

Urea cycle

Background

- ✚ Unlike glucose and fatty acids, amino acids are not stored by the body.
- ✚ Amino acids in excess of biosynthetic needs are degraded.
- ✚ **Degradation of amino acids involves:**
 - Removal of α -amino group \rightarrow Ammonia (NH_3)
 - Remaining carbon skeleton \rightarrow Energy metabolism

Removal of α -amino group, formation of ammonia and its transport to liver

I. Removal of α -amino group of amino acids and formation of ammonia:

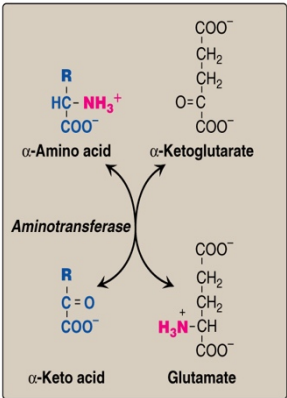
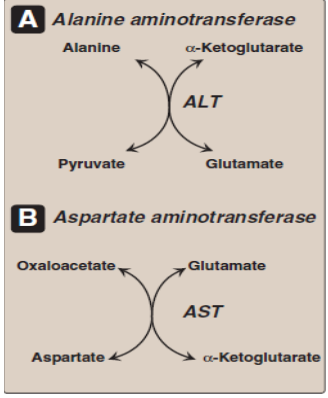
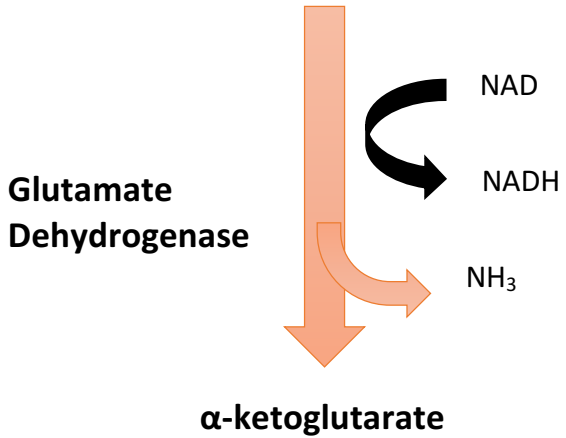
1. Transamination to glutamate
2. Oxidative deamination of glutamate

II. Blood transport of ammonia into liver:

1. in the form of glutamine (most tissue)
2. in the form of alanine (muscle)

A: Removal of α -amino group & formation of ammonia :

- Amino groups of amino acids are funneled to glutamate (Why?) **by transamination reactions with α -ketoglutarate**
- **Glutamate is unique. It is the only amino acid that undergoes rapid oxidative deamination**
- Oxidative deamination of glutamate will release NH_3 and re-generate α -ketoglutarate

Transamination		Oxidative Deamination
Transamination	Transamination by ALT & AST	Glutamate
 <p style="font-size: small;"> α-Amino acid + α-Ketoglutarate $\xrightarrow{\text{Aminotransferase}}$ α-Keto acid + Glutamate </p>	 <p style="font-size: small;"> A Alanine aminotransferase (ALT): Alanine + α-Ketoglutarate \rightleftharpoons Pyruvate + Glutamate B Aspartate aminotransferase (AST): Oxaloacetate + Glutamate \rightleftharpoons Aspartate + α-Ketoglutarate </p>	 <p style="font-size: small;"> Glutamate $\xrightarrow{\text{Glutamate Dehydrogenase}}$ α-ketoglutarate + NH_3 + NADH </p>
PLP: Pyridoxal phosphate, a co-enzyme that is derived from vitamin B6		

B: Transport of NH_3 from peripheral tissues into the liver

- Ammonia is produced by all tissues and the main disposal is via formation of urea in liver
- Blood level of NH_3 must be kept very low, otherwise, hyperammonemia and CNS toxicity will occur (NH_3 is toxic to CNS)
- To solve this problem, NH_3 is transported from peripheral tissues to the liver via formation of:
 - Glutamine (most tissues)
 - Alanine (muscle)

Transport of NH₃ from peripheral tissues into the liver

From most peripheral tissues:

NH₃ is transported into the liver through forming glutamine by **glutamine synthetase**.

From the muscle:

First, NH₃ will be transferred into α-ketoglutarate to form glutamate. Then, glutamate will give its amino group to pyruvate to form alanine by **ALT**. Therefore, NH₃ is transported from muscle into the liver through forming **alanine**.

Release of ammonia from glutamine and alanine in the liver

1. **Glutamine** is converted into **glutamate** by **glutaminase**.
2. **Alanine** will give its amino group to α-ketoglutarate to form **glutamate** by **ALT**.
3. **Glutamate** is converted into α-ketoglutarate and releasing NH₃ by **glutamate dehydrogenase**.

