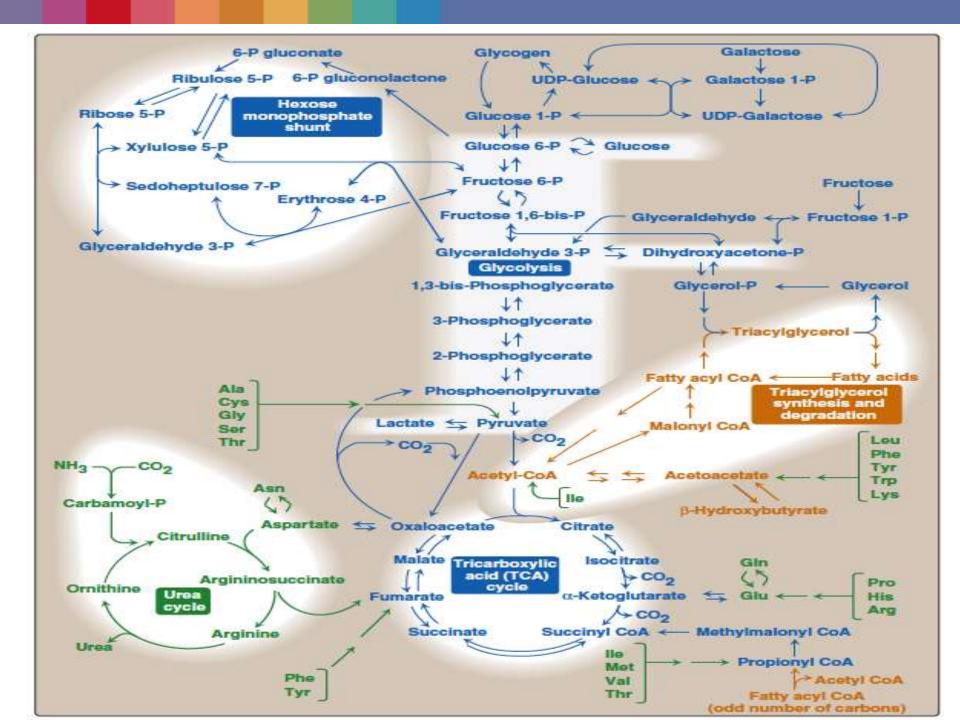
METABOLISM OF CARBOHYDREATES



The interconversion of chemical compounds in the body, the pathways taken by individual molecules, their interrelationships, and the mechanisms that regulate the flow of metabolites through the pathways.



Categories of Metabolism

- Metabolic pathways fall into three categories:
- •Anabolic pathways
- •Catabolic pathways

