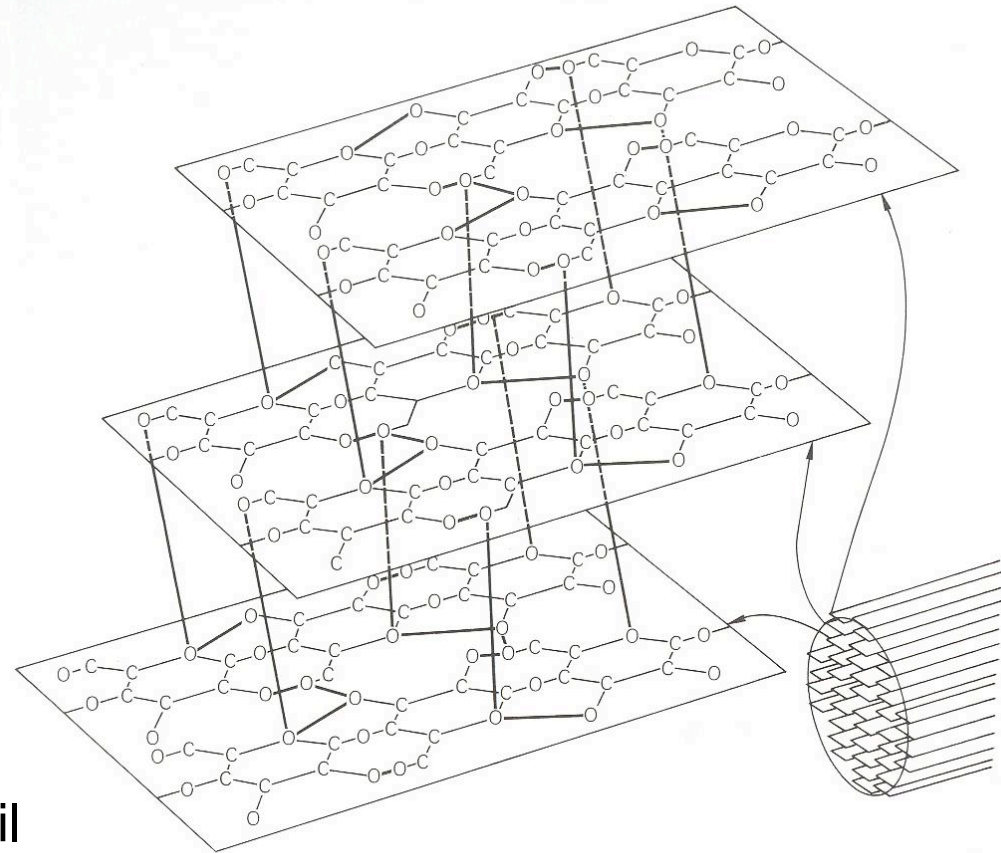
Polysaccharides: glycogen breakdown



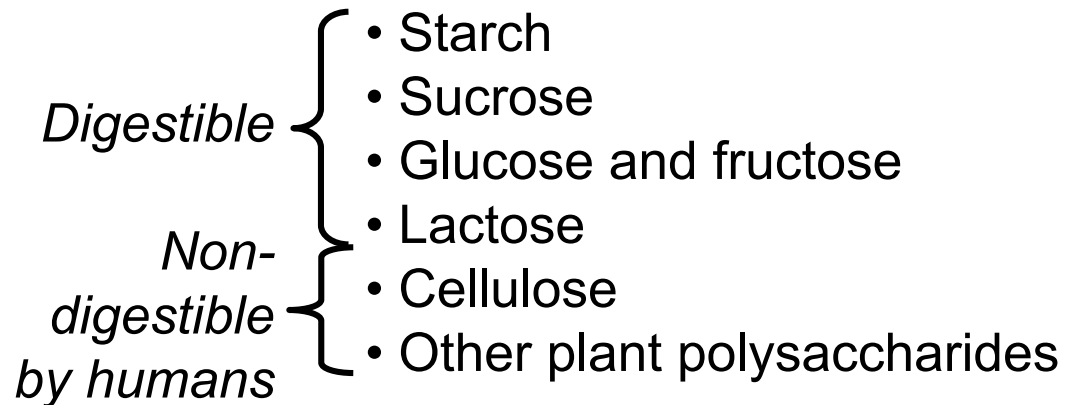
