

L6: Glucose homeostasis

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Objectives



Define glucose homeostasis and the metabolic processes involved



Differentiate between different phases of glucose homeostasis



Discuss the primary sources of energy and major organs utilizing glucose during the five phases of homeostasis



Understand the role of hormones in maintaining glucose homeostasis

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Glucose homeostasis

A process that : Controls glucose metabolism and maintains normal blood glucose level in the body.

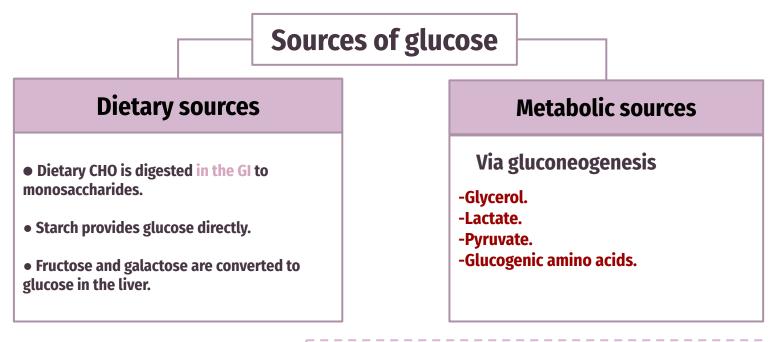
Glucose is a major source of body's energy.

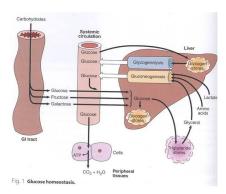
The liver plays a key role in maintaining blood glucose level.

Blood glucose level is tightly controlled because the brain constantly needs glucose.

Severe hypoglycemia can cause coma and death.

Chronic hyperglycemia results in glycation of proteins, endothelial dysfunction and diabetes mellitus.





Dr's explanation : 1- Lactate (not hypoxia) comes from the body tissue because of the absence of (pyruvate dehydrogenase) this enzyme is inhibited in the fasting state. 2- Glycerol comes from fatty acid oxidation.

3- Amino acids come from muscles.

N.B : gluconeogenesis can occur in the kidney but only in starvation.



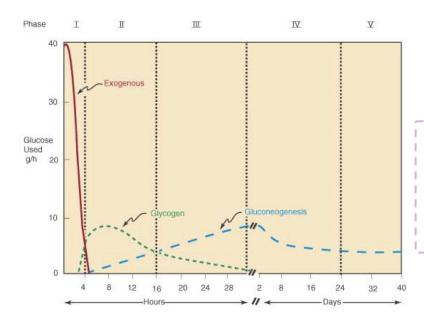
Phases of Glucose Homeostasis

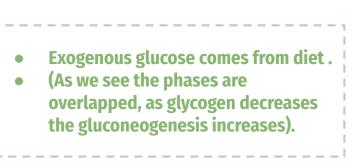
KB : Ketone Bodies

Phases of Glucose Homeostasis

| Phase I | Phase II | Phase III | Phase IV | Phase V |
|----------------|-----------------|------------------|-----------------------|--------------------------|
| Well-fed state | Glycogenolysis | Gluconeogenesis | Glucose, KB oxidation | Fatty acid, KB oxidation |

| | Origin of Blood Glucose | Tissue Using Glucose | Major Fuel of Brain |
|-----------|--|--|--------------------------|
| Phase I | Exogenous | All | Glucose |
| Phase II | Glycogen (major) Hepatic gluconeogenesis (minor) | All except Liver, Muscle and adipose tissue at diminished rates. | Glucose |
| Phase III | Hepatic gluconeogenesis (major) Glycogen (minor) | All except liver, Muscle and adipose tissue at rates intermediate between II and IV. | Glucose |
| Phase IV | Gluconeogenesis both Hepatic and Renal (only start in 4th) | Brain, RBCs, renal medulla. small amount by muscle. *Note that it's not deliver to adipose, because it starts using ketone bodies as brain fuel. | Glucose ketone bodies |
| Phase V | Gluconeogenesis both Hepatic and Renal | Brain at diminished rate, RBCs,renal medulla. RBC and renal medulla Cannot take ketone bodies as fuel | Ketone bodies Glucose |

