Amino acid Metabolism

Revision

Proteins are polymers of 100 - 1000s of amino acids linked by covalent peptide bonds

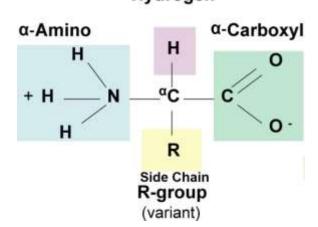
Polypeptide chain ⁺H₃N - COO⁻ N-terminus (Amino-end)

- About 500 type of amino acid in nature
- 21 amino acids incorporated to the polypeptide chain during the synthesis (20 of them are coded by the genetic material "the common amino acids")
- The 21th is *Selenocysteine* is not coded by the genetic material but can be incorporated during the synthesis of some proteins under specific conditions
 Hydrogen

The general structure of amino acids

they all have central α -carbon attached to it:

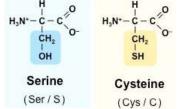
- H-atom
- α-amino group
- α-carboxyl group
- Side chain (R-group)
- R-group differ from one amino acid to another
- All amino acids used to build our protein are in the *L-configuration*



Amino acid	Three letter Symbol	One letter symbol	
Glycine	Gly	G	7
Alanine	Ala	А	
Valine	Val	V	ar
Leucine	Leu	L	Non-polar
Isoleucine	Ile	Ι	
Methionine	Met	Μ	D
Proline	Pro	Р	Z
Phenylalanine	Phe	F	
Tryptophan	Тгр	W	
Serine	Ser	S	٦
Threonine	Thr	Т	L
Tyrosine	Tyr	Y	Polar
Cysteine	Cys	С	Po
Asparagine	Asn	Ν	
Glutamine	Gln	Q	
Aspartic acid	Asp	D	dic L
Glutamic acid	Glu	E	Aci
Lysine	Lys	K	
Histidine	His	Н	Basic
Arginine	Arg	R	J ä

According to the side chain; amino acids are classified into 4 groups

- Nonpolar Amino acids ($R \rightarrow Non-polar$) 1.
- Polar uncharged Amino acids ($R \rightarrow polar$, not charged) 2.
- 3. Acidic Amino acids ($R \rightarrow$ acidic, -ve charge)
- Basic Amino acids ($R \rightarrow Basic$, +ve charge) 4.
- Val, Leu and Ile are called *Branched* amino acids
- Trp, Phe, Tyr are *aromatic* amino acids
- Ser (OH) and Cys (SH)

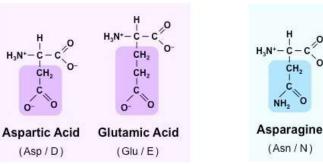


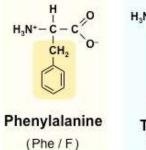
Cysteine is synthesized from Methionine and both contain S



Add amine to Asp \rightarrow Asn Add amine to $Glu \rightarrow Gln$

Uncharged





OH Tyrosine

(Tyr/Y)

There are many non-protein amino acids (not found in proteins) such as Ornithine, Citrulline, and Sarcosine

Glutamine

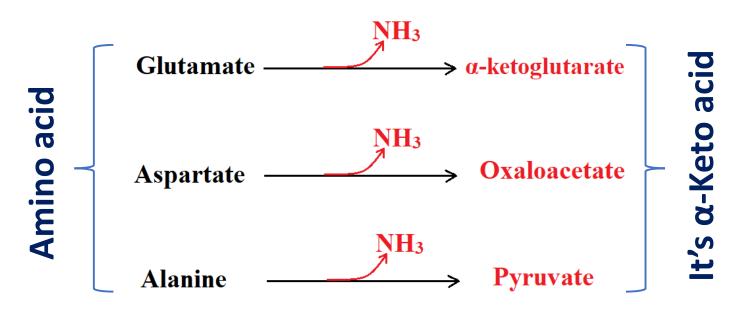
(Gln/Q)

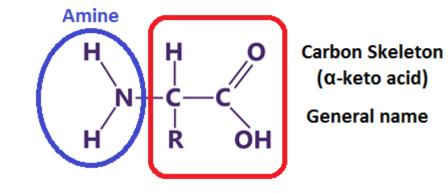
Amino acids is used to build our proteins and to synthesize Nitrogen-containing compounds such as Heme, Nucleotides, Neurotransmitters, Carnitine, Choline, vitamins, non-protein amino acids..... Unlike carbohydrate and fat; amino acids cannot be stored in the body so any excess amino acids in diet will be degraded

Amino acids Catabolism

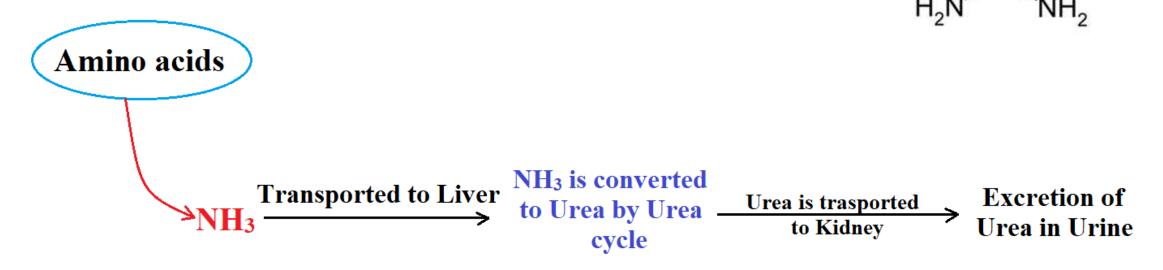
During catabolism; we deal with the amino acid as 2 parts:

- α -amino group
- The rest called the Carbon skeleton or α -keto acid





- During amino acid catabolism the α -amino group is released as ammonia (NH₃) = Ammonium (NH₄⁺)
- Ammonia is CNS toxic, so ammonia is converted to less toxic compound called Urea by Urea cycle
- Urea is Excreted in Urine
- Urea cycle occur mainly in Liver cells, very low level in kidney and Brain