Urea Cycle

- Urea is the major form for disposal of amino groups derived from amino acids
- Urea cycle occurs in the liver
- One nitrogen of urea is from NH₃ and the other nitrogen from aspartate
- Urea is transported in the blood to the kidneys for excretion in urine

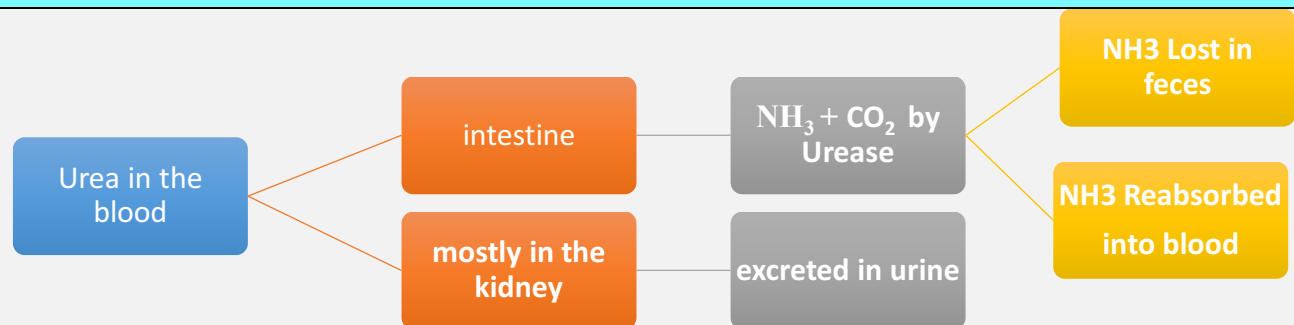
The five enzymes of urea cycle:

1. **Carbamoyl phosphate synthetase I**
2. **Ornithine transcarbamoylase (OCT)**
3. Argininosuccinate synthase
4. Argininosuccinate lyase
5. Arginase

Urea Cycle: Regulation (IMP)

- ❑ **Rate-limiting enzyme of urea cycle:**
Carbamoyl phosphate synthetase I (CPSI)
- ❑ **Allosteric activator of CPSI: N-Acetylglutamate**
- ❑ N-Acetylglutamate is synthesized by: N-Acetylglutamate synthetase (NAGS) in presence of **arginine**
- ❑ **NAGS deficiency is efficiently treated with Carbaglu, a CPS1 activator**

Fate of Urea



The action of intestinal urease to form NH₃ is clinically significant in renal failure:

Renal failure → ↑ blood urea → ↑ urea in the intestine → **urease** → ↑ NH₃ blood level (**acquired hyperammonemia**)

Normal blood level of ammonia: 5 – 50 μmol/L

Hyperammonemia

Acquired hyperammonemia:	Inherited hyperammonemia:
<p>1. Liver diseases: Acute: Viral hepatitis or hepatotoxic Chronic: Cirrhosis by hepatitis or alcoholism</p> <p>2. Renal failure</p>	<p>Genetic deficiencies of any of the 5 enzymes of urea cycle or the activator enzyme for CPSI: CPSI, OTC, ASS, ASL, arginase or NAGS</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Ornithine transcarbamoylase deficiency: X-linked recessive Most common of congenital hyperammonemia ➤ Marked decrease of citrulline and arginine ➤ Others: Autosomal recessive

Clinical Presentation of Hyperammonemia

- Lethargy and somnolence
- Tremors
- Vomiting and cerebral edema
- Convulsions
- Coma and death

Management of Hyperammonemia

1. **Protein restriction**
2. **Volume repletion** to maintain renal function Use 10% dextrose in water but *limit the use of normal saline*
3. **Ammonia removal by hemodialysis &/or drugs**
4. Avoid drugs that increase protein catabolism (eg, **glucocorticoids**) or inhibit urea synthesis (eg, **valproic acid**), or have direct hepatotoxicity

Drug Treatment of Hyperammonemia

A. Drugs that scavenge ammonia by creating an alternate pathway to excrete N₂- precursors:

1. **I.V. Sodium phenylacetate & sodium benzoate (Ammonul)**
2. **Oral sodium phenyl butyrate (Buphenyl)**
3. **I.V. Arginine:** for all UCDs except UCD due to arginase deficiency (argininemia)

B. Activators to CPSI (Carglumic acid "Carbaglu"): For hyperammonemia due to NAGS deficiency

Sodium phenyl butyrate (Buphenyl)

Prodrug that is converted to phenylacetate.

Phenylacetate condenses with glutamine forming phenylacetylglutamine that is excreted in urine