# Lipid metabolism.

ASSOC. PROF. BILETS M.V.

# Lecture plan

Lipoproteins.

Catabolism of triacylglycerols in adipocytes of adipose tissue.

Biosynthesis of triacylglycerols.

Hyperlipoproteinemias.

Oxidation of glycerol: enzyme reactions, bio-energetics.

Oxidation of fatty acids ( $\beta$ -oxidation).

Ketone bodies.

Biosynthesis of fatty acids.

Metabolism of complex lipids.

Biosynthesis of cholesterol.

Pathways of biotransformation of cholesterol.

Pathologies of lipid metabolism

**Lipids** are organic compounds, are nonpolar molecules, which are soluble only in nonpolar solvents and insoluble in water.

Types of Lipids:

## **Simple Lipids**

Esters of fatty acids with various alcohols. **Fats:** Esters of fatty acids with glycerol. Oils are fats in the liquid state

Steroids (cholesterol)

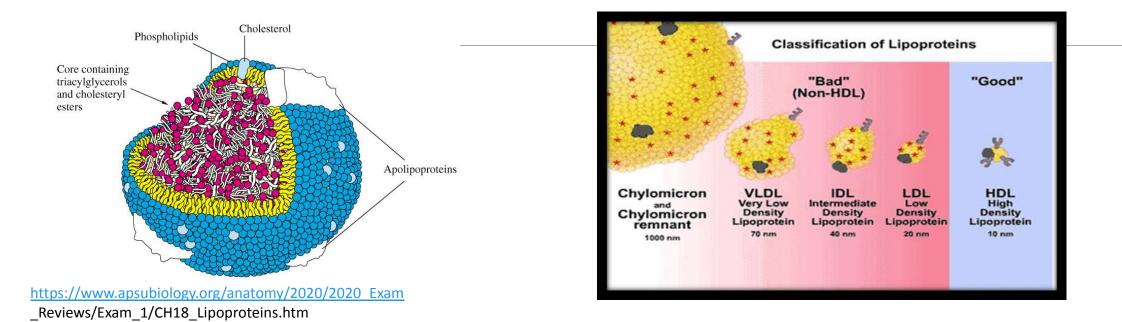
## **Complex Lipids**

Esters of fatty acids containing groups in addition to alcohol and a fatty acid.

**Phospholipids**: These are lipids containing, in addition to fatty acids and alcohol, a phosphoric acid residue. They frequently have nitrogen-containing bases and other substituents, eg, in glycerophospholipids the alcohol is glycerol and in sphingophospholipids the alcohol is sphingosine.

Glycolipids (glycosphingolipids): Lipids containing a fatty acid, sphingosine, and carbohydrate.

# Lipoproteins



 $https://www.researchgate.net/figure/4-The-major-types-of-lipoproteins-are-chylomicrons-very-low-density-lipoprotein-VLDL\_fig4\_304525065$ 

# **Classes of lipoproteins**

oprotein	Functions
Chylomicrons	Transport dietary triacylglycerols and cholesterol from intestine to tissues
VLDL	Transports triacylglycerols from liver to tissues
IDL (VLDL remnants)	Picks up cholesterol from HDL to become LDL Picked up by the liver
LDL	Delivers cholesterol into cells
HDL	Picks up cholesterol accumulating in blood vessels Delivers cholesterol to liver and steroidogenic tissues Transfers apolipoproteins to other lipoproteins

https://schoolbag.info/chemistry/mcat\_biochemistry/70.html#:~:text= Chylomicrons%20are%20the%20least%20dense,HDL%20(high-density).

**Chylomicrons** are highly soluble in both lymphatic fluid and blood and function in the transport of dietary triacylglycerol, cholesterol, and cholesteryl esters to other tissues. Assembly of chylomicrons occurs in the intestinal lining and results in a nascent chylomicron that contains lipids and apolipoproteins.

### VLDL (VERY-LOW-DENSITY LIPOPROTEIN)

**VLDL** metabolism is similar to that of chylomicrons; however, VLDL is produced and assembled in liver cells. Like chylomicrons, the main function of VLDL is the transport of triacylglycerol to other tissues. VLDLs also contain fatty acids that are synthesized from excess glucose or retrieved from chylomicron remnants.

### IDL (INTERMEDIATE-DENSITY LIPOPROTEIN)

Once triacylglycerol is removed from VLDL, the resulting particle is referred to as either a VLDL remnant or IDL. Some IDL is reabsorbed by the liver by apolipoproteins on its exterior, and some is further processed in the bloodstream. For example, some IDL picks up cholesteryl esters from HDL to become LDL. IDL thus exists as a transition particle between triacylglycerol transport (associated with chylomicrons and VLDL) and cholesterol transport (associated with LDL and HDL). LDL (LOW-DENSITY LIPOPROTEIN)

Although both LDL and HDL are primarily cholesterol particles, the majority of the cholesterol measured in blood is associated with **LDL**. The normal role of LDL is to deliver cholesterol to tissues for biosynthesis. However, cholesterol also plays an important role in cell membranes. In addition, bile acids and salts are made from cholesterol in the liver, and many other tissues require cholesterol for steroid hormone synthesis (steroidogenesis).

### HDL (HIGH-DENSITY LIPOPROTEIN)

HDL is synthesized in the liver and intestines and released as dense, protein-rich particles into the blood. HDL contains apolipoproteins used for cholesterol recovery—that is, the cleaning up of excess cholesterol from blood vessels for excretion. HDL also delivers some cholesterol to steroidogenic tissues and transfers necessary apolipoproteins to some of the other lipoproteins.