Amphibolic pathways

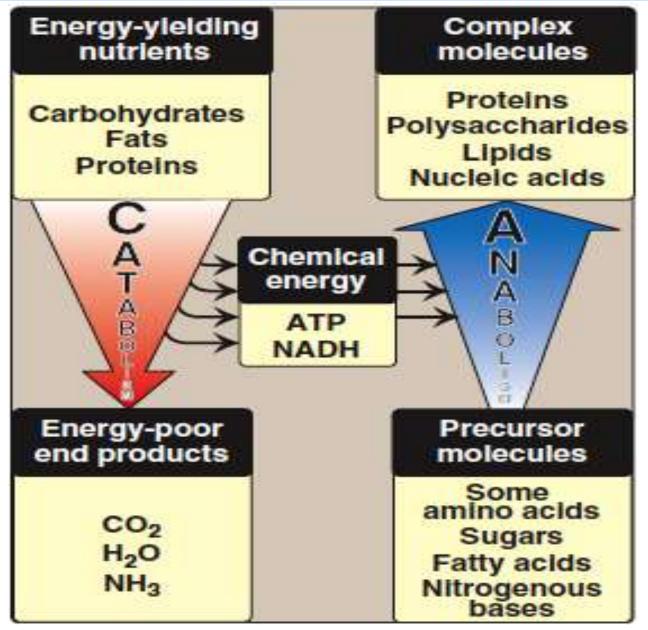
Anabolic pathways

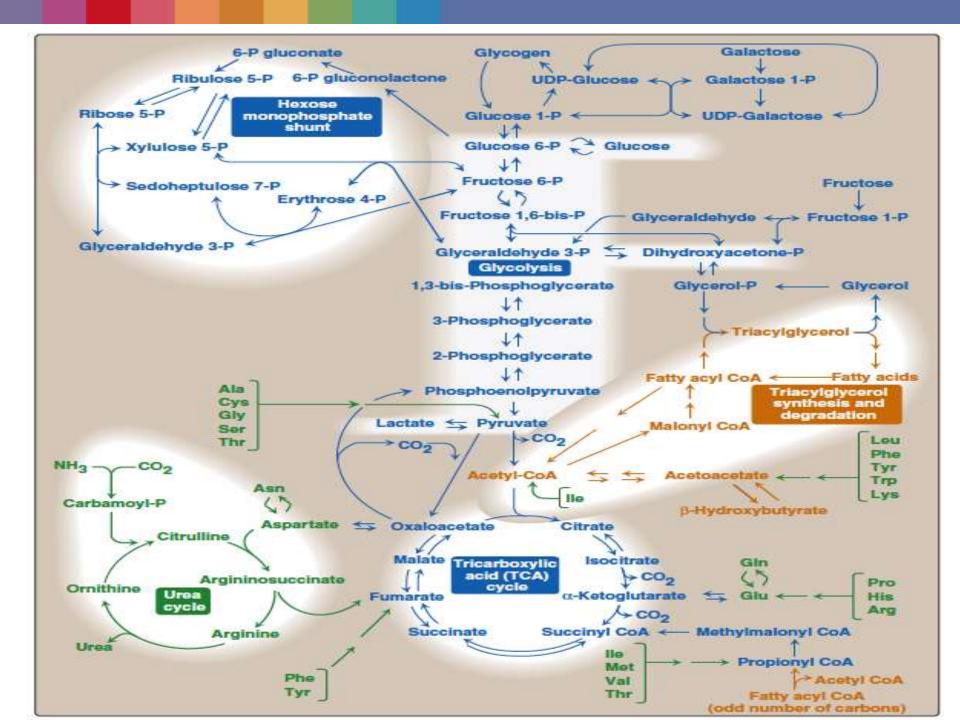
- The pathways which are involved in the synthesis of larger and more complex compounds from smaller precursors— for example, the synthesis of protein from amino acids and the synthesis of reserves of triacylglycerol and glycogen (glycogenesis)
- Anabolic pathways are endothermic.

- The pathways which are involved in the breakdown of larger molecules eg., HMP-shunt and uronic acid pathway
- Commonly involve oxidative reactions
- They are exothermic, producing reducing equivalents and ATP

The pathways which occur at the "crossroads" of metabolism, acting as links between the anabolic and catabolic pathways, for example, the citric acid cycle

