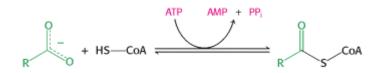
Fatty Acid Synthesis and Degradation

Introduction

- Triacylglycerols are highly concentrated energy stores for two reasons:
 - They are **very reduced**, and their oxidation therefore releases more energy than that of carbohydrates.
 - They are **anhydrous** and do not need to be **coordinated to water** when stored (unlike, for example, glycogen). This **saves space**.
- They can be used as "long distance fuel", especially in the heart (the "dustbin" of the body in terms of substrate metabolism).
- In mammals, the major site of triacylglycerol accumulation is the cytoplasm of adipose cells. Droplets of triacylglycerol coalesce to form a large globule, which may occupy most of the cell volume. They are also present in muscles and in the liver.
- Intestinal enzymes called **lipases**, secreted by the **pancreas** digest triacylglycerols into **fatty acids** and **monoacylglycerol**. These **non-water-soluble** molecules are made available to lipases by the formation of **micelles** thanks to **bile salts**.
- These are then **re-assembled** and assembled into **chylomicrons**, which travel in the **lymph system** to places were lipid is needed.
- Fatty acids can then be oxidised in the mitochondria in a process called β -oxidation. This converts fatty acids to Acetyl CoA which can be use din the citric acid cycle.
- Note, however, that energy from fatty axis oxidation is more O_2 intensive than that from glucose. Thus, foetal heart metabolism relies on glucose until soon after birth when it switches to fatty acids, because originally, oxygen is sparse.

Fatty Acid Degradation

- Once triacylglycerols are split into glycerol and fatty acids, the glycerol leaves towards the liver, where it is converted into a glycolytic intermediate.
- Fatty acid degradation occurs in the mitochondria. Before they enter the matrix, though, they must be activated through the formation of a thiosester linkage to CoA. This takes place on the outer mitochondrial membrane and is catalysed by acyl CoA synthetase (or fatty acid thiokinase):



This reaction occurs in two steps:

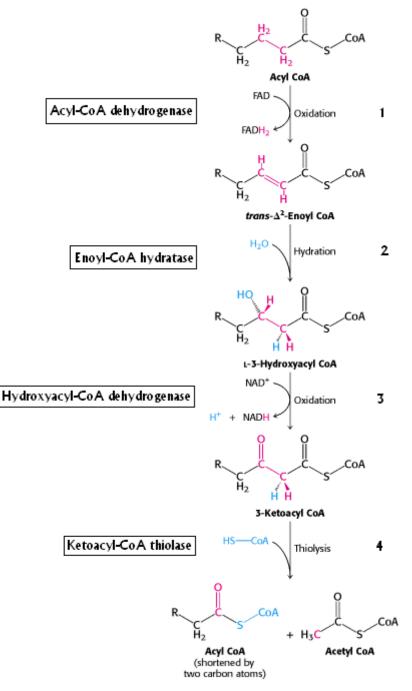
- The fatty acid reacts with ATP the carboxyl group of the acid becomes bonded to the phosphate group of AMP. The other two groups are released as pyrophosphate (PP_i).
- 2) The sulfhydryl group of CoA *attacks* this species (which is tightly bound to the enzyme) to form Acyl CoA and AMP.

The equilibrium constant for this reaction is close to 1 (one high-energy molecule is broken down, one is created). The overall reaction is driven forward by the rapid oxidation of pyrophosphate by a pyrophosphatase.

Note that this reaction requires the **equivalent** of **2 ATP**, because **AMP** and not **ADP** is produced.

- This long-chain activated fatty acid then needs to be transported into the mitochondrion. This cannot occur by diffusion, and so a special transport mechanism is used:
 - The acyl group is transferred from Acyl CoA to the hydroxyl group of carnitine (a zawitterionic alcohol, found in red meat) by carnitine acyltransferase I, which is bound to the outer mitochondrial membrane.

- 2) Acyl carnitine is then shuttled across the inner mitochondrial membrane by a translocase [carnitine in exchange of acyl carnitine].
- 3) The acyl group is transferred back to CoA by carnitine acyltransferase II.
- β -oxidation now occurs (so called because oxidation takes place at the β carbon). Each round of β -oxidation produces Acetyl CoA, NADH and FADH₂ by shortening the activated fatty acid by one unit. The reactions are as follows:



A few notes:

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1) **FAD** rather than **NAD**⁺ is the electron acceptor because the ΔG for the reaction is **insufficient** to drive the reduction of NAD⁺.