# **Apolipoproteins**

Apolipoproteins, also referred to as **apoproteins**, form the protein component of the lipoproteins described above. Apolipoproteins are receptor molecules and are involved in signaling. While it is highly unlikely that specific functions of each apolipoprotein will be tested on the MCAT, they are briefly summarized below to illustrate their diverse purposes:

- apoA-I: activates LCAT, an enzyme that catalyzes cholesterol esterification
- apoB-48: mediates chylomicron secretion
- apoB-100: permits uptake of LDL by the liver
- apoC-II: activates lipoprotein lipase
- · apoE: permits uptake of chylomicron remnants and VLDL by the liver

### Hyperlipoproteinemia

### Fredrickson Classification

Туре	Synonyms	Lipoprotein Elevation
I (rare)	"Primary hyperlipoproteinemia", or "Familial hyperchylomicronemia"	Chylomicrons
Ila	"Polygenic or Familial hypercholesterolemia"	LDL
IIb	"Combined hyperlipidemia"	LDL+VLDL
III (rare)	"Familial dysbetalipoproteinemia"	Chylomicrons+ IDL
IV	"Familial hyperlipemia"	
V (rare)	''Endogenous hypertriglyceridemia''	VLDL+ Chylomicrons

# Hereditary Causes of Hyperlipidemia Caused by Known Single Gene Mutations

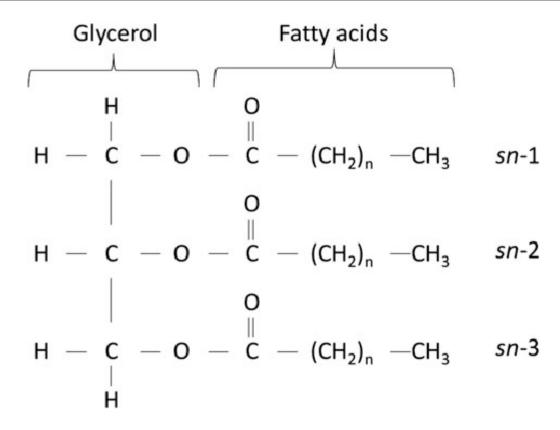
- Familial Hypercholesterolemia:
  - Occurs in 1 in 500 individuals/ AD.
  - Mutation in LDL receptor, resulting in elevated levels of LDL at birth and throughout life.
  - High risk for atherosclerosis, tendon xanthomas and xanthelasmas of eyes, CHD
- Familial Combined Hyperlipidemia:
  - Autosomal dominant.
  - Increased secretions of LDL& VLDLs.
  - High risk for atherosclerosis, no xanthomas.
- Dysbetalipoproteinemia:
  - Affects 1 in 10,000
  - A binding-defective form of apoE (which usually plays important role in catabolism of chylomicron and VLDL).
  - Increased risk for atherosclerosis, palmar xanthomas, CHD, PVD.

### **Secondary Causes of Hyperlipidemia**

- Hypothyroidism (high LDL)
- NS (high LDL)
- Cholestasis (high LDL)
- Obesity (high TG)
- DM type 2 (high TG & chylomicrons)
- Pregnancy (high TG)
- · Sepsis (high TG)
- Stress
- Reduced HDL: smoking, DM2, obesity, malnutrition, B- blockers

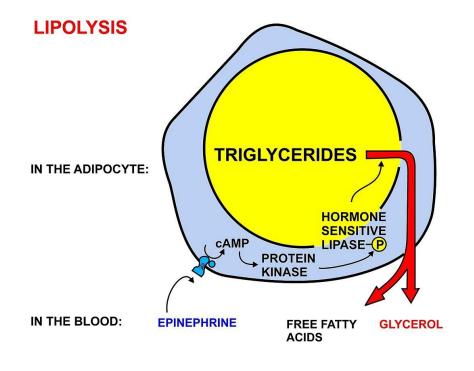
- Acute hepatitis (high TG)
- Drugs (thiazide, steroids, B- blockers, cyclosporine, protease inhibitors).
- MM, lymphoma (high TG)
- Glycogen storage disease (high TG).
- Alcohol, interferon, estrogen, thiazide, steroid (high TG).
- Acromegaly, renal failure (high TG).

# Structure of triacylglycerol



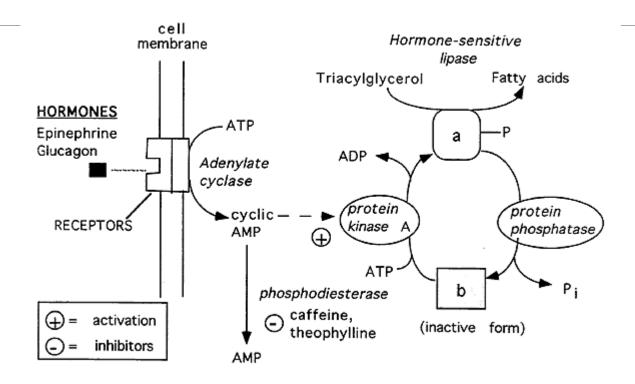
**Lipolysis** is the metabolic pathway through which lipid triacylglycerols are hydrolyzed into a glycerol and three fatty acids.

Occurs in adipocytes. Lipolysis is induced by glucagon, epinephrine, norepinephrine, growth hormone, cortisol. Lipolysis is activated when: under normal physiological stressful situations - emotional stress, muscle work, fasting, in pathological conditions - type I diabetes mellitus, other hormonal diseases (hypercortisolism, hyperthyroidism).



$$H_2C - O$$
 $H_2C - O$ 
 $H_2C - OH$ 
 $H_2C$ 

# Lipolysis regulation



# Lipogenesis

Fats not only obtained from the diet but also obtained from lipogenesis in the body. Lipogenesis means synthesis of neutral fats (TAG) from CHO and proteins present in excess of body need.

