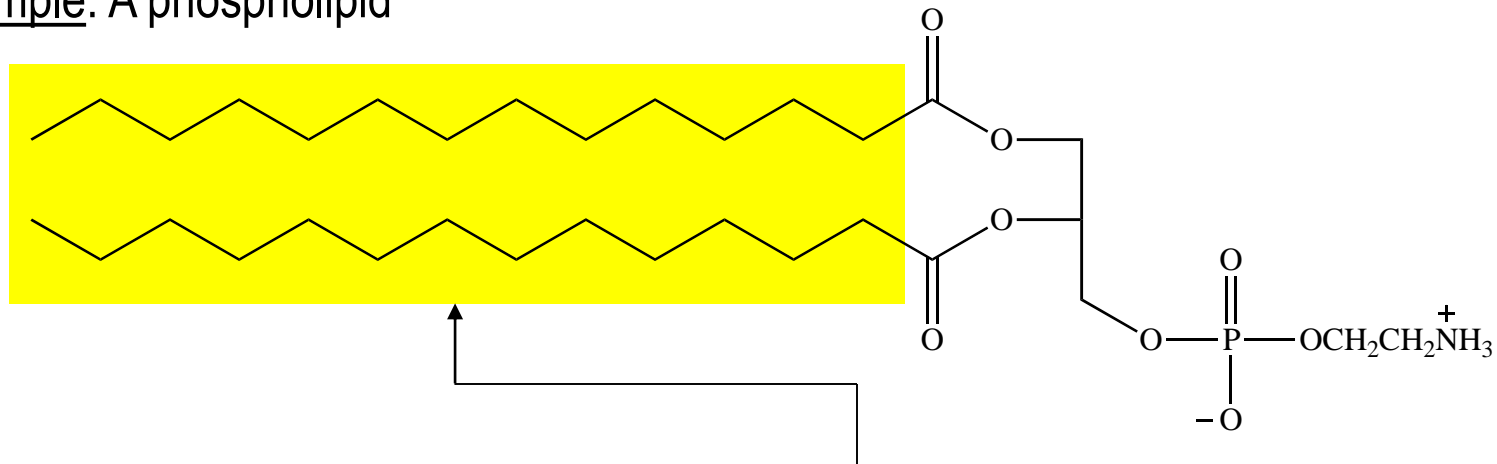


Lipids

Definitions

Lipid (Greek: *lipos*, fat): organic molecule of biological origin that is insoluble in water and soluble in nonpolar solvents (CH_2Cl_2 , $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_3$, etc.)

Example: A phospholipid



- Lipid solubility properties due to large **nonpolar regions**
- Found mostly in fatty tissues, membranes, and other nonpolar biological structures
- Nonpolar: **hydrophobic** (“water hating”) or **lipophilic** (“fat loving”)
- Polar: **hydrophilic** (“water loving”) or **lipophobic** (“fat hating”)

Lipids

Categories

General Categories of Lipids

Fatty acids

Waxes

Triacylglycerols

Phospholipids

Prostaglandins

Steroids

Lipophilic vitamins

Terpenes • *Produced mostly by plants*

Biological role

1. Fuel

-(adipocytes)

Oxidation in mitochondria

2. Nutrients

Amphipathic lipids- build cell membrane (ph.l., glycolipids, cholesterol)

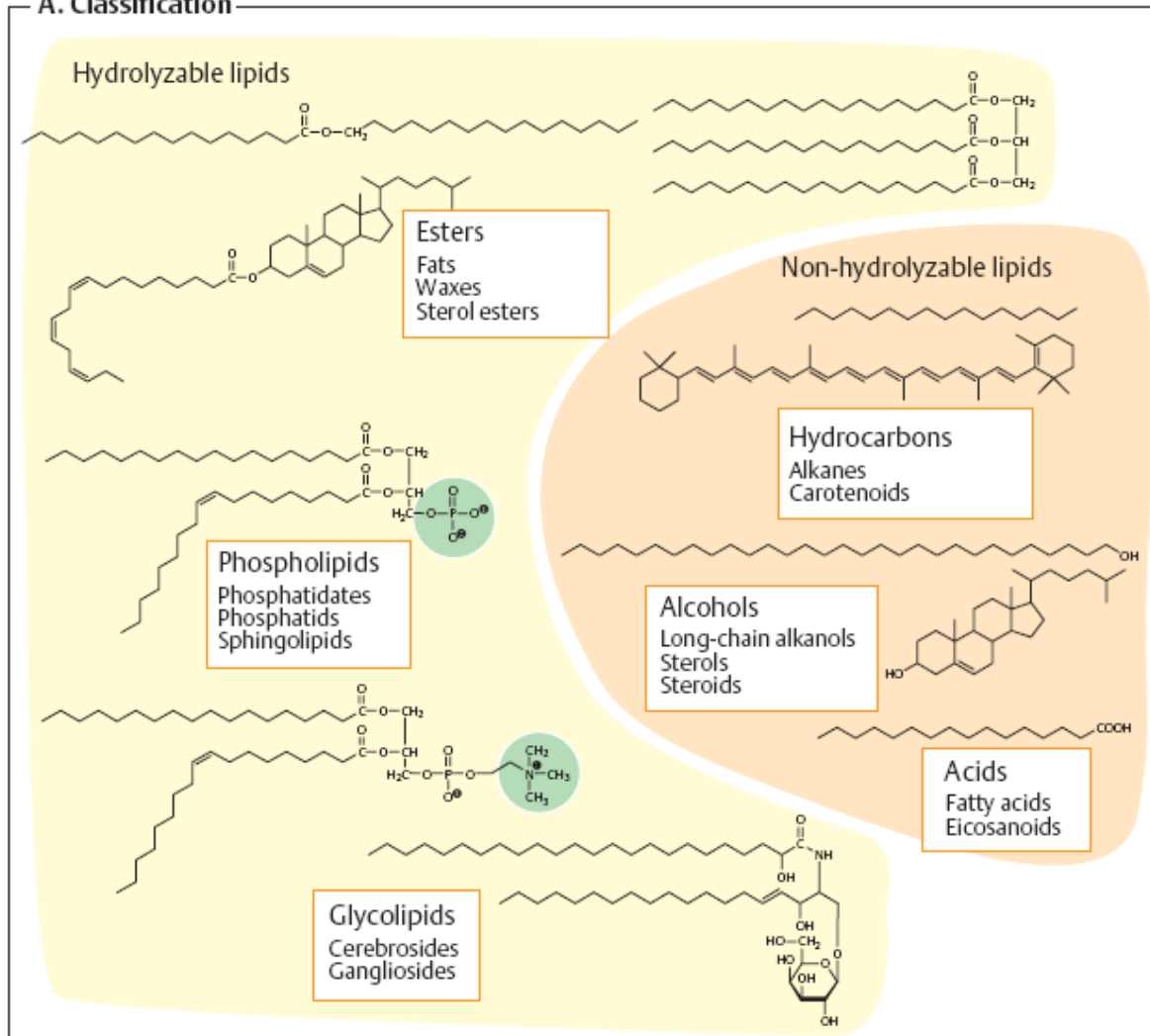
3. Insulation

Mechanical and thermal insulation

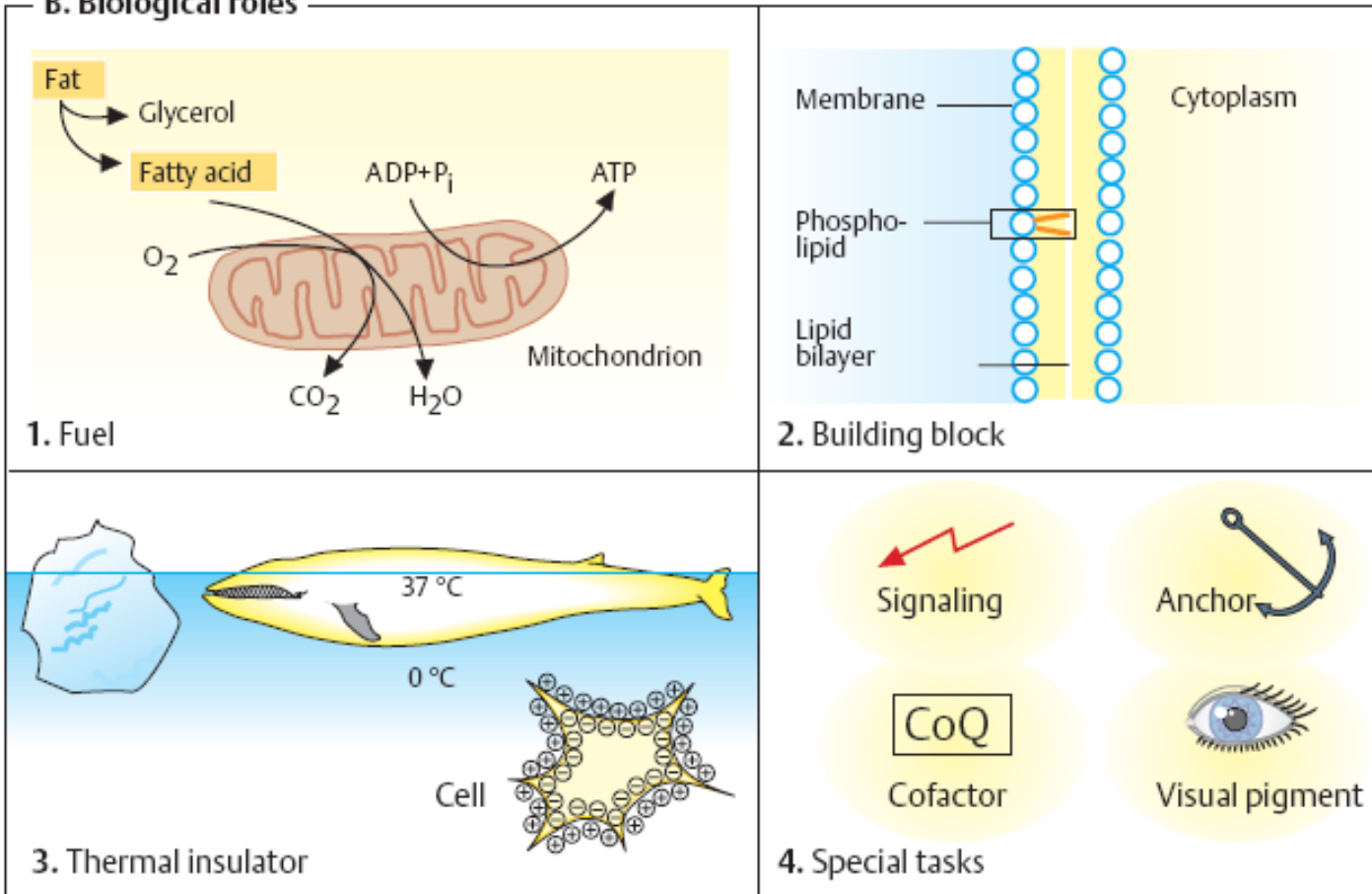
4. special task

-signaling function, cofactors

A. Classification



B. Biological roles



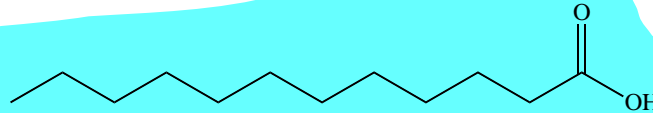
Fatty Acids

Fatty acid: unbranched carboxylic acid

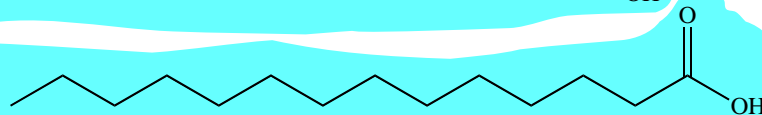
- Most have even number of carbons: two carbons added at a time during biosynthesis
- 12-20 carbons most common
- Most biologically-important fatty acids have 18 carbons: stearic, oleic, and linoleic acids
- Main biological function: component of other lipids
- Categorized by C=C in chain: saturated (no C=C) or unsaturated (one or more C=C)

Saturated fatty acids

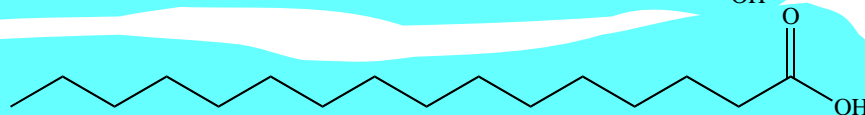
Lauric acid (12 C)



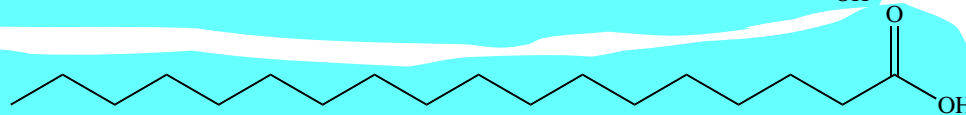
Myristic acid (14 C)



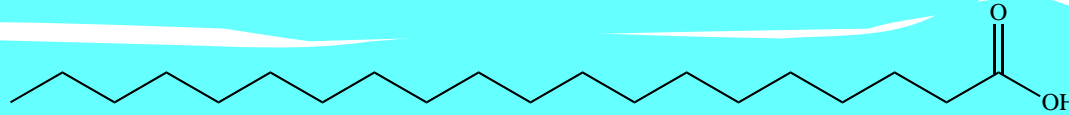
Palmitic acid (16 C)



Stearic acid (18 C)



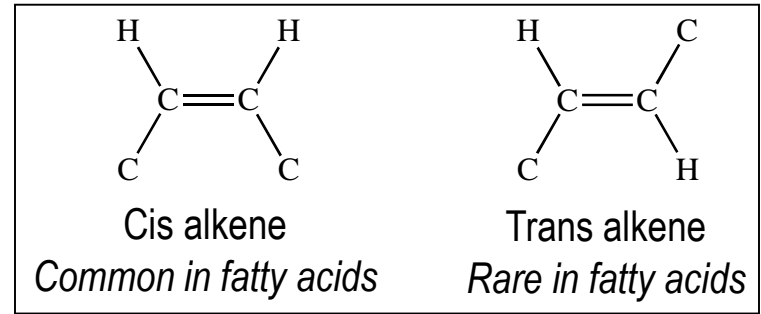
Arachidic acid (20 C)



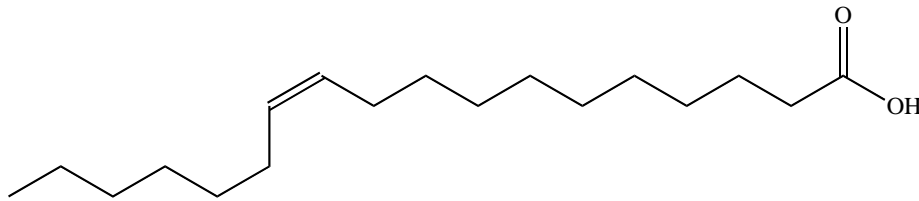
Fatty Acids

Unsaturated fatty acids

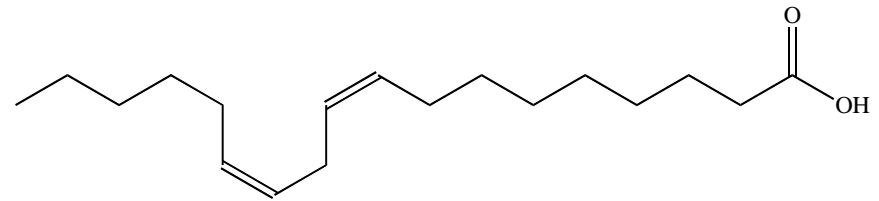
- **Monounsaturated:** contains one C=C
- **Polyunsaturated:** contains more than one C=C
- Cis C=C much more common than trans C=C



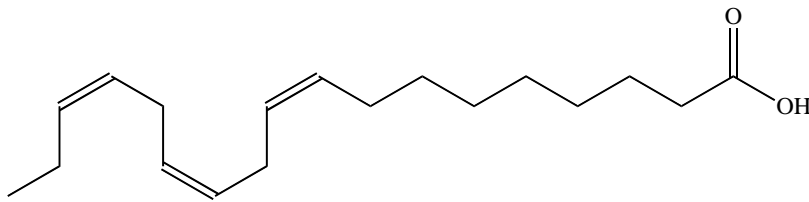
Some important unsaturated fatty acids



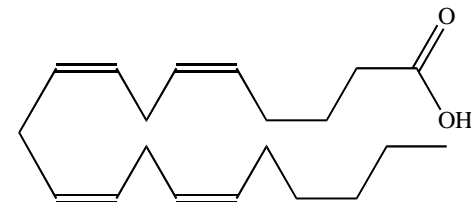
Oleic acid (C₁₈)