Polysaccharides: cellulose



Model of cellulose
molecules in a microfibril

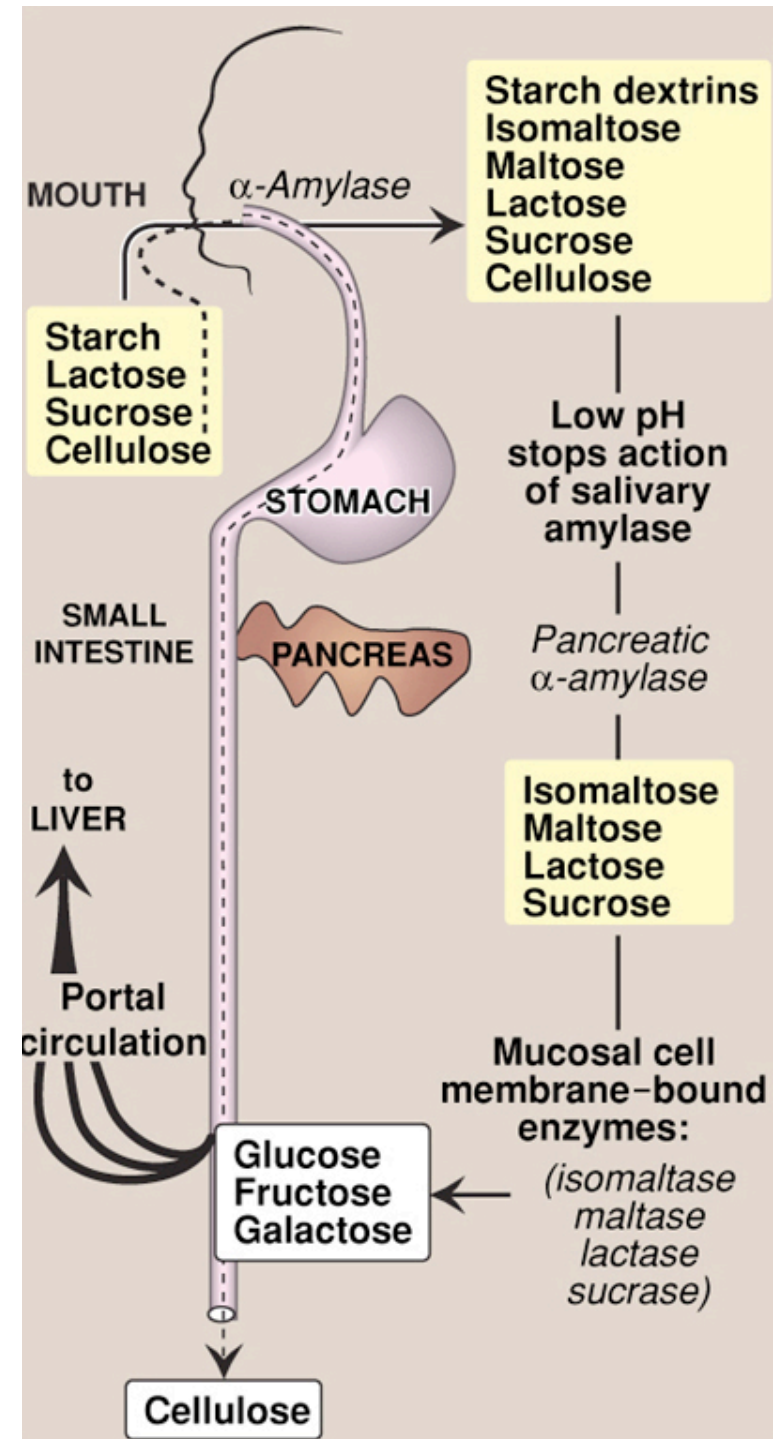