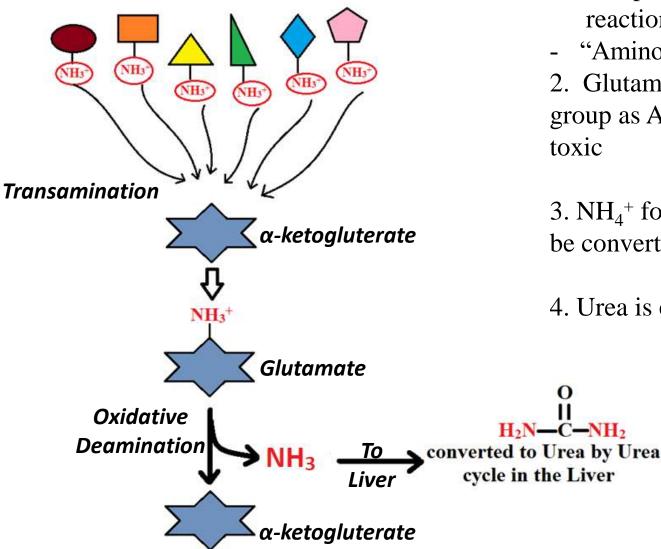
Some Terms you should know

Transamination: transfer of amine group from one substance to another *Deamination:* Release of amine group as NH_3 *Amination:* addition of NH_3 to an Organic compound

How to release the α -amino group of amino acids?

There are many ways:

1. Transamination reaction (major)



- 1. The amino group of amino acids is transferred to a common acceptor which is α -ketogluterate forming Glutamate in a reaction called *Transamination*
- "Amino groups are funneled in Glutamate"

2. Glutamate is *Oxidatively deaminated*; releasing the amino group as Ammonium NH_4^+ (Ammonia NH_3) which is CNS toxic

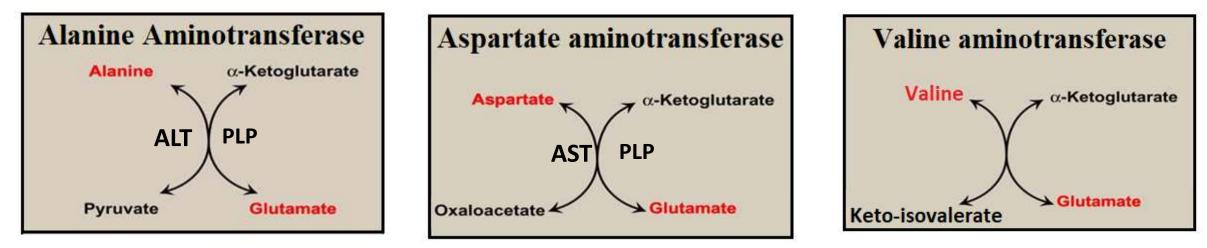
3. NH_4^+ formed outside liver is transported to the liver cells to be converted to less toxic compound called *Urea* by Urea cycle

4. Urea is eliminated in the Urine

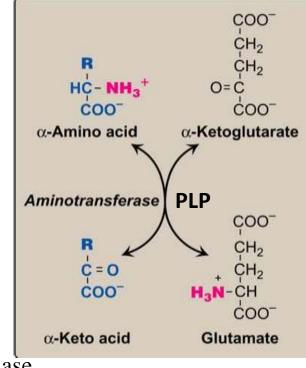
- Transamination is catalyzed by Enzymes called *Aminotransferases* also called in the past *Transaminases*
- They are specific, each amino acid has it's own Amino-transferase **except Lysine and Threonine**
- These enzymes require Coenzyme called **Pyridoxal Phosphate (PLP)**, the active form of Vit B6 (Pyridoxine)

The main acceptor for these transaminases is α -ketoglutarate forming Glutamate So the α -amino groups of amino acids are funneled/ Sinked to Glutamate * The most important Aminotransferases that you should memorize are:

- Alanine Aminotransferase (ALT) also called Pyruvate –Glutamate Transaminase
- Aspartate Aminotransferase (AST) also called Oxaloacetate –Glutamate Transaminase



these Enzymes are reversible; the direction of the reaction depends whether you want to synthesize or degrade amino acids



Now,

The Next step is **Oxidative Deamination** of Glutamate catalyzed by **Glutamate dehydrogenase (GDH)** results in the liberation of the amino group as **free ammonia (NH₃)** and α -ketoglutarate

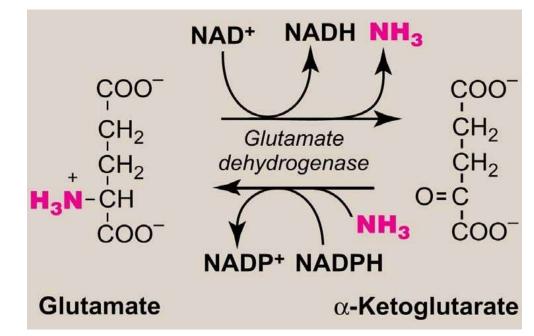
This Enzyme is reversible, and the direction depends whether you want to degrade or synthesize amino acids

During amino acids disposal: *Oxidative Deamination* of Glutamate releasing NH_3 and α -Ketoglutarate In this direction NAD⁺ is reduced to NADH

During amino acid synthesis:

Reductive Amination binding Free NH₃ to α-Ketoglutarate forming Glutamate (ammonia Fixation) In this direction NADPH is oxidized to NADP⁺

Ammonia Fixation: binding free ammonia (NH₃) to an organic compound



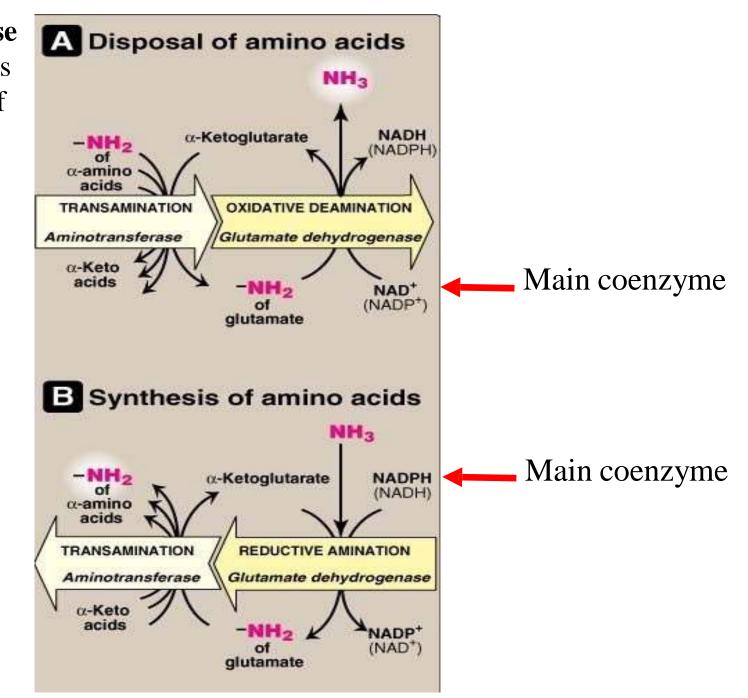
Direction of Glutamate dehydrogenase depends on: the relative concentrations of glutamate/α-ketoglutarate, and the of NADH/NAD⁺ and NADPH/NADP⁺.