Lipogenesis requires: 1- Synthesis of fatty acids (FA) and glycerol

2- Activation of fatty acids by CoA and glycerol

by glycerokinase,

3- the combination of activated fatty acids and activated glycerol

De *no vo* synthesis of fatty acid (cytoplasmic synthesis):

Occur mainly for the synthesis of palmitic acid

Site: Cytoplasm of liver, mammary glands and adipose tissues.

# **Obesity**

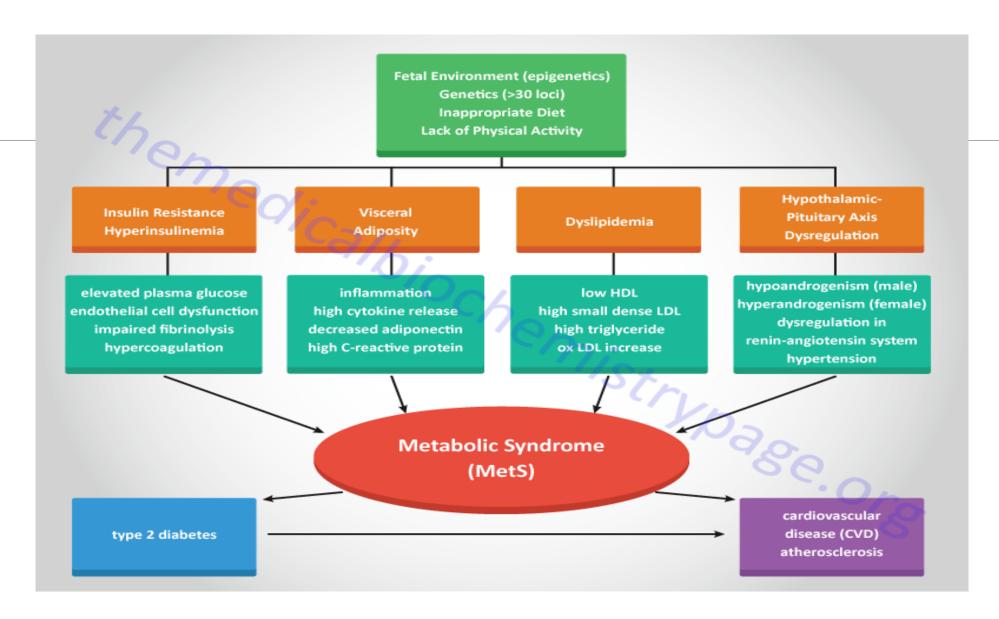
Obesity is essentially an excessive accumulation of triacylglycerols in fatty tissue that is the net result of excessive energy intake compared to energy usage.

Obesity is diagnosed when your body mass index (BMI) is 30 or higher.

To determine your body mass index, divide your weight in pounds by your height in inches squared and multiply by 703.

Or divide your weight in kilograms by your height in meters squared.

ВМІ	Weight status
Below 18.5	Underweight
18.5-24.9	Normal
25.0-29.9	Overweight
30.0 and higher	Obesity



# **Glycerol Oxidation**

95% of the energy in a fatty acid is derived from the oxidation of acetyl-CoA

5% from glycerol

Figure 17-4
Lehninger Principles of Biochemistry, Fifth Edition
© 2008 W. H. Freeman and Company

# **β** oxidation of fatty acids

The **β oxidation** of long-chain fatty acids to acetyl-CoA is a central energy-yielding pathway. The electrons removed during fatty acid oxidation pass through the mitochondrial respiratory chain, driving ATP synthesis, and the acetyl-CoA

produced from the fatty acids may be completely oxidized to  $CO_2$  via the citric acid cycle, resulting in further energy conservation.  $\beta$  oxidation, by which fatty acids are converted into acetyl-CoA.

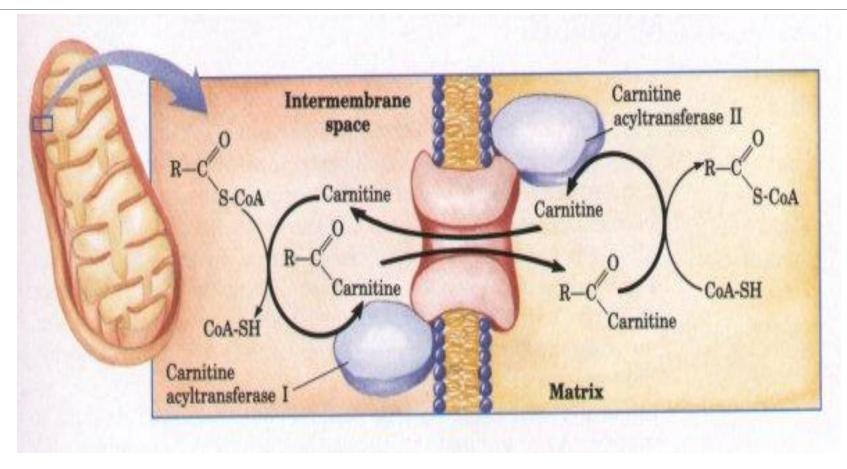
The enzymes of fatty acid oxidation are located in the mitochondrial matrix.

