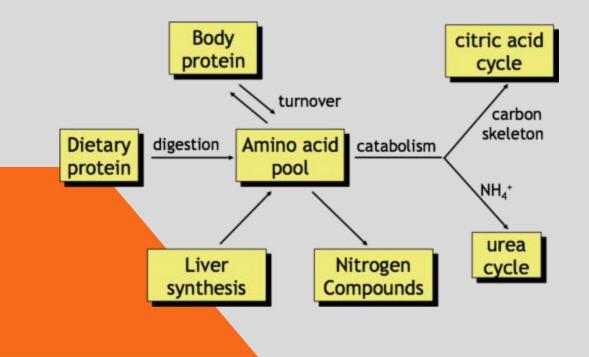
Metabolism of proteins & amino acids by Dr/ Heba M. Kareem



Essential amino acids :

Lysine, Leucine, Isoleucine, Valine, Methionine, Phenylalanine, Threonine, Tryptophan

Nonessential amino acids:

serine, tyrosine, Alanine, glycine, aspartate, glutamate, aspargineproline, glutamine, cysteine,

Histidine & arginine are <u>semi essential</u>. They are essential only for infants growth, but not for old children or adults where in adults histidine requirement is obtained by intestinal flora & arginine by urea cycle.

Nitrogen Balance (NB)

- Nitrogen balance is a comparison between Nitrogen intake (in the form of dietary protein) and
 - Nitrogen loss (as undigested protein in feces, NPN as urea, ammonia, creatinine & uric acid in urine, sweat & saliva & losses by hair, nail, skin).
- NB is important in defining
 1.overall protein metabolism of an individual
 2.nutritional nitrogen requirement.

Three states are known for NB:

a)Normal adult: will be in nitrogen equilibrium, Losses = Intake

b)Positive Nitrogen balance:

Nitrogen intake <u>more</u> than losses (High formation of tissue proteins) occurs in growing children, pregnancy,

lactation and convulascence.

C)Negative Nitrogen balance:

Nitrogen losses more than intake

occurs in:- (Low intake of proteins) in starvation, malnutrition, GIT diseases

- (High loss of tissue proteins) in wasting diseases like

burns, hemorrhage& kidney diseases with albuminurea

- (High breakdown of tissue proteins

Biological Value for Protein (BV)

- * **BV** is : a measure for the ability of dietary protein to provide the **essential amino acids** required for tissue protein maintenance.
- Proteins of animal sources (meat, milk, eggs) have high BV because they contain all the essential amino acids.
- Proteins from plant sources (wheat, corn, beans) have low BV thus
 combination of more than one plant protein is

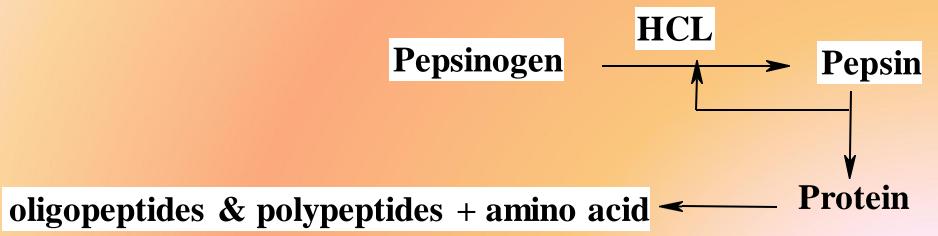
required (a vegetarian diet) to increase its BV.

DIGESTION OF PROTEIN

- Proteins are broken down by hydrolyases (peptidases or proteases)
- Endopeptidases attack internal bonds and liberate large peptide fragments (pepsin, trypsin, Chymotrypsin & Elastase)
- Exopeptidases remove one amino acid at a time from – COOH or –NH₂ terminus (aminopeptidase & carboxypeptidase)
- Endopeptidases are important for initial breakdown of long polypeptides into smaller ones which then attacked by exopeptidases.
- Digestion of protein can be divided into: a gastric, pancreatic and intestinal phases.

I. Gastric Phase of Protein Digestion: (represents 15% of protein digestion)

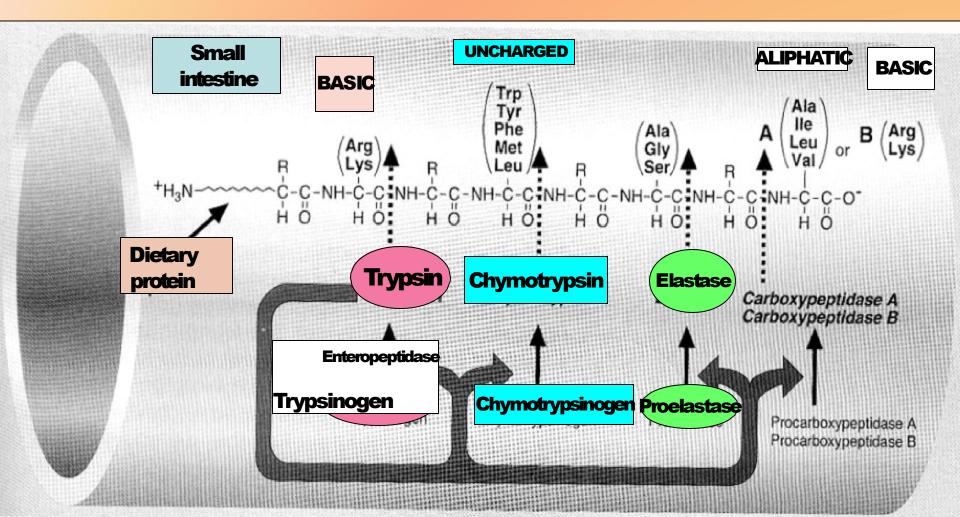
 Pepsin: in adult stomach, secreted as pepsinogen. It is specific for peptide bond formed by aromatic or acidic amino acids



-2 Rennin: in infants for digestion of milk protein (casein).

II. Pancreatic Phase of Protein Digestion

• This phase ends with **free amino acids** and **small peptides** of 2-8 amino acid residues which account for 60% of protein digestion



III. Intestinal Phase of protein digestion:

- Intestinal enzymes are:
 - aminopeptidases (attack peptide bond next to amino terminal of polypeptide) & dipeptidases
- The end product is free amino acids
 dipeptides & tripeptides.

Absorption of Amino Acids and Di- & Tripeptides:

*L-amino acids are actively transported across the intestinal mucosa (need carrier, Na + pump, Na⁺ions, ATP). **Different carrier transport systems are:** a) For neutral amino acids. b) For basic amino acids and cysteine. c) For imino acids and glycine. d) For acidic amino acids. e) For **B-amino acids** (B-alanine & taurine). *D-isomers transported by simple diffusion.