Disposal:

- Transamination from amino acids to α-ketoglutarate forming Glutamate
- 2. Oxidative deamination of glutamate to release NH_3 that is converted to Urea for excretion

Synthesis:

- 1. Reductive amination of α-ketoglutarate forming Glutamate
- Transamination from Glutamate to specific α-ketoacids forming specific amino acids

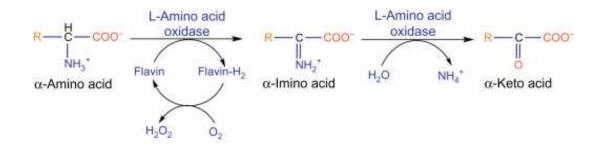


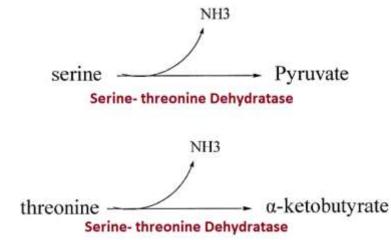
Other methods to release the α -amino group from amino acids?

2. Oxidative deamination of the amino acids by *L-amino acid Oxidase* (all amino acids except Serine and Threonine)

L-amino acid oxidase is Flavin (FAD) containing Enzyme Work in 2 step:

- 1. Oxidation of the L-amino acid forming α -Imino-acid (FAD is reduced to FADH₂) the 2H are transferred to O₂ forming H₂O₂
- 2. Deamination of the α -Imino-acid releasing NH_4^+ and the α -keto-acid

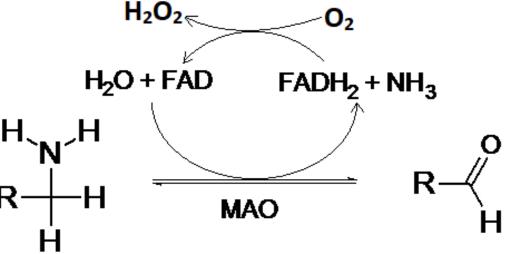




3. non-oxidative Deamination by pyridoxal-dependent Dehydratases which release the α -amino group of Serine, Threonine and Cysteine

4. monoamine oxidase (MAO): present in the liver, catalyzes the release amino group of wide variety of physiologically important amines such as epinephrine, norepinephrine, dopamine, and serotonin. $H_2O_2 = O_2$

- 1. Oxidation (FAD is reduced to $FADH_2$) the 2H are transferred to O_2 forming H_2O_2
- 2. Deamination releasing NH_3



Excess nitrogen (Ammonia) is CNS toxic and must be eliminated from the body

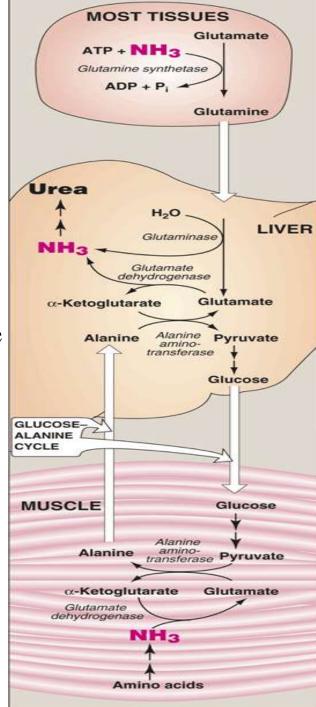
- Birds eliminate N as Uric acid
- Fish eliminate N as is in the form of ammonia
- Mammals (including human) eliminate excess N as Urea

Now Ammonia produced in the Extrahepatic tissue must be transported to liver cells to be converted to Urea, how body your body cells transport ammonia to Liver or Kidney *safely*?

Transport of ammonia to the liver or kidney

 NH_3 is transported from peripheral tissues to liver or kidney for conversion to urea. Two mechanisms for ammonia transport **Safely**:

- 1. By glutamine synthetase that combines NH_3 with Glu to form Gln
- The process called *Ammonia Fixation*, Found in most tissues
- Requires energy
- The resulting glutamine is transported in the blood to the liver to be cleaved by **glutaminase** to produce glutamate and free ammonia.
- Then glutamate is oxidatively deaminated by GDH to second NH_3 and α -ketoglutarate
- 2. By transamination of pyruvate to form alanine by ALT
- Primarily in muscles
- Alanine is transported by the blood to the liver to be converted to pyruvate by transamination.
- Then glutamate is oxidatively deaminated by GDH to NH_3 and α -ketoglutarate
- Pyruvate can be used in gluconeogenesis (glucose-alanine cycle)
- Muscles use both pathway
- The most abundant amino acid in the blood is Glutamine