The free fatty acids that enter the cytosol from the blood cannot pass directly through the mitochondrial membranes, but must first undergo a series of three enzymatic reactions. The first is catalyzed by a family of isozymes present in the outer mitochondrial membrane, acyl-CoA synthetases, which promote the general reaction:

Fatty acid + CoA + ATP fatty acyl-CoA + AMP + PPi

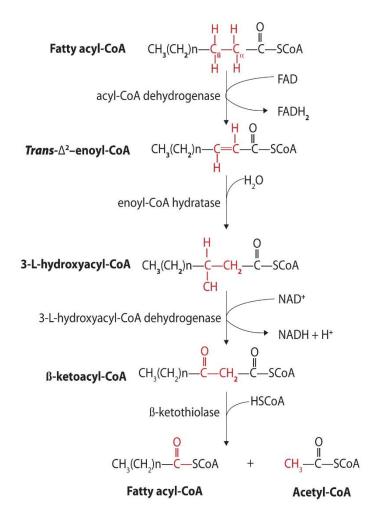
Fatty acyl-CoA esters formed in the outer mitochondrial membrane do not cross the inner mitochondrial membrane intact. Instead, the fatty acyl group is transiently attached to the hydroxyl group of **carnitine** and the fatty acyl-carnitine is carried across the inner mitochondrial membrane by a specific transporter. In this second enzymatic reaction required for fatty acid movement into mitochondria, **carnitine acyltransferase I**, present on the outer face of the inner membrane, catalyzes transesterification of the fatty acyl group from coenzyme A to carnitine. The fatty acyl-carnitine ester crosses the inner mitochondrial membrane into the matrix by facilitated diffusion through the **acyl-carnitine/carnitine transporter**.

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http://www.bioinfo.org.cn/book/biochemistry/chapt16/bio1.htm

# Steps of $\beta$ -oxidation



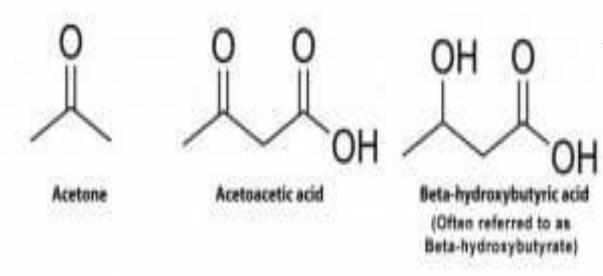
# Energy Yield from $\beta$ -Oxidation

• Yield of ATP per mole of stearic acid (C<sub>18</sub>).

Step	Chemical Step	Happens	ATP	
1	Activation (stearic acid -> stearyl CoA)	Once	-2	
2	Oxidation (acyl CoA -> trans-enoyl CoA) produces FADH <sub>2</sub>	8 times	16	
4	Oxidation (hydroxy- 8 times acyl CoA to ketoacyl			
	Oxidation of acetyl CoA by the common metaboli	9 times	108	
	pathway, etc.	TOTAL	146	

https://www.slideshare.net/obanbrahma/beta-oxidation-protein-catabolism-57804497

## **Ketone bodies**



Ketone bodies, or simply *ketones* are substances produced by the liver from acetyl-CoA. There are three ketone bodies: *acetoacetate*, *beta-hydroxybutyrate*, and *acetone*. These compounds are used to provide energy to the cells of the body. There are important source of energy for cardiac muscle and neurons (when glucose is low or absent in the diet).

Concentration of ketone bodies increased in times of fasting and starvation, insulin dependent diabetes mellitus, intake of high in lipids and low in carbohydrates.

### **Utilization of ketone bodies**

- ☐ Ketone bodies serve as a fuel for extra hepatic tissues
- ☐The ketone bodies are water soluble and are transported across the inner mitochondrial membrane as well as across the blood-brain barrier and cell membranes.
- ☐ They can be used as a fuel source by a variety of tissues including the CNS.
- ☐ They are preferred substrates for aerobic muscle and heart, thus sparing glucose when they are available.
- ☐Tissues that can use fatty acids can generally use ketone bodies in addition to other energy sources.
- ☐ The exceptions are the liver and the brain.

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- It is due to increased production of ketone bodies by the liver rather than to a deficiency in their utilization by extra hepatic tissues.
- The production of ketone bodies occurs at a relatively low rate during normal feeding and under conditions of normal physiological status.
- Normal physiological responses to carbohydrate shortages cause the liver to increase the production of ketone bodies from the acetyl-CoA generated from fatty acid oxidation.

BIOCUEMISTY FOR WEDICS 10/21/2014

Uncontrolled diabetes mellitus

Starvation

Chronic alcoholism

■ Von- Gierke's disease

Heavy exercise

☐ Low carbohydrate diet- For weight loss

☐ Glycogen storage disease type 6(Due to phosphorylase kinase deficiency)

Pyruvate carboxylase deficiency

#### Enzymes:

- 1. Fatty acid synthase (6 enzymes and 1 Acyl carrier protein molecule)
- 2. Acetyl-CoA carboxylase (rate-limiting enzyme)

### **Starting material:**

- 1.For palmitate synthesis: Acetyl-CoA
- 2.For odd number carbon long chain fatty acid synthesis: Propionyl-

CoA

**2 Carbon donor:** Malonyl-CoA (donates 2 C and 1 C is thrown out as CO2)

Site: Cytosol

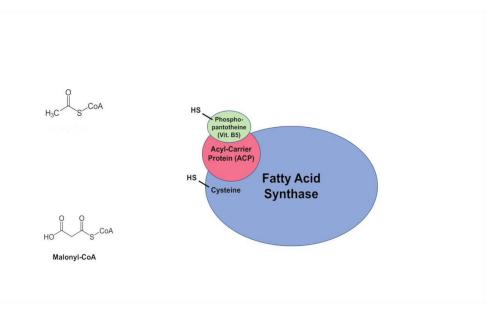
Citrate shuttle transfers acetyl-CoA from mitochondria to cytosol.

