

Metabolism in erythrocytes

Prof. Mamoun Ahram Hematopoietic-lymphatic system

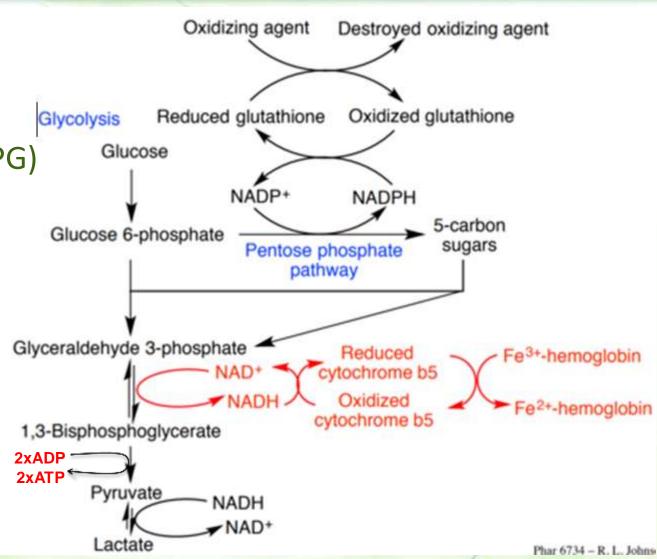


- This lecture
- Lippincott's Biochemistry, 8th edition
- The Medical Biochemistry Page (https://themedicalbiochemistrypage.org/)

Carbohydrate metabolism in RBC



- Glycolysis
 - 2,3-bisphosphoglycerate (2,3-BPG)
 - NADH
- Pentose phosphate pathway
 - NADPH



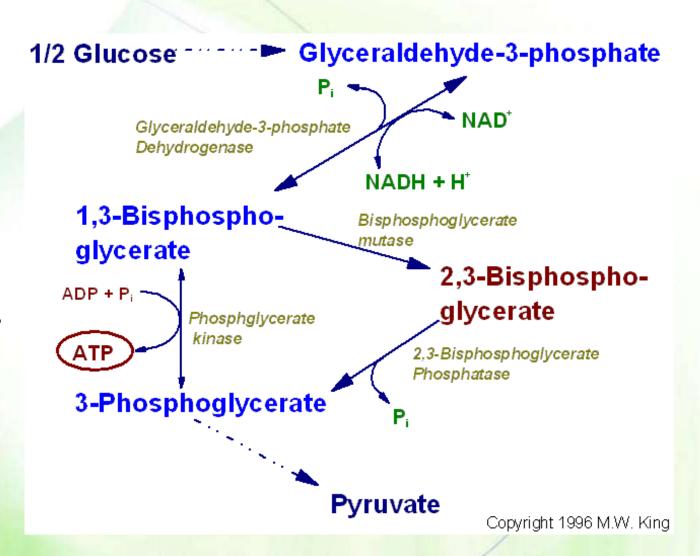


2,3-bisphosphoglycerate (2,3-BPG)

Generation of 2,3-BPG



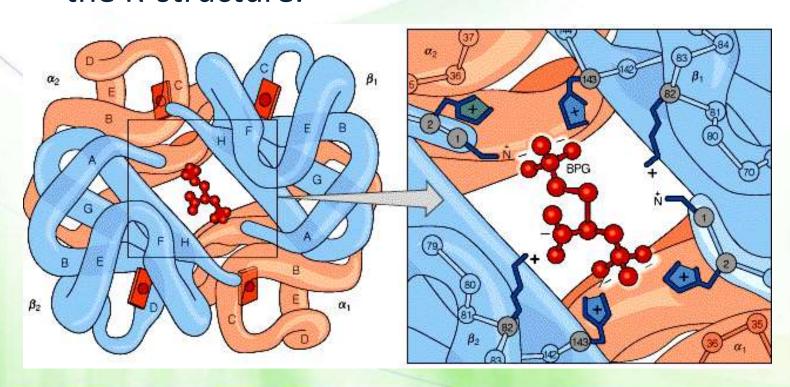
- 2,3-bisphosphoglycerate (2,3-BPG) is derived from the glycolytic intermediate 1,3-bisphosphoglycerate.
- It can re-enter the glycolytic pathway.
 - The erythrocyte loses 2 ATPs.