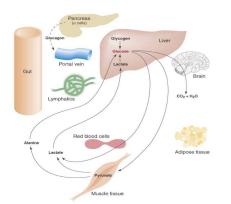


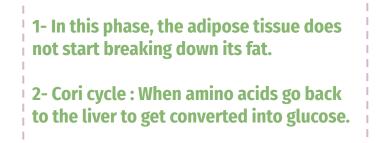


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Phases of Glucose Homeostasis

Phase II Phase III Phase IV Phase I Phase V **Origin of glucose** Glucose is mainly supplied by dietary CHOs. Liver removes about 70% of glucose load after a CHO meal. - All body tissues use dietary glucose for energy in this phase. - Some glucose is converted to glycogen for storage in the liver (glycogenesis). Action - Excess glucose is converted to fatty acids and triglycerides in the liver. - These are transported via VLDL (very low density lipoproteins) to adipose tissue for storage. Gluconeogenesis and lipolysis is inhibited. - Cori cycle. (Lactate from muscle, and it convert to glucose in liver) Inhibited - glucose-alanine cycles. Alanine from muscle \rightarrow glucose (in liver) *No need for gluconeogenesis in phase 1 and it is inhibited by insulin. Phase III Phase I Phase IV Phase V Phase II Hepatic glycogenolysis and gluconeogenesis maintain blood glucose level in this **Origin of glucose** phase. Start during early fasting when dietary glucose supply is exhausted. Glycogenolysis and gluconeogenesis. Major source of blood glucose