Anabolic vs Catabolic pathways



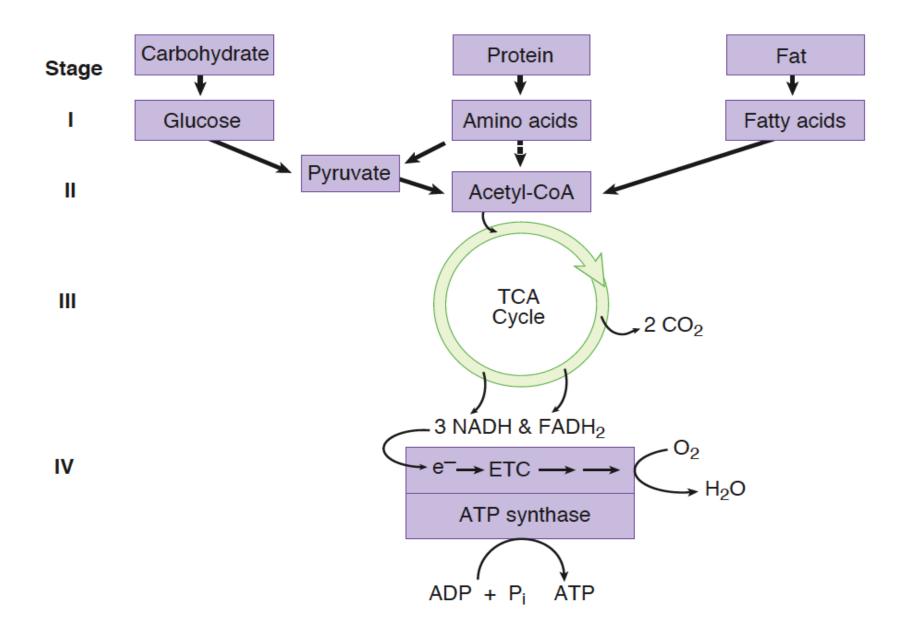


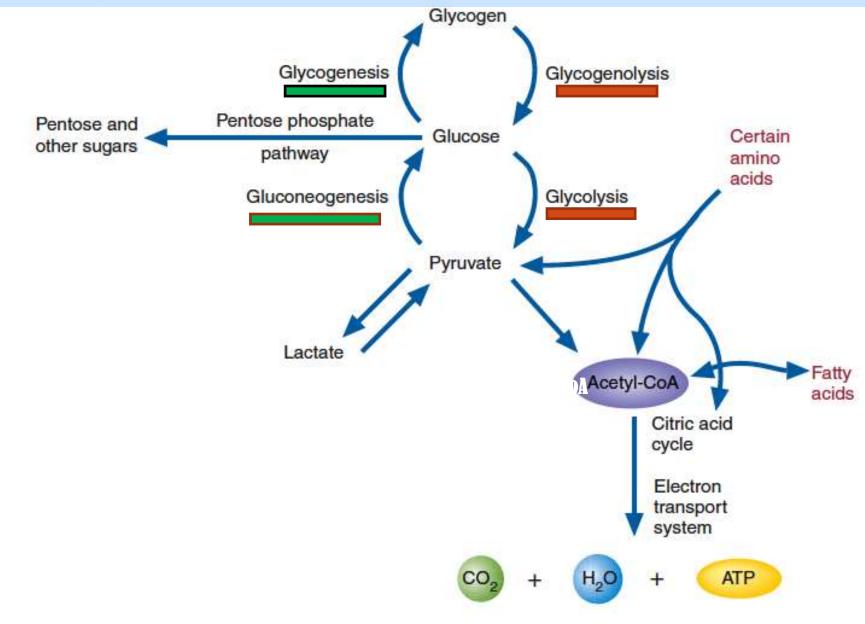
• These pathways must be coordinated

• There is sophisticated communication system

- Regulatory signals
 - Hormones
 - Neurotransmitter
 - Product of the reaction

Stages of Metabolism – 4 stages





Carbohydrate Metabolism <u>Digestible carbohydrates</u>:

starch, glycogen, maltose, sucrose, and lactose (oligosaccharides and polysaccharides).

Ready-to-absorb carbohydrates:

Which do not need digestion and are absorbed as such, e.g., monosaccharides: glucose, galactose, fructose, etc.

Non-digestible carbohydrates:

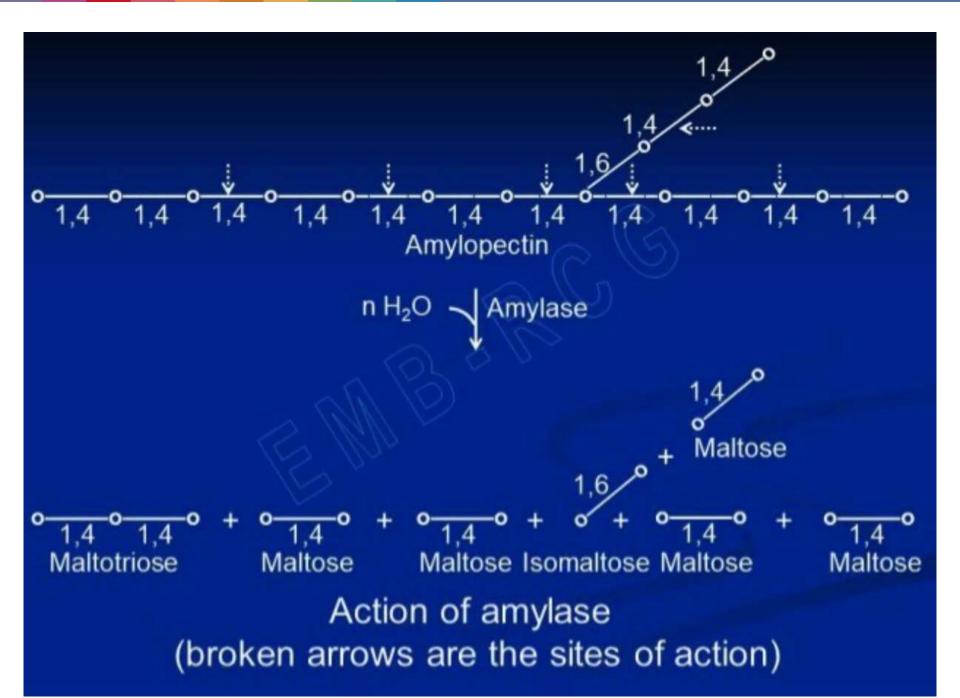
Which are called dietary fibers.

These include cellulose, gums and pectins.

They are very important for stools excretion <u>and are</u> <u>anticancer and intestinal bacteria feed on it to release certain</u> <u>vitamins.</u>

- Human beings get energy requirement from carbohydrates (40%-60%), lipids (mainly triacylglycerol, 30%-40%), and protein (10%-15%).
- Starch, glycogen, sucrose, lactose and cellulose are the chief carbohydrates in our food. Before intestinal absorption, they are hydrolysed to hexose sugars (glucose, galactose and fructose).
- A family of a glycosidases that degrade carbohydrate into their monohexose components.

