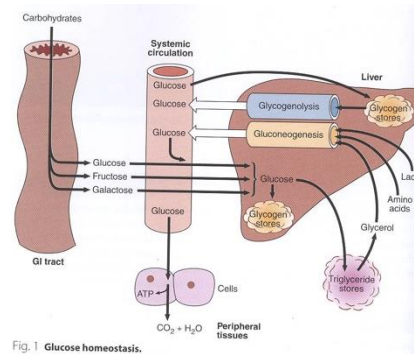


Glucose Homeostasis

Glucose homeostasis

- **A process that**
 - Controls **glucose metabolism**
 - Maintains **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**

- 1- Glucose, fructose and galactose “monosaccharides” going into blood stream
 - 2- From blood to peripheral tissue to provide energy and it goes to liver “Liver removes about 70% of glucose load after a CHO meal”
 - 3- When it goes to liver some of glucose used to make glycogen “glycogenesis” (for storage)
 - 4- 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
- *All these happen when you have enough glucose
- 5- when you are starving the gluconeogenesis will start .



Sources of glucose

1-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

2-Metabolic sources (via gluconeogenesis):

- Glycerol, lactate, pyruvate, glucogenic amino acids

- 1- First there is a lot of glucose used from exogenous sources
- 2- Time 0 start after you have had meal , then the starving period start
- 3- By 4 to 5 hours glucose supply will be limited “fasting phase” at this time you start to break down your glycogen you can survive up to 15 to 16 hours.
- 4- By the time your glycogen stores are finishing up “exhausted” , your body start gluconeogenesis phase
- 5- There is no clear demarcation between phase 3 and 4 the difference is in the gluconeogenesis
- 6- mainly is hepatic gluconeogenesis in phase 3 while the renal gluconeogenesis will start in phase 4
- 7- In phase 4 basically start breaking fat stores , so ketone bodies are produced and used by cells
- 8- In phase 5 the fatty acid stores are kind of exhausted and then will go for the last thing “protein” .

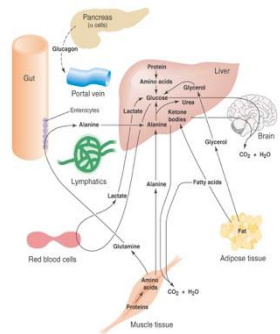
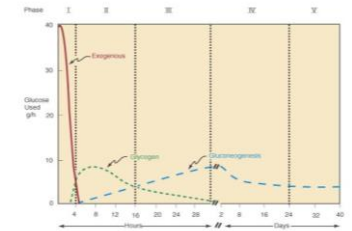


Figure 22.4. Metabolic interrelationships of major tissues in fasting state.

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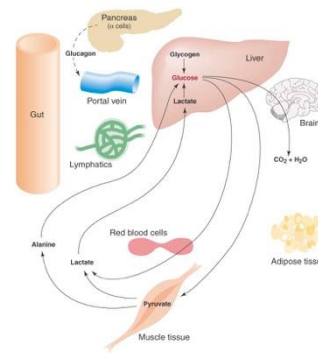


Figure 22.3. Metabolic interrelationships of major tissues in early fasting state.

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Phases of glucose homeostasis					
Phases	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)
Origin of blood glucose	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Glucose is mainly supplied by dietary CHOs Liver removes about 70% of glucose load after a CHO meal 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Hepatic glycogenolysis maintains blood glucose level in this phase Glycogenolysis is the major source of blood glucose in this phase 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Gluconeogenesis is the major source of blood glucose in this phase Hepatic gluconeogenesis from lactate, pyruvate, glycerol and alanine maintains blood glucose level Glycogen 	Hepatic & Renal gluconeogenesis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Hepatic & Renal gluconeogenesis Gluconeogenesis somewhat maintains blood glucose level in this phase
Tissue using glucose	All body tissues use dietary glucose for energy in this phase	All except liver . Muscle and adipose tissue. At diminished rate	All except liver . Muscle and adipose tissue. at rates intermediate between II and IV	Brain , RBCS , renal medulla . Small amount by muscle	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> All body tissues use FA and KB oxidation for energy production brain at a diminished rate , RBC , renal medulla
Major fuel for brain	Glucose	Glucose	Glucose	Brain uses both glucose and KB for energy	glucose and KB
Notes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 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 is inhibited in this phase <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Cori and glucose-alanine cycles are inhibited Some glucose is converted to glycogen for storage in the liver (glycogenesis) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Phase II starts during early fasting when dietary glucose supply is exhausted 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Phase III starts when glycogen stores in liver are exhausted (within 20 hours) Duration of phase III depends on <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Feeding status Hepatic glycogen Stores Physical activity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Several days of fasting leads to phase IV Gluconeogenesis starts to decrease KB accumulation increases which enter the brain for energy production 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Prolonged fasting leads to phase V Less dependence on gluconeogenesis High KB conc. 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