Dietary carbohydrates



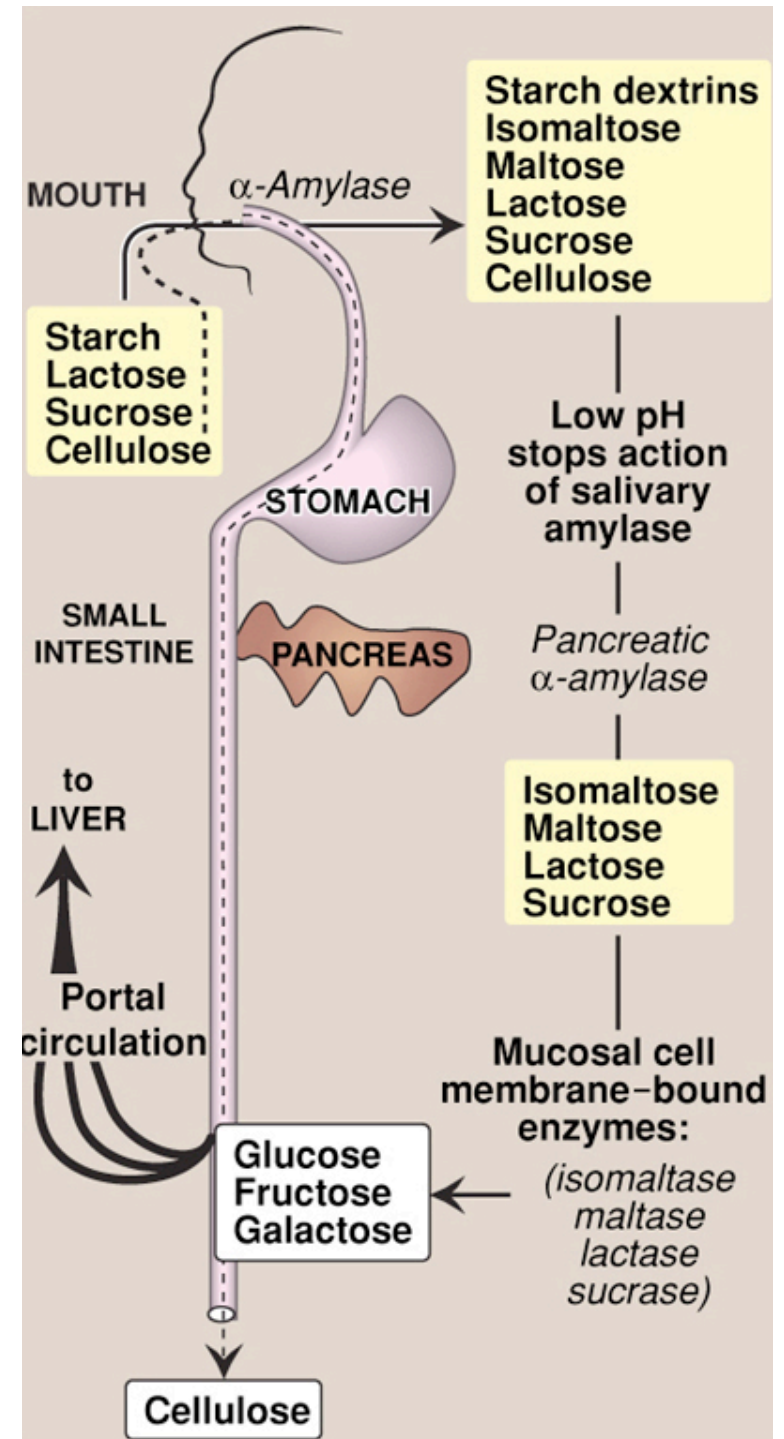
Only monosaccharides are absorbed into the bloodstream from the gut.