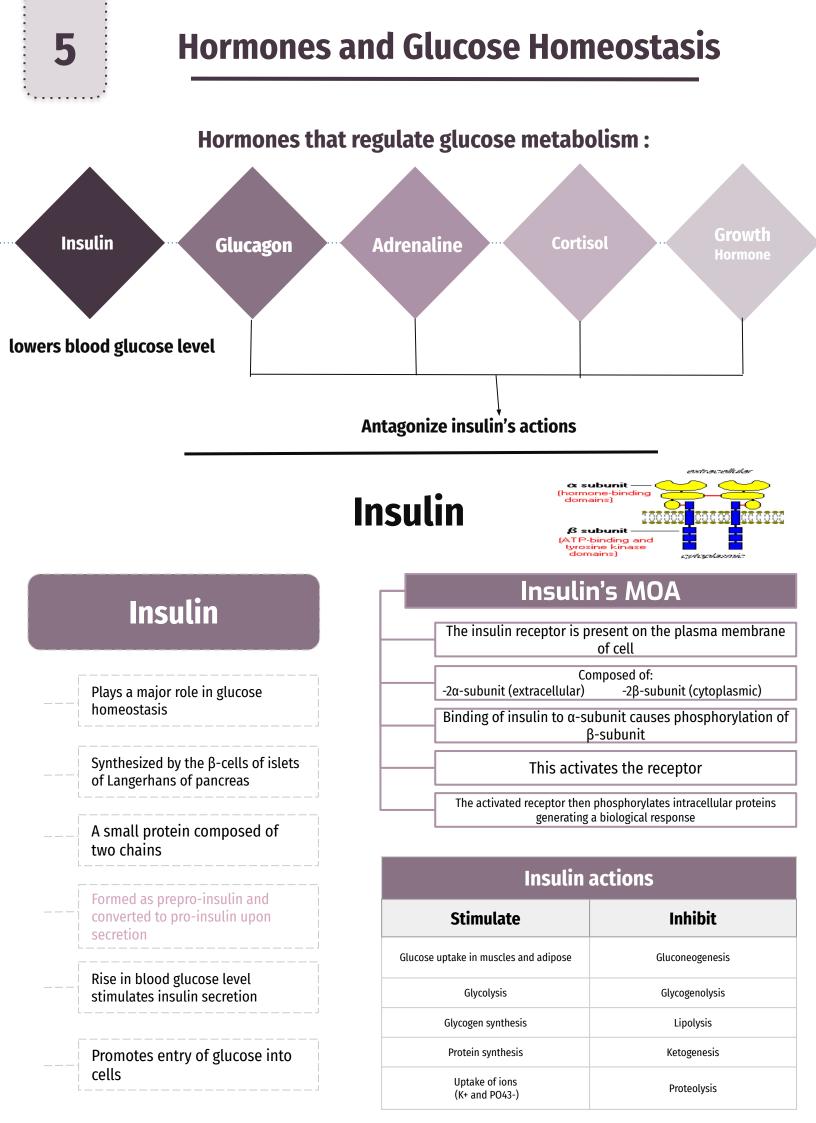


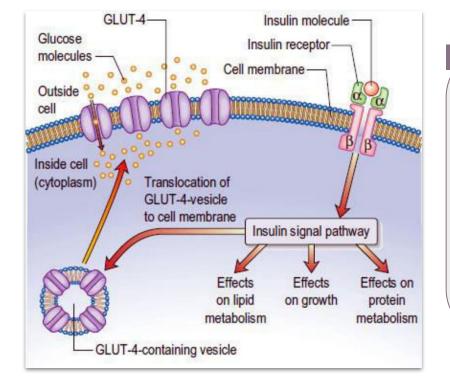




Phases of Glucose Homeostasis

| Phase I | Phase IIPhase IVPhase V | | | | | |
|----------------------------------|---|--|--|--|--|--|
| Origin of glucose | Hepatic gluconeogenesis from lactate, pyruvate, glycerol and alanine maintains blood glucose level. | | | | | |
| Start | When glycogen stores in liver are exhausted (<within 20="" hours).<="" th=""></within> | | | | | |
| Major source of blood glucose | Gluconeogenesis. | | | | | |
| Duration | depends on: 1- Feeding status. 2- Hepatic glycogen stores. 3- Physical activity. | | | | | |
| Phase I | Phase II Phase III Phase IV Phase V | | | | | |
| Origin of glucose | Hepatic & Renal gluconeogenesis. | | | | | |
| Start | Several days of fasting leads to phase IV. | | | | | |
| Action | Gluconeogenesis starts to decrease. FA oxidation increases KB accumulation. KBs enter the brain and muscle for energy production. Brain uses both glucose and KB for energy. | | | | | |
| Phase I | Phase IIPhase IIIPhase IVPhase V | | | | | |
| Origin of glucose | Hepatic & Renal gluconeogenesis. | | | | | |
| Start | Prolonged fasting leads to phase V. | | | | | |
| Action | Less dependence on gluconeogenesis. All body tissues mainly use FA and KB oxidation for energy production. Gluconeogenesis somewhat maintains blood glucose level in this phase. High KB concentration. And glucose levels inhibit proteolysis in muscle (conservation of muscle). When all fat and KBs are used up → body uses muscle protein to maintain blood glucose level. | | | | | |





Linda (Extra)

Insulin MOA (linda):

1. Insulin binds to the α subunits of the tetrameric insulin receptor, producing a conformational change in the receptor. The conformational change activates tyrosine kinase in the β subunits, which phosphorylate themselves in the presence of ATP. In other words, the β subunits autophosphorylate.

2. Activated tyrosine kinase phosphorylates several other proteins or enzymes that are involved in the physiologic actions of insulin, Phosphorylation either activates or inhibits these proteins to produce the various metabolic actions of insulin (eventually GLUT-4 translocate to the cell membrane).

Promotes glucose uptake into cell:

1- Glucose is diffused into cells through hexose transporters such as GLUT4.

2- GLUT4 is present in cytoplasmic vesicles.

3-Insulin binding to its receptor causes vesicles to diffuse into plasma membrane.

4-GLUT4 is inserted into the membrane.

5-Allowing glucose transport into the cell.

6-Brain and liver have non insulin dependent glucose transporter.

Insulin's MOA in decreasing blood glucose levels:

Stimulates glycogen synthesis.

Decreases blood glucose levels.

Increases glycolysis.

Stimulates protein synthesis.

Insulin deficiency causes diabetes mellitus.