Linoleic acid (C₁₈)



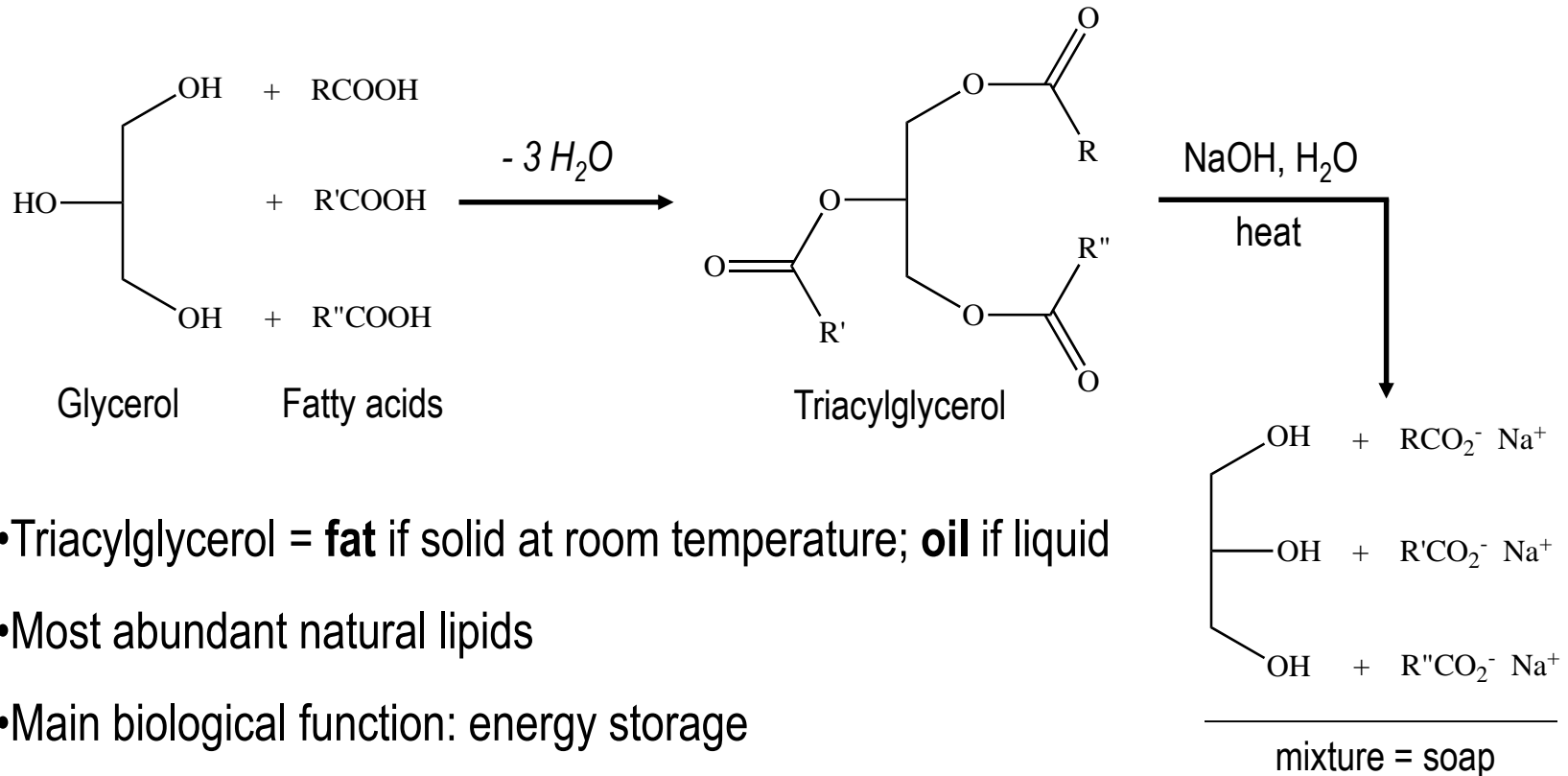
Linolenic acid (C₁₈)



Arachidonic acid (C₂₀)

Triacylglycerols

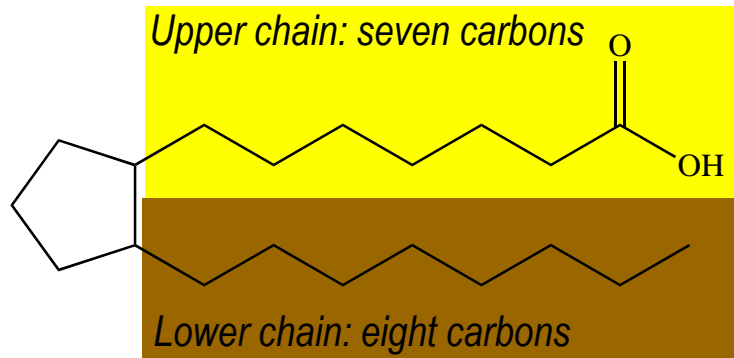
Triacylglycerol (triacylglyceride): fatty acid triester of **glycerol (glycerin)**



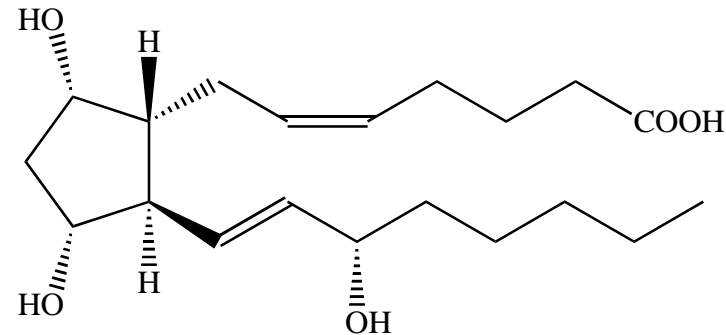
- Triacylglycerol = **fat** if solid at room temperature; **oil** if liquid
- Most abundant natural lipids
- Main biological function: energy storage
- Hydrolysis (“water breaking”) of animal fats yields soap

Prostaglandins

Prostaglandin: molecule having the **prostanoic acid** skeleton



Prostanoic acid



Prostaglandin F_{2α} (PGF_{2α})

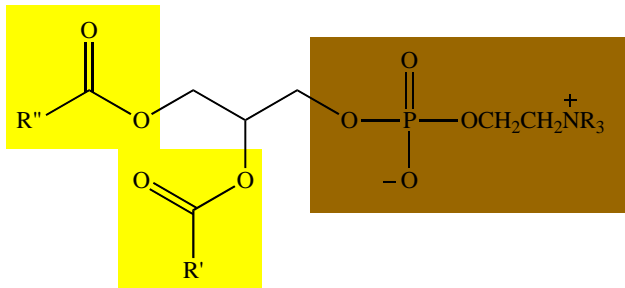
- Nomenclature: based on stereochemistry, number of OH, C=C, C=O groups
- Biological functions: mostly as regulators and signal molecules
 - cause constriction or dilatation in vascular and other smooth muscle cells
 - regulate aggregation and disaggregation of platelets
 - sensitize spinal neurons to pain
 - regulate inflammatory mediation, calcium movement, hormones
 - control cell growth

Phospholipids

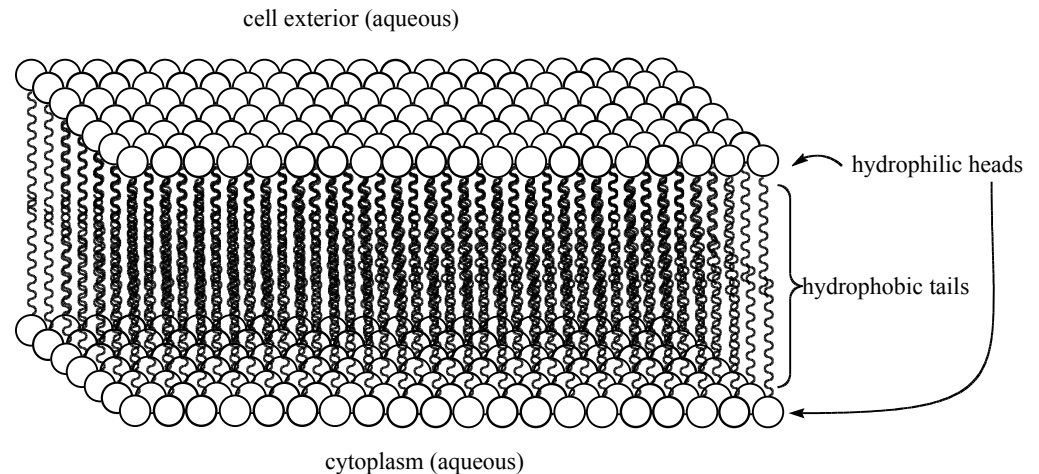
Phospholipid: Glycerol esterified with two fatty acids and one phosphate group

Fatty acid esters

Phosphate ester



Generic phospholipid structure

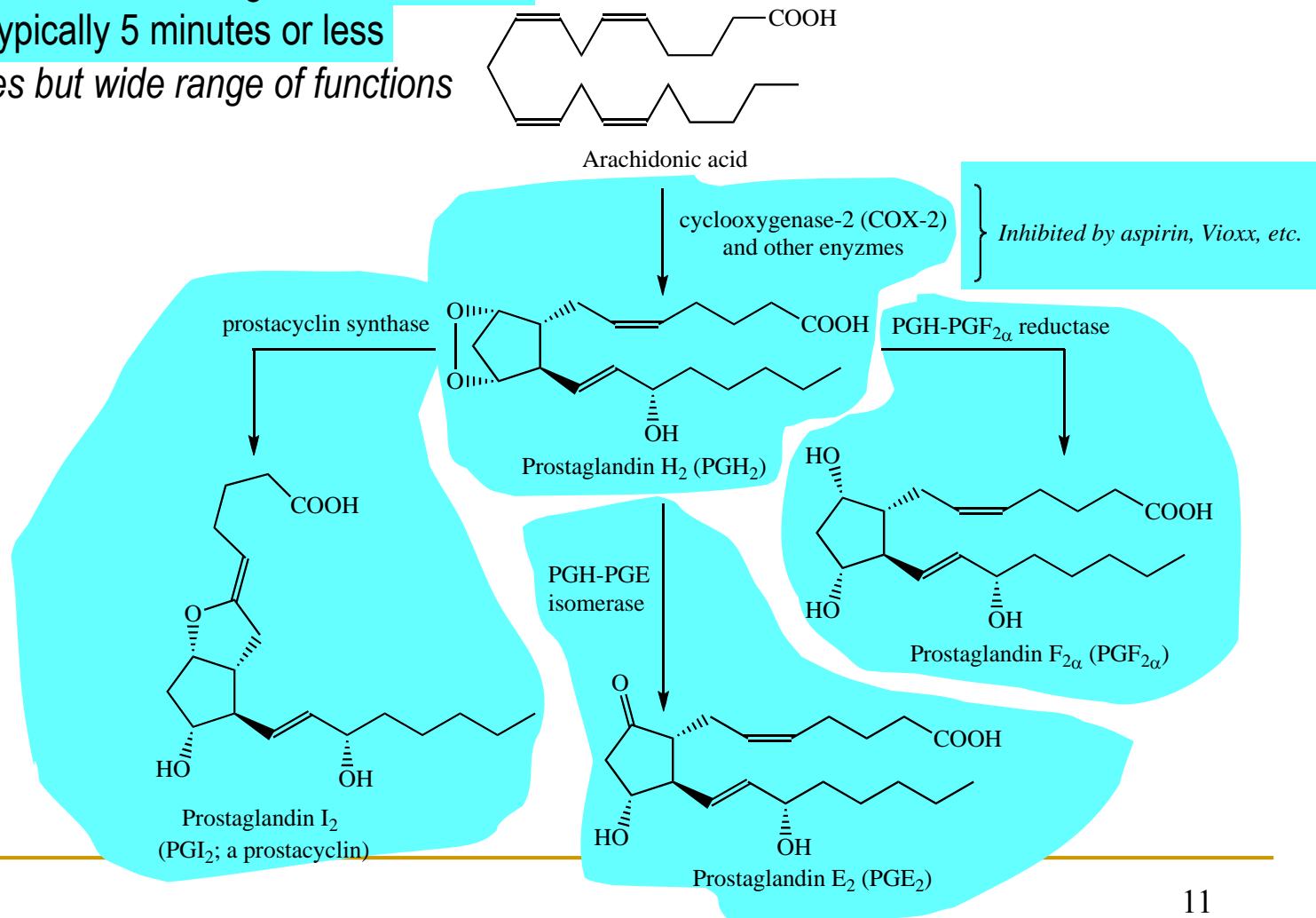


Simplified cell membrane

- Fatty acids are usually palmitic (C_{16}), stearic (C_{18}), and oleic (C_{18})
- Second most abundant group of natural lipids
- Main biological function: cell membranes (phospholipid bilayer)
- **Hydrophobic effect:** hydrophobic tails avoid water

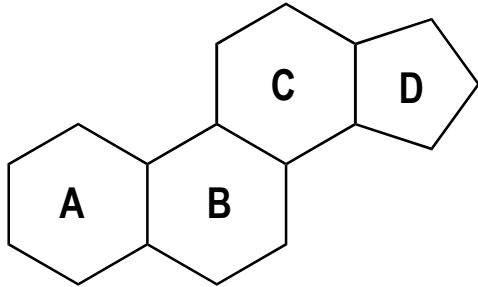
Prostaglandins

- Biological origin: prostaglandin cascade
- May occur at wound site, leading to inflammation
- *in vivo* half-life typically 5 minutes or less
- Similar structures but wide range of functions