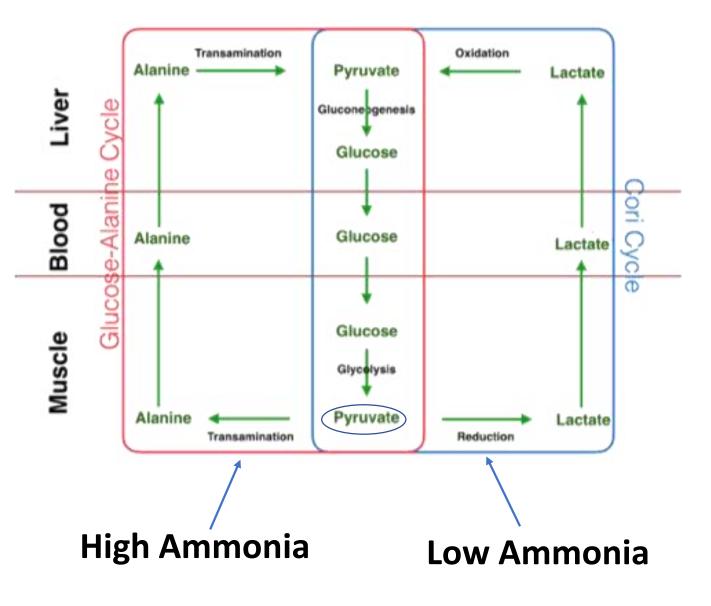
Cori cycle Vs Glucose alanine Cycle

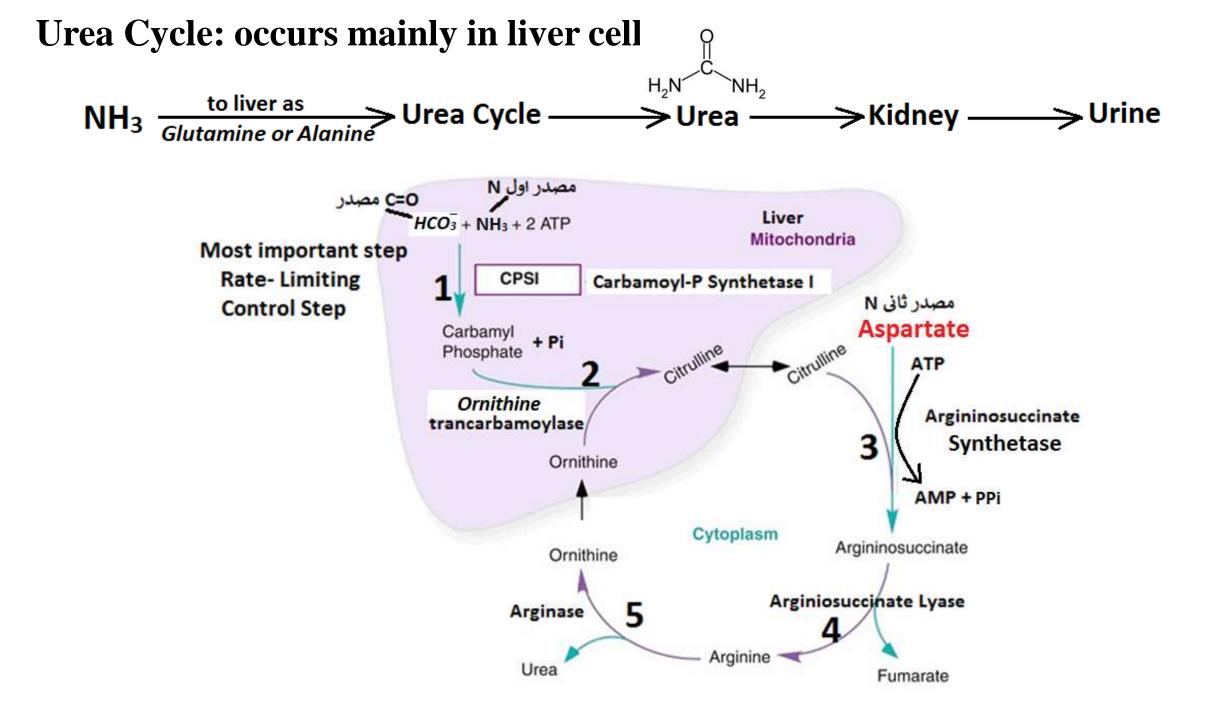
كلاهما تحدث بين العضلات والكبد

in Cori cycle: Pyruvate in muscle is reduced to Lactate then lactate is transported to liver for glucose synthesis and then glucose is transported back to muscles

In Glucose alanine Cycle: Pyruvate in muscle is transaminated to alanine then alanine is transported to liver alanine in liver by transamination give pyruvate for glucose synthesis and then glucose is transported back to muscles

- If ammonia level in muscle is High → Glucose-Alanine cycle is preferred
- If ammonia level in muscle is Low → Cori cycle is preferred





Urea Cycle in Words:

The first 2 steps occurs in the Mitochondria, the rest of steps occurs in the cytosol

Step1: Bicarbonate (source of C=O) is condensed with Ammonia (source of 1^{st} N) forming Carbamoyl which is phosphorylated to carbamoyl-P, this step is catalyzed by *Cabamoyl-P Synthestase I*, this step consume 2 ATP

This step is the rate limiting step (Control Step) of urea cycle

Step 2: Carbamoyl is condensed with an amino acid called *Ornithine* releasing the phosphate group and forming larger amino acid called *Citrulline*, this step catalyzed by *Ornithine transcarbamoylase*

Step3: Citrulline get out of the mitochondria to the cytosol, where it condensed to Asp (source of the 2nd N) forming *Argininosuccinate*, this step consume ATP to AMP + PPi catalyzed by *Argininosuccunate Synthetase*

Step4: Fumarate is removed from Argininosuccinate forming *Arginine*, this step is catalyzed by *Argninosuccinate Lyase*

Step5: finally Arginine is hydrolyzed to *Urea and Ornithine* which return to Mitochondria in exchange with Citrulline by Translocase (Antiporter), this step is catalyzed by *Arginase* which found **mainly in the Liver cells**, that's why urea is produced mainly in the Liver

After that urea is transported to the kidneys to be eliminated with urine

Step1: feeder reaction Steps 2,3,4, and 5 are cycle reactions

Overall stoichiometry of the urea cycle

Aspartate + NH₃ + HCO₃ + H₂O + 3ATP -----> Urea + Fumarate + 2ADP + AMP + 4Pi

The synthesis of urea is irreversible, with a large, negative ΔG

For each urea molecule:

- 1. 4 ATP equivalents are consumed
- 2. One nitrogen of the urea molecule is supplied by free NH_3 (by glutaminase or GDH)
- 3. The other nitrogen is supplied by aspartate.
- 4. The C and O of urea are derived from $CO_2 = HCO3^-$