Digestion of carbohydrates involves their hydrolysis into monosaccharides



Digestive enzymes

Enzyme	Substrate	Products
α -Amylase	Starch, glycogen	Oligosaccharides
Dextrinase	Oligosaccharide	Glucose
Isomaltase	α -1,6-glucoside	Glucose
Maltase	Maltose	Glucose
Lactase	Lactose	Galactose, glucose
Sucrase	Sucrose	Fructose, glucose



Monosaccharide absorption by intestinal mucosal cells

Major monosaccharides

Glucose, galactose, fructose

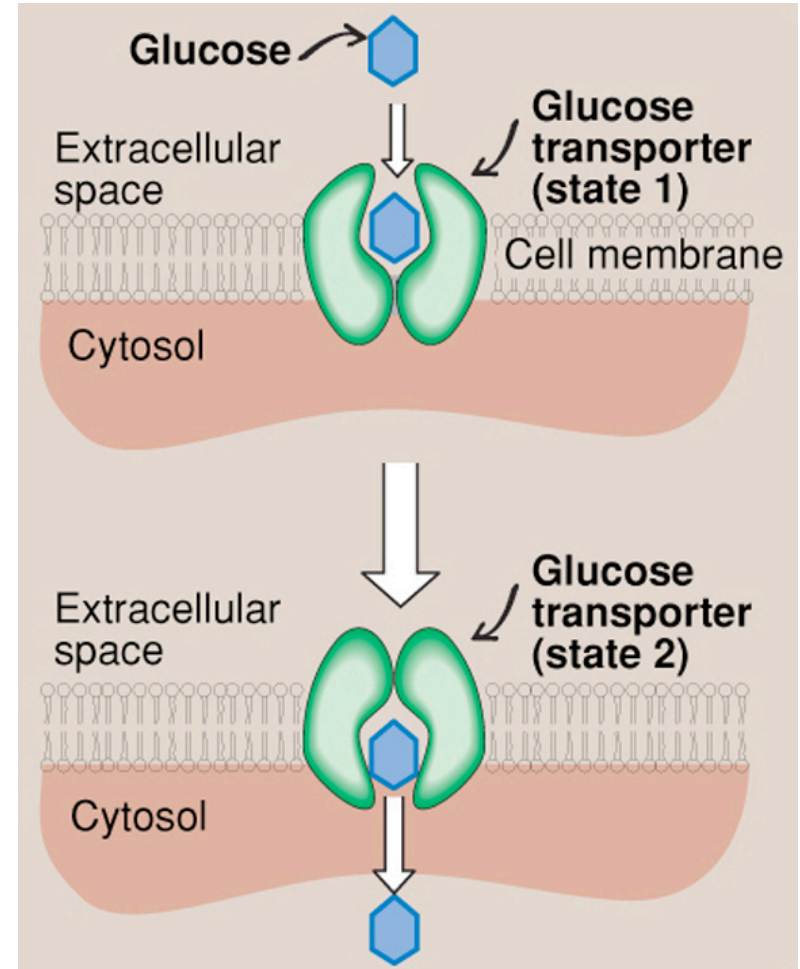
Entry into mucosal cells from intestinal lumen

Active transport of glucose and galactose with a concurrent uptake of Na^+ ions

Facilitated transport of fructose via transporter protein GLUT-5

Entry into the portal circulation from mucosal cells

Facilitated transport via transporter protein GLUT-2



Blood glucose concentrations

Measured in mmol/L = mM or in mg/dL

Conversion factor: 1 mM = 18 mg/dL

Normal plasma glucose concentrations roughly
3.9 – 8.3 mM

Hypoglycemia: < 2.2 mM

Diabetes: > 7.0 mM (fasting)
 > 11.1 mM 2 h after ingestion of 75 g glucose

All cells can use glucose as an energy source
Brain cells and erythrocytes require glucose as an energy source