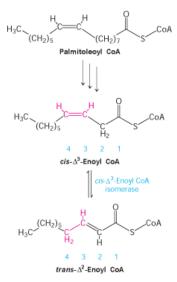
Electrons from the $FADH_2$ prosthetic group of the enzyme are transferred to a second flavoprotein called electron-transferring flavoprotein (ETF). In turn, ETF donates electrons to ETF:ubiquinone redeuctase (an iron-sulphur protein). Q is thereby reduced to QH_2 , which enters the respiratory chain. Consequently, 1.5 molecules of ATP are generated per $FADH_2$.

Different versions of this enzyme act on different lengths of activated fatty acids.

- This hydration is stereospecific. When the trans double bond is hydrated, only the L isomer results.
- 3) This enzyme is also stereospecific.
- 4) We have now succeeded in **oxidising** the **methylene** group at C-3 to a **keto group**. All that needs to happen now is **cleavage**.

Note also that this reaction is very similar to the regeneration of oxaloacetate from succinate in the citric acid cycle.

- This releases a **huge** amount of energy. From **palmitate**, up to **106 ATP** can be released.
- Note that the situation is not so simple in **unsaturated acids** and in **odd-chain fatty acids**:
 - Unsaturated fatty acids when the reaction reaches a double bond in between carbons 3 and 4, a double bond can't be created in between carbons 2 and 3. This is solved by an enzyme that simply shifts the double bond! (See diagram).



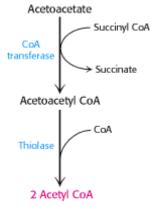
Odd numbered double bonds (eg: one bewteen carbon 4 and 5) first have to be treated with a reductase and *then* with the isomerase.

- Odd-chain fatty acids these proceed as normal, but the final step leads to a molecule of propionyl CoA as well as acetyl CoA. This is then converted to Succinyl CoA (requiring ATP), an unusual process which requires vitamin B₁₂.
- The oxidation of fatty acids can also occur in peroxisomes, where it halts at octanoyl CoA (this probably serves to shorten long chain acids to make them better substrates for β -oxidation). The only difference is that the high energy electrons are used to make H_2O_2 , which is then broken down by catalase into H_2O and $\frac{1}{2}O_2$.

Ketone bodies

The Acetyl CoA formed can enter the citric acid cycle *only* if it can combine with **oxaloacetate**. The availability of oxaloacetate, however, depends on an adequate supply of carbohydrate [since oxaloacetate is usually form from pyruvate]. If carbohydrate is unavailable or improperly utilised, or if oxaloacetate is used to form glucose by gluconeogenesis (eg: during starvation or diabetes), then Acetyl CoA is converted into ketone bodies (3hydroxybutyrate [reduced acetoacetate] and acetoacetate, which spontaneously decarboxylates to acetone) [2 Acetyl CoA per ketone body].

The primary site of production of ketone bodies is the liver. Thence, they can diffuse out to other organs. These are normal fuels for respiration, and some organs prefer them to glucose (eg: the heart). Acetoacetate can be used as fuel for respiration as shown on the right. (The liver is able to export aceotacetate because it lacks CoA transferase). The brain, however, needs glucose to function, though during starvation, it can adapt to use 75% ketone bodies.



Ketone bodies are basically a water-soluble, transportable form of acetyl units. They also play a control mechanism – high levels of acetoacetate in the blood lead to a decrease in the rate of lipolysis in adipose tissue. Note that what happens during **diabetes** is that the **absence of insulin** means that **glucose** is **not taken up by the liver**, which is therefore not able to synthesise **oxaloacetate**. Furthermore, **adipose cells continue to release fatty acids in the bloodstream**. The liver therefore produces **large amounts of ketone bodies** which are moderately strong **acids**. Severe **acidosis** results.

Animals cannot convert fatty acids in glucose

We noted before that Acetyl CoA could not be converted to pyruvate or oxaloacetate in animals (because the pyruvate \rightarrow acetyl CoA reaction is irreversible). When Acetyl CoA enters the cycle, two carbons go in and two go out – oxaloacetate is not formed de novo. In contrast, plants have enzymes allowing the conversion of Acetyl CoA into oxaloacetate.