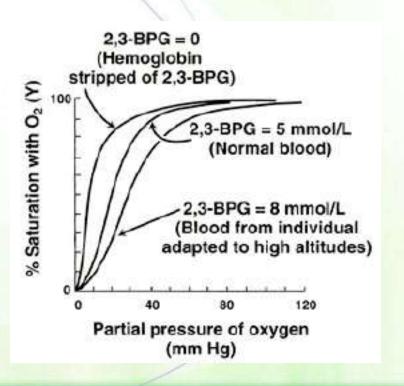


Effect of 2,3-BPG on Hb



- 2,3-BPG occupies the center of deoxygenated Hb stabilizing it in the T structure.
- When 2,3-BPG is not available (not bound), Hb can be easily converted to the R-structure.

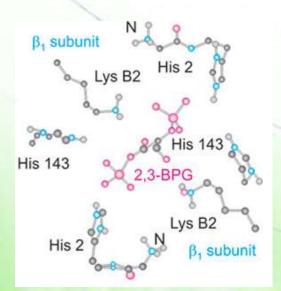


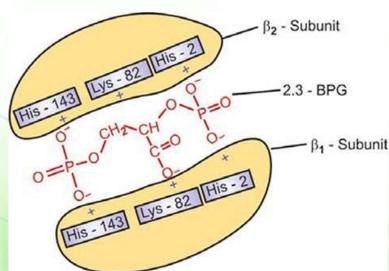


2,3-BPG and HbF



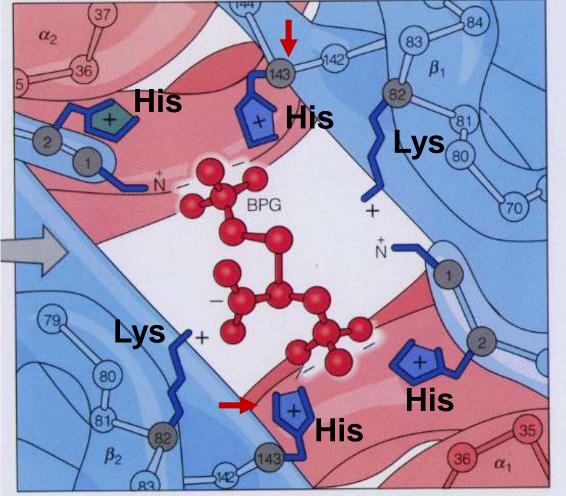
- BPG interacts with several groups including a lysine, His143, His2, and N-terminal ends of the β chain.
- Fetal hemoglobin (HbF) binds 2,3-BPG much less strongly than HbA.





His143 is replaced by a serine in the y chain.

Re-record

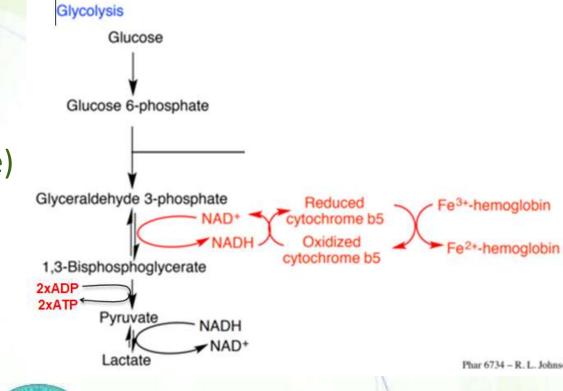


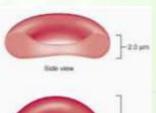


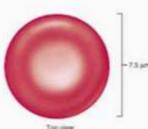
Main purpose



- Glycolysis provides
 - NADH for reduction of methemoglobin (hemoglobin with oxidized Fe³⁺ in heme)
 - ATP for
 - Modifying sugars and proteins
 - Maintaining membrane asymmetry
 - Functions of membrane ion pumps
 - Regulating cytoskeletal proteins
 - Maintenance of the discocyte shape, which is critical for the optimal viability and functional capacity.