- •OAA + **Acetyl-CoA** = Citrate (Mitochondria)
- •Citrate (Mitochondria) = Citrate (Cytosol)
- •Citrate = OAA + **Acetyl-CoA** (Cytosol)

Formation of **Malonyl-CoA** (3C) from Acetyl-CoA (2C) by **Acetyl-CoA carboxylase**.

- •1 ATP used
- •Requires **Biotin and Bicarbonate** (source of CO2)
- •Stimulated by: Insulin, Citrate, ChREBP (induced by high carbohydrate diet/caloric intake)
- •Inhibited by: Glucagon, Epinephrine (AMP dependent kinase), Palmitoyl-CoA

Malonyl-CoA inhibits carnitine acyltransferase to prevent fatty acids from being taken into the mitochondrial matrix to be beta oxidized at times when fatty acids are being synthesized, thus preventing a futile cycle.



It is a multimeric complex, but the 2 important domains are:

- 1. Ketoacyl synthase (KAS) end:
- •has **Cysteine**-SH active site
- •accepts Acetyl-CoA and Acyl chain extended by 2 C on each cycle
- 2. Acyl carrier protein (ACP) end:
- •has Pantothenic-SH active site
- •accepts Malonyl-CoA

https://epomedicine.com/wp-content/uploads/2018/07/FA-synthase.jpg

### **NADPH donors:**

- 1.HMP shunt pathway
- 2.Isocitrate dehydrogenase
- **3.M**alic enzyme

Mnemonic: HIM donates NADPH.

- 1. Loading of precursors to KAS and ACP end of FA synthase.
- 2. Condensation: Addition of 2 C atoms derived from Malonyl-CoA (Malonyl-CoA at ACP end takes precursor at KAS end and KAS end is free)
- 3. Reduction: 1 NADPH used
- 4. Dehydration
- 5. Reduction: 1 NADPH used
- 6. Acyl chain extended by 2 C atom (donated by Malonyl-CoA) is transferred to KAS end and ACP end is free to receive Malonyl-CoA.

Precursor loaded on KAS end is transferred to ACP end with Malonyl-CoA (KAS end is free).

Acyl chain elongated with 2 C atom is transferred from ACP end to KAS end (ACP end is free).

Malonyl-CoA is loaded on ACP end.

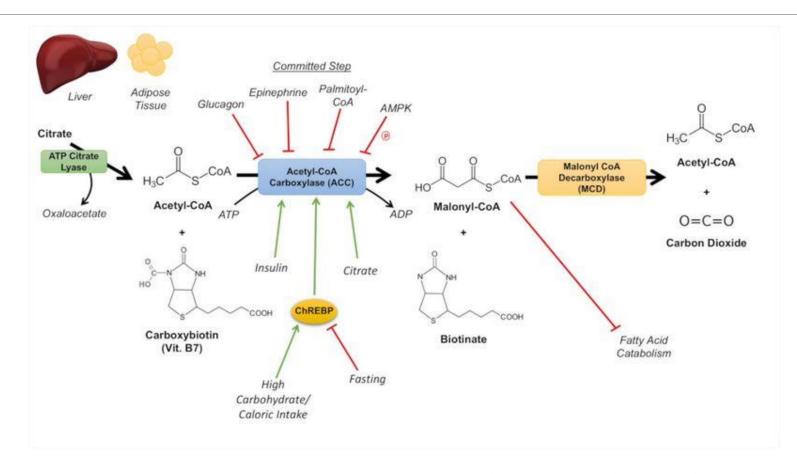
Cycle repeats.

7. Cycle of precursor loading, condensation, reduction, dehydration and reduction (Chain elongation) occurs unless 16 C Palmitate is formed which is released from FA synthase enzyme complex by Thioesterase.

Humans make palmitic acid (16:0) as stored fat (only de novo fat possible).

- •End-product: Palmitate (C16:0)
- •Total of 7 cycles:
  - •Starts with 2 carbon acetyl-CoA
  - •Malonyl-CoA acts as a 2 carbon donor
  - •7 Malonyl-CoA utilized (14 carbons)
  - •2 NADPH (2 reduction reactions) X 7 cycles = 14 NADPH utilized
  - •1 ATP (acetyl-CoA carboxylase reaction) X 7 cycles = 7 ATP utilized (+1 ATP to transport acetyl-CoA from mitochondria to cytosol)
  - •1 CO2 (released when malonyl-CoA donates 2 C acyl chain) X 7 cycles = 7 CO2 released
  - •1 Acetyl-CoA (to make malonyl-CoA) X 7 cylces + 1 Acetyl-CoA (precursor in KAS end) = 8 Acetyl-CoA utilized

# Fatty acids synthesis



# Complex lipids

# 2. Complex lipids:

Esters of fatty acids with alcohols and molecules with other groups.

## **Phospholipids:**

Lipids containing:

Fatty acids

Alcohol

Phosphoric acid residue.