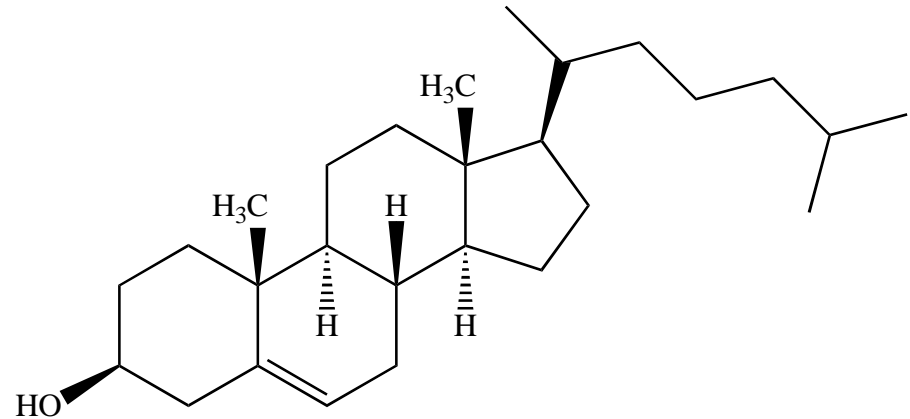


Steroids

Steroid: a molecule having the ring system shown below

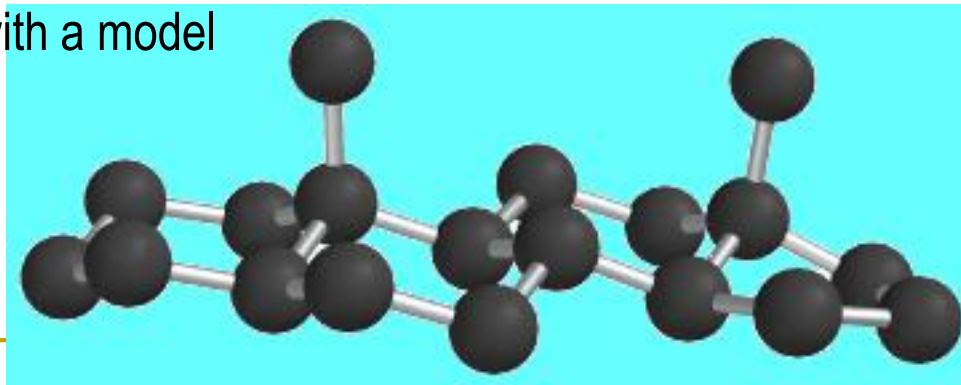


Steroid skeleton



Steroid example: cholesterol

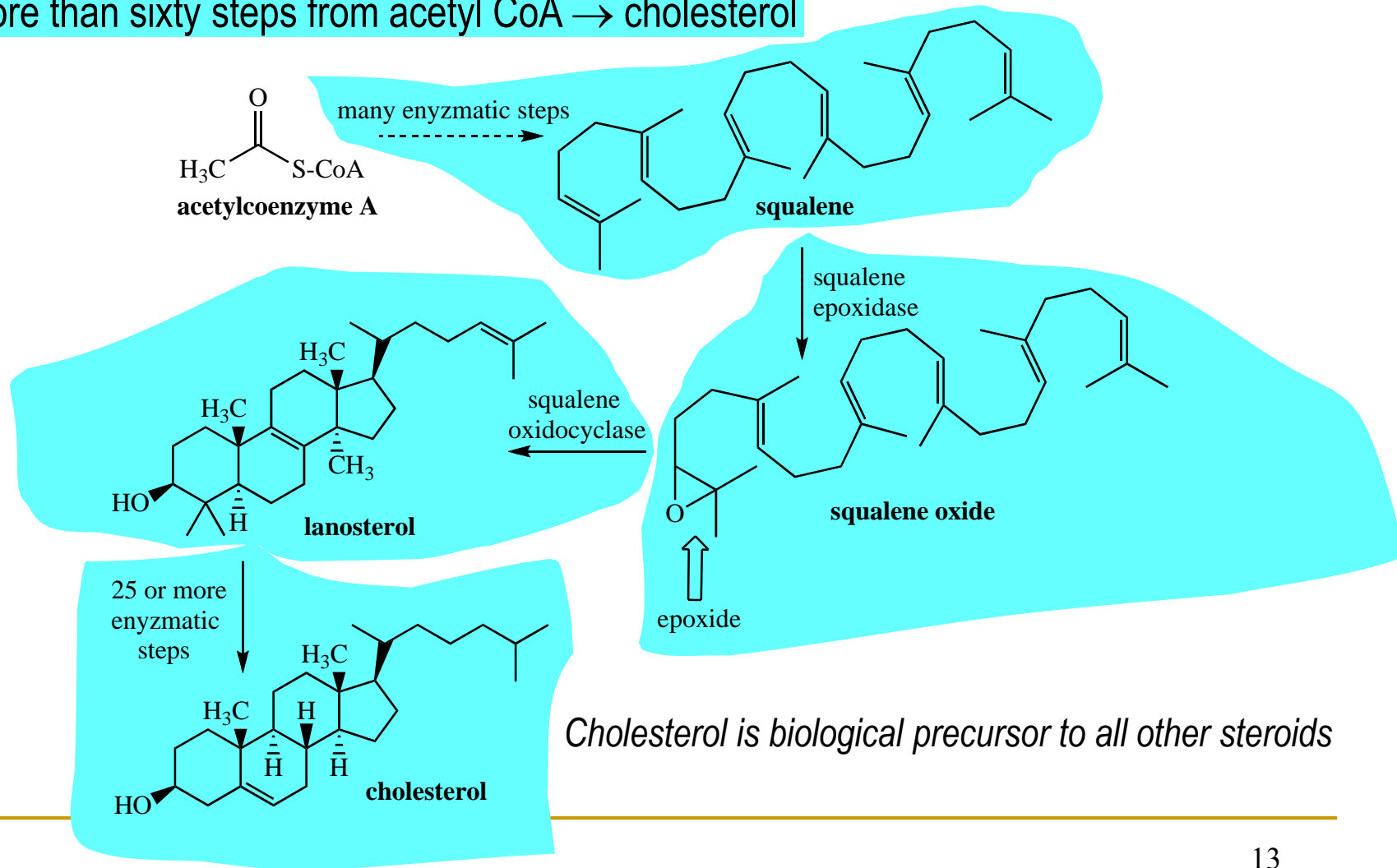
- Shape: fairly flat and fairly rigid
- Verify and explore with a model



Steroids

Steroid Biosynthesis

• More than sixty steps from acetyl CoA → cholesterol

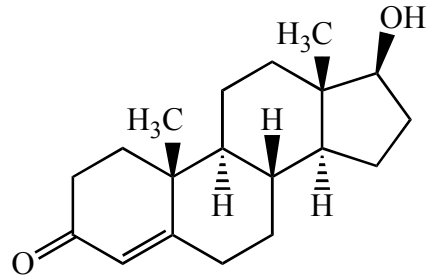


Cholesterol is biological precursor to all other steroids

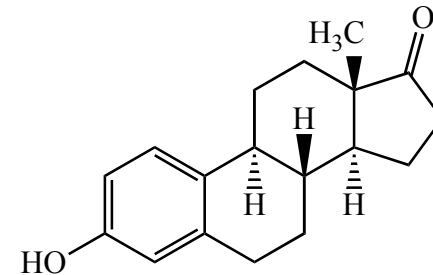
Steroids

Steroid categories and examples

Sex hormones:

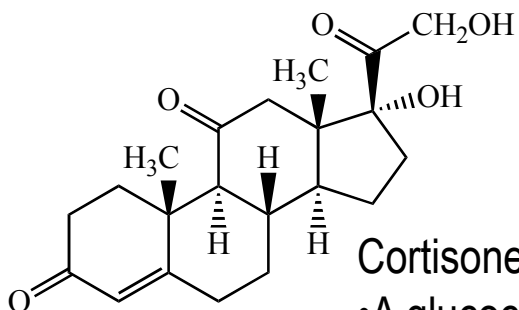


Testosterone (*an androgen*)



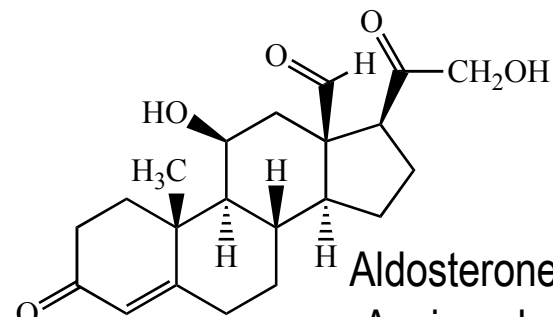
Estrone (*an estrogen*)

Corticoid hormones: •Synthesized in the adrenal complex
•Regulate metabolic processes



Cortisone

- A glucocorticoid hormone
- Regulates inflammation
- Regulates glucose metabolism

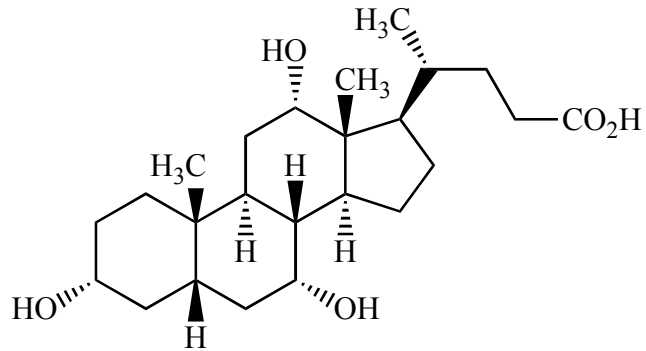


Aldosterone

- A mineralocorticoid hormone
- Regulates Na⁺/K⁺ balance

Steroids

Steroid categories and examples



Bile acids

- Aid in digestion by emulsifying fats in intestine

Steroids have similar structures but wide range of functions

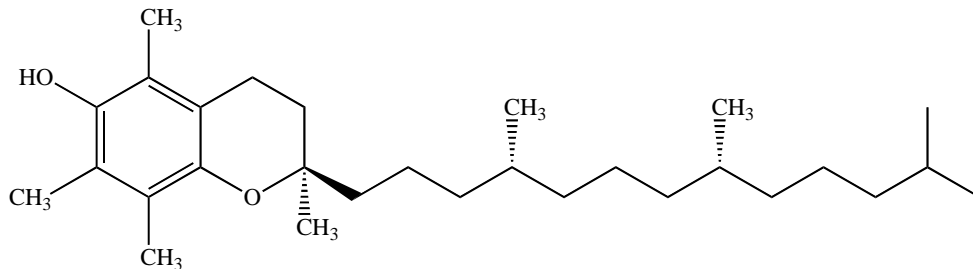
Lipophilic Vitamins

Vitamin: an organic compound, other than fat, protein or carbohydrate, required for the normal growth and maintenance of animals

- Very broad range of structures and functions

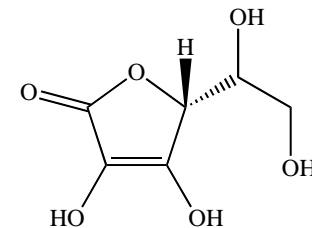
Vitamin E

- Mixture of isomers; α -tocopherol most important
- Protects against oxidative damage to cells from radicals



α -Tocopherol

Hydrophobic antioxidant vitamin



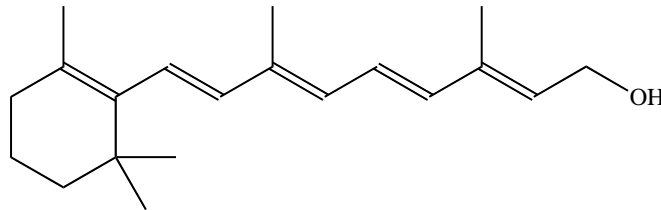
Vitamin C (ascorbic acid)

Hydrophilic antioxidant vitamin

Lipophilic Vitamins

Vitamin A (retinol)

- Essential to vision
- Incorporated into rhodopsin (photon-harvesting protein)



Lipid metabolism

metabolism of TG and FA

100 g/day

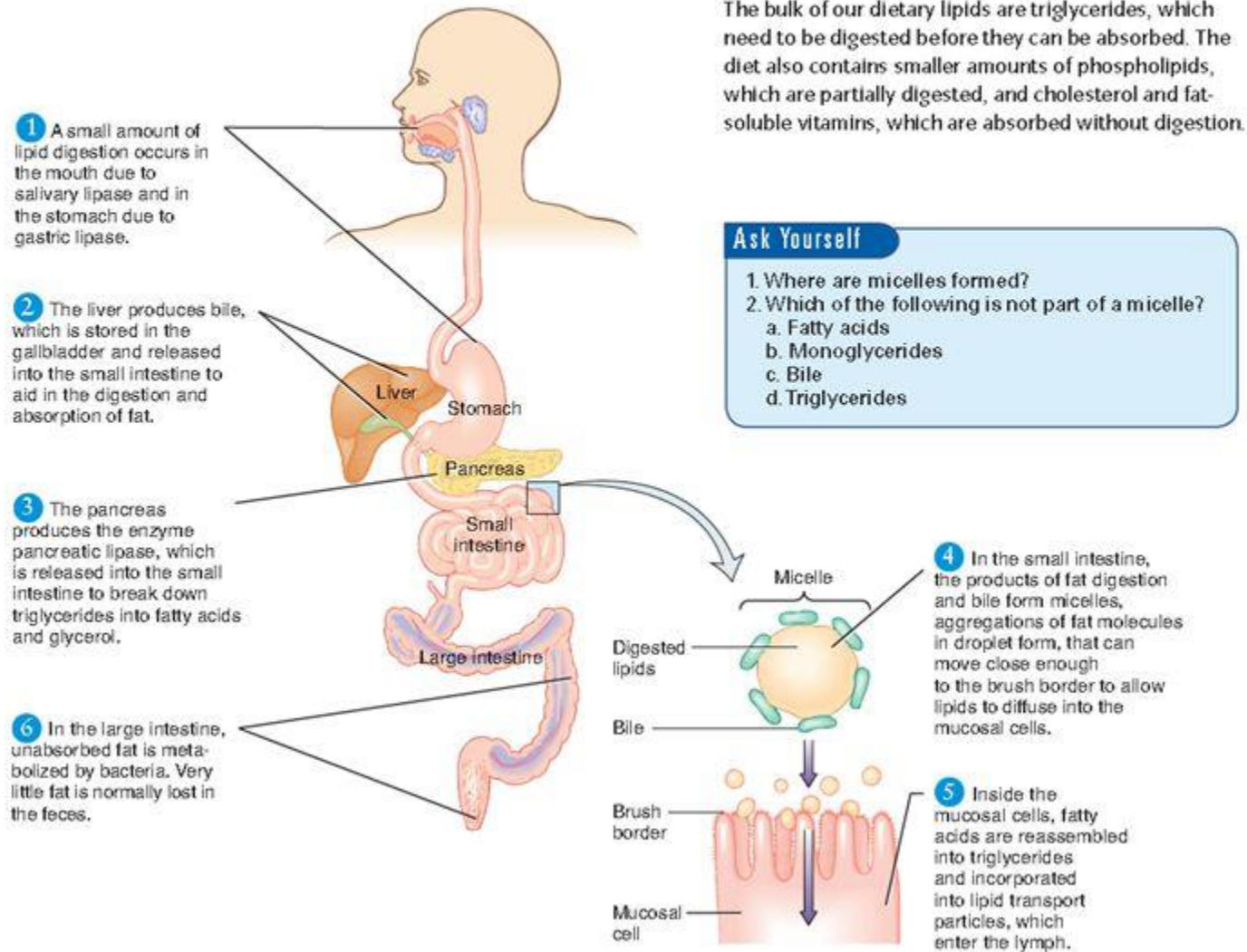
energy source

metabolism of
structural lipids

2 g/day

Compared to most of the carbohydrates and FA are lipids (mainly TG, FA, esterified cholesterol) hydrophobic (non-polar). However, the environment in which the metabolism of nutrients takes place is filled with water which is polar. Therefore, in the body they are natural surfactants, able to receive, transport and enable the metabolism of lipids.

Lipid digestion and absorption



The bulk of our dietary lipids are triglycerides, which need to be digested before they can be absorbed. The diet also contains smaller amounts of phospholipids, which are partially digested, and cholesterol and fat-soluble vitamins, which are absorbed without digestion.

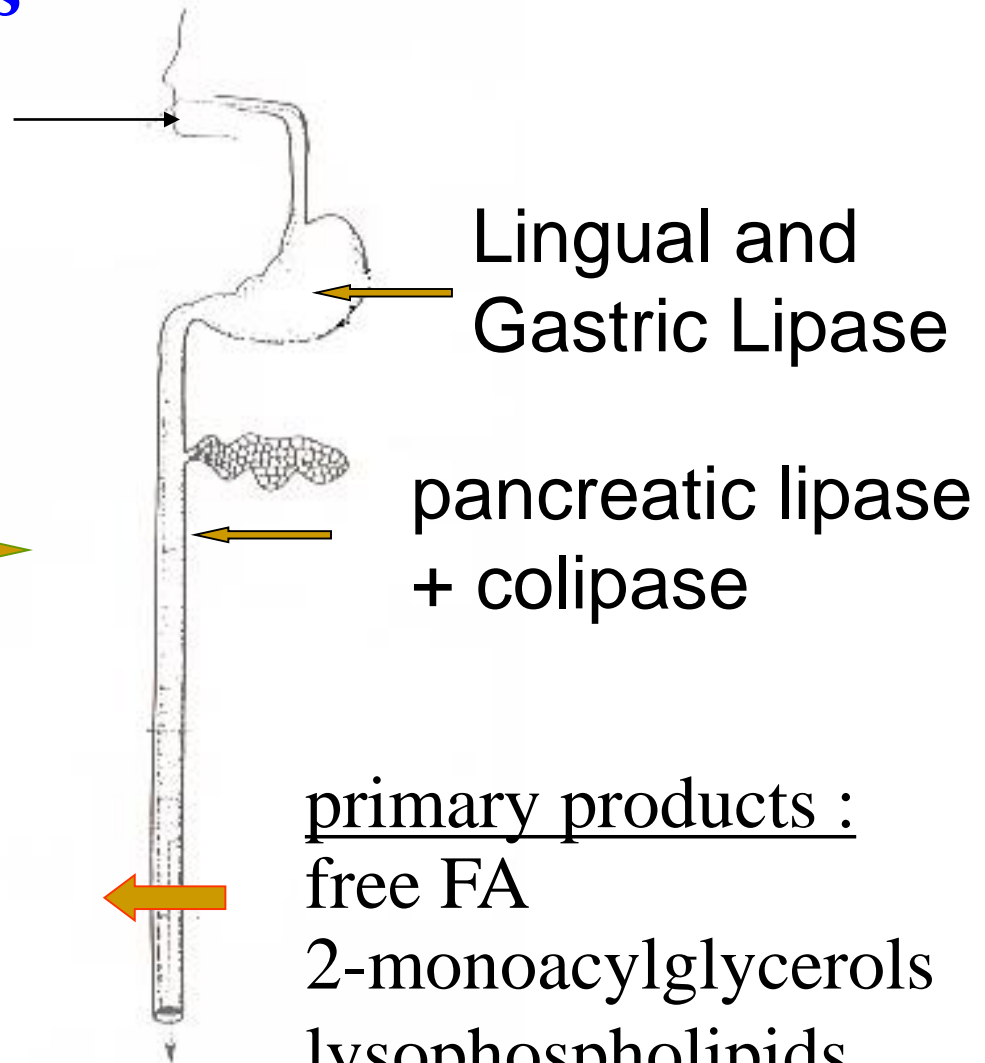
Digestion of lipids

Triglycerides (TG)-90%
phospholipids (PL)