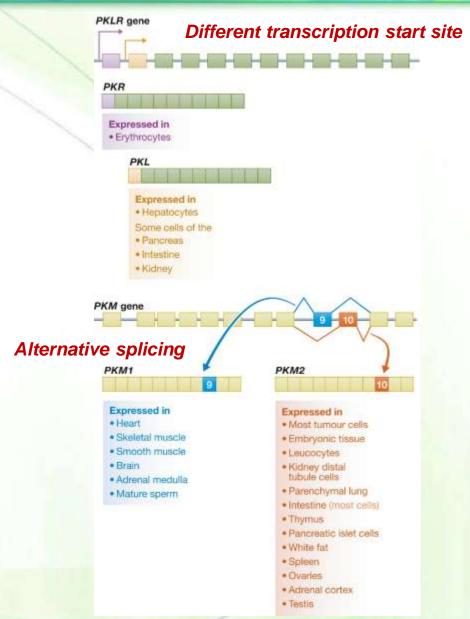




Pyruvate kinase isozymes and regulation



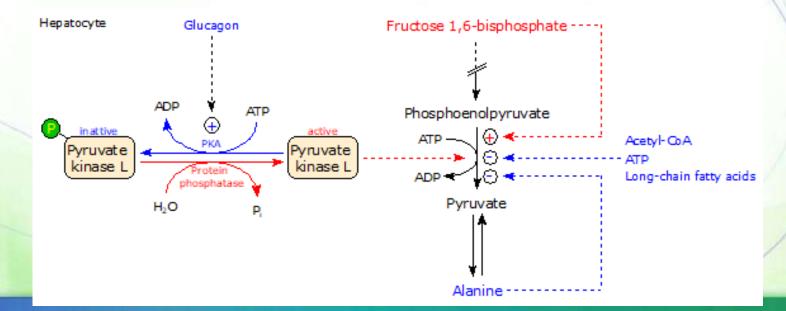
- There are two isoenzyme genes of PK and each produces two isoforms:
 - PKLR gene produces PKL (liver) and PKR (erythrocytes) using different transcription start sites.
 - PKM gene produces PKM1 (muscle and brain) and PKM2 (fetal and most tissues) by alternative splicing.
- Fetal PK isozyme (*PKM2*) has much greater activity than the adult isozymes.
 - Fetal erythrocytes have lower concentrations of glycolytic intermediates including 1,3-BPG and, hence, 2,3-BPG).
 - Remember: lower 2,3BPG means higher Hb in R-state.



Regulation of PK



- The PKLR gene is allosterically regulated:
 - inhibited by ATP, acetyl-CoA, alanine, and long-chain fatty acids and by phosphorylation by protein kinase A.
 - activated by F1,6-BP.
- The liver enzyme (PKL) is also controlled at the level of synthesis.
 - Increased carbohydrate ingestion induces the synthesis of PK.

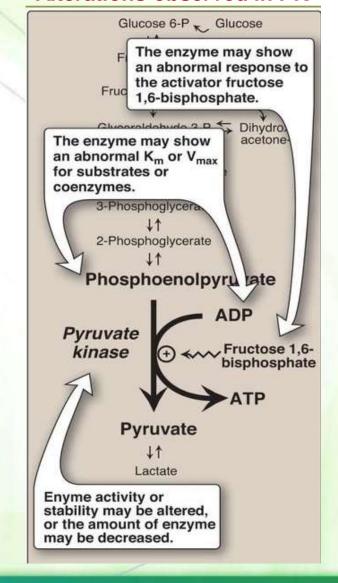


PK deficiency



- Genetic diseases of adult erythrocyte PK where the kinase is virtually inactive.
- The erythrocytes have a greatly reduced capacity to make ATP, which causes hereditary hemolytic anemia.
- The severity of the disease depends on the degree of enzyme deficiency (5-35%) and ability to produce 2,3-BPG.
- Liver is not affected since expression is stimulated.
- Patients are resistant to malaria.

Alterations observed in PK





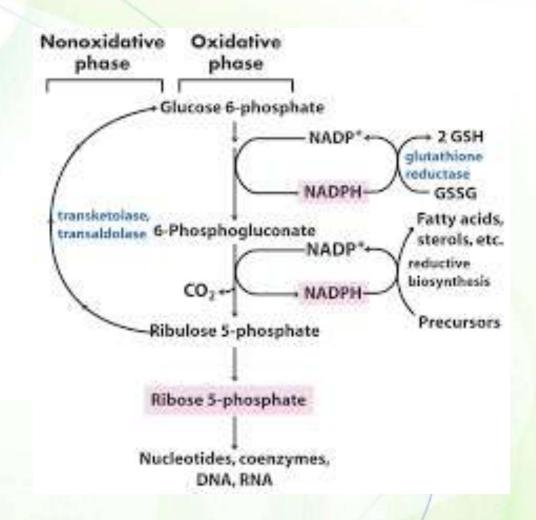
The pentose phosphate pathway

Two phases of pentose phosphate pathway



- The oxidative generation of NADPH
 - NADPH is generated when glucose 6phosphate is oxidized to ribulose 5phosphate.
- The nonoxidative interconversion of sugars