Hormones and glucose homeostasis

Hormones that regulate glucose metabolism:

Insulin (lowers blood glucose level)

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Plays a major role in glucose homeostasis Synthesized by the β-cells of islets of Langerhans of pancreas A small protein composed of two chains Formed as prepro-insulin and converted to pro-insulin upon secretion Rise in blood glucose level stimulates insulin secretion Promotes entry of glucose into cells 	<table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <th style="background-color: #e2efda; padding: 5px;">Mechanism of action</th> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding: 5px;"> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The insulin receptor is present on the plasma membrane of cell Composed of <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 2α-subunit (extracellular) 2β-subunit (cytoplasmic) Binding of insulin to α-subunit causes phosphorylation of β-subunit This activates the receptor The activated receptor then phosphorylates intracellular proteins generating a biological response </td> </tr> </table>	Mechanism of action	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The insulin receptor is present on the plasma membrane of cell Composed of <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 2α-subunit (extracellular) 2β-subunit (cytoplasmic) Binding of insulin to α-subunit causes phosphorylation of β-subunit This activates the receptor The activated receptor then phosphorylates intracellular proteins generating a biological response 	<table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <th style="background-color: #e2efda; padding: 5px;">Insulin and CHO metabolism</th> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding: 5px;"> <p>Promotes glucose uptake into cell:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Glucose is diffused into cells through hexose transporters such as GLUT4 GLUT4 is present in cytoplasmic vesicles Insulin binding to its receptor causes vesicles to diffuse into plasma membrane GLUT4 is inserted into the membrane Allowing glucose transport into the cell Brain and liver have non-insulin dependent glucose transporter Stimulates glycogen synthesis Decreases blood glucose levels Increases glycolysis Stimulates protein synthesis Insulin deficiency causes diabetes mellitus Hyperinsulinemia is due to insulin resistance in: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Diabetes mellitus Metabolic syndrome </td> </tr> </table>	Insulin and CHO metabolism	<p>Promotes glucose uptake into cell:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Glucose is diffused into cells through hexose transporters such as GLUT4 GLUT4 is present in cytoplasmic vesicles Insulin binding to its receptor causes vesicles to diffuse into plasma membrane GLUT4 is inserted into the membrane Allowing glucose transport into the cell Brain and liver have non-insulin dependent glucose transporter Stimulates glycogen synthesis Decreases blood glucose levels Increases glycolysis Stimulates protein synthesis Insulin deficiency causes diabetes mellitus Hyperinsulinemia is due to insulin resistance in: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Diabetes mellitus Metabolic syndrome
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Insulin actions						
Stimulate	Inhibit					
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1- Glucose uptake in muscle and adipose tissue 2- Glycolysis 3- Glycogen synthesis 4- Protein synthesis 5- Uptake of ions (especially K^+ and PO_4^{-3}) 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1- Gluconeogenesis 2- Glycogenolysis 3- Lipolysis 4- Ketogenesis 5- Proteolysis 					

Antagonize insulin action

Glucagon	Cortisol	Growth hormone	Adrenaline
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A peptide hormone secreted by α-cells of pancreatic islets Secreted in response to hypoglycemia Increases glucose levels Stimulates glycogenolysis Activates hepatic gluconeogenesis 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Cortisol is a steroid hormone secreted by adrenal gland Contributes to glucose homeostasis Maintains normal glucose levels in fasting <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Stimulates gluconeogenesis in the liver Mobilizes amino acids for gluconeogenesis Inhibits glucose uptake by cells Stimulates fat breakdown in adipose tissue 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A protein hormone secreted by anterior pituitary gland Maintains blood glucose levels by: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Inhibiting insulin action Stimulating gluconeogenesis in the liver 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A catecholamine hormone secreted by adrenal gland Stimulates lipolysis in adipose tissue when glucose blood levels fall Promotes glycogenolysis in skeletal muscle