

Metabolism

- Sum of the chemical reactions occurring in a living organism
- Catabolism** = break down → provide energy, e^-
 - Anabolism** = building up → take energy, e^-

Metabolic Pathway = coordinated series of reactions that result in specific products

- Catalyzed by enzymes
- Occur in specific cells, locations (certain organs, tissues)

Flux = rate which molecules flow through each metabolic pathway

- Cell must change flux of molecules in each pathway to function
- Alter enzymatic activity
- Influenced by the concentration of metabolites
- First reaction in a metabolic pathway after a branch point is often irreversible → target for control
- Some reactions $\Delta G \ll 0$, but most $\Delta G = 0$

Formation + Breakdown of Glycogen

$G6P \rightleftharpoons G1P$ is a reversible reaction

Formation: + ΔG

Glycogen Synthase makes $\alpha(1 \rightarrow 4)$ linkages between G1P monomers to form glycogen using UTP as an energy source

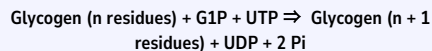
Breakdown: - ΔG

In **skeletal muscles**: makes ATP for muscle function
In **liver**: maintains blood glucose

Glycogen Phosphorylase is what breaks down glycogen into G1P

*Separate enzymes are required to break the branch points
Pi comes from cytosol

Overall Reaction:



Enzyme Activity

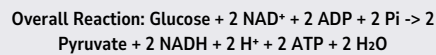
Synthase- P = inactive
Phosphorylase- P = active

Glycogen

- In liver + striated muscle
 - Liver: exists as G6P, makes ATP for muscle
- Absorbed from digestive tract
 - Circulates in blood (energy reserve for body → maintain blood glucose levels), enter cells via glucose transporters
 - Passively move by proteins from high → low glucose concentrations

Glycolysis

- Occurs in cytosol
- Results in ATP production
- 4 e^- transferred from 1 glucose → 2 NAD^+
- Process consumes NAD^+
- 2 $NAD^+ \rightarrow 2 NADH$ **REQUIRED** to regenerate NAD^+
- 2 $NADH$ transfer $2e^-$ to oxygen → pathway **blocked** if oxygen absent
- Other monosaccharides can enter glycolysis via conversion to G6P or F6P (glycolytic intermediates)



Glycolysis Regulation

- Reactions 1, 3, and 10 are irreversible ($\Delta G \ll 0$)
 - These reactions are targets for the control of flux
- Control of flux regulates hexokinase (1), PFK (3), pyruvate kinase (10)

PFK

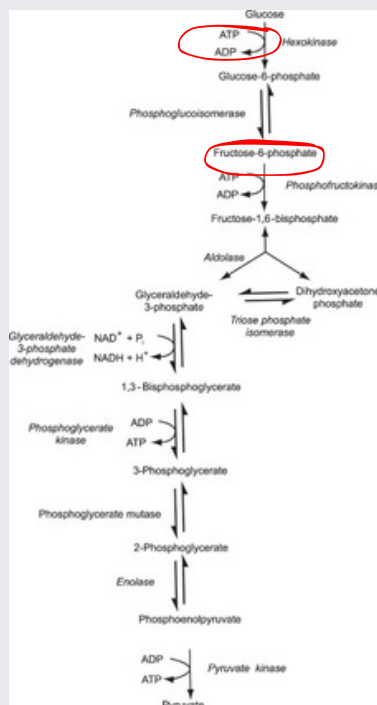
- Catalyzes $F6P + ATP \rightarrow F1,6P + ADP$
- Commits cell to metabolizing glucose
- No storage, conversion to other sugars

AMP, ADP, Pi, F26P = allosteric activators

- AMP, ADP, Pi production indicates cell is low on energy → increases glycolysis to produce energy
- F26P production is a response to low insulin which signals low blood glucose → indicates cell is in a low energy state → F26P increases glycolysis

Citrate, ATP = allosteric inhibitors

- Cell has lots of energy
- Slow krebs cycle = low ATP demand
- Inhibits change in enzyme conformation
- Reduce its affinity for PFK



Modified from <https://imgur.com/pjdf/material/20200428105530216111a6u.pdf>

Skeletal Muscle

- Insulin** causes **dephosphorylation**
- Epinephrine** causes **phosphorylation (+P)**
- Skeletal muscle is "selfish": it does not respond to glucagon changes, i.e. it ignores signals to release glucose into the bloodstream
 - Won't break down glycogen stores if glucose is low, i.e. it keeps all its glucose storage to itself

Low insulin = phosphorylation (low glucose) - Synthase-P - Less active - No G1P → glycogen - Phosphorylase-P - More active - Glycogen → G1P	Epinephrine - Synthase-P - Less active - No G1P → glycogen - Phosphorylase-P - More active - Glycogen → G1P
High insulin = Dephosphorylation - Synthase - Active - G1P → glycogen - Phosphorylase - Less active - Glycogen storage	ATP - Causes phosphorylase to be dephosphorylated - Allosteric inhibitor - Less active - Glycogen storage
	AMP - Causes phosphorylase to be dephosphorylated - Allosteric activator - More active - Glycogen → G1P

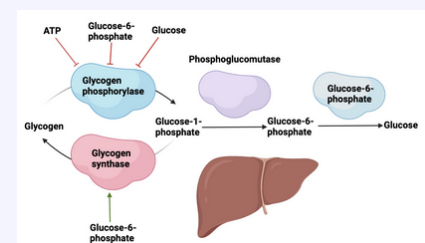


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Liver

- Insulin** causes **dephosphorylation**
- Glucagon** and **Epinephrine** cause **phosphorylation (P)**
- Hormones bind to receptors, don't directly cause phosphorylation