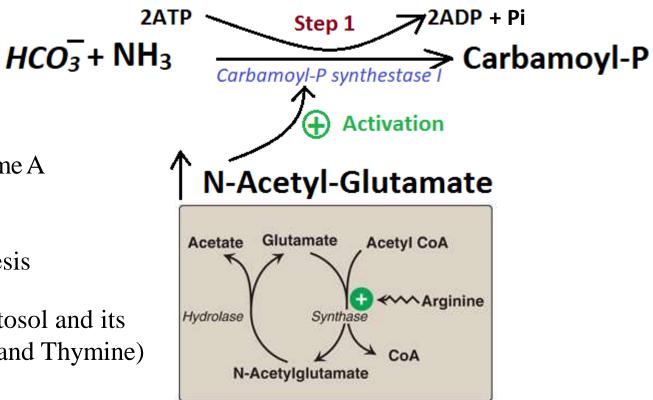
Control of Urea Cycle

N-Acetylglutamate is an essential **activator** for **carbamoyl phosphate synthetase I (CPS I)** (the rate-limiting step in the urea cycle)

N-Acetylglutamate is synthesized from acetyl coenzyme A and glutamate by *N-acetylglutamate synthase*

Arginine is an **activator** for N-Acetylglutamate synthesis

Note: CPS II (Carbamoyl-P synthetase II) found in cytosol and its important for Pyrimidine synthesis (Uracil, Cytosine, and Thymine)



Genetic deficiency can affect any of the 5 urea cycle enzymes leading to Hyperammonemia (high plasma ammonia level over $4 \ge 10^{-5}$ M)

Hyperammonaemia:

- CNS toxic and may cause mental retardation
- Ammonia added to α-ketoglutarate forming Glutamate, so α-ketoglutarate (TCA cycle intermediate) will be depleted
- Arginase deficiency disease (most serious) result in progressive spastic tetraplegia and mental retardation and Argininemia (high plasma Arg level)

Essential amino acids: amino acids that we (human) cannot synthesize and must obtained from Diet **PVT TIM HALL** Not necessarily Phenylalanin the one letter Valine abbreviation of Tryptophan the these amino Threonine acids Isoleucine Methionine Histidine

Arginine

Leucine

Lysine

Non-essential amino acids: amino acids that we (human) can synthesize them

Glycine Alanine Proline Serine Cysteine Tyrosine Asparagine Aspartate Glutamine Glutamate

- Tyrosine is synthesized from phenylalanine. Cysteine is synthesized from Methionine so if inadequate intake of phenylalanine and Methionine in diet then Cysteine and Tyrosine become essential that's why we call Tyrosine and Cysteine called *sparing amino acids*
- Semi-essential amino acids: they are essential in children and important for growth but become nonessential in adult (synthesized in adults) such as histidine and Arginine

Synthesis of amino acids

According to the precursor, amino acids are grouped into 6 families:

- 1. α -ketoglutarate family
- 2. Serine family
- 3. Aspartate family
- 4. Aromatic family
- 5. Pyruvate family
- 6. Histidine family

1. a-ketoglutarate family: include Glutamate, Glutamine, Arginine and proline

a-ketoglutarate family: Glutamate and Glutamine

Glutamate is synthesized from α -ketoglutarate by transamination or by reductive amination (GDH) Glutamine is synthesized by amination of Glutamate (Glutamine Synthetase) Glutamine is hydrolyzed to Glutamate and NH₄⁺ by Glutaminase