## Glycolipids (glycosphingolipids):

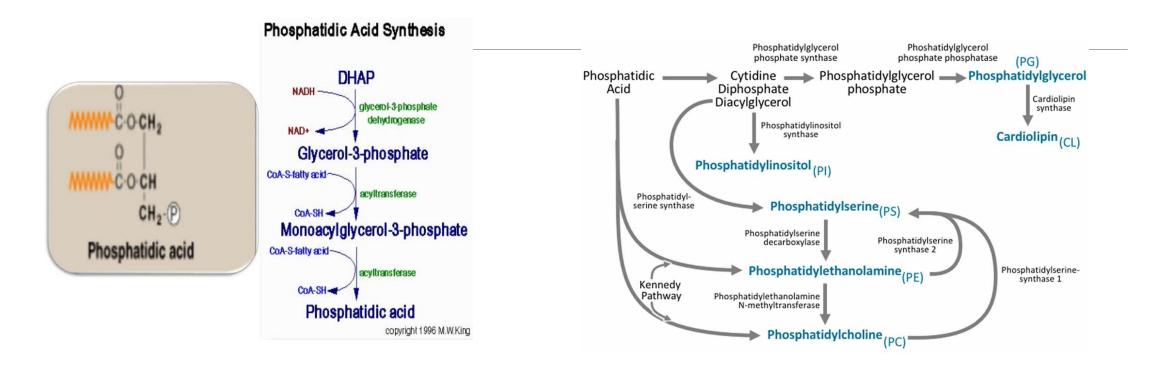
Lipids containing:

Fatty acid

Sphingosine

Carbohydrate.

# Phospholipids synthesis



https://www.slideshare.net/YESANNA/synthesis-of-phospholipids

https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fnmol.2018.00010/full

**Lipotropic factors** 

### **Lipotropic Factors**

- These are the substances required for the normal mobilisation of fat from liver.
- ☐ The deficiency of these factors may result in fatty liver.
- ☐ Important lipotropic factors:
- □ Choline, Betaine, Methionine & Inositol.
- Folic acid, vitamin B<sub>12</sub>, glycine & serine also serve as lipotropic factors.

https://www.slideshare.net/YESANNA/fatty-liver-43649058

### Lipotropic factors

- · Choline ↓ oxidation of FA ↓phospholipid synthesis,
  - Impair lipoprotein syntheisis
- Betain- | choline synthesis,

methyl gr. Donor for choline

- · Methionine -- ↓ choline synthesis
- · Essential Fatty acids- required for VLDL and

lipoprotein synthesis

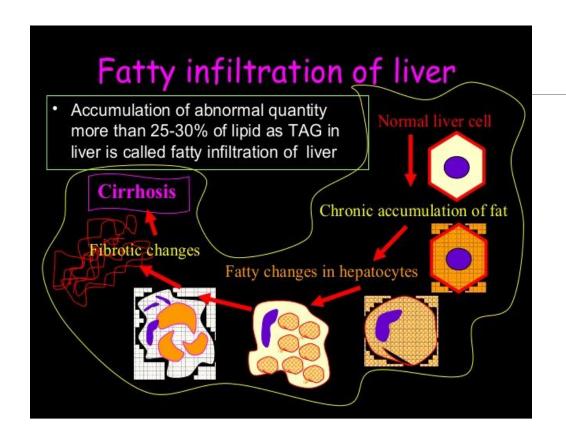
· Inositol -- |phospholipid synthesis

## Lipotropic factors

 Substances which facilitate mobilisation of fat and prevent accumulation of fat in liver are called LIPO TROPIC FACTORS / AGENTS / LIPOTROPINS

## Lipotropic factors

- · Casein
- · Heparin
- · Vit. E, Selenium, Pantothenic acid
- w3 Fatty acids have protective role
- Lipotropic factors prevents fatty liver but cannot reverse the condition

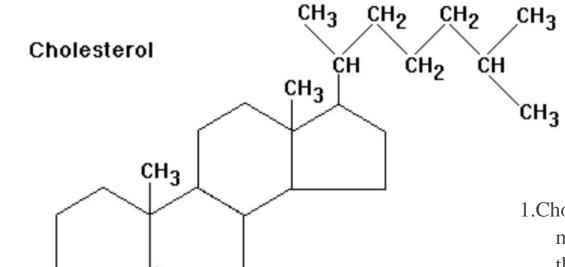


# Clinical conditions / causes of Fatty Liver

- 1. Starvation
- 2. Diabetes mellitus
- 3. Obesity, Excess calories intake
- 4. Alcohol abuse
- Hepato toxins— CCI, CHCI, Pb, Arsenic, Ethionine, Orotic acid
- 6. Drugs Puromycin
- PEM deficiency of protein, Essential FA, Lipotropic factors
- Hormones Epinephrine, Ant. Pituitary hormone

https://pt.slideshare.net/DJ4SDM/fatty-liver-and-lipotropic-factors/4?smtNoRedir=1

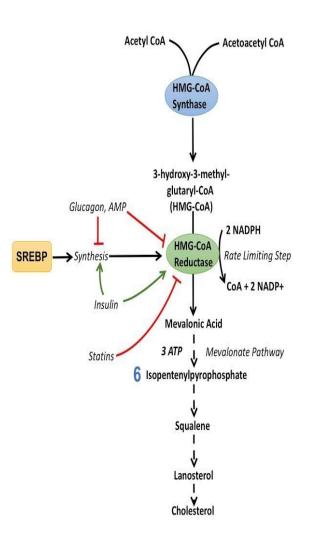
## **Cholesterol**



- 1. Cholesterol is a major constituent of the cell membranes. Cholesterol modulates physical properties of these membranes that in turn affect the function of membrane proteins such as receptors and transporters. Experimental depletion of membrane cholesterol cripples many cellular functions.
- 2. Cholesterol is the biosynthetic precursor of bile acids, which are essential for fat digestion.
- 3. Cholesterol is the precursor of all steroid hormones, namely, androgens, estrogens, progestins, glucocorticoids, and mineralocorticoids, as well as of calciferol (vitamin D).