¬Tri- & Dipeptides can <u>actively</u> transported <u>faster</u> than their individual amino acids.

-intact proteins:

1. Immunoglobulins of colostrum are absorbed by neonatal intestines through endocytosis without loss of their biological activity and thus provide passive immunity to the infants.

2. Vaccines (undigested polypeptides) in children and adults are absorbed without loss of their biological activity producing antigenic reaction and immunologic response.

METABOLIC FATES OF AMINO ACIDS:

- 1 Body protein biosynthesis.
- 2 Small **peptide** biosynthesis(GSH).
- 3-Synthesis of non-protein nitrogenous (NPN) compounds (creatine,

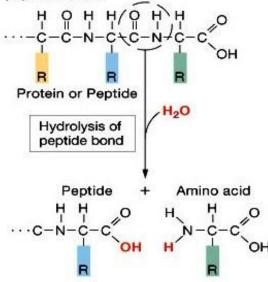
urea, ammonia and uric acid)

4- Deamination & Transamination to synthesized a <u>new amino acid</u> or <u>glucose</u> or <u>ketone bodies</u> or <u>produce energy in starvation</u>.

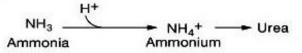
Protein Catabolism

(a) Protein catabolism

Proteins are broken into amino acids by hydrolysis of their peptide bonds.

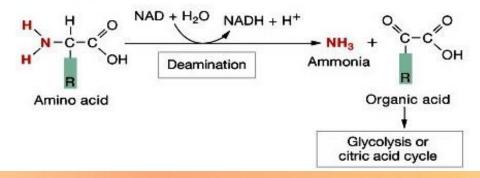


(c) Ammonia is toxic and must be converted to urea.



(b) Deamination

Removal of the amino group from an amino acid creates ammonia and an organic acid.

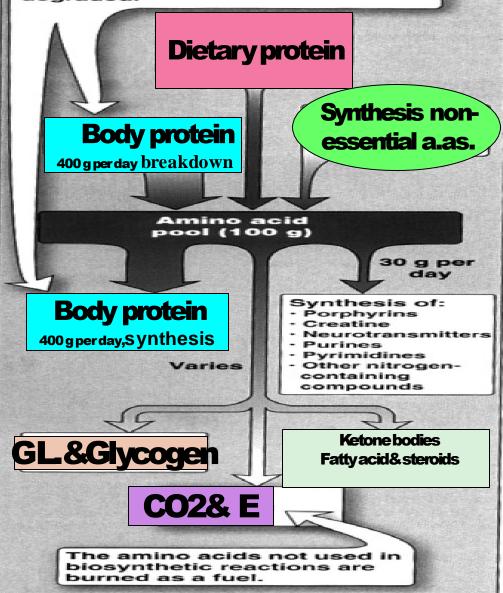


Sources & fates of amino acids:

•Protein turnover : (results from simultaneous synthesis & breakdown of proteins molecules) •Total amount of protein in body of healthy adult is constant (due to rate of protein synthesis is equal to the rate of its breakdown).

TURNOVER

Protein turnover results from the simultaneous synthesis and degradation of protein molecules. In healthy adults, the total amount of protein in the body remains constant because the rate of protein synthesis is just sufficient to replace the protein that is degraded.

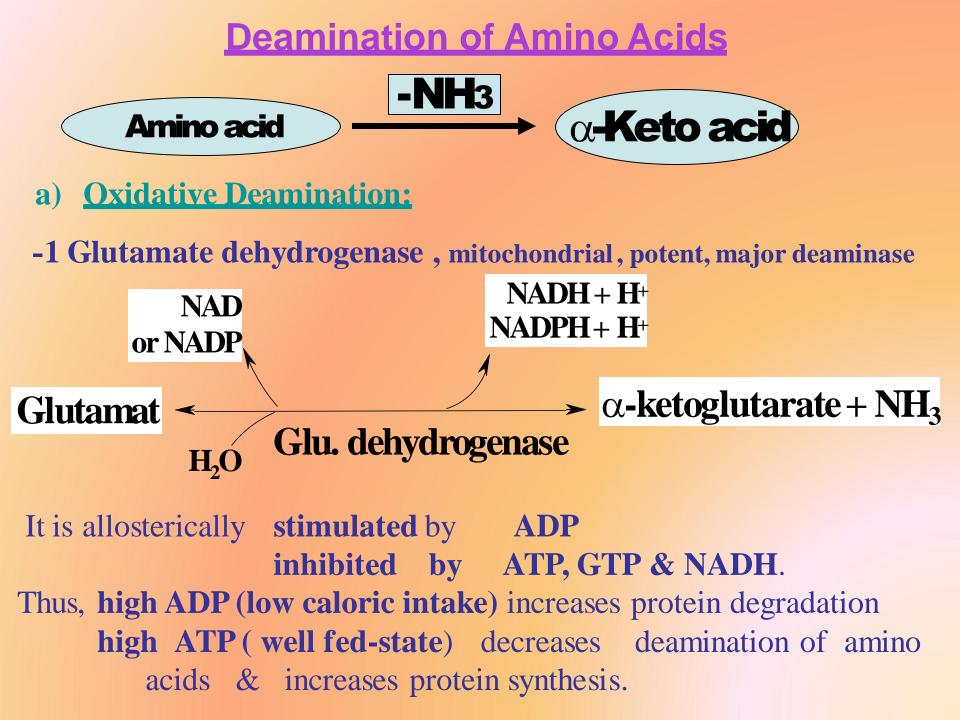


Metabolism OF AMINO ACIDS:

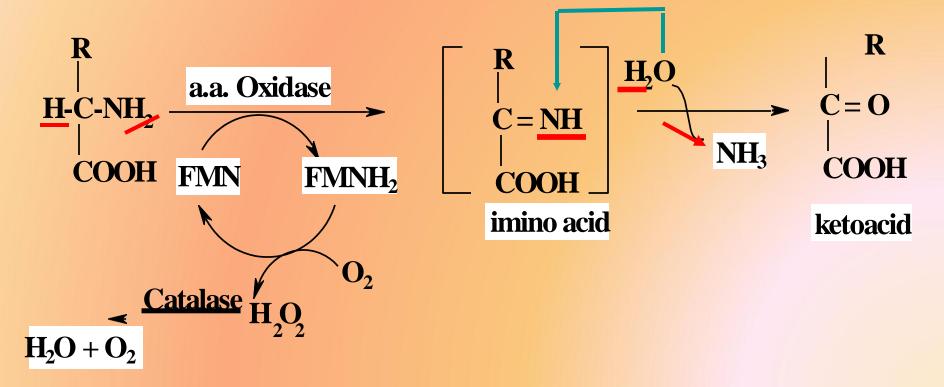
- 1. Removal of amonia by : NH₂+CH-COOH
 - Deamination Oxidative deamination
 - glutamate dehydrogenase in mitochondria
 amino acid oxidase in peroxisomes
 Direct deamination (nonoxidative)
 - 1) dea. by dehydration $(-H_2O)$