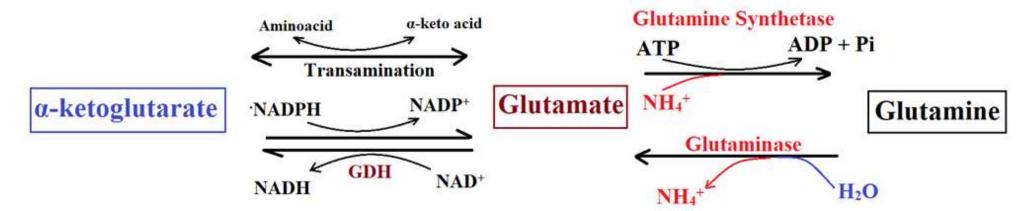
Glutamate

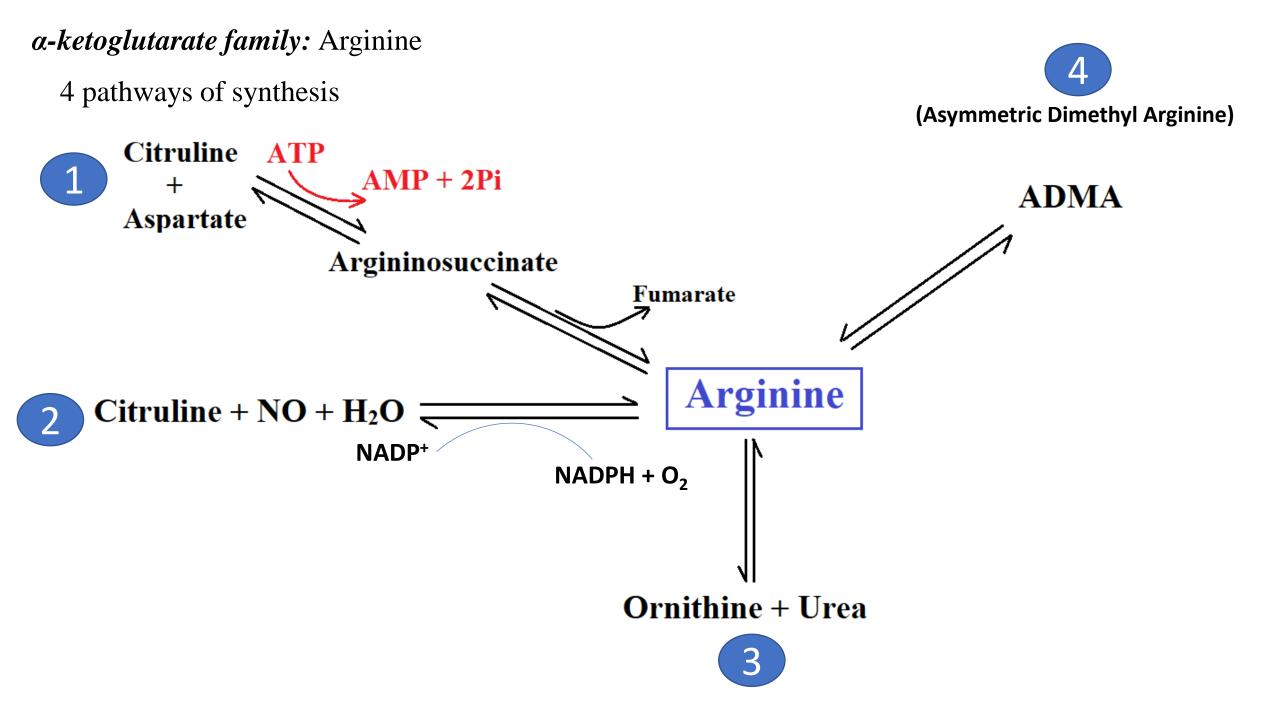
Amino Acid Group Synthesis

a-Ketoglutarate

Proline

Precursor

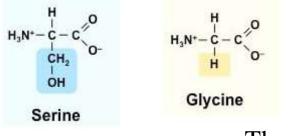




2. Serine family: includes Serine, Glycine, Cysteine, and Selenocysteine *Serine family:* Serine

Serine can be synthesized from a Glycolysis intermediate *3-phosphoglycerate*

Serine family: Glycine

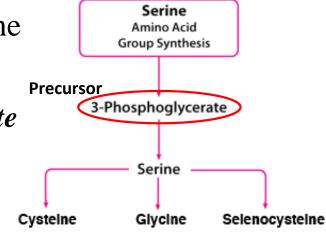


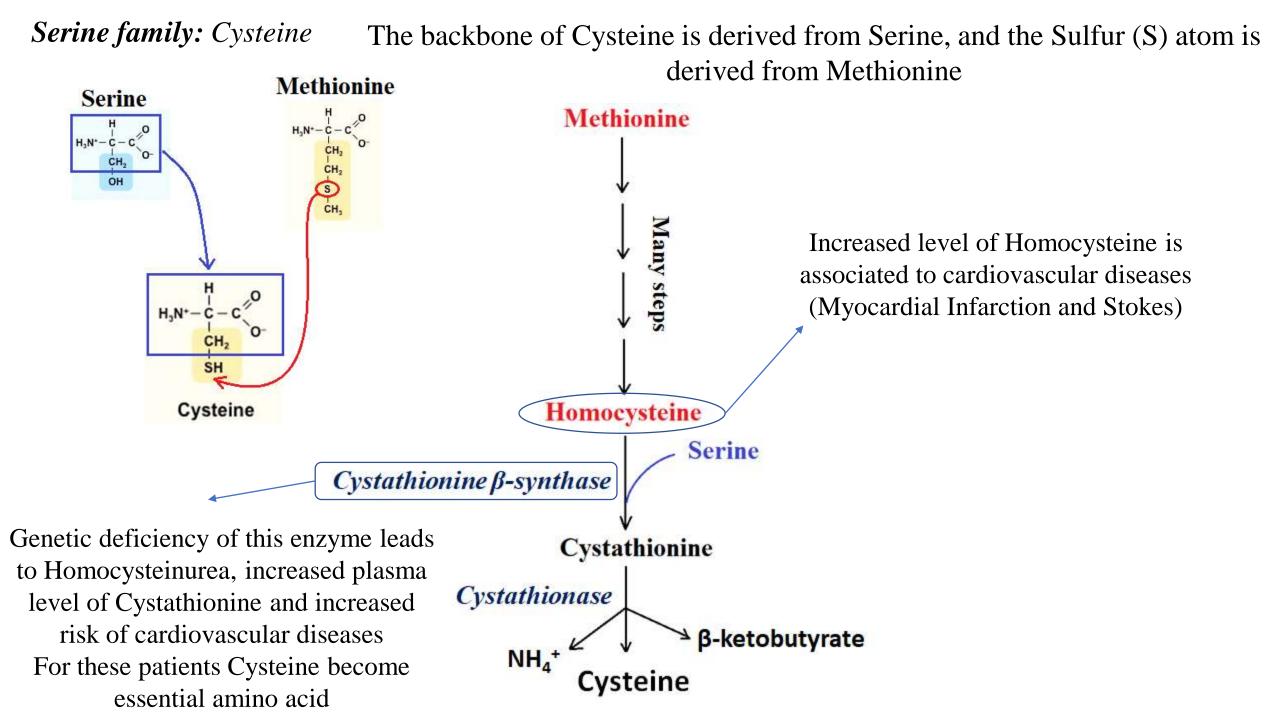
The difference between Serine and Glycine is **One Carbon unit**

So glycine can be synthesized from serine by removing this carbon unit from the side chain The acceptor of this 1C unit is Tetrahydrofolate (THF) the active form of folate (B9) become N⁵ N¹⁰-Methylene THF

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Serine + Tetrahydrofolate
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This reaction is reversible, so Serine can be synthesized from Glycine using $N^5 N^{10}$ -Methylene THF as one C unit donor



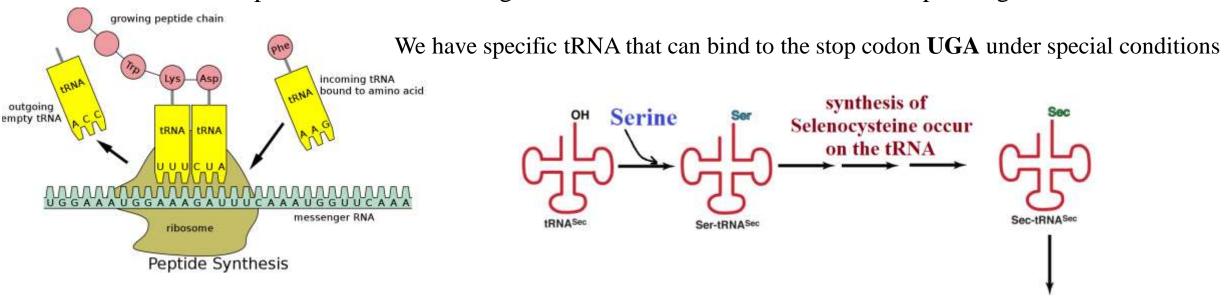


Serine family: Selenocysteine

- Its important for many anti-oxidant enzymes
- Thus uncommon amino acid is incorporated to the polypeptide chain during the synthesis, but not specified directly by the genetic code