Cholesteryl ester (CHE)
glycolipids (GL)
lipophilic vitamins (LV)

Bile acids

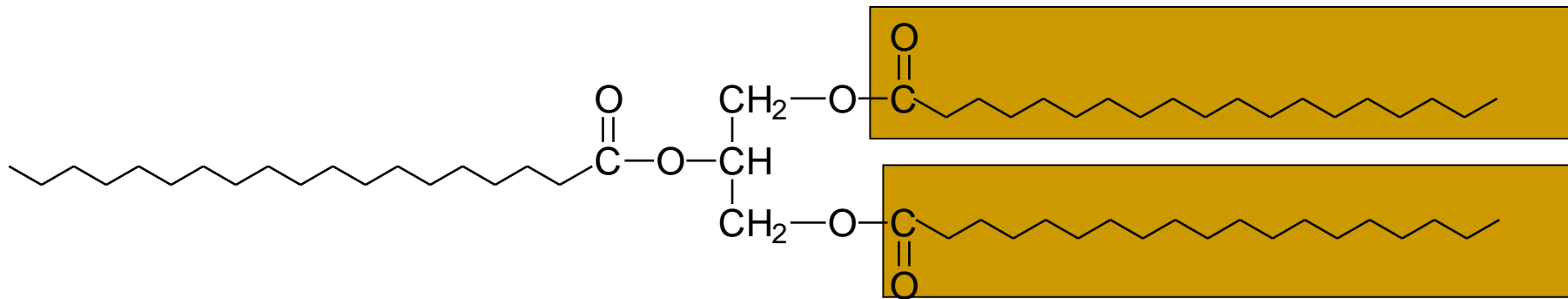
Resorption to the enterocytes in the form of mixed micelles (particles <20 nm)



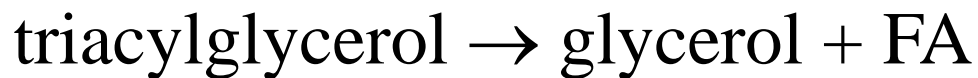
primary products :
free FA
2-monoacylglycerols
lysophospholipids
cholesterol
lipophilic vitamins

Cleavage of lipids in the intestine by pancreatic enzymes

- **pancreatic lipase**



< 1/4 TG

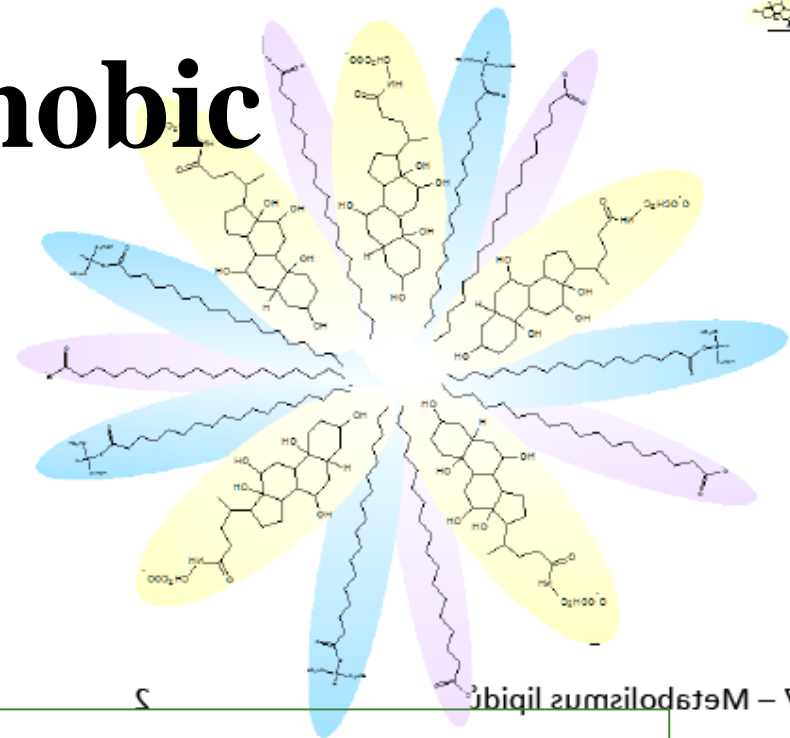


Lipids are hydrophobic

triacylglycerols

free fatty acids

esterified cholesterol



Their transport and metabolism takes place through various natural surfactants.

The first problem with the fact that they are non-polar lipids and internal environment of our bodies is polar occurs in the small intestine.

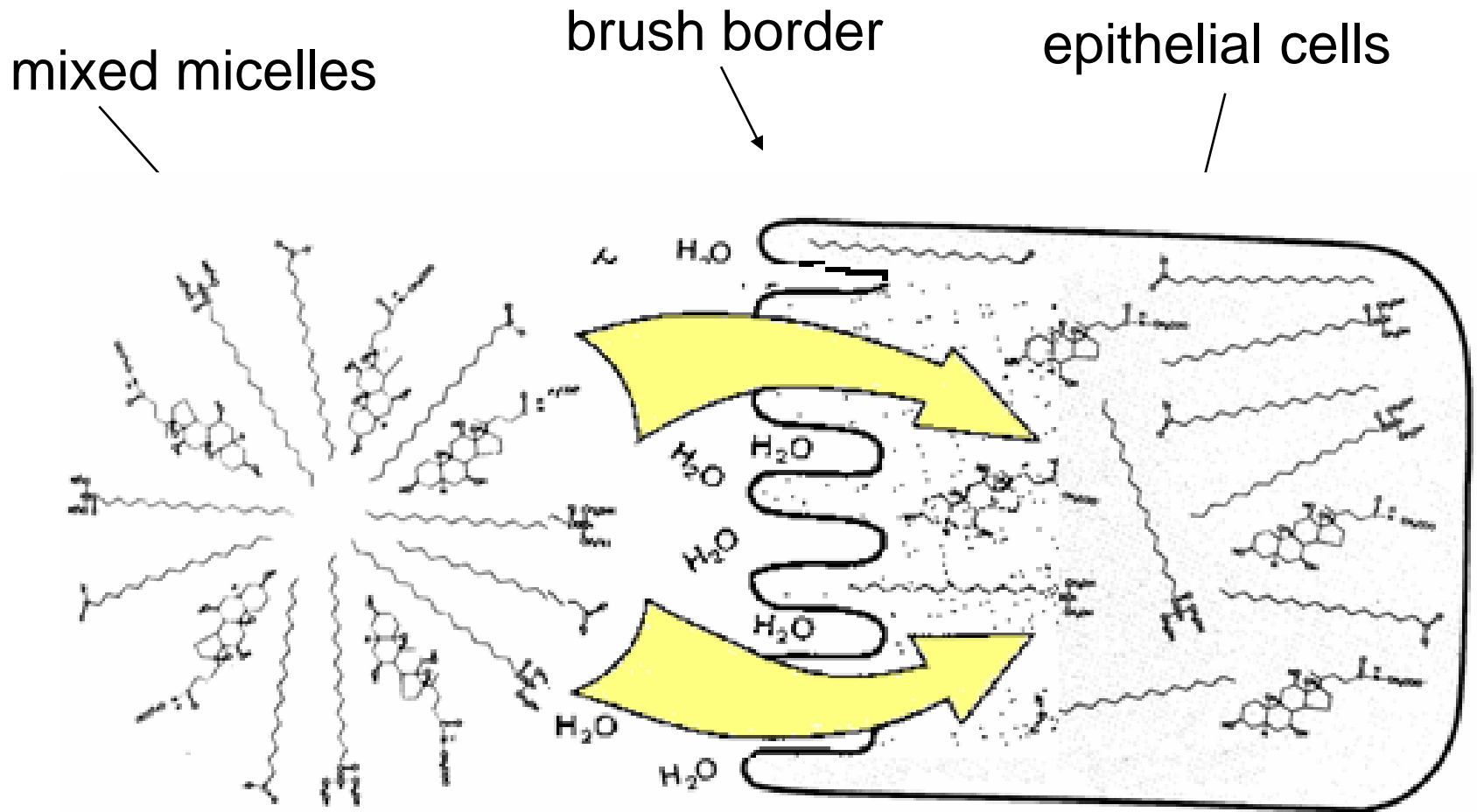
Solution to the problem is the formation of mixed micelles, which is provided by surfactants of the small intestine as bile acids, phospholipids, salts of free FA (soaps) and 2-glycerides. Nonpolar lipids "hide" between polar surfactants and in this polar packaging can be transported into the cells of the intestinal mucosa.

Natural surfactants in the absorption of fat

Surfactant	Type	Origin
Bile acids	anionic	from cholesterol in the liver
2-Acylglycerol	nonionic	TAG hydrolysis in the intestine
Anions of FA	anionic	TAG hydrolysis in the intestine
Phospholipids	amphoteric	food

Form a micelle, which enters into the enterocytes

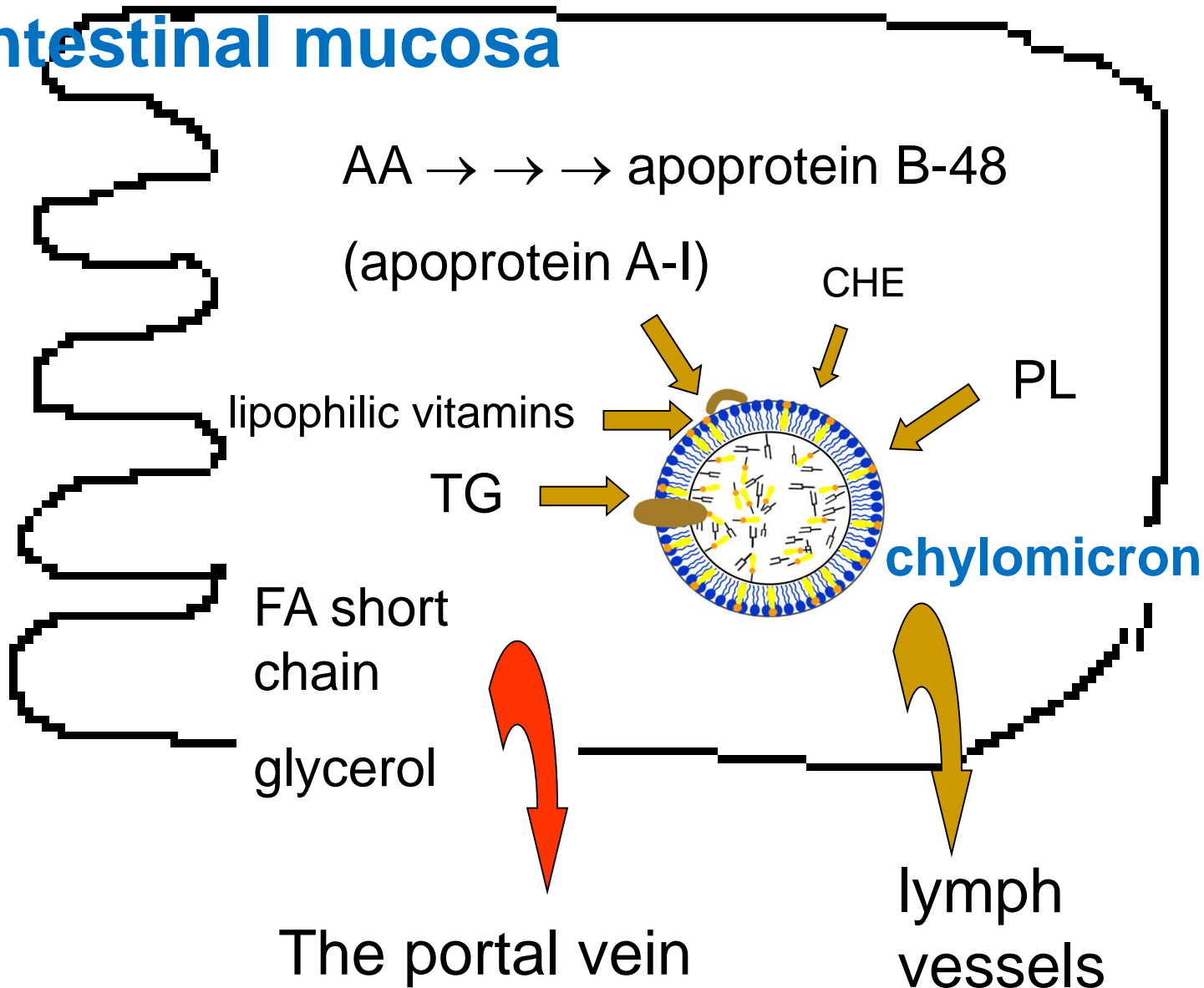
Resorption of lipid cells of the intestinal mucosa (Mostly in the jejunum, bile acids to the ileum)



The diameter of
<20 nm

Passive diffusion of monoglycerides and FA²⁴

Transport of lipids from cells of the intestinal mucosa



Blood plasma

transport of triacylglycerols in the form of lipoproteins

fatty acids bound to albumin.

Lipoproteins are the transport form of non-polar lipids in blood

More specifically, we will focus on lipoproteins, which we can say that they are a "transport form" otherwise non-polar lipids in the blood.

Lipoprotein is composed of a core and cover. At the core we find transmitted lipids (TAG, cholesterol esters), the packaging is made of phospholipids, cholesterol, and various proteins (integral and peripheral).

Lipoprotein size for most types does not exceed the size of the colloidal particles (ie the 500 nm), only one type (chylomicrons) has a diameter greater than 500 microns.

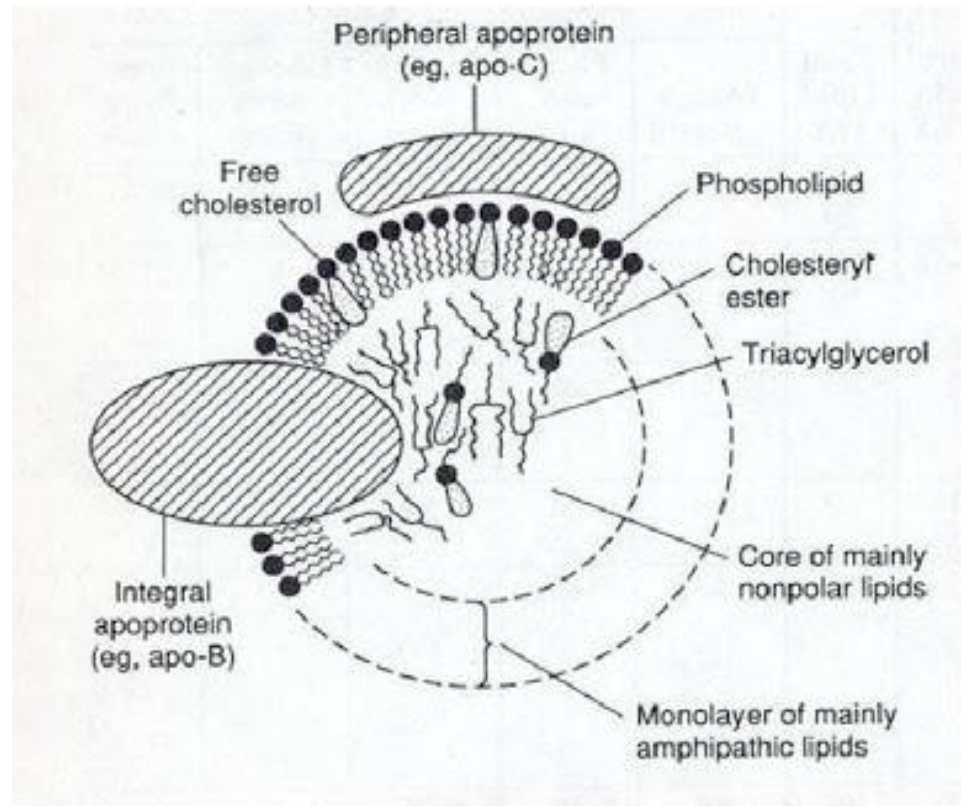
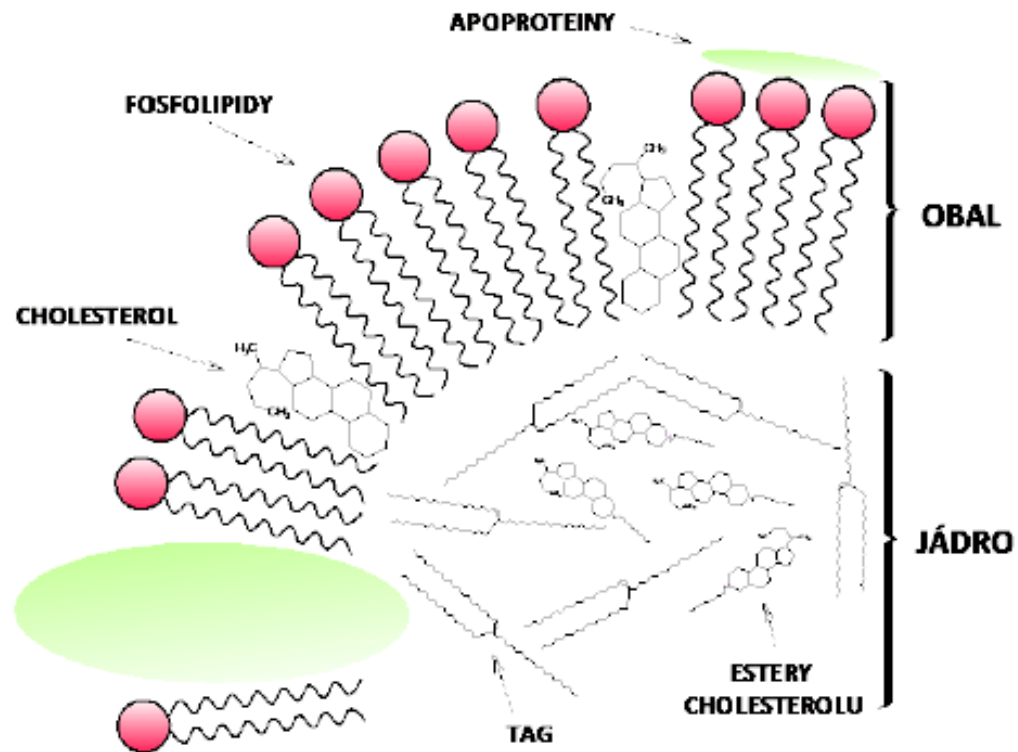