- Starch and glycogen also contain 1-6 bonds, the resulting digest contains isomaltose [a disaccharide in which two glucose molecules are attached by 1-6 linkage].
- Digestion of starch and glycogen in the mouth and small intestine gives maltose, isomaltose and starch dextrins



The disaccharidases include:

1. Lactase (β -galactosidase) hydrolyses lactose :

Lactase

2. Maltase (α -glucosidase) hydrolyses maltose :

Maltase

Maltose Glucose + Glucose

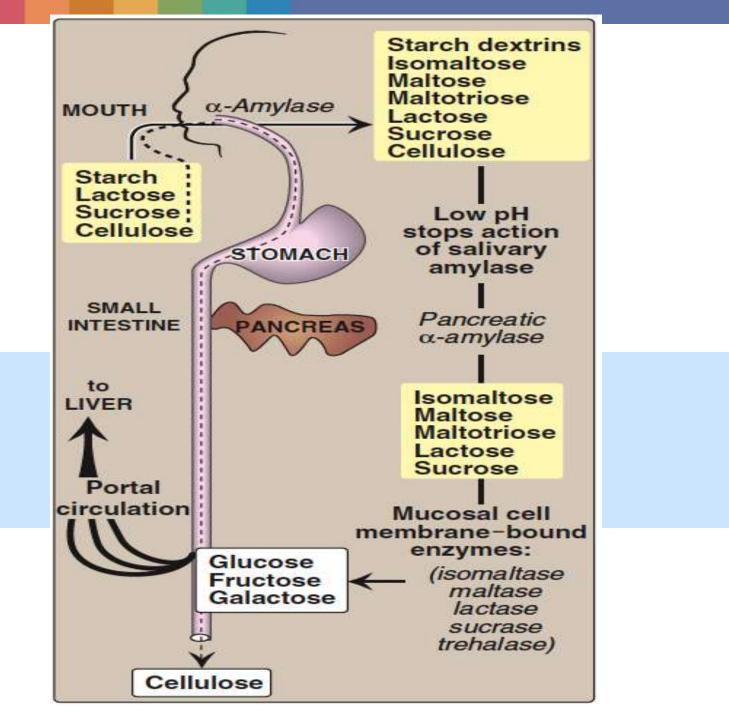
3. Sucrase (a-fructofuranosidase) hydrolyses sucrose :

Sucrase

4. α - dextrinase (oligo-1,6 glucosidase) which hydrolyze (1,6) linkage of isomaltose.

Dextrinase

- **Digestion of cellulose:**
- •Cellulose contains $\beta(1-4)$ bonds between glucose molecules.
- In humans, there is no β (1-4) glucosidase that can digest such bonds. So cellulose passes as such in stool.
- Cellulose helps water retention during the passage of food along the intestine \rightarrow producing larger and softer feces \rightarrow preventing constipation.



Transport of glucose

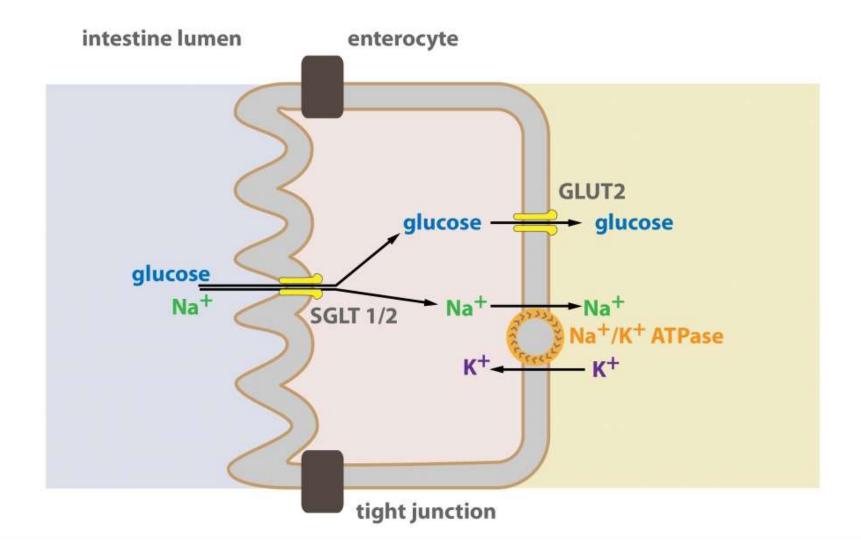
Glucose cannot diffuse directly into cells, but enters by one of two transport mechanisms:

• Na⁺-independent, facilitated diffusion transport system

a family of 14 glucose transporters in cell membranes. They are designated GLUT-1 to GLUT-14 (glucose transporter isoforms 1–14).