So, how its incorporated to the polypeptide??

tRNA: transfer RNA responsible for transferring the correct amino acids to their corresponding codon in the mRNA



- 1. Serine bind to this special tRNA
- 2. Serine is converted to Selenocysteine on the tRNA
- 3. This tRNA bind to the stop codon UGA on the mRNA

- Aspartate can be synthesized from Urea cycle intermediate Arginosuccinate Glutamate + Oxaloacetate Transamination \downarrow α -ketoglutarate + Aspartate α -ketoglutarate + Aspartate α -ketoglutarate + Aspartate α -ketoglutarate + Aspartate

3. Aspartate family: include Aspartate, Asparagine, Lysine, Methionine, and Threonine Precursor: Oxaloacetate

Aspartate family: Aspartate

- Aspartate can be synthesized for Oxaloacetate by transamination reaction

Asparagine can be hydrolyzed to Aspartate and NH_4^+ by Asparaginase

Aspartate family: Asparagine

Asparagine + H₂O

Aspartate + NH4⁺

- Asparagine is synthesized from Aspartate by transamination reaction catalyzed by *Asparagine synthetase* (Transaminase) using Glutamate as source of amine and consuming ATP to AMP

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Aspartate + Glutamate + ATP
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Amino Acid Group Synthesis

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Asparagine Synthetase
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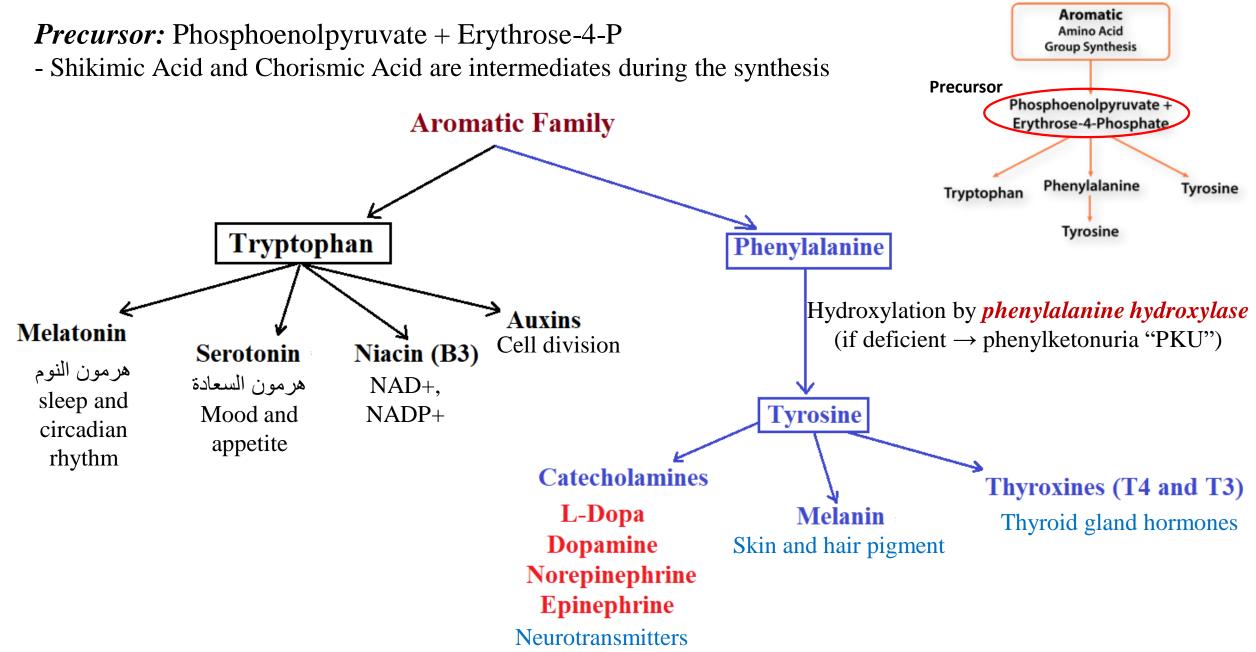
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Asparagine + \alpha-ketoglutarate + AMP + PPi
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Asparaginase
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This can be considered third pathway of Aspartate synthesis

Asparagine is the only Amino acid in Aspartate family that can give Aspartate

4. Aromatic family: include Tryptophan, Phenylalanine, and Tyrosine



Derivative of Aromatic amino acids

Tryptophan derivatives:

- Melatonin: Circadian Rhythm Sensing, affect Sleep, Mood, and blood pressure
- Serotonin: Happy Feelings, Enhances Memory/Learning
- Niacin (Vitamin B₃) Derived From it NAD⁺ & NADP⁺ (Deficiency of B₃ Leads to disease called *Pellagra*)
- Auxins (Indole-3-Acetic Acid Most Important one) Stimulate Cell Division and Rooting in Plants

Tyrosine derivatives:

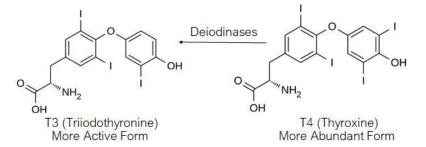
- Tyrosine is synthesized from phenylalanine by hydroxylation reaction catalyzed by *phenylalanine hydroxylase*
- Tyrosine is nonessential amino acid if phenylalanine is available, (insufficient intake of phe \rightarrow Try become essential)
- Phenylalanine hydroxylase deficiency leads to accumulation of phenylalanine which that cause mental retardation a disease called *Phenylketonuria (PKU)* here Tyrosine become essential amino acid
- PKU patients must restrict dietary phenylalanine throughout their lives to prevent mental retardation
- Aspartame (NutraSweet®) a sucrose substituent contain phenylalanine so should be avoided in PKU