2) dea. by desulhydration (-H₂S)

- Transamination (GPT & GOT)
- and transdeamination.
- 2. Fate of carbon-skeletons of amino acids
- 3. Metabolism of ammonia

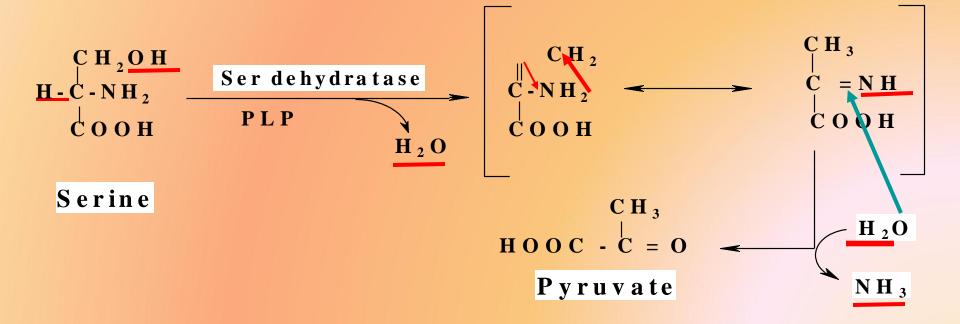


The **minor** pathway for deamination of amino acids. They are found **in peroxisomes** of liver and kidney. L-amino acid oxidases utilize **FMN** while **D**-a.a. oxidases utilize **FAD**.

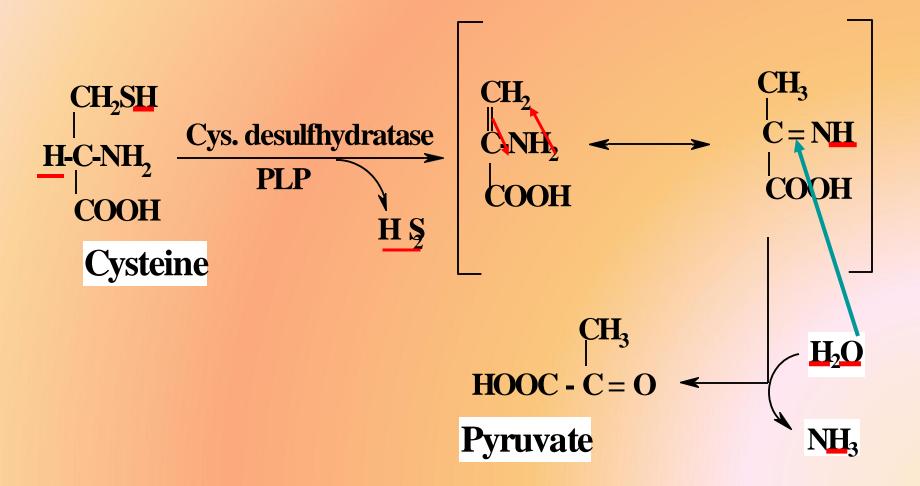


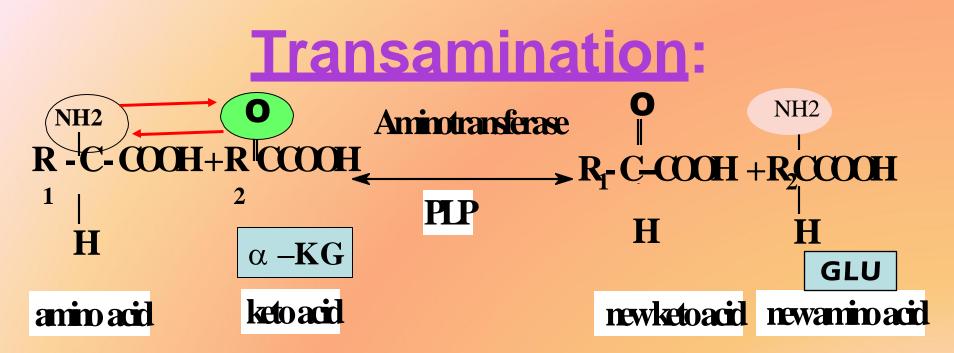
b) Non-oxidative deamination: _ (Direct Deamination)

-1 Deamination by dehydration: Serine & Threonine



-2 Deamination by desulfhydration : (cysteine)





Aminotransferases are **active** both in cytoplasm and mitochondria e.g.: **1. Aspartate aminotransferase (AST)**, Glutamate oxaloacetate transaminase (GOT)

2. Alanine aminotransferase (ALT), Glutamate pyruvate transaminase, (GPT)

In all transamination reactions, α-ketoglutarate (α –KG) acts as amino group acceptor.
Most, but not all amino acids undergo transamination reaction with few exceptions (lysine, threonine and imino acids)

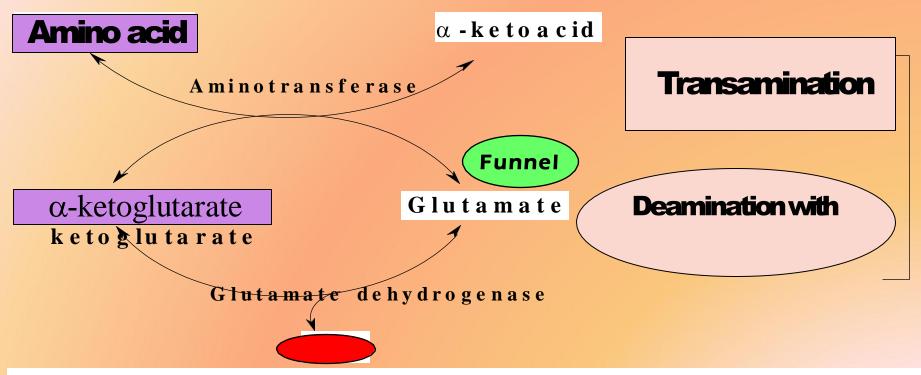
Metabolic Significance of Transamination Reactions

- It is an exchange of aminonitrogen between the molecules without a net loss
 <u>This metabolically important because:</u> ¬
- 1) There is **no mechanism for storage** of a protein or amino acids.
- 2) In case of low energy (caloric shortage), the

organism depends on **oxidation of the ketoacids** derived from transamination of amino acids.

3) It is important for formation of the nonessential amino acids

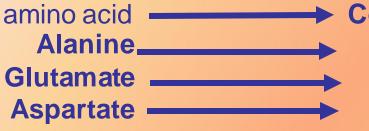
Transdeamination:



So... the most **important** and **rapid** way to deamination of amino acids is first transamination with α -ketoglutarate followed by deamination of glutamate.