Figure : LIPOPROTEIN STRUCTURE

www.toosogie-lipid-diagnostic.blogspot.com/

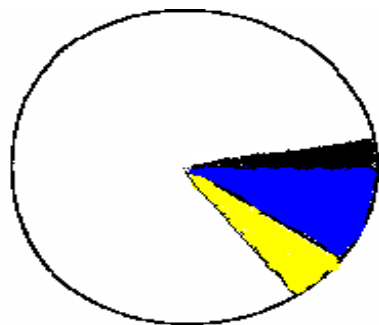


Podle různé hustoty rozdělujeme lipoproteiny do 4 typů:

Název	Hustota	Typ přenášených lipidů
Chylomikrony (CM)	nejnižší hustota	lipidy přijaté potravou
VLDL	very low density lipoprotein	lipidy vzniklé v játrech určené na export
LDL	low density lipoprotein	transport cholesterolu
HDL	high density lipoprotein	transport cholesterolu

Types of lipoproteins

Density of lipoprotein is determined by its composition. If we focus on the 4 basic structural components of lipoprotein (TAG - triacylglycerol, CH - cholesterol, PL - phospholipids, P - proteins), the percentage of these components can be expressed by the following graphs.



Chylomikron
CM



VLDL



LDL



HDL

TG

PL

CH

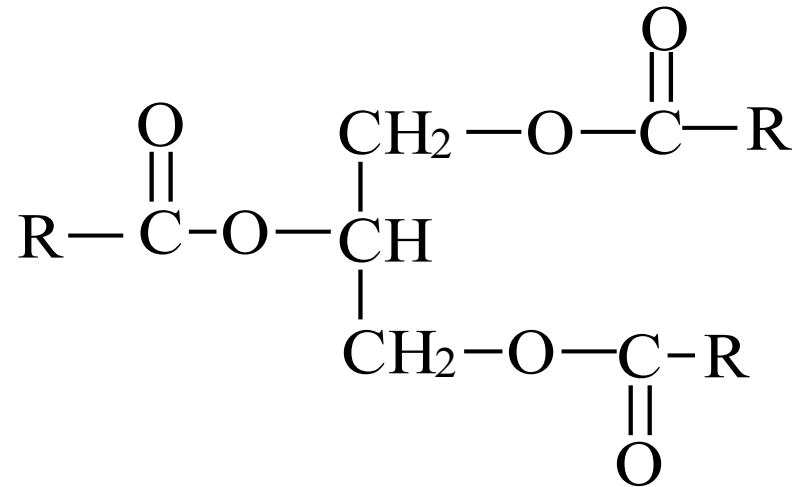
Proteiny

NOVÁK, Jan. Biochemie
I. Brno: Muni, 2009,
Metabolismus lipidů s. 4

Metabolism of triglycerides

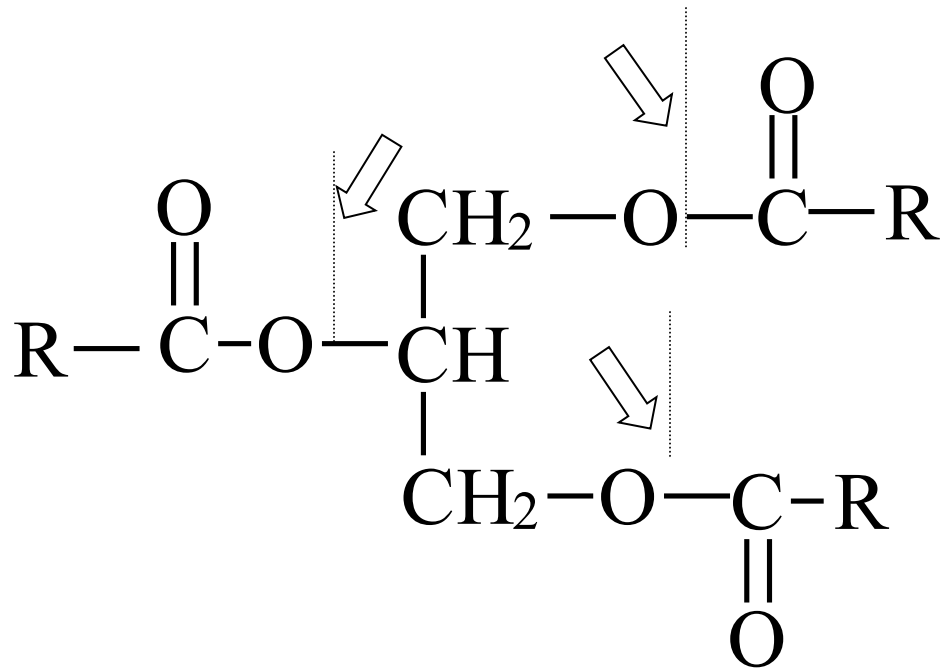
The most commonly accepted dietary triglycerides, which are esters of glycerol and fatty acids. Their metabolism begins by hydrolysis to glycerol and FA. FA and glycerol then go through a completely different metabolic pathways.

Decomposition of TAG into glycerol and FA by enzymes called lipases (enzymes from the group of hydrolases) which cleave the ester bond between the glycerol and the chain of FA.



1. Hydrolytic cleavage of fatty acids
2. Metabolism of fatty acids and glycerol

Lipases catalyze the hydrolysis of triacylglycerols



Cleave the ester bond between the glycerol and FA

Lipases

Extracellular

pancreatic lipase
(small intestine)

- lipoprotein lipase
(blood)

- hepatic lipase
(surface of
sinusoid)

Intracellular

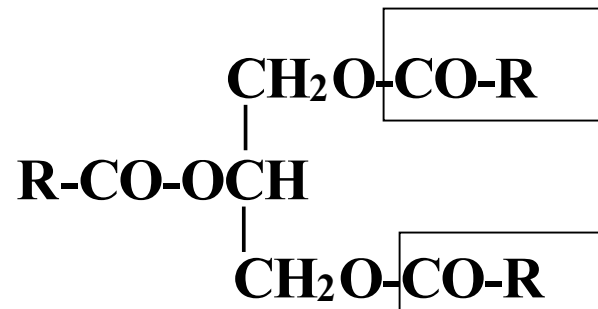
- hormone-sensitive
(adipocytes - fat cells)

- acidic lipase (lysosomes)

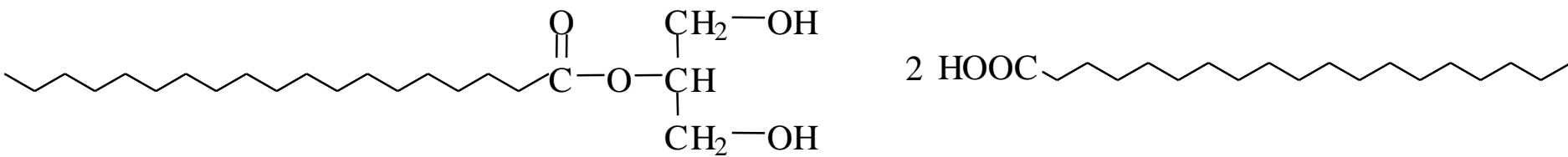
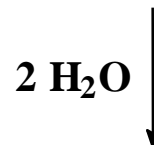
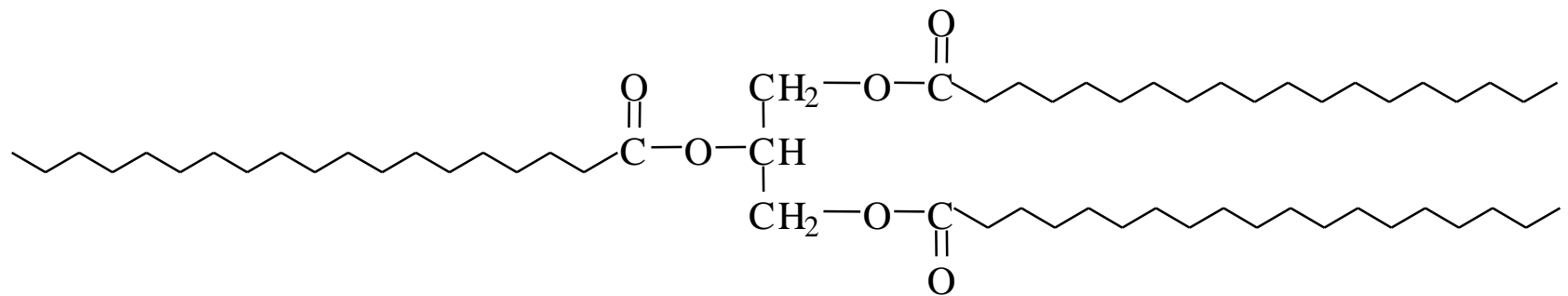
Pancreatic lipase

(+ colipase)

- operates in the small intestine, splits fats ingested
- triacylglycerol \rightarrow 2-monoacylglycerol + 2 FA



Effect of pancreatic lipase

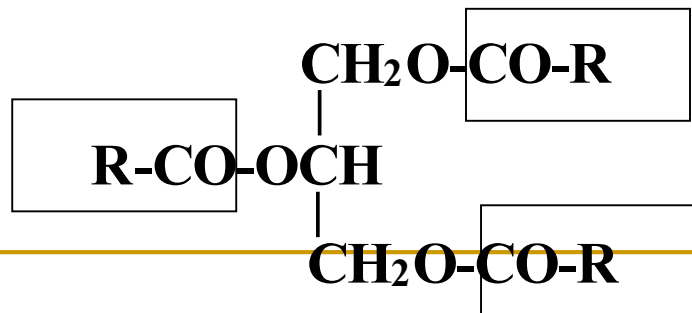


Lipoprotein lipase

- acts on chylomicrons and VLDL in blood

cleaves triglycerides contained therein

triacylglycerol \rightarrow glycerol + 3 FA



Adipocytal lipase (hormone sensitive)

active in adipocytes

- depends on hormone action
(glucagon - starvation, adrenaline, noradrenaline - stress)
- releases fatty acids into the blood

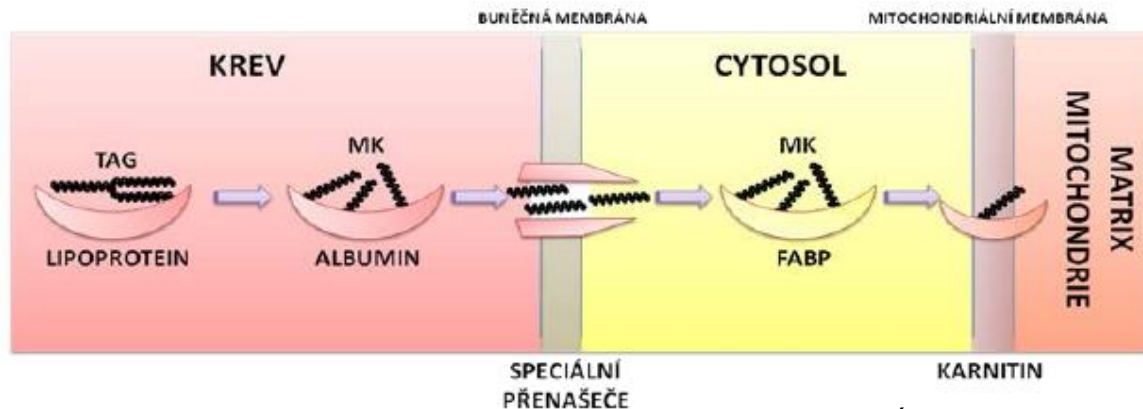
triglyceride \rightarrow glycerol + 3 FA

Transport of fatty acids in ECT

TAG release of the ECT (CM, VLDL)

Release of TG in adipocytes, hormonesensitive action of lipase (Hormonal regulation)

FA in blood - albumin binding
(1 mmol/l, half-life 2 min)



Transport of fatty acids in the cells

- specific membrane proteins facilitate transportation of FA in cells

transport in cells using FABP (fatty acid binding protein)

- across the mitochondrial membrane by **carnitine**

β -Oxidation of fatty acids

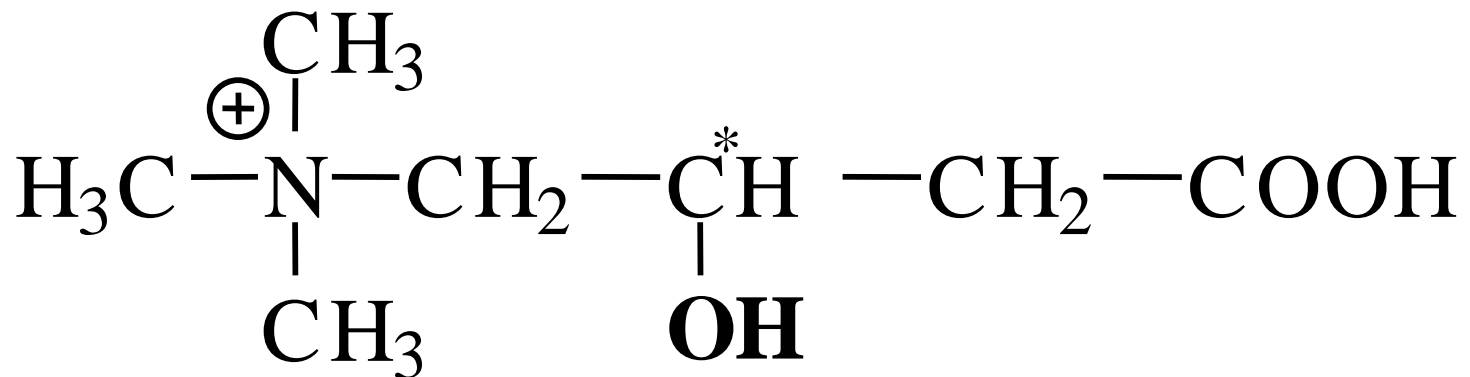
- Meaning: energy source

In virtually all cells

- Location: mitochondrial matrix

Progress: stepwise removal of acetyl-CoA

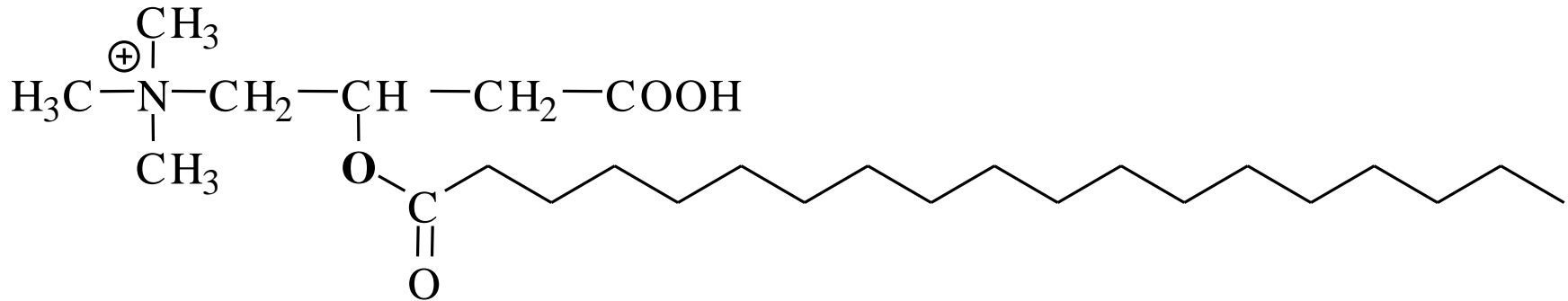
For transport of FA into mitochondria
carnitine is needed