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# **Cholesterol biosynthesis**



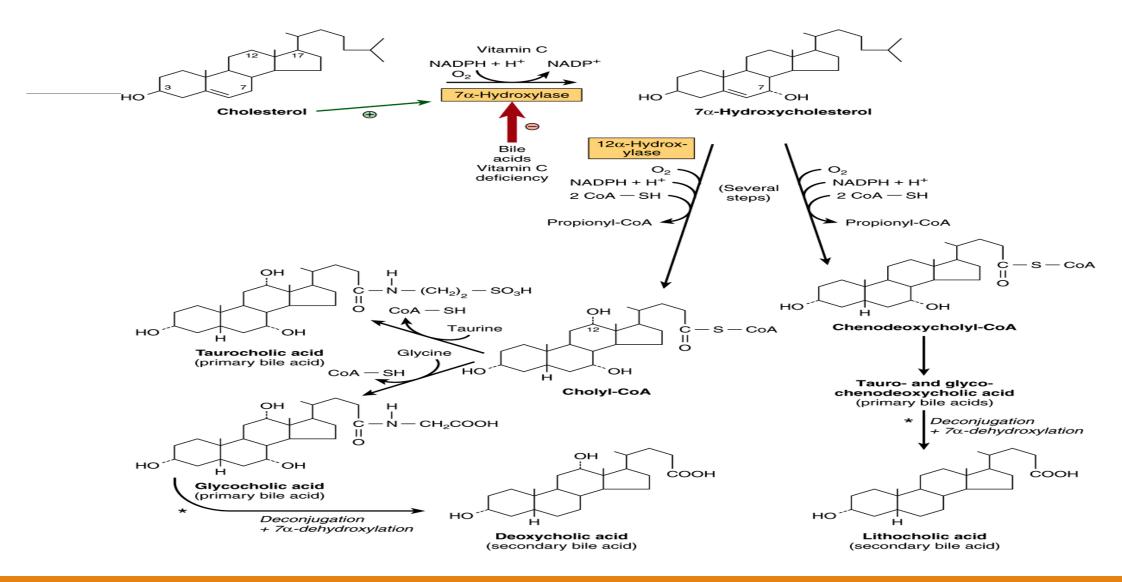
The process of cholesterol synthesis can be considered to be composed of five major steps where the reactions that culminate in the synthesis of isopentenyl pyrophosphate, and its isomeric form dimethylallyl pyrophosphate, are commonly referred to as the mevlonate pathway:

- 1.Acetyl-CoAs are converted to 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl-CoA (HMG-CoA)
- 2.HMG-CoA is converted to mevalonate
- 3.Mevalonate is converted to the isoprene based molecule, isopentenyl pyrophosphate (IPP)
- 4.IPP molecules are converted to squalene
- 5. Squalene is converted to cholesterol

# **Cholesterol hydroxylation**

https://www.david-bender.co.uk/metabonline/lipids/bile/bile16.html

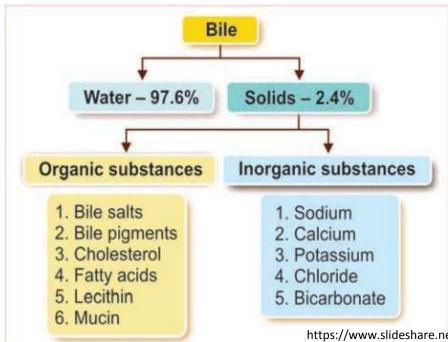
## Bile acids metabolism



## Bile

## **COMPOSITION OF BILE**

 Bile contains 97.6% of water and 2.4% of solids. Solids include organic and inorganic substances.



### **FUNCTIONS OF BILE**

- Most of the functions of bile are due to the bile salts.
- 1. DIGESTIVE FUNCTION
- 2. ABSORPTIVE FUNCTIONS
- 3. EXCRETORY FUNCTIONS
- 4. LAXATIVE ACTION
- 5. ANTISEPTIC ACTION
- 6. CHOLERETIC ACTION
- 7. MAINTENANCE OF pH IN GASTROINTESTINAL TRACT
- 8. PREVENTION OF GALLSTONE FORMATION
- 9. LUBRICATION FUNCTION
- 10. CHOLAGOGUE ACTION

https://www.slideshare.net/VamsiIntellectual/physiology-properties-of-bile-composition-of-bile-functions-of-bile-functional-anatomy-of-small-intestine-functional-anatomy-of-si-functional-anatomy-of-li-functions-of-li

## Gallstones

## Composition of Gall stones

- Gallstones -composed mainly of cholesterol, bilirubin, and calcium salts, with smaller amounts of protein and other materials
- Three types of gallstones
- > (i) Pure cholesterol stones-contain at least 90% cholesterol,
- (ii) pigment stones (brown or black)-contain at least 90% bilirubin
- Brown pigment stones are mainly composed of calcium bilirubinate and Black pigment stones contain bilirubin, calcium and/or tribasic phosphate
- Brown pigment stones are soft and greasy, consisting of bilirubinate and fatty acids (Ca palmitate or stearate). They form during infection, inflammation, and parasitic infestation
- ➤ (iii) mixed composition stones, which contain varying proportions of cholesterol, bilirubin and other substances such as CaCO<sub>3</sub>, Ca<sub>3</sub>(PO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub> and calcium palmitate