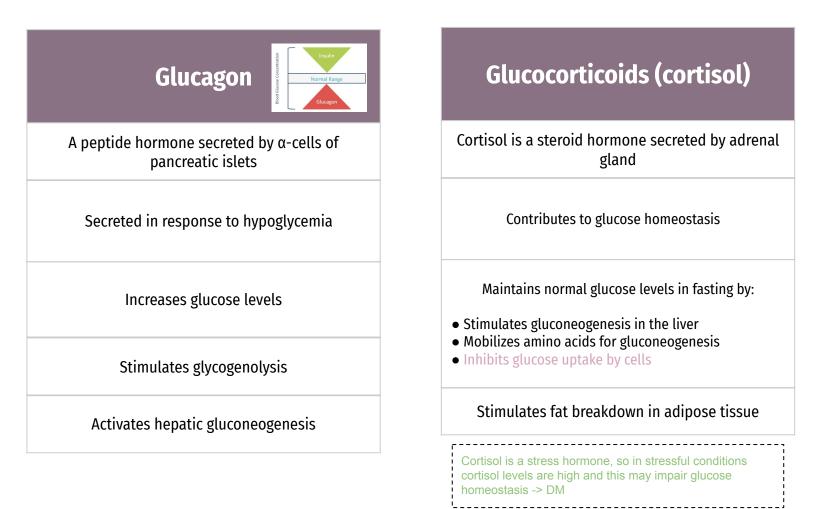
Hyperinsulinemia is due to insulin resistance in:

- Diabetes mellitus
- Metabolic syndrome

(Insulin resistance = receptor defect or action defect)



Hormones that Antagonize Insulin's Action



Growth hormone

A protein hormone secreted by anterior pituitary gland

Maintains blood glucose levels by:

- Inhibiting insulin action
- Stimulating gluconeogenesis in the liver

Epinephrine

A catecholamine hormone secreted by adrenal gland

Stimulates lipolysis in adipose tissue when glucose blood levels fall

Promotes glycogenolysis in skeletal muscle



•Glucose homeostasis is a process that controls glucose metabolism and maintains blood glucose level in the body.

• There are five phases of glucose homeostasis- Phase I (well-fed state), Phase II (glycogenolysis).

• Phase III (gluconeogenesis), Phase IV (glucose, ketone bodies (KB) oxidation), Phase V (fatty acid (FA), KB oxidation).

• Hormones that regulate glucose metabolism include insulin (lowers glucose level) and glucagon (increases glucose level).

• Other hormone such as cortisol, growth hormone and adrenaline are known to antagonize the actions of insulin thus increases the blood glucose level.

| All thanks to team442 | | Summary | | | | |
|-----------------------|---|--|--|--|---|--|
| Glucose Homeostasis | | A process that controls glucose metabolism and maintains blood glucose level in the body. | | | | |
| Sources of Glucose | | Dietary sources | Dietary CHOs are digested in the GI to monosaccharides. | | | |
| | | Metabolic sources | Gluconeogenesis: Glycerol, Lactate, Pyruvate, Glucogenic amino acids. | | | |
| | | Phases of Gluce | ose Homeostasis <mark>(Ver</mark> | y Importan | t !) | |
| | Start | Origin of glucose | Tissue Using Glucose | Major Fuel of Brain | Note | |
| Phase I | _ | Dietary CHOs (Exogenous) | All | Glucose | Some glucose is converted to glycogen for storage in the liver (glycogenesis). Excess glucose is converted to fatty acids and triglycerides in the liver, and these are transported via VLDL to adipose tissue for storage. Gluconeogenesis is inhibited: Cori and glucose-alanine cycles are inhibited. Insulin is active in this phase. | |
| Phase II | Starts during early fasting when dietary glucose supply is exhausted. | - Glycogen (major) "Hepatic glycogenolysis" - Hepatic gluconeogenesis (minor) | All except Liver. Muscle, and adipose tissue at diminished rates. | Glucose | | |
| Phase III | when glycogen stores in liver are exhausted (within 20 hours). | - Hepatic gluconeogenesis (major) - Glycogen (minor) | All except liver. Muscle and adipose tissue at rates intermediate between II and IV. | Glucose | depends on: - Feeding status. - Hepatic glycogen stores. - Physical activity. | |
| Phase IV | Several days of fasting | Gluconeogenesis both Hepatic + <mark>Renal (only</mark> start in 4th) | Brain, RBCs, renal medulla. small amount by muscle. | Glucose, ketone bodies | KB accumulation increase which enter brain for energy production. *Brain uses both glucose and KB for energy. | |
| Phase V | Prolonged fasting | Gluconeogenesis both Hepatic + Renal | Brain at diminished rate, RBCs, renal medulla. | Ketone bodies (mainly), Glucose | Less dependence on gluconeogenesis. All body tissues mainly use FA and KB oxidation for energy production. Gluconeogenesis somewhat maintains blood glucose level in this phase. High KB conc. and glucose levels inhibit proteolysis in muscle. When all fat and KBs are used up → body uses muscle protein to maintain blood glucose. | |