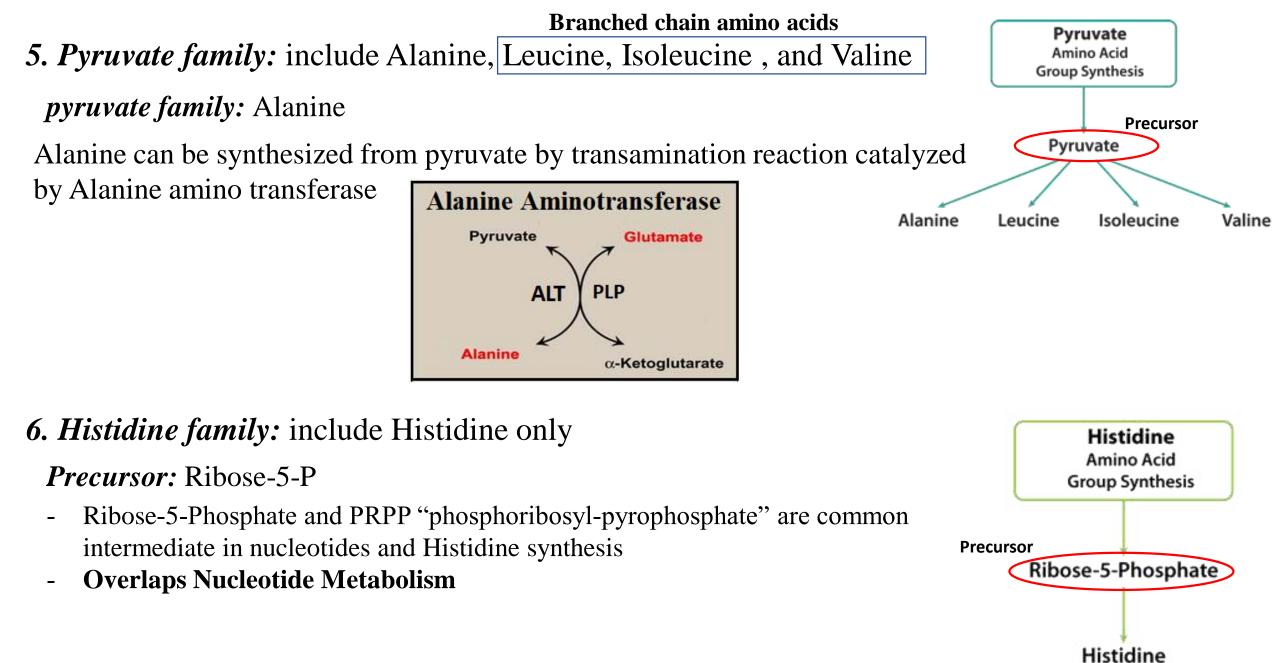
Tyrosine is important amino acid it's the precursor of:

- 1. Catecholamine: L-dopa, Dopamine, Norepinephrine and Epinephrine
- Dopamine deficiency leads to Parkinson disease
- 2. Melanin: skin and hair pigment
- 3. Thyroxines: Thyroid gland hormone
- T4 has 4 Iodine (most abundant but less active form)
- T3 has 3 Iodine (the active form)

T3 is derived from T4 by *Deiodinases* "Se-containing enzymes"



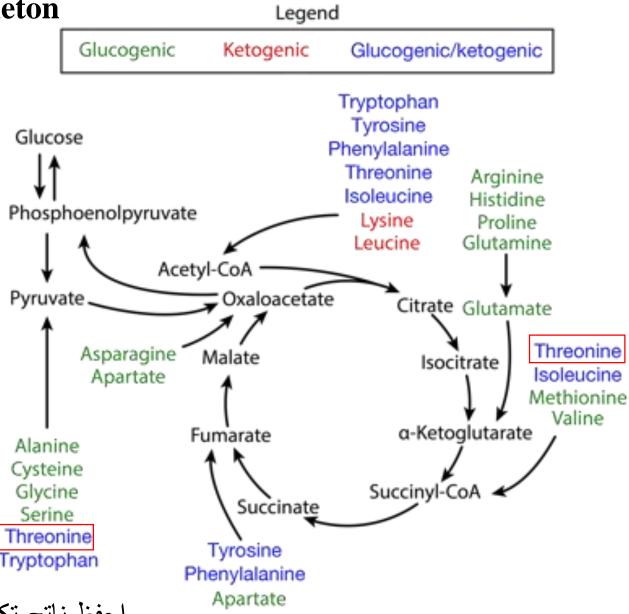


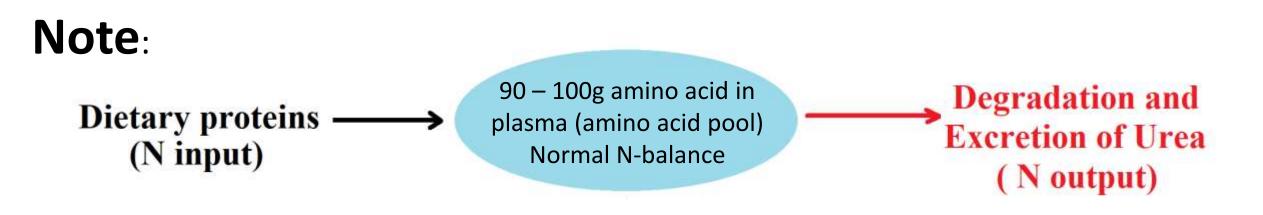


The product of the amino acid's Carbon skeleton

- If the carbon skeleton of the amino acid produce pyruvate or TCA-cycle intermediate → can be used to synthesize Glucose → *Glucogenic amino acids*
- If the carbon skeleton of the amino acid produce Acetyl-CoA → cannot be used to synthesize Glucose and can be used to synthesize Ketone bodies → *Ketogenic amino acids (Lysine and Leucine)*
- If the carbon skeleton of the amino acid produce pyruvate or TCA-cycle intermediate in addition to Acetyl-CoA \rightarrow can be used to synthesize Glucose and Ketone bodies \rightarrow *Mixed both glucogenic and ketogenic amino acids (Aromatic + Thr + Ile)*

احفظ ناتج تكسير الهيكل الكربوني لكل حمض اميني من الصورة والالوان بسهل عليك





Some Nutritional Terms:

- If N-input = N-output → *Nitrogen Equilibrium (normal Nitrogen balance)*; the case in healthy adult
- If N-input > N-output → *Positive Nitrogen balance*; the case in children and convalescent adult
- If N-input < N-output → Negative Nitrogen balance; the case in food deprivation, illness, aging and deficiency of essential amino acids that will inhibit protein synthesis and degradation of unused amino acids