(2-hydroxy-3-carboxypropyl)trimethylammonium

short chain FA do not require carnitine

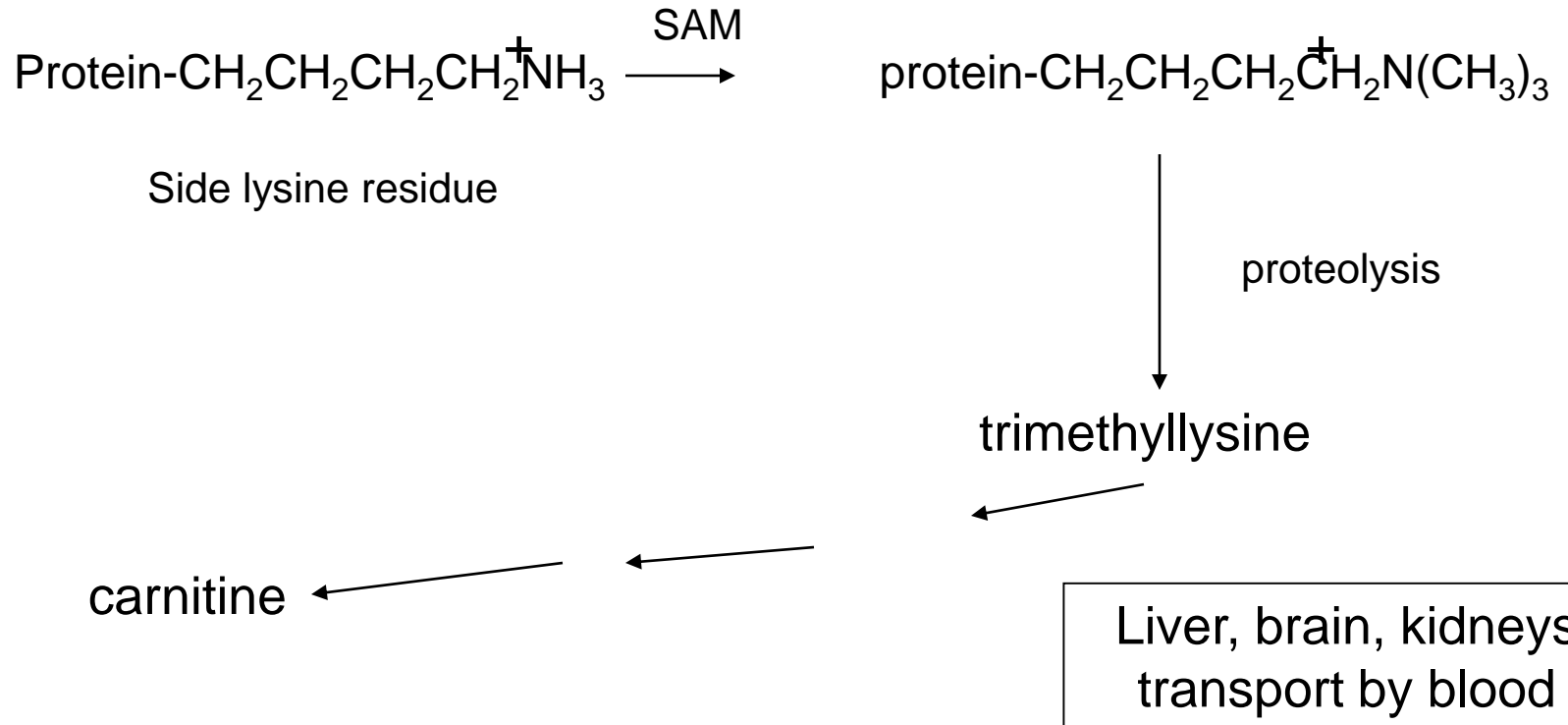
FA is transmitted in the form of acylcarnitine



ester bond

Sources of carnitine

Synthesis in an organism



Dietary intake: about 100 mg / day (Animal sources: meat, milk. It is also found in plant sources.)

carnitine deficiency

- congenital disorder of carnitine transport
- in certain diseases (especially organs that can synthesize it)
- large losses (diarrhea, hemodialysis, burns ...)
- inhibition of transport into the cell by some drugs (doxorubicin, cisplatin, lidocaine)

decreased biosynthesis (malnutrition)

Carnitine supplementation in these disorders is required.

Consequences of lack of carnitine

- Lack of carnitine in liver : hypoketotic hypoglycemia during starvation

β -oxidation is required during fasting for the production of acetyl-CoA for ketogenesis and ATP production for gluconeogenesis

Lack in muscle - muscle weakness and cramps

Carnitine as a dietary supplement?

The importance of increased intake of carnitine especially for athletes leads to numerous disputes. Although many findings about the function and dynamics of carnitine in the body suggests beneficial effects of increased intake of dietary supplement in particular, excessive physical exertion, no convincing and reliable evidence for this assumption so far been filed.

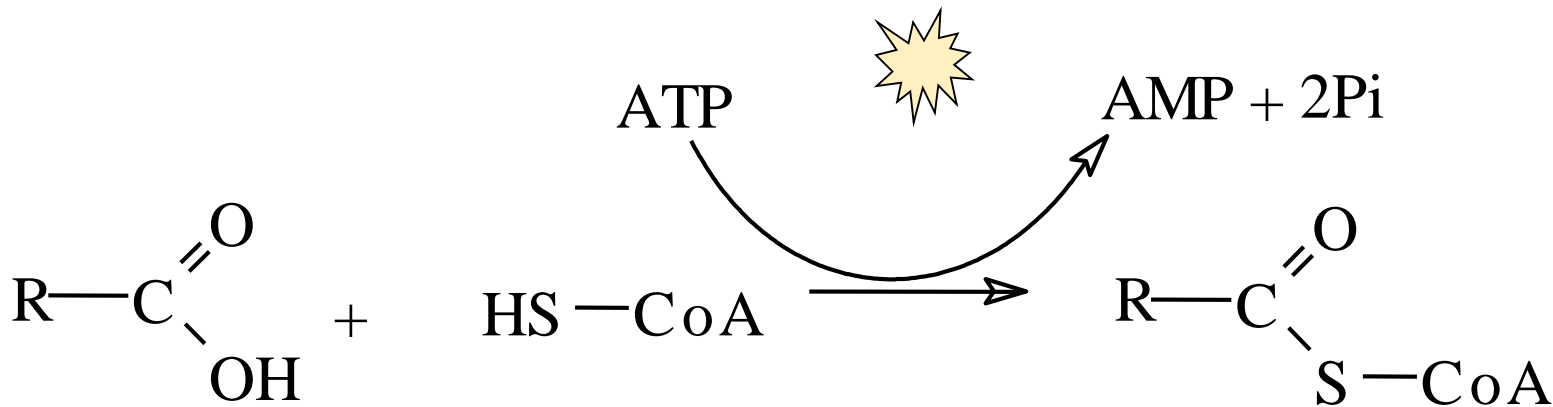
Carnitine from food is poorly absorbed, intestinal bacteria can metabolize to form trimethylamine.

The administration can be only L-carnitine. D-carnitine and racemate are officially banned.

Activation of FA before binding to carnitine

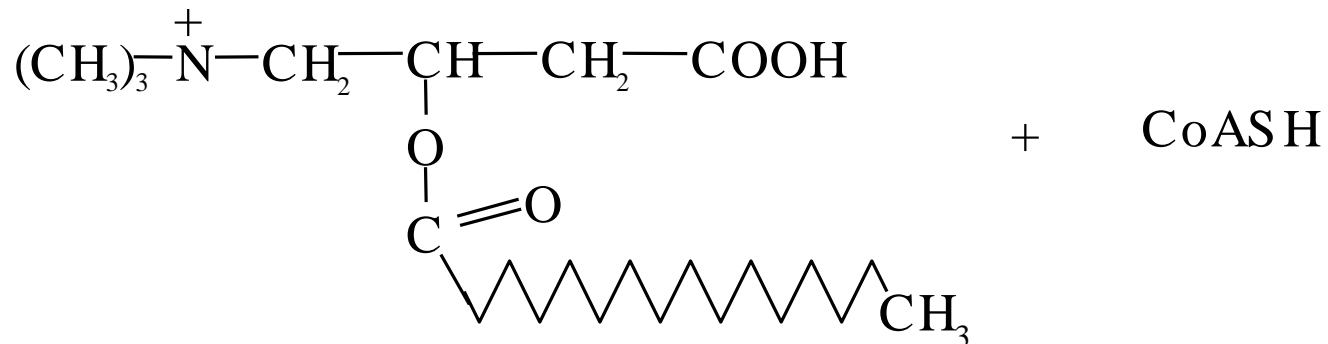
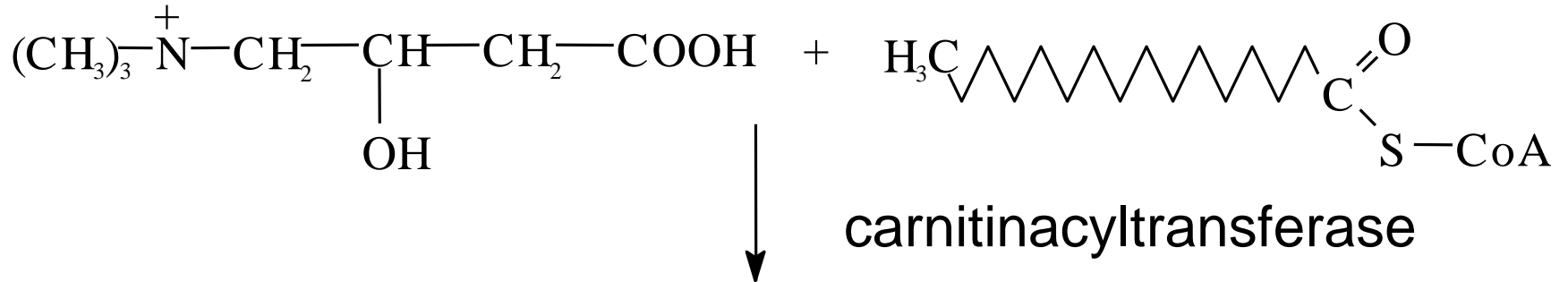
Cytoplasm

Loss of energy
equivalent to 2
ATP

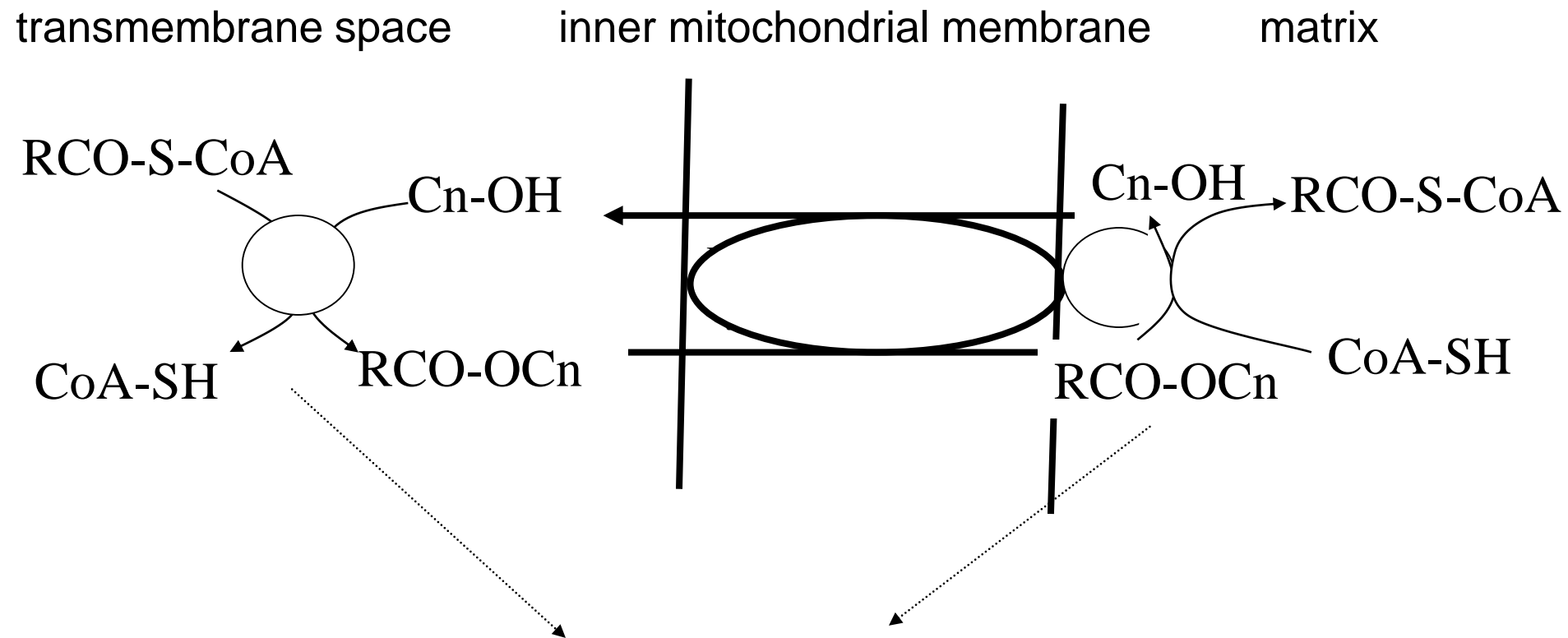


Formation of acyl-carnitine

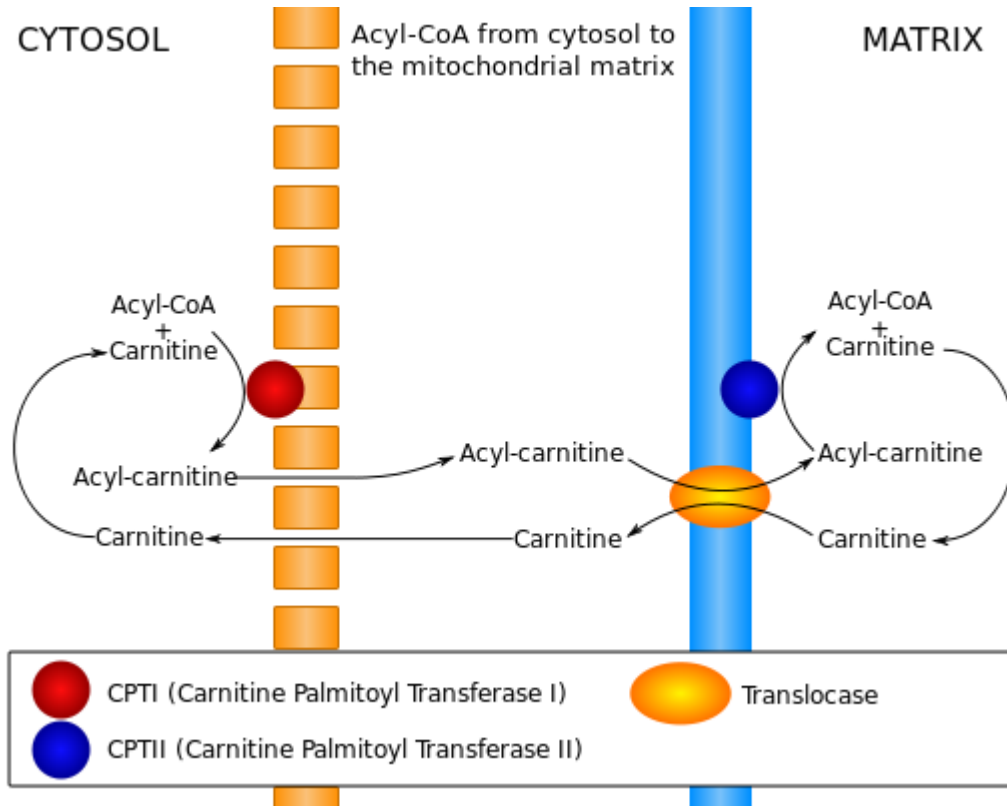
Takes place in the mitochondria transmembrane space