THE FATE OF CARBON-SKELETONS OF AMINO ACIDS

a) Simple degradation:

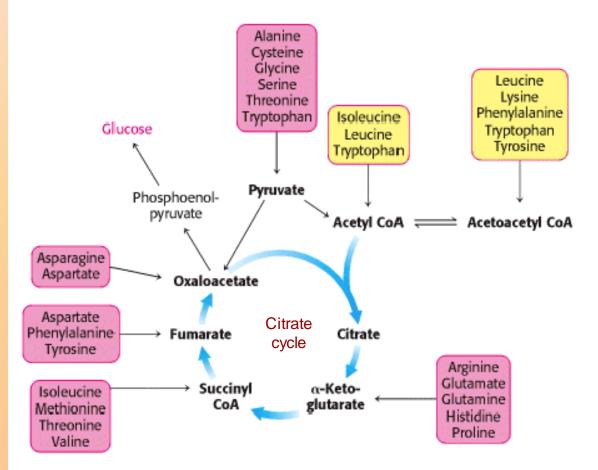


→ Common metabolic intermediate)
 → Pyruvate
 → α-ketoglutarate
 → Oxaloacetate

b) Complex degradation:

(amino acid--- Keto acid---- **complex** pathway---- common metabolic intermediate) Amino acids whose ketoacids are metabolized via more complex pathway e.g. Tyrosine, Lysine, Tryptophan

 Conversion of one amino acid into another amino acid before degradation: Phenylalanine is converted to tyrosine prior to its further degradation. The <u>common metabolic intermediates that arised from the</u> <u>degradations of amino acids are</u>: acetyl CoA, pyruvate, one of the krebs cycle intermediates (α-ketoglutarate, succinyl CoA, fumarate& oxaloacetate)



Fates of the Carbon Skeletons of Amino Acids. Glucogenic amino acids are shaded red, and ketogenic amino acids are shaded yellow. Most amino acids are both glucogenic and ketogenic.

Metabolism of the Common Intermediates

- 1.Oxidation: amino acids can be oxidized in TCA cycle with energy production
- 2. Fatty acids synthesis: some amino acids provide acetyl CoA e.g. leucine and lysine (ketogenic amino acids).
- 3. Gluconeogenesis: ketoacids derived from amino acids are used for synthesis of glucose (is important in starvation).

Glucogenic

Ala, Ser, Gly, Cys, Arg, His, Pro, Glu, Gln, Val, Met, Asp, Asn. **Ketogenic**

Leu, Lys

Glucogenic & Ketogenic Phe, Tyr, Trp, Ile, Thr METABOLISM OF AMMONIA Ammonia is formed in body from:

a) From amino acids: 1.Transdeamination in liver 2. amino acid oxidases and amino acid deaminases in liver and kidney.

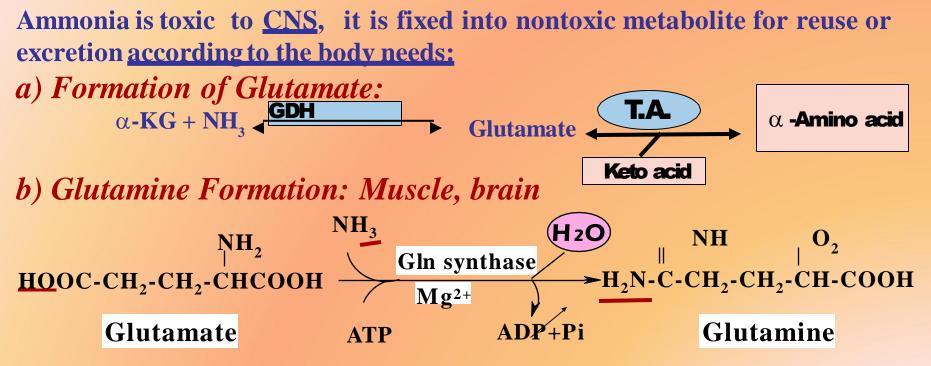
b) Deamination of physiological amines: by monoamine oxidase (histamine, adrenaline, dopamine and serotonine)

C) Deamination of purine nucleotides: especially adenine nucleotides nucleotides $AMP \longrightarrow IMP + NH_3$

d) Pyrimidine catabolism.

e) From bacterial action in the intestine on dietary protein&
 on urea in the gut.
 NH3 is also produced by glutaminase on glutamine.

Metabolic Disposal of Ammonia



Glutamine is storehouse of ammonia & transporter form of ammonia.

In brain, glutamine is the major mechanism for removal of ammonia while **in liver** is urea formation.

..<u>Circulating glutamine is removed by kidney, liver and intestine where it is</u> deamidated by glutaminase.