Low insulin, high glucagon (low glucose) - Synthase-P - Less active - No G1P → glycogen - Phosphorylase-P - More active - Glycogen → G1P	Epinephrine - Synthase-P - Less active - No G1P → glycogen - Phosphorylase-P - More active - Glycogen → G1P
High insulin, low glucagon - Synthase - Active - G1P → glycogen using UTP - Phosphorylase - Less active - Glycogen storage	G6P - Causes synthase to be dephosphorylated - Allosteric activator - Active - G1P → glycogen
	Glucose - Causes phosphorylase to be dephosphorylated - Allosteric inhibitor - Less active - Glycogen storage

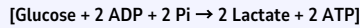
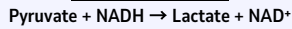


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Fermentation

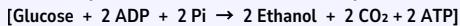
- Anaerobic respiration → no O₂ present
- Produce ATP without changing net oxidation state of carbon
- Pyruvate reduced to lactate or ethanol

1. Lactate formation



- e⁻ come from NADH earlier to make ATP
- Regenerates NAD⁺
- Occur in many microorganisms
- Occur in higher organisms when little O₂ present

2. Ethanol Formation (2 step reaction)

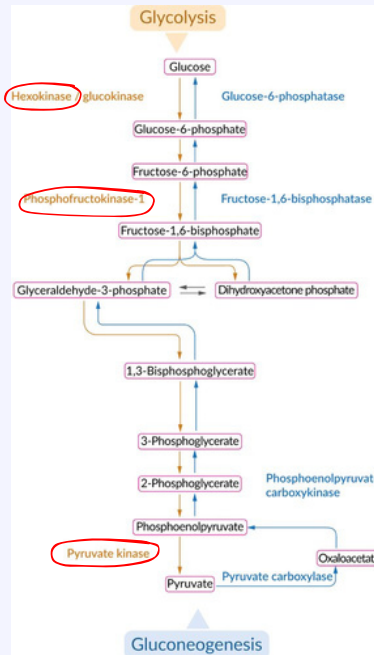
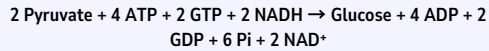


- Ethanol → brewing purposes
- CO₂ → making bread
- Cells in higher eukaryotes can switch between aerobic and anaerobic respiration
- Some cells are strict aerobes, need oxygen (e.g. brain cells)

Gluconeogenesis (-ΔG)

- Synthesizes glucose to maintain blood glucose levels
- Mostly in the liver
- Occurs in the cytosol
- Reductive process (e⁻ from NADH)
- Reaction consumes 4 more ATP/GTP to convert 2 pyruvate molecules
- NOT the reverse of glycolysis

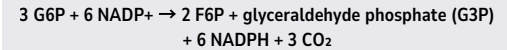
Overall Reaction:



Pentose Phosphate Pathway

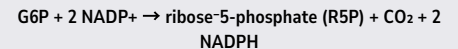
- Carbohydrates can either enter glycolysis (G6P → Pyruvate) or the PPP (G6P → Ribose-5-phosphate → PPP compounds)
- Uses G6P (from glycolysis) to make NADPH
- e⁻ transfer from NADP⁺ → NADPH
- When NADPH is needed, cells don't pick one pathway over the other → a mix of the 2 is more likely, depending on conditions
- Promotes biosynthesis
 - R5P makes nucleotides, which form DNA and RNA
 - DNA and RNA also break down to form nucleotides

When cells need ATP and NADPH:



- For every 3 G6P, 3 carbons are oxidized to CO₂
- F6P and G3P = glycolysis intermediates
- CO₂ = waste
- NADPH = e⁻ source
 - Make 6 NADPH → the other 15 enter glycolysis

When cells need nucleotides:



- R5P = nucleotide synthesis
- CO₂ = waste
- NADPH = e⁻ source

Gluconeogenesis Regulation

PFK

- Increased ADP, Pi, AMP, F2,6P will activate it
- Decreased citrate and/or ATP will inhibit it

Fructose Bisphosphate

- AMP, F2,6P will inhibit it

- For ΔG ~ 0 reactions, the **same** enzymes must be used for both processes
- For ΔG << 0 reactions, **different** enzymes must be used in both pathways
- Favored direction depends on metabolite concentration
- Compounds that activate glycolysis enzymes will inhibit gluconeogenesis enzymes
- CANNOT** be turned on simultaneously (reactions will rapidly interconvert)
- Glycerol, lactate, krebs cycle intermediates, many amino acids can be used as raw materials for gluconeogenesis

LETTER TO THE STUDENT

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To maximize the benefits of this resource, we recommend that you read carefully through the topics, focusing on *bolded terminology, compound structures, and diagrams*. Although this resource ideally will cover all testable content as of the 2024-2025 academic year, we cannot guarantee this and strongly encourage you to cross-reference with class material and notes.

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We appreciate you using our resource! Best of luck on your exams :)

-The WebStraw team

 Note to Instructors: If this resource has been created for your course and you would like to collaborate with us, please email us at team@webstraw.org

biochem 2280.

BROUGHT TO YOU
BY WEBSTRAW

a handmade guide

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