• Na⁺-monosaccharide cotransporter system

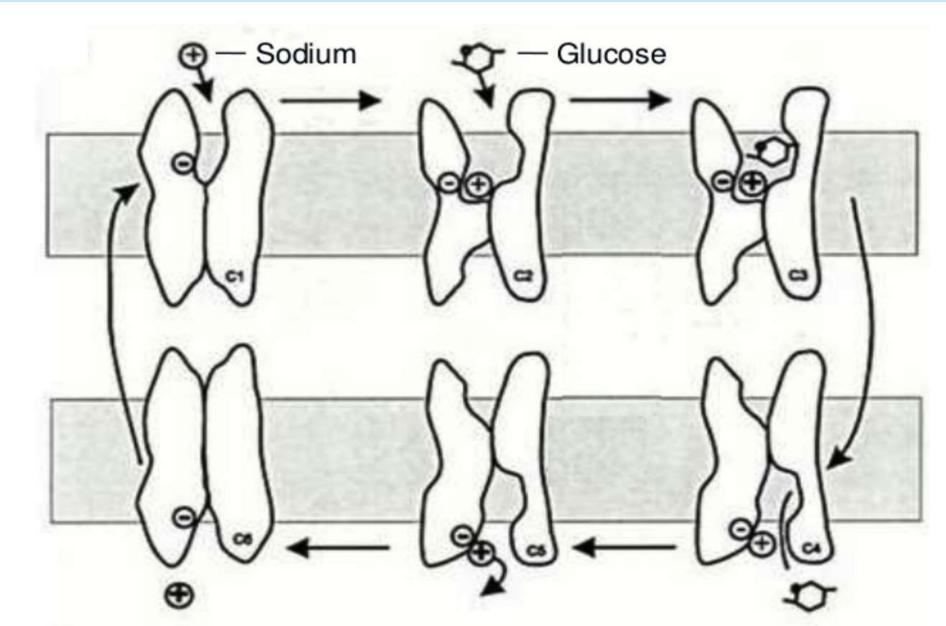
an energy-requiring process that transports glucose "against" a concentration gradient. The carrier is a sodium-dependent–glucose transporter or SGLT.

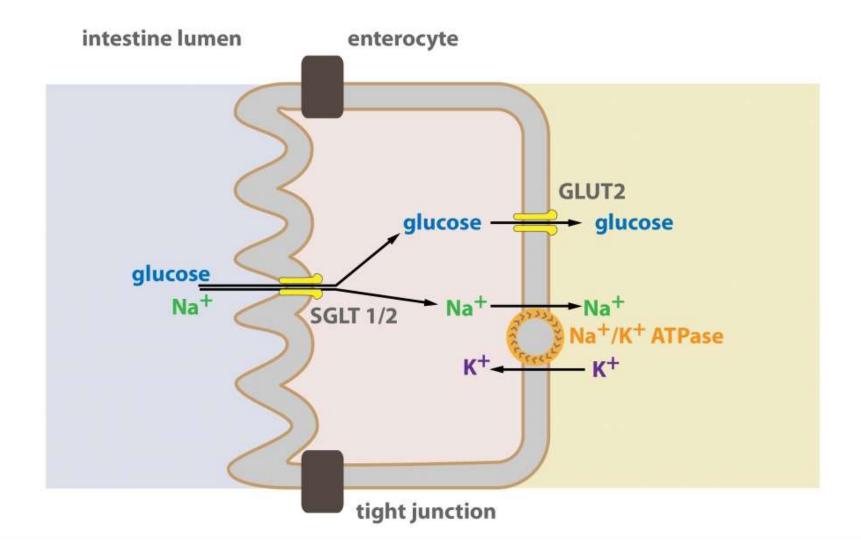


Glucose is absorbed actively from the intestinal lumen into the mucosal cells by Sodium Glucose Transporter (SGLT 1)

SGLT 1, present in the cell membrane, has two binding sites – one for sodium and the other for glucose

Sodium and glucose, present in the lumen, bind to SGLT 1





Fate of glucose

A-Oxidative fate:

Major pathways:

- Glycolysis.
- Krebs' cycle.