c) Urea formation

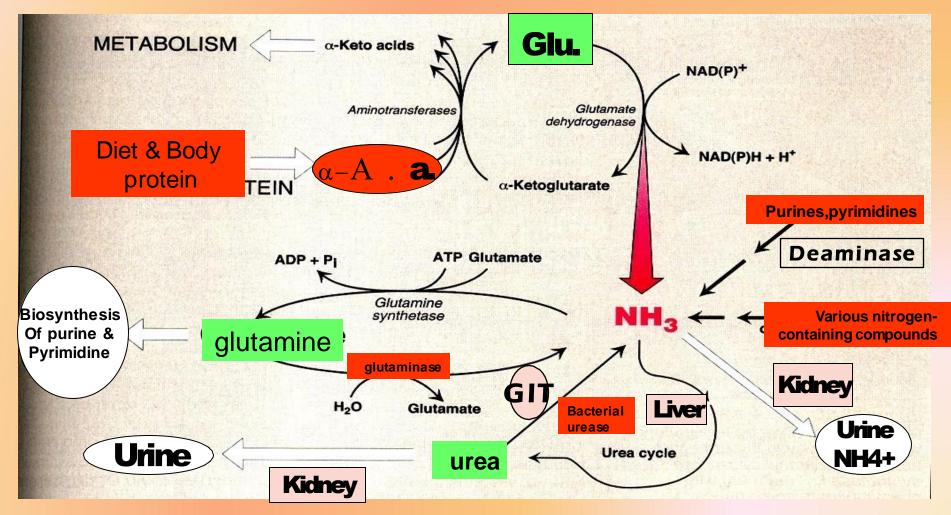


Glutamine

Glutamate + NH₃

This reaction is important to kidney due to kidney excretes NH_4 ion to keep

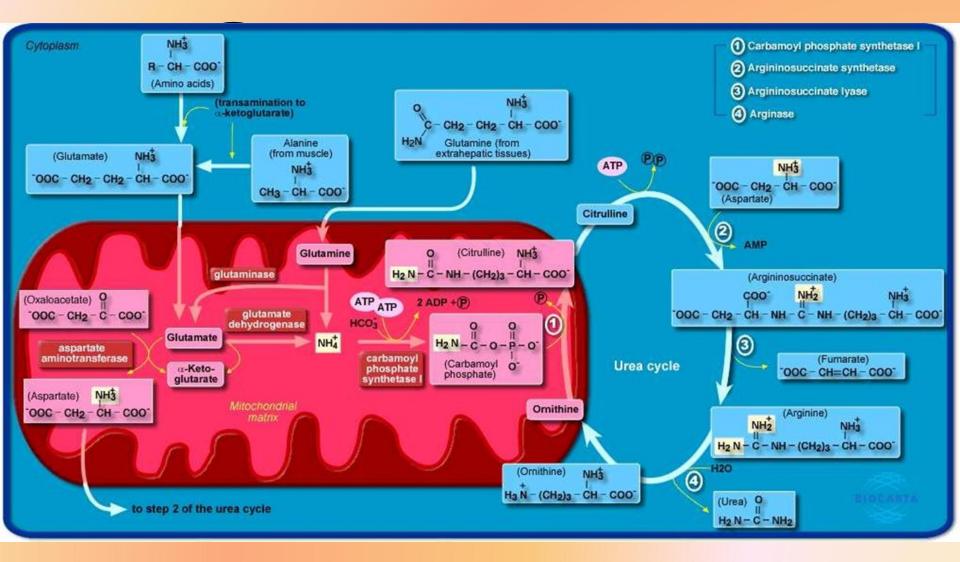
extracellular Na+ ion in body and to maintain the acid-base balance.



c) Urea Formation

- w Urea is the principal end-product of protein metabolism in humans.
- ϖ It is important route for **detoxication** of NH₃.
- Therefore the second structure
 The second struc
- The Urea is highly soluble, nontoxic and has a high nitrogen content (46%), so ... it represents about 80-90% of the nitrogen excreted in urine per day in man
- Biosynthesis of urea in man is an energy- requiring process.
- It takes place partially in mitochondria and partially in cytoplasm.

The Urea Cycle



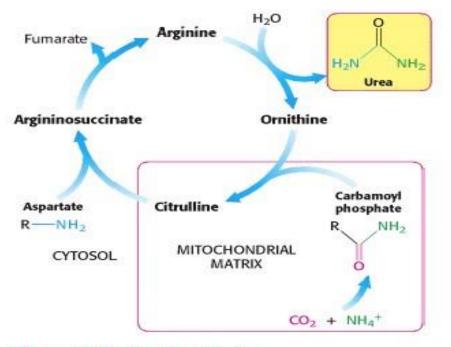


Figure 23.16. The Urea Cycle.

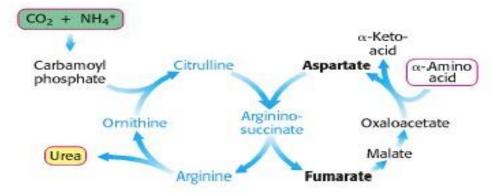


Figure 23.17. Metabolic Integration of Nitrogen Metabolism. The urea cycle, the citric acid cycle, and the transamination of oxaloacetate are linked by fumarate and aspartate.

Metabolic Significant Aspects of Urea Cycle

A) <u>Energy Cost</u>: Three ATP molecules and four high-energy phosphate bonds are utilized in the reactions..

B) urea cycle is related to TCA cycle:

1. CO₂

2.Aspartate arises via transamination of oxaloacetate with glutamate. Thus, depletion of oxaloacetate will decrease urea formation

3.Fumarate enters TCA cycle

C) Sources of Nitrogen in UICa :free NH3 and aspartate.

N.B. glutamate is the **immediate source** of both **NH**₃ (via oxidative deamination by Glu. Dehyd.) and **aspartate** nitrogen (through transamination of oxaloacetate by AST).

Importance of Urea Cycle

- 1. Formation of arginine (in organisms synthesizing arginine) & formation of urea (in ureotelic organisms, man) due to presence of arginase.
- Liver shows much higher activity of arginase than brain or kidney for formation of urea while in brain or kidney is the synthesis of arginine.
- 3. Synthesis of **non-protein amino acids** (ornithine and citrulline) in body.

Regulation of Urea Cycle

1) Activity of individual enzymes:

 $\boldsymbol{\varpi}$

THE RATE LIMITING STEPS a) carbamoyl phosphate synthase-1

b) Ornithine transcarbamyolase.

c) Arginase.

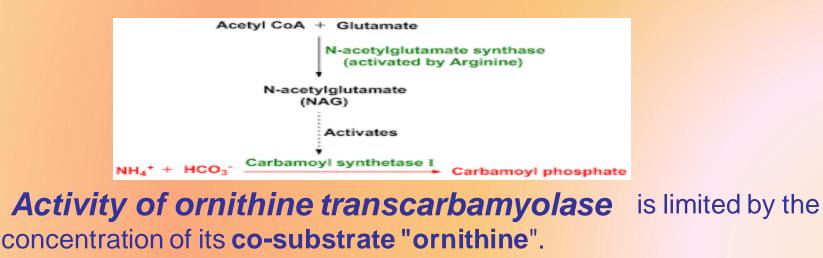
*w N***-acetylglutamate is <u>activator</u> for carbamoyl phosphate synthase-1**

It enhances its affinity for ATP.

It is synthesized from acetyl CoA and glutamate.

its hepatic concentration increases after intake

of a protein diet, leading to an increased rate of urea synthesis.



-2 Regulation of the flux through the cycle:

a) Flux of ammonia:

- by amino acids release from muscle (alanine, glutamine),
- 2. metabolism of glutamine in the intestine

3. amino acids degradation in the liver.