Transport of fatty acids into mitochondria



Two forms of carnitin-acyltransferase



β -Oxidation of fatty acids

- the main FA degradation pathway
- acyl-CoA enters the reaction
- carbon (C-3) is oxidized
- general mechanism - the repetition of four steps:

dehydrogenation \rightarrow hydration \rightarrow

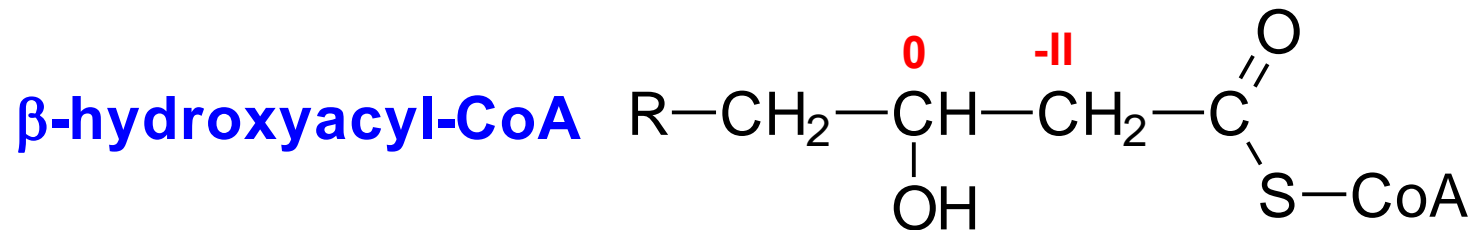
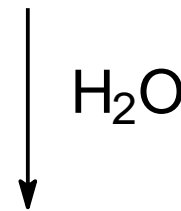
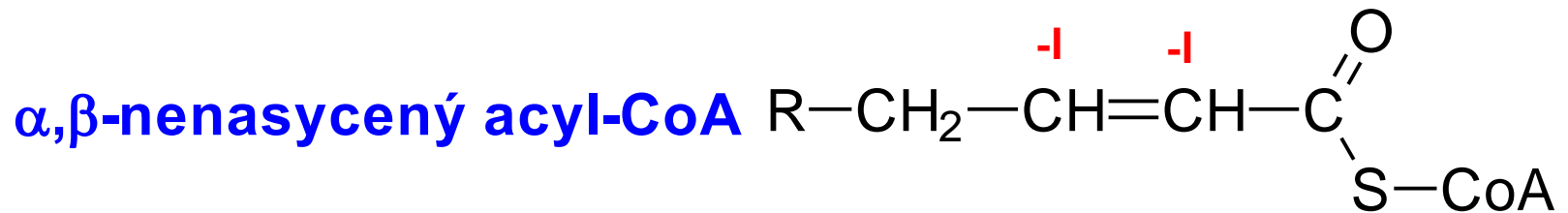
dehydrogenation \rightarrow cleavage of acetyl-CoA

(1) Dehydrogenation of acyl-CoA

trans configuration

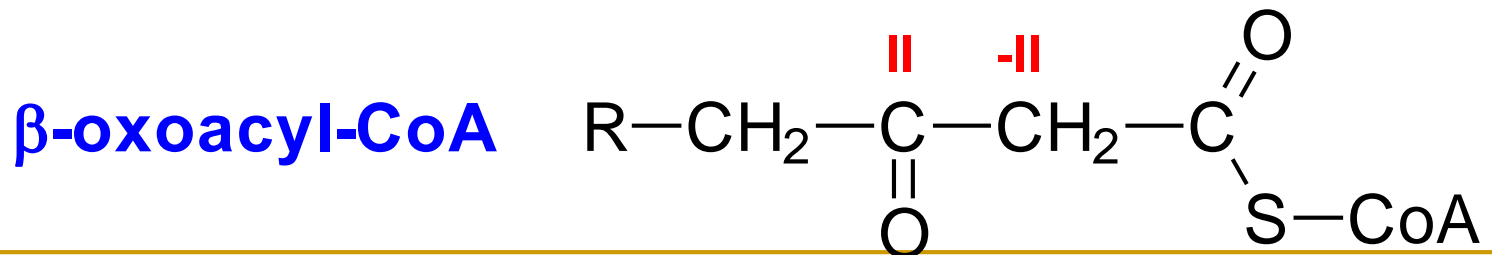
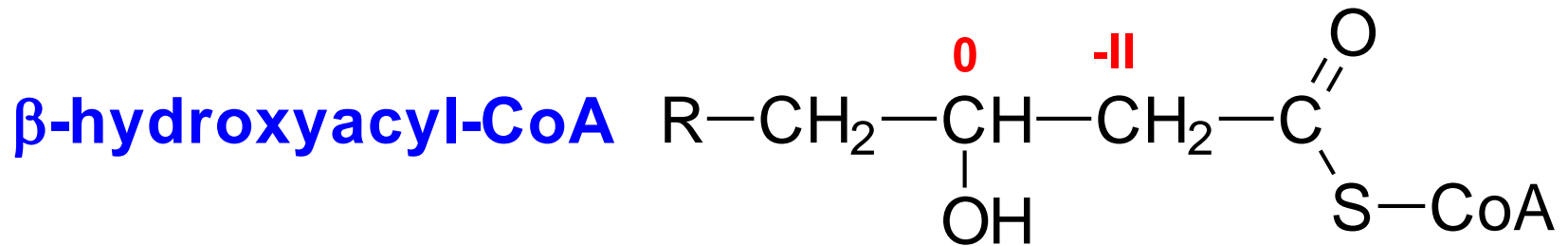


(2) Hydration of the double bond

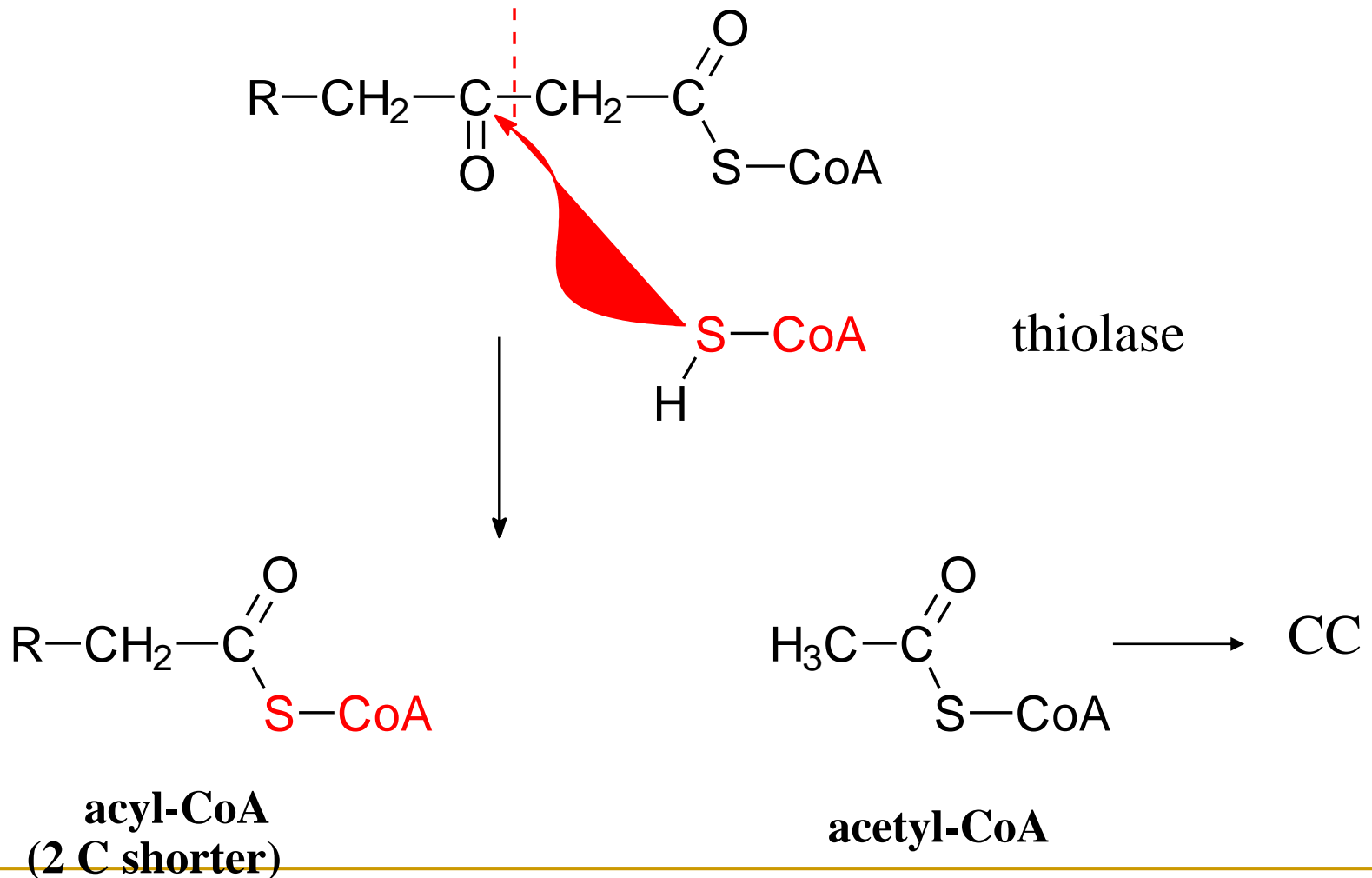


Hydration is not a redox reaction, one C was reduced, the second C oxidized, but the sum of carbon oxidation numbers is the same

(3) Dehydrogenation of hydroxyacyl

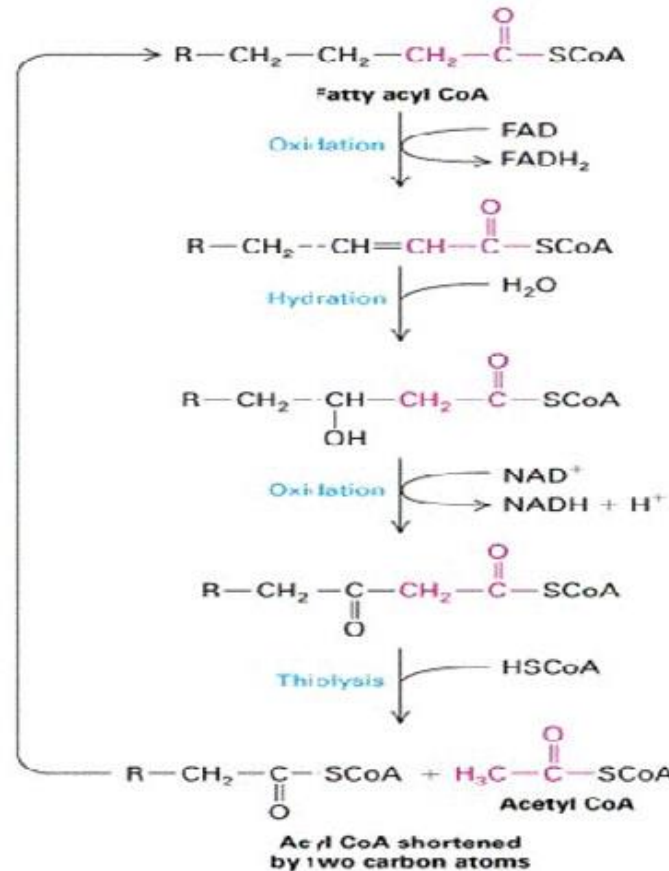


(4) Thiolytic cleavage of oxoacyl and cleavage of acetyl-CoA



The overall progress of β -oxidation

- 1. dehydrogenation (FAD)
- 2. hydration
- 3. dehydrogenation (NAD^+)
- 4. transfer of acyl to CoASH



acyl-CoA
dehydrogenase

Δ^2 -enoyl-CoA
hydratase

3-hydroxyacyl-CoA
dehydrogenase

thiolase

Acyl-CoA dehydrogenases

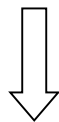
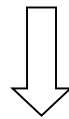
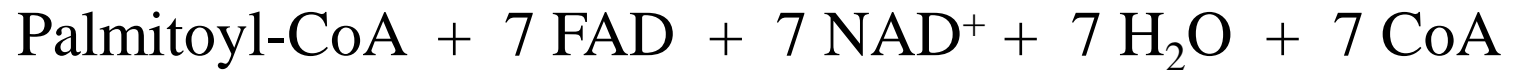
3 main types

for FA with short
 medium
 long chain

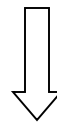
Dehydrogenase deficiency for FA with medium chain

congenital disorder - intolerance to prolonged starvation
associated with hypoglycaemic coma (extended in
northwest Europe - up to 90 % of population)

The energy yield of the oxidation of palmitoyl-CoA (16 C)



8 x 12 ATP = 96 ATP



14 ATP



21 ATP

Equivalent to 2 ATP is consumed during formation of acyl-CoA

Overall 131 – 2 = 129 ATP / palmitate

Comparison of energy-yield of β -oxidation and glycolysis:

Gain of ATP from glucose (6C)

38 ATP on 1 C of glucose $38/6 = 6,3$ ATP

from FA (16 C) 129 ATP

on 1 C of FA $129/16 = 8,1$ ATP

From 1 C of FA the average yield is
1.3 times more ATP

Why?

Oxidation of unsaturated fatty acids

oleic acid: cis Δ^9 -C₁₈



cis Δ^7 -C₁₆



cis Δ^5 -C₁₄



cis Δ^3 -C₁₂



isomerase

trans Δ^2 -C₁₂

loss of FADH₂

the same course with
 β -oxidation

Polyunsaturated FA

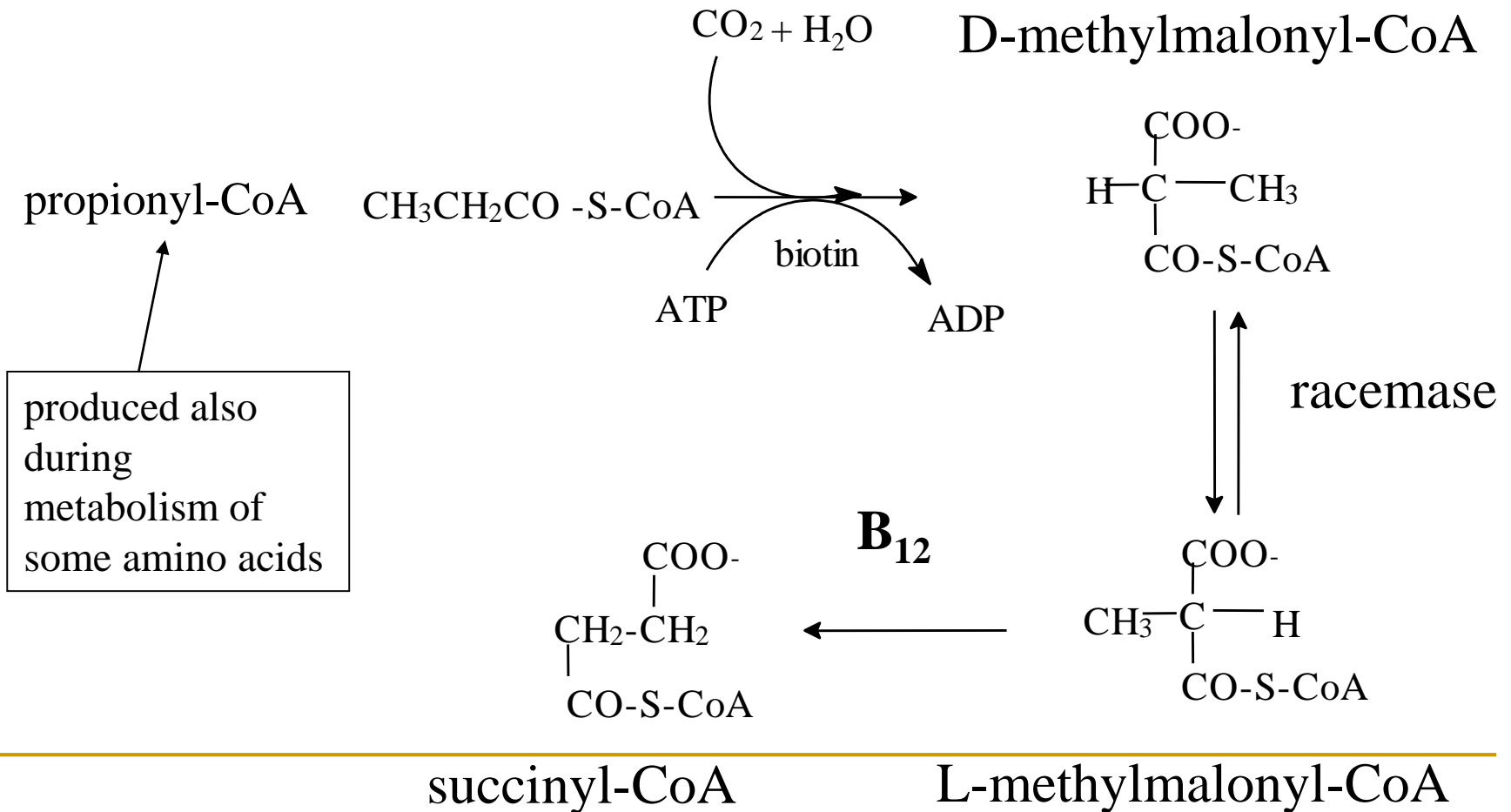
linoleic acid: $\Delta^{9,12}\text{-C}_{18}$