Minor pathways:

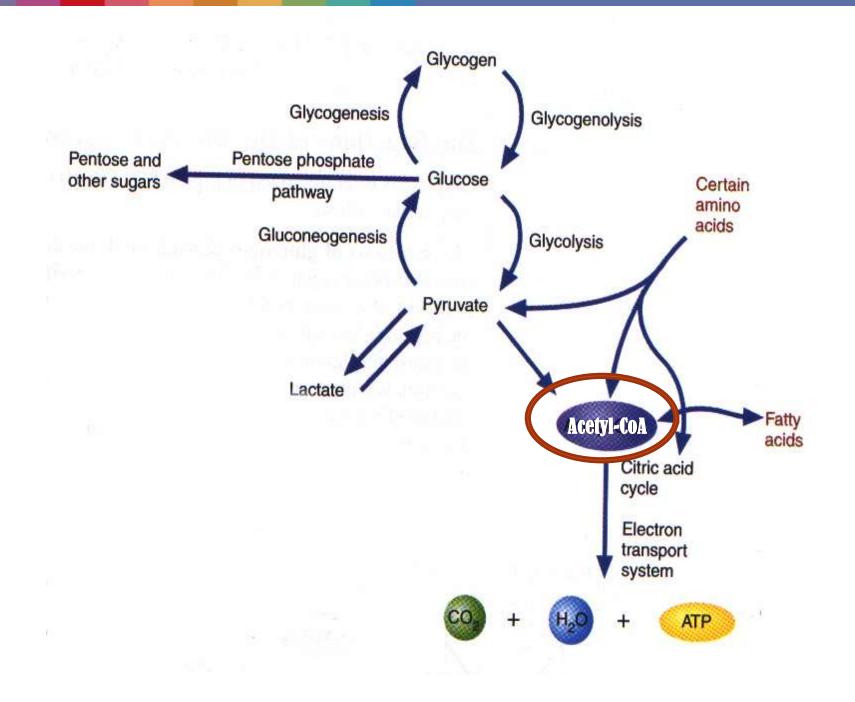
- Pentose shunt.
- Uronic acid pathway.

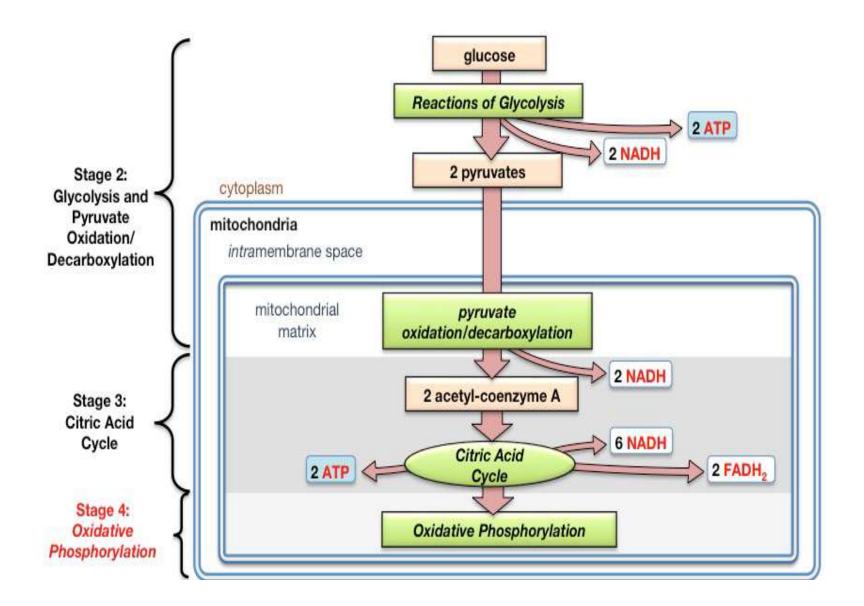
B- Anabolic fates:

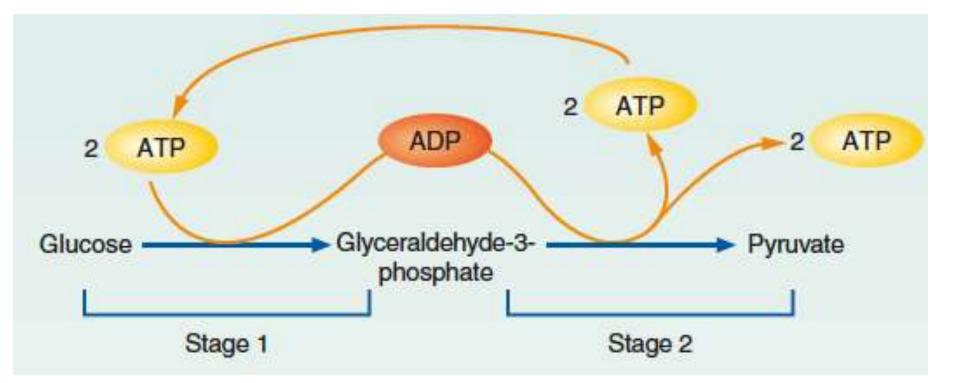
- Glycogenesis/glycogenolysis.
- Gluconeogenesis.
- Monosaccharides synthesis.
- Lactose synthesis.
- Glycolipids, glycoproteins and Proteoglycans synthesis.