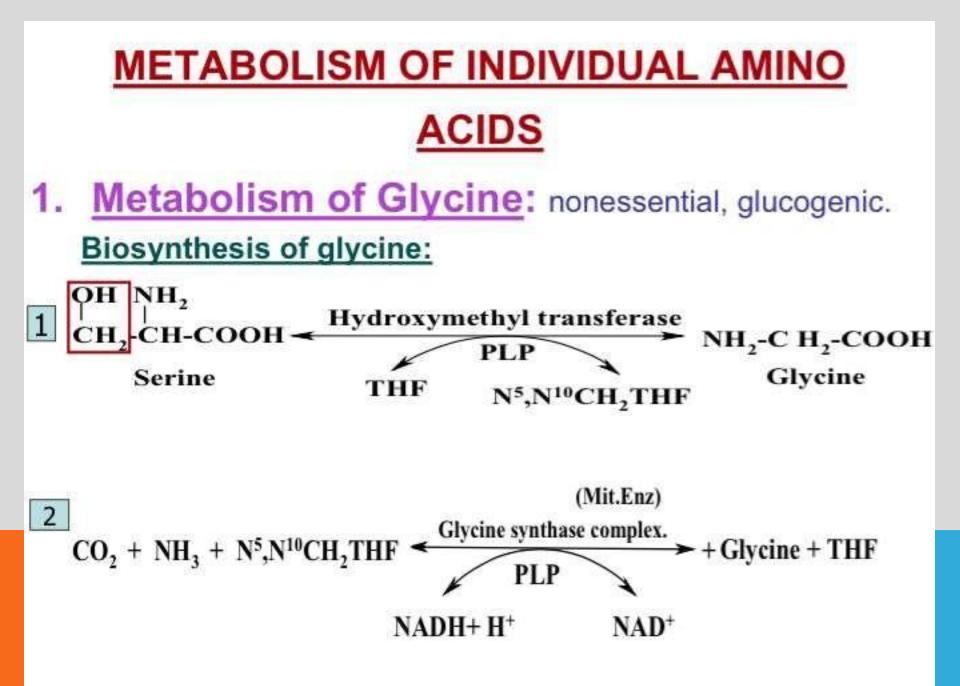
b) Availability of ornithine.

c) Availability of aspartate:

since aspartate is required in equimolar amounts with ammonia, this is satisfied by of transdeamination.

-3 Change in the level of Enzymes:

- Arginase & other urea-forming enzymes are adaptive enzymes thus
- a protein-rich diet will increase their biosynthesis rate & the opposite is true for low protein diet.
- However, **in starvation**, where the body is forced to use its own tissue protein as fuel, there is an **increase in urea-forming enzymes.**



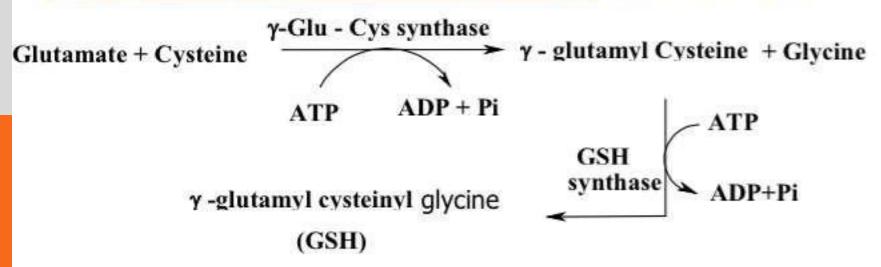
Special Functions of Glycine:

a-Protein, Hormones & enzymes.

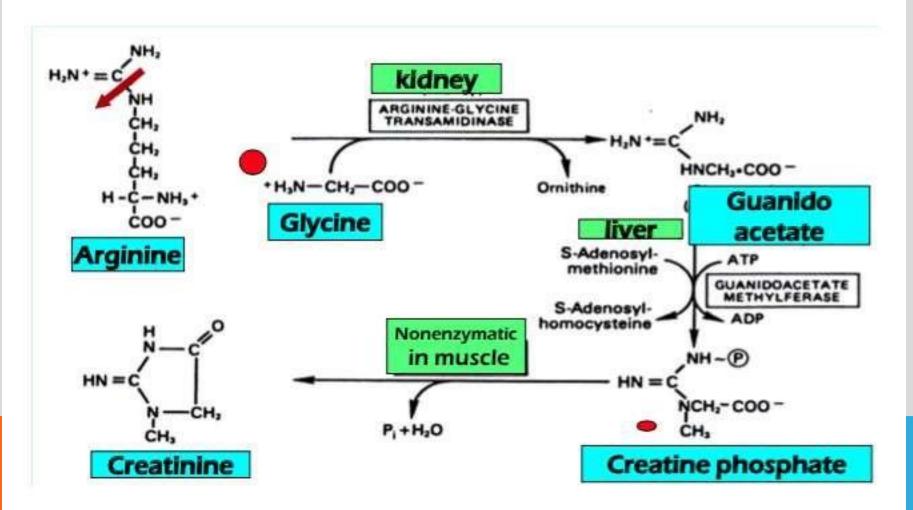
- b- Heme c- Purines (C_4, C_5, N_7)
- d- Creatine

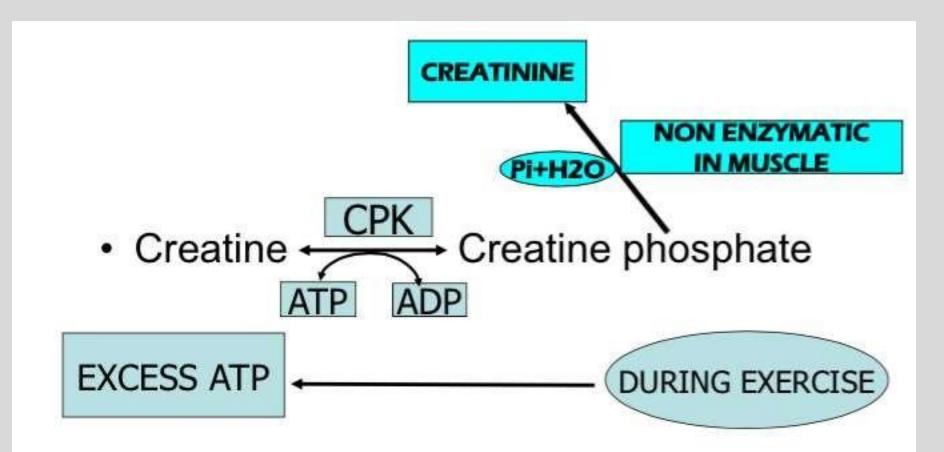
- e- Glutathione
- f- Conjugating reactions:
 - Glycine + Cholic acid → glycocholate.
 - Glycine + Benzoic acid → Hippuric acid