$\Delta^2\text{-C}_8$ cis

Other enzymes allow complete oxidation

FA with an odd number C provide propionyl

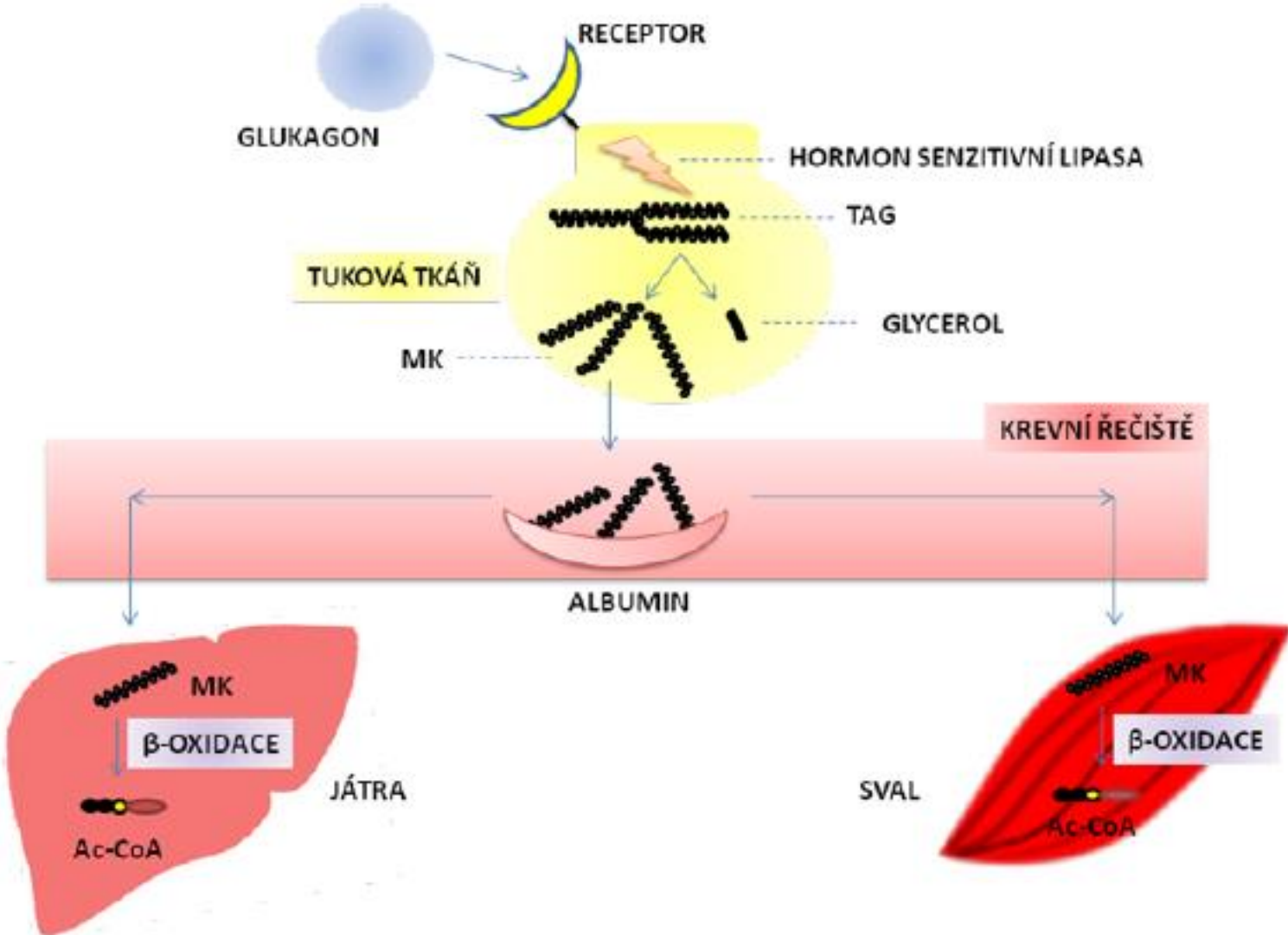


β -oxidation of FA is an important source of energy

When does it take place?

If a cell needs energy and
does not have enough glucose

β -oxidation takes place in postresorption
phase and in starvation especially in the
muscles, myocardium and liver



Lipids in postresorption phase

- In adipose tissue lipolysis occurs (hormone sensitive lipase)
- FA are transported in the ECF bound to albumin
- FA are the source of energy for muscles and myocardium

Ketone bodies

Acetocetate, 3-hydroxybutyrate - metabolically usable

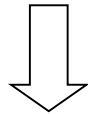
acetone - waste product

produced by the liver

- pass into the blood
- they are processed by extrahepatic tissues
- level increased during fasting, diabetes
- the ratio of glucagon / insulin \gggg 1

Causes of ketone bodies

Increased FA mobilization from adipose tissue →
transport to the liver



→ Increased production of acetyl-CoA by β -oxidation

→ capacity exceeded in the citric acid cycle (lack of
oxalacetate)

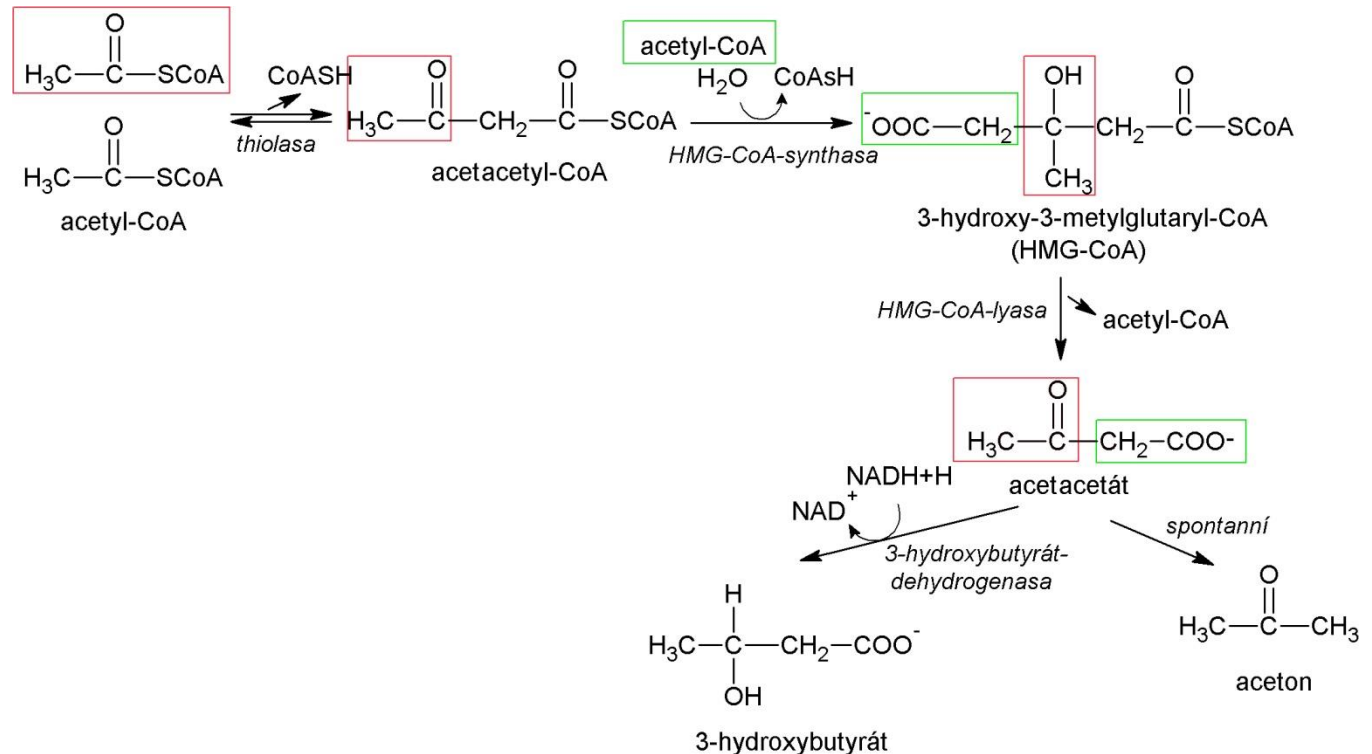
→ → synthesis of ketone bodies

Extrahepatically they are metabolized for energy gains 😊

Increased production is associated with ketoacidosis ☹️

Synthesis of ketone bodies

matrix of mitochondria
of liver cells

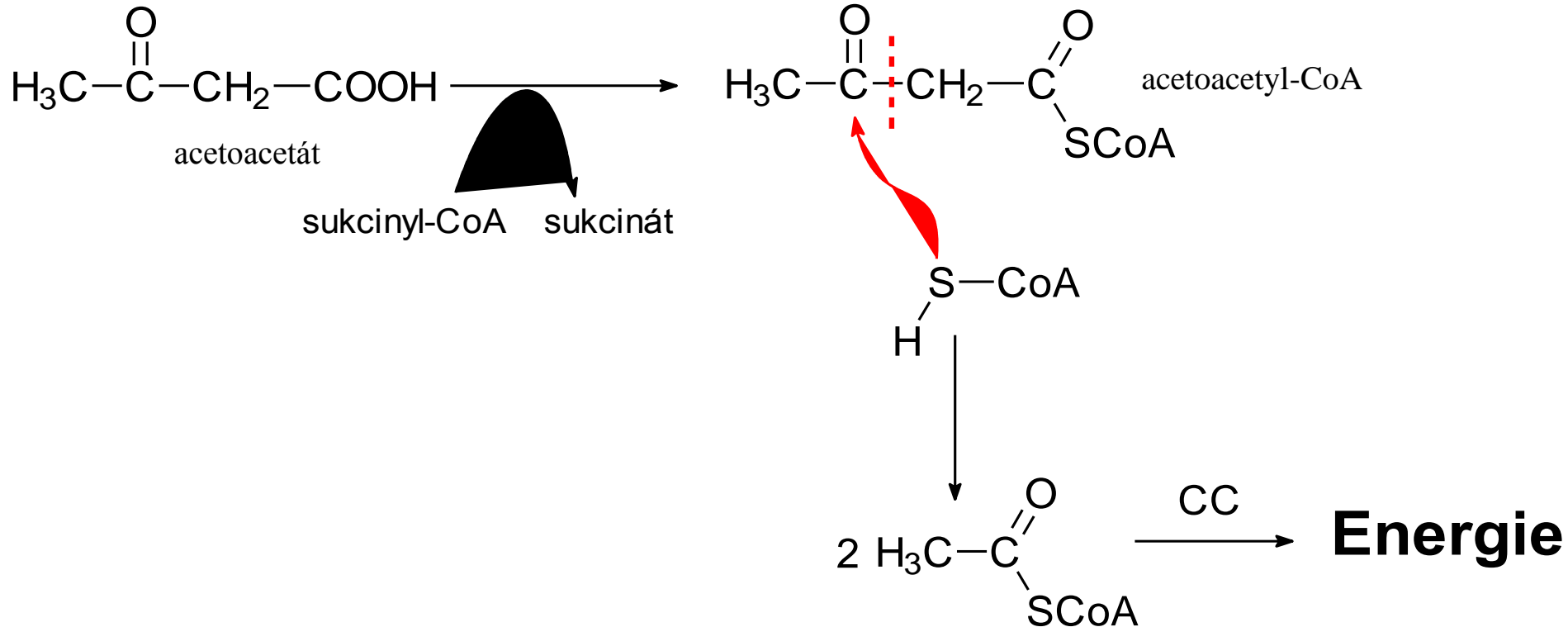


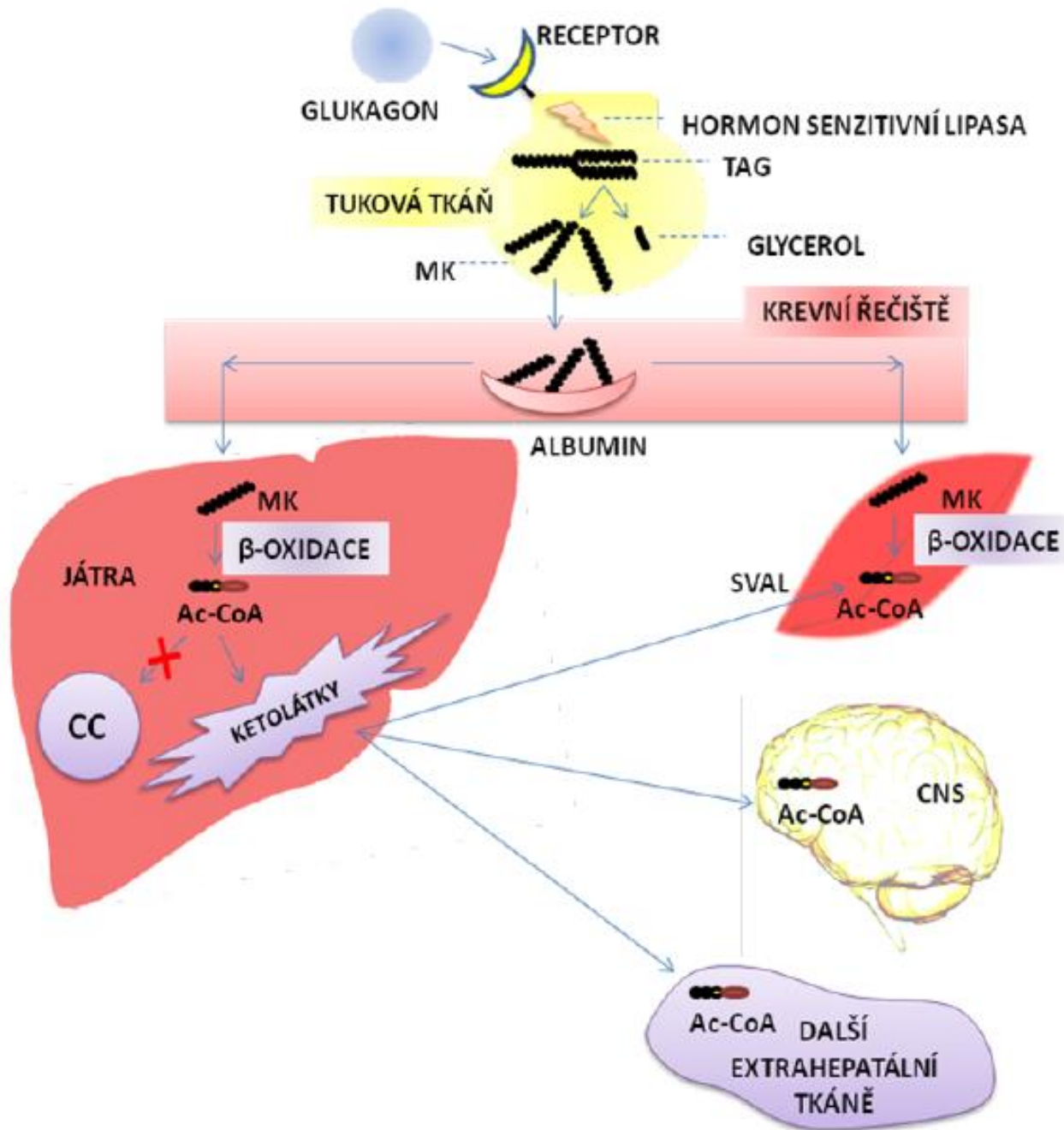
transport via blood to
the extrahepatic tissues

Formation of ketone bodies

- In blood there is always a trace concentration of ketone bodies
 - their levels rise during fasting or uncompensated diabetes
 - unused acetyl-CoA from degradation of fatty acids in the liver is used to gain energy in extrahepatic tissues
-

Ketone bodies as an energy source in extrahepatic tissues





NOVÁK, Jan. Biochemie I. Brno: Muni, 2009, Metabolismus lipidů s. 14

Causes and utilization of ketone bodies