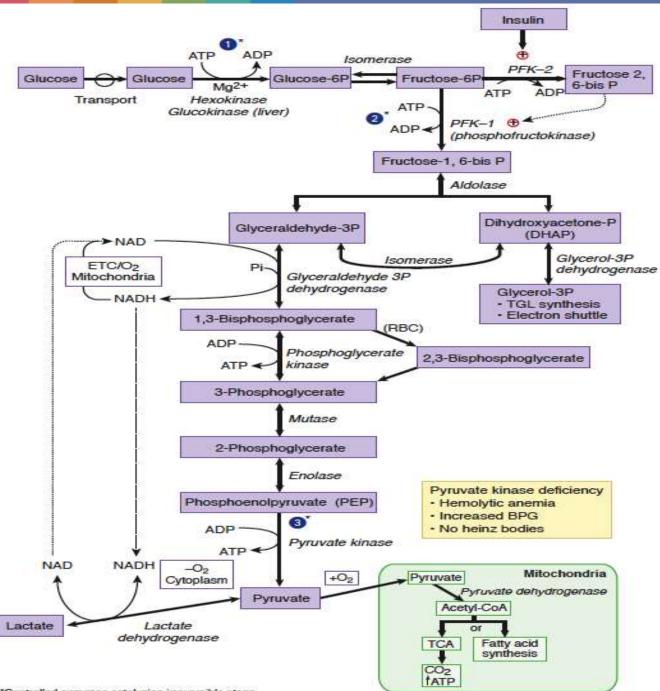
CHO metabolism in mammalian cells are:

- **1. Glycolysis**: Oxidation of glucose to pyruvate (aerobic state) or lactate (anaerobic state)
- **2. Krebs cycle:** After oxidation of pyruvate to acetyl CoA, acetyl CoA enters the Krebs cycle for the aim of production of ATP.
- **3. Hexose monophosphate shunt:** Enables cells to produce ribose-5-phosphate and NADPH.
- **4. Glycogenesis:** Synthesis of glycogen from glucose, when glucose levels are high
- **5. Glycogenolysis**: Degradation of glycogen to glucose when glucose in short supply.
- 6. Gluconeogenesis: Formation of glucose from noncarbohydrate sources.



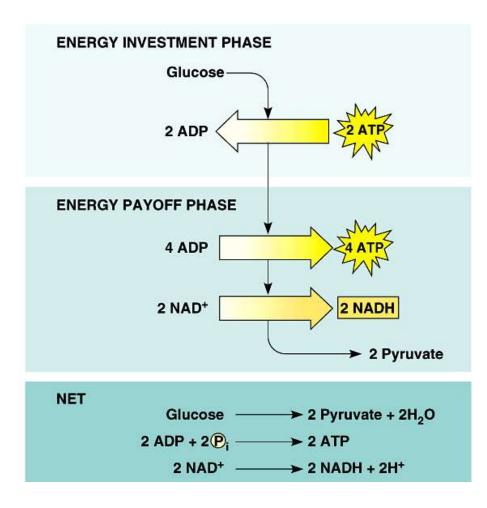






*Controlled enzymes catalyzing irreversible steps

- In the energy investment phase, ATP provides activation energy by phosphorylating glucose.
 - This requires 2 ATP per glucose.
- In the energy payoff phase, ATP is produced by substrate-level phosphorylation and NAD⁺ is reduced to NADH.
- 2 ATP (net) and 2 NADH are produced per glucose.