1.Formation of Glutathione (GSH) Dest.FR & Peroxides



2. Formation of creatine (Methyl guanidoacetate)

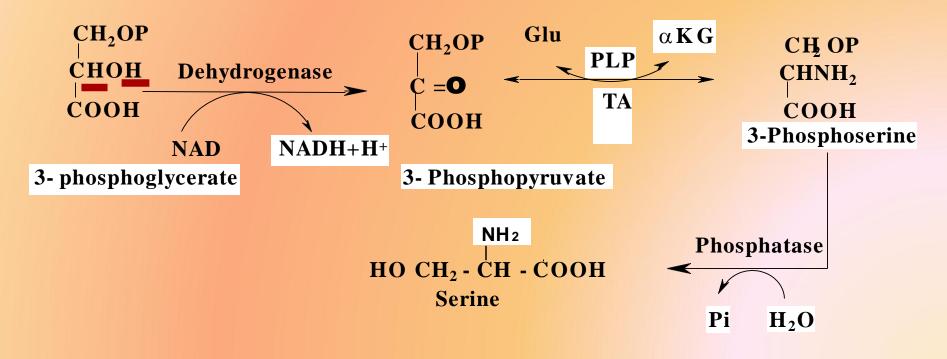




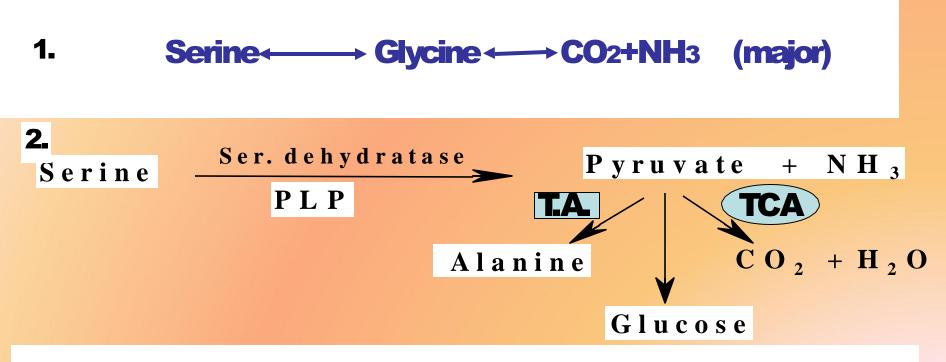
 Cr-P is the storage form of high energy phosphate in muscle
 Creatinine is excreted in urine & increases on kidney failure due to its filteration is decreased. Its level is constant per 24 hrs & is proportional to muscle mass in human.

2. Metabolism of Serine: nonessential & glucogenic

- It is synthesize from glycine or
- intermediate of glycolysis,
- all enzymes are activated by testosterone in liver, kidney & prostate.

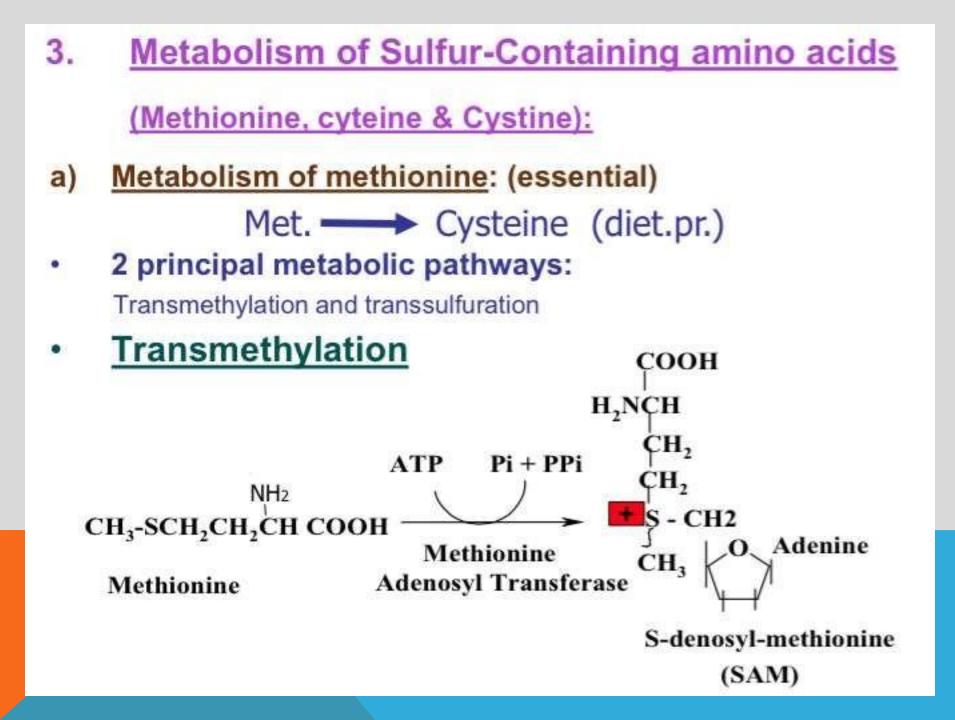


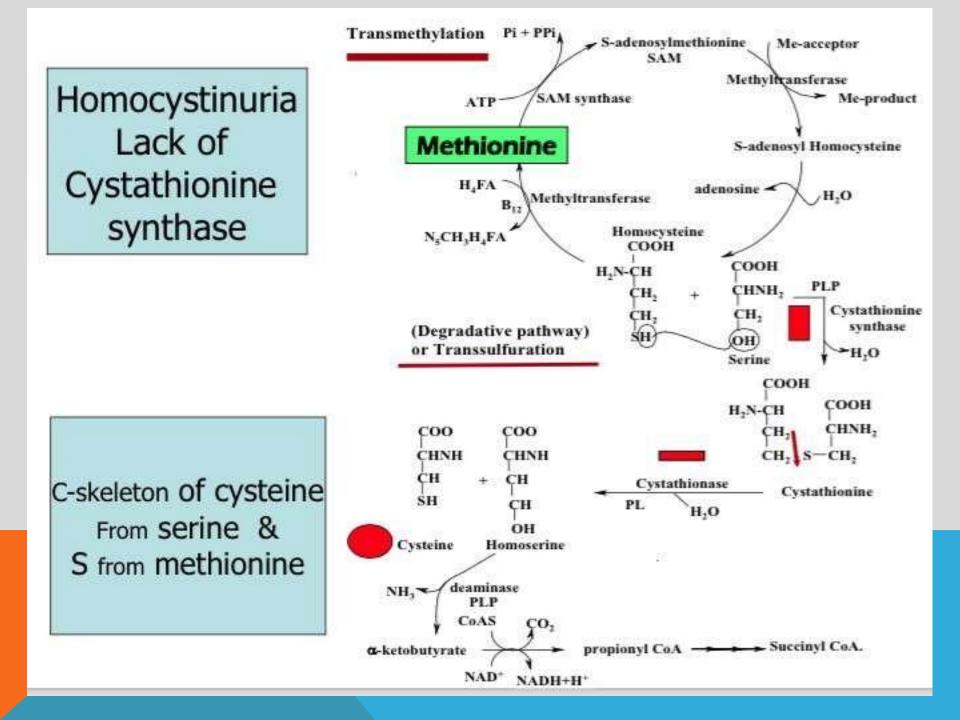
Degradative Pathways of Serine:



Serine is important in synthesis of:

- a. Phosphoprotein
- b. Purines & pyrimidine
- c. Sphingosine
- d. Choline
- e. <u>Cysteine</u>





In transmethylation there are:

Methyl acceptors

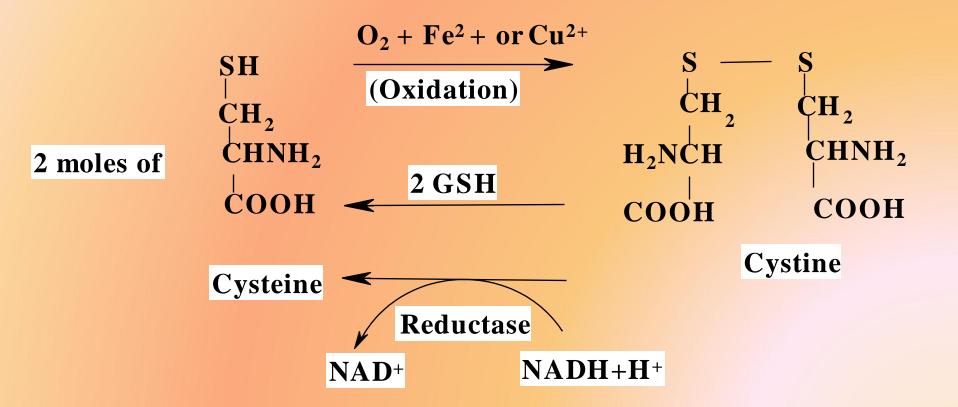
- 1 Guanidoacetic acid
- 2 Norepinephrine
- 3 Ethanolamine
- 4 Uracil

Methyl Compounds Creatine Epinephrine Choline Thymine

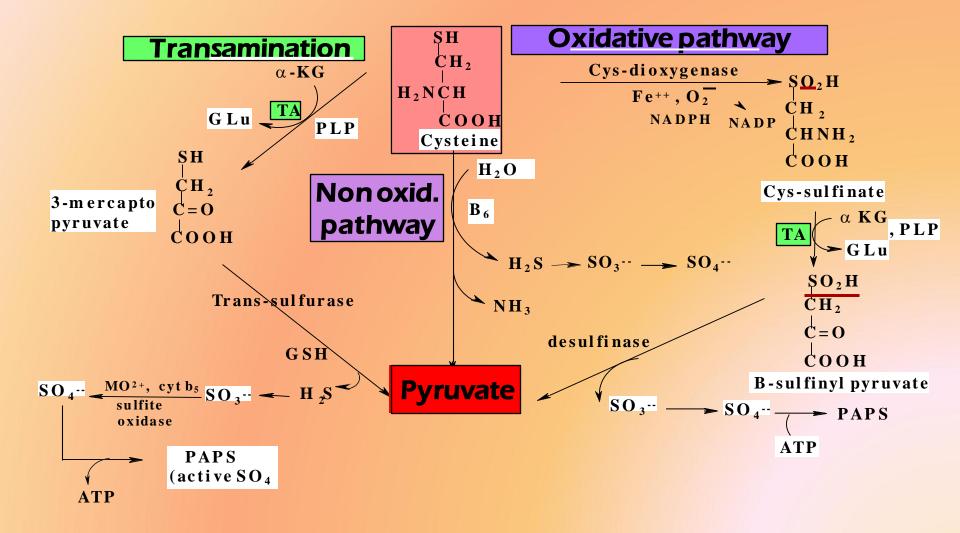
SAH (S-Adenosyl Homocysteine)

Metabolism of Cysteine& Cystine:

- They are interconvertable & They are not essential
- can be synthesized from Met & Ser



Degredative pathway of cysteine:



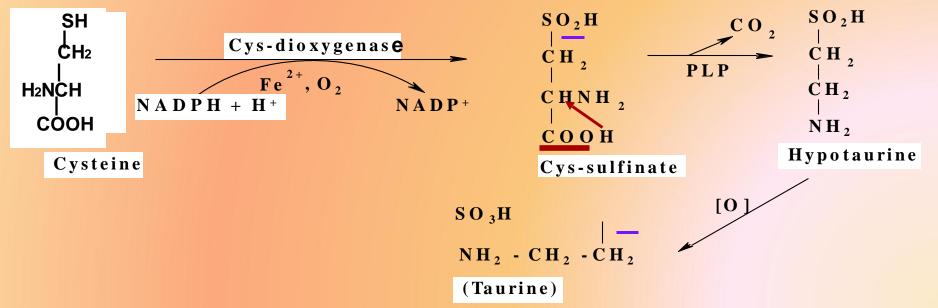
Biochemical functions of cysteine

- 1 PAPS Formation: (3'-phosphoadenosine,5'-phosphosulphate)active sulphate used in formation of sulfate esters of steroids, alcohol, phenol, some lipids, proteins and mucopolysaccharides
- 2 Sulfur of COASH, GSH, vasopressin, insulin

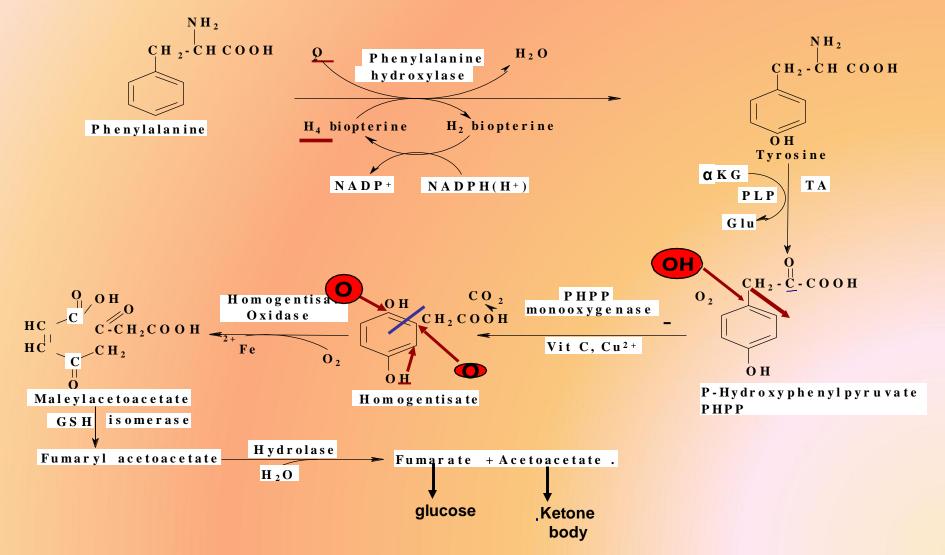
3 Detoxication reaction of bromo, chloro, iodobenzene, naphthalene and anthracene

& of phenol, cresol, indol and skatol that is formed by the action of intestinal bacteria on some amino a cids in large intestine with formation of ethereal sulfates which is water soluble and rapidly removed by the kidney

4 **Taurine Formation (with bile acids form taurocholate)**