Hormones and glucose homeostasis

| normones and glacose nomeostasis | | | | | |
|----------------------------------|----------|--|--|--|--|
| | Overview | Synthesized by | The β -cells of islets of Langerhans of pancreas. | | |
| | | Туре | Peptide hormone. | | |
| | | Receptor | Tyrosine kinase. (Composed of: 2α -subunit (extracellular) and 2β -subunit (cytoplasmic)) | | |
| | Stimuli | ↑ Blood glucose level (hyperglycemia) | | | |
| Insulin | MOA | Binding of insulin to α -subunit causes phosphorylation of β -subunit (autophosphorylated) \rightarrow activates the receptor \rightarrow phosphorylates intracellular proteins generating a biological response. | | | |
| | Actions | Stimulate | - Glucose uptake in muscles and adipose tissue. (GLUT4) - Glycolysis Glycogen synthesis Protein synthesis. - Uptake of ions (especially K+ and PO4 3-) | | |
| | | Inhibits | - Gluconeogenesis Glycogenolysis Lipolysis. - Ketogenesis Proteolysis | | |
| | Note | Brain and liver have non-insulin dependent glucose transporter. | | | |
| | Disorder | Insulin deficiency | Diabetes mellitus (type 1) | | |
| | Disorder | Hyperinsulinemia | Due to insulin resistance in: diabetes mellitus (type 2) or Metabolic syndrome. | | |
| | | Synthesized by | The α -cells of islets of Langerhans of pancreas. | | |
| | Overview | Туре | Peptide hormone. | | |
| Glucagon | | Receptor | Adenylate cyclase- cAMP | | |
| | Stimuli | ↓ Blood glucose level (hyperglycemia) | | | |
| | Actions | - Stimulates glycogenolysis Activates hepatic gluconeogenesis. | | | |
| | Overview | Synthesized in | Zona fasciculata of adrenal cortex. | | |
| | | Туре | steroid hormone. | | |
| Cortisol | | Receptor | Intracellular receptor. | | |
| | Action | Stimulates gluconeogenesis in the liver, mobilizes amino acids for gluconeogenesis, and Inhibits glucose uptake by cells. Stimulates fat breakdown in adipose tissue. | | | |
| | | Synthesized by | Somatotrops in anterior pituitary gland. | | |
| Growth | Overview | Туре | Peptide hormone. | | |
| hormone | | Receptor | Tyrosine kinase. | | |
| | Action | Inhibiting insulin acti | nhibiting insulin action and stimulating gluconeogenesis in the liver. | | |
| | Overview | Synthesized in | Adrenal medulla glands. | | |
| | | Туре | Amine Hormone. | | |
| Epinephrine | | Receptor | Adenylate cyclase- cAMP and Calcium or phosphatidylinositol. | | |
| | Action | | in adipose tissue when glucose blood levels fall. olysis in skeletal muscle. | | |

Test Yourself!

| MCQs | Answers: C-A-C-D | |
|---|--------------------------------|---|
| Q1: 1- Which structure plays a key role in ma A. Intestines B. Kidney C. Liver D. Brain | intaining blood glucose level? | |
| Q2: When Does Phase III takes place? A. glycogen stores in liver are exhausted B. Dietary glucose supply is exhausted C. Prolonged fasting D. Early Fasting | | |
| Q3: Which one of the following does the ins A. Glycolysis B. Glycogen synthesis C. Glycogenolysis D. Protein synthesis | ulin Inhibits? | |
| Q4: What is the organ that has non insulin d A. Brain B. Liver C. Kidney D. A&B | ependent glucose transporter? | |
| SAQs | | |
| Q1: What are the complications of chronic h glycation of proteins, endothelial dysfunctio | | |
| Q2: What are the sources of Glucose? | | : |

: -Dietary sources: Dietary CHO is digested in the GI to monosaccharides □, Starch provides glucose : directly □ Fructose and galactose are converted to glucose in the liver.

-Metabolic sources: (via gluconeogenesis): Glycerol, lactate, pyruvate, glucogenic amino acids.

Q3: How does Glucagon contribute in maintaining blood glucose? Stimulates glycogenolysis, Activates hepatic gluconeogenesis.







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