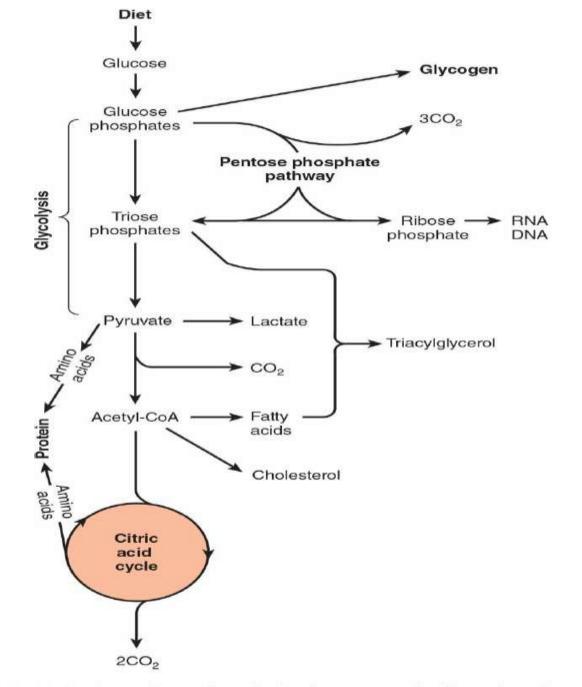
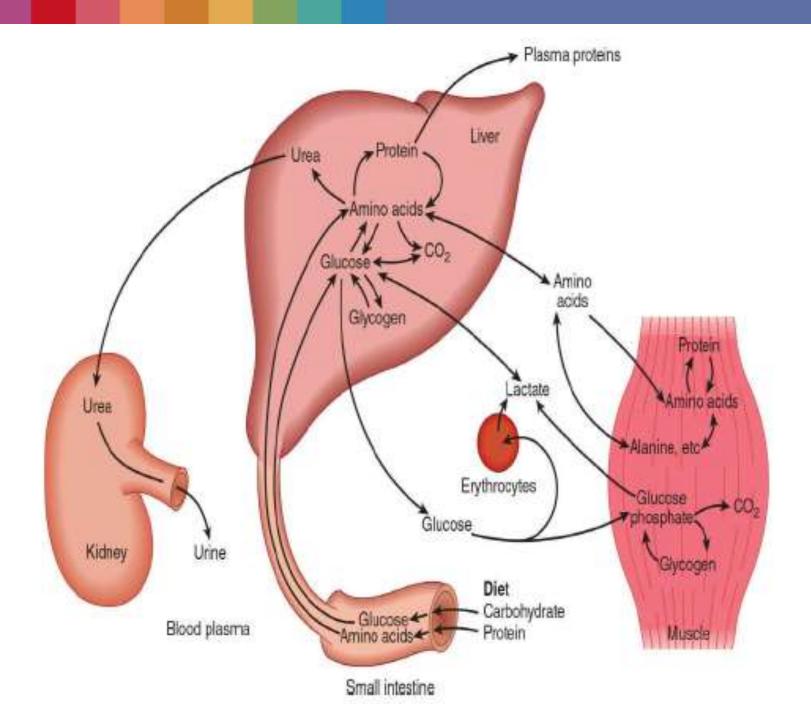
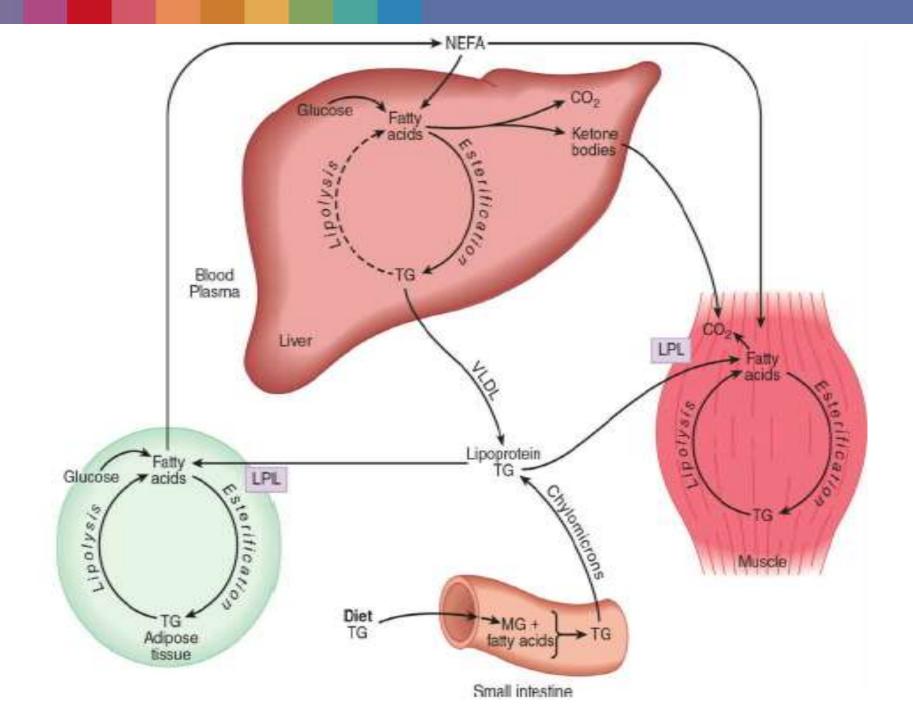


FIGURE 14–2 Overview of carbohydrate metabolism showing the major pathways and end products. Gluconeogenesis is not shown.







Thanks for your attention!