- Cholesterol gallstone formation begins with the secretion of bile supersaturated with cholesterol from the liver. Initiated by nucleating factors such as mucin, microscopic crystals then precipitate in the gallbladder
- Excessive cholesterol biosynthesis, -main lithogenic mechanism in obese persons.
- In the non-obese, defective conversion of cholesterol to bile acids, due to
  a relatively low activity of cholesterol 7α hydroxylase, the rate limiting
  enzyme for bile acid biosynthesis and cholesterol elimination could result
  in excessive cholesterol secretion.
- Interruption of the enterohepatic circulation of bile acids could increase bile saturation.
- Pigment stones occur when RBCs are destroyed, leading to excessive bilirubin in the bile.
- Gallbladder sludge, i.e., Thickened gallbladder mucoprotein with tiny entrapped cholesterol crystals is thought to be the usual precursor of gallstones

Analyte	Range	Classification	
Total Cholesterol <sup>1</sup> (mmol/L)	< 5.2	Desirable	
	5.2 - 6.1 > 6.1	Borderline high High	
HDL <sup>1,2</sup> (mmol/L)	> 1.53 1.03 - 1.53 1.29 - 1.53 < 1.03 < 1.29	Less than avgerage risk Average risk (male) Average risk (female) Increased risk (male) Increased risk (female)	
<b>LDL</b> <sup>1</sup> (mmol/L)	< 2.6 2.6 - 3.3 3.4 - 4.1 4.2 - 4.9 > 4.9	Optimal Near optimal Borderline high High Very high	
CHOL/HDL <sup>3,4</sup> (mmol/L)	< 3.5 < 3.4 > 5.0 > 4.4	Optimal (male) Optimal (female) Above average risk (male) Above average risk (female)	
Non-HDL <sup>1,2</sup> (mmol/L)	< 3.4 3.4 - 4.1 4.2 - 4.9 5.0 - 5.7 > 5.7	Very high 2. Lab Tests (	holesterol Education Program ATP III Online - Lipid Panel edical Health Guide
Triglycerides <sup>1</sup> (mmol/L)	< 1.69 1.69 - 2.25 2.26 - 5.63 > 5.63		Heart Association

### Contributing causes of polygenic hypercholesterolemia

Diet High saturated fat intake

High trans fat intake

High cholesterol intake

Lifestyle Sedentary lifestyle

Obesity

Diseases Cushing syndrome

Diabetes mellitus

HIV-infection

Hypothyroidism

Insulin resistance

Metabolic syndrome

Nonalcoholic fatty liver disease

Medication Amiodarone, betablockers, corticosteroids, cyclosporine, estrogens,

thiazide diuretics

Genetics > 30 SNPs

### **Atherosclerosis**

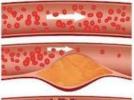
- □ Atherosclerosis is a disease of large and medium-sized muscular arteries and is characterized by –
- ☐ endothelial dysfunction,
- uvascular inflammation, and
- □ the buildup of lipids, cholesterol, calcium, and cellular debris within the intima of the vessel wall.

11/15/2012

Biochemistry for Medics

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## Atheromatous plaque



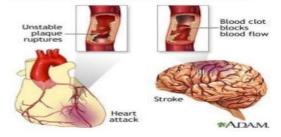


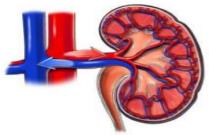
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Atherosclerosis or Arteriosclerosis is a slow and progressive building up of plaque, fatty substances, cholesterol, cellular waste products, calcium and fibrin in the inner lining of

**Atherosclerosis** 





☐ Atherosclerosis also takes a toll through other consequences of acutely or chronically diminished arterial perfusion, such as mesenteric occlusion, sudden cardiac death, chronic IHD, and ischemic encephalopathy.

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# **Major Risk Factors**

<u>Unhealthy blood cholesterol levels</u>. This includes high LDL cholesterol (sometimes called "bad" cholesterol) and low HDL cholesterol (sometimes called "good" cholesterol).

High blood pressure. Blood pressure is considered high if it stays at or above 140/90 mmHg over time. If you have diabetes or chronic kidney disease, high blood pressure is defined as 130/80 mmHg or higher. (The mmHg is millimeters of mercury—the units used to measure blood pressure.)

<u>Smoking</u>. Smoking can damage and tighten blood vessels, raise cholesterol levels, and raise blood pressure. Smoking also doesn't allow enough oxygen to reach the body's tissues.

<u>Insulin resistance</u>. This condition occurs if the body can't use its insulin properly. Insulin is a hormone that helps move blood sugar into cells where it's used as an energy source. Insulin resistance may lead to diabetes.

<u>Diabetes</u>. With this disease, the body's blood sugar level is too high because the body doesn't make enough insulin or doesn't use its insulin properly.

Overweight or obesity. The terms "overweight" and "obesity" refer to body weight that's greater than what is considered healthy for a certain height.

Lack of <u>physical activity</u>. A lack of physical activity can worsen other risk factors for atherosclerosis, such as unhealthy blood cholesterol levels, high blood pressure, diabetes, and overweight and obesity.

Unhealthy diet. An unhealthy diet can raise your risk for atherosclerosis. Foods that are high in saturated and trans fats, cholesterol, sodium (salt), and sugar can worsen other atherosclerosis risk factors.

Older age. As you get older, your risk for atherosclerosis increases. Genetic or lifestyle factors cause plaque to build up in your arteries as you age. By the time you're middle-aged or older, enough plaque has built up to cause signs or symptoms. In men, the risk increases after age 45. In women, the risk increases after age 55.

Family history of early heart disease. Your risk for atherosclerosis increases if your father or a brother was diagnosed with heart disease before 55 years of age, or if your mother or a sister was diagnosed with heart disease before 65 years of age.

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