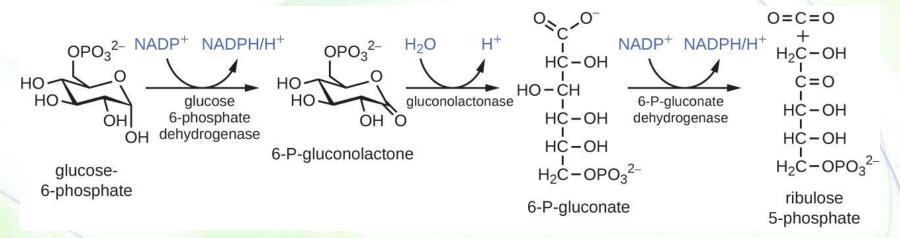
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Glucose 6-phosphate + 2 NADP<sup>+</sup> + H<sub>2</sub>O →
ribose 5-phosphate + 2 NADPH + 2 H<sup>+</sup> + CO<sub>2</sub>
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The first step



The oxidative phase of the pentose phosphate pathway starts with the dehydrogenation of glucose 6-phosphate by glucose 6-phosphate dehydrogenase (G6PD).



- G6PD is highly specific for NADP+, relative to NAD+
- The reaction is irreversible and is the rate-limiting reaction.
- High levels of NADP+ stimulate the reaction.

Oxidative stress and glutathione



Oxidative stress within cells is controlled primarily by the action of

glutathione (GSH).

GSH reduces peroxides via glutathione peroxidase.

- GSH is regenerated via NADPHdependent glutathione reductase.
- The PPP in erythrocytes is the only pathway to produce NADPH.

PPP consumes almost 10% of glucose by erythrocytes.

2 x reduced glutathione (GSH)

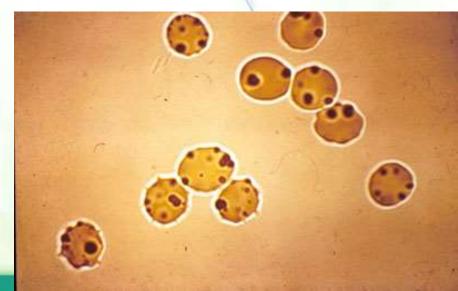
$$\begin{array}{c} \text{NADP}^+ & \qquad \qquad \text{H}_2\text{O}_2\\ \\ \text{glutathione reductase} \\ \text{NADPH} & \qquad \qquad \text{H}_2\text{O} + \frac{1}{2} \text{ O}_2 \\ \end{array}$$

oxidized glutathione (GSSG)

Low GSH levels



- The inability to maintain reduced glutathione in RBCs leads to increased accumulation of peroxides, predominantly H2O2, resulting in:
 - Weakening of the cell membrane by peroxidizing erythrocyte membrane lipids, and simultaneous hemolysis, and
 - increasing rates of oxidation of hemoglobin to methemoglobin and other proteins including membrane proteins, insolubilizing them forming Heinz bodies and, further, weakening the cell membrane.





Glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase deficiency

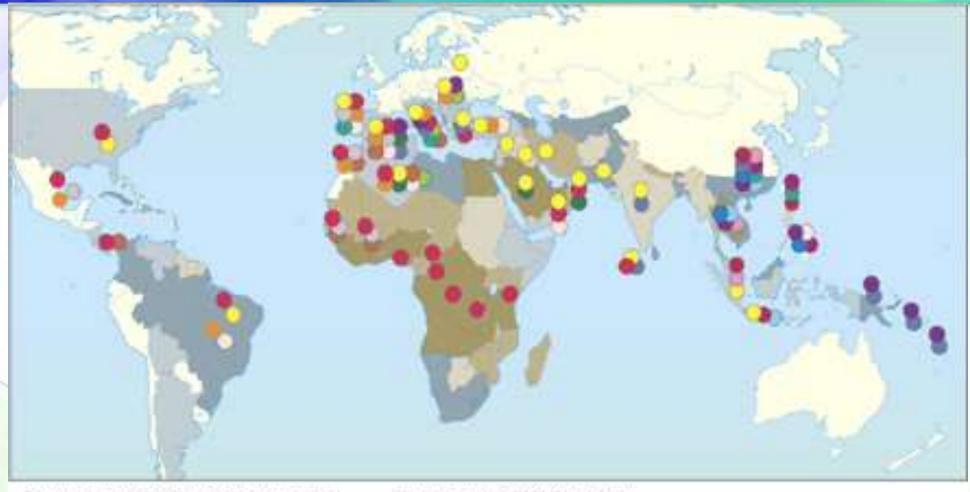
G6PD deficiency



- Glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase (G6PD) deficiency is a group of heterogeneous disease with significantly reduced activity.
 - Hemolytic anemia
 - particularly after the administration of drugs, during infections and in the neonatal period (jaundice)
- Deficiency of G6PD is most prevalent in individuals of African, Mediterranean, and Oriental ethnic origins.
- It is the most common enzyme deficiency worldwide.
- G6PD gene is located on the X chromosome.
 - Inheritance of G6PD deficiency is sex-linked.







Frequency of G6PD deficient males %

< 0.5

0.5-2.9

3.0-6.9

7.0-9.9

10.0-14.9

15.0-126.0

Polymorphic G6PD variants

A- (202A) Chatham

@ A- (968C)

Aures

Canton

Coimbra

Cosenza

Kaiping

Mediterranean

Mahidol

Santamaria

Seattle

Taipei

Union

Viangchan

Local variant

G6PD mutations



- Several hundred G6PD genetic variants have been identified, but most have no clinical symptom.
- Almost all G6PD deficiency variants are caused by point mutations in the gene.
 - Mainly these mutations alter the kinetic properties, stability, or binding affinity to NADP+ or G6P.
- No large deletions or frameshift mutations. Why?

The four classes of G6PD deficiency



- G6PD B (Normal)
- Abnormal G6PDs
 - Class I are most severe and rare.
 - Class IV: no clinical symptoms
 - G6PD A- (group III or class III)
 - Among persons of African descent
 - It is caused by a single amino acid substitution of Asn to Asp that decreases enzyme stability, but 5-15% of normal activity.
 - The disease is moderate.
 - G6PD Mediterranean (group II or class II)
 - Severe
 - The enzyme has normal stability, but negligible activity.

Class	Clinical symptoms	Residual enzyme activity
1	Very severe (chronic hemolytic anemia)	<2%
11	Severe (episodic hemolytic anemia)	<10%
301	Moderate	10%-60%
IV	None	>60%

Class II vs. class III

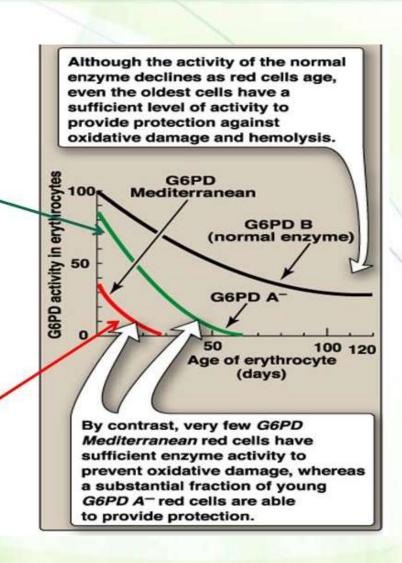


G6PD A- (class III):

Moderate, young RBCs contain enzymatic activity. Unstable enzyme, but kinetically normal

G6PD Mediterranean (II)

Enzyme with normal stability but low activity (severe). Affect all RBCs (both young and old)



Inducers of G6PD deficiency symptoms



- Oxidant drugs
 - Antibiotics, anti-malarial, and anti-pyretics (not acetaminophen)
- Fava beans (favism)
 - Fava beans are presumed to cause oxidative damage.
 - Substances capable of destroying red cell GSH have been isolated from fava beans (fool).
 - Favism is most common in persons with G6PD class II variants, but rarely can occur in patients with the G6PD A- variant.
- Infection
 - The most common inducer due to production of free radicals.

Connection to malaria

- Several G6PD deficiencies are associated with resistance to the malarial parasite, Plasmodium falciparum, among individuals of Mediterranean and African descent.
- The basis for this resistance is the weakening of the red cell membrane (the erythrocyte is the host cell for the parasite) such that it cannot sustain the parasitic life cycle long enough for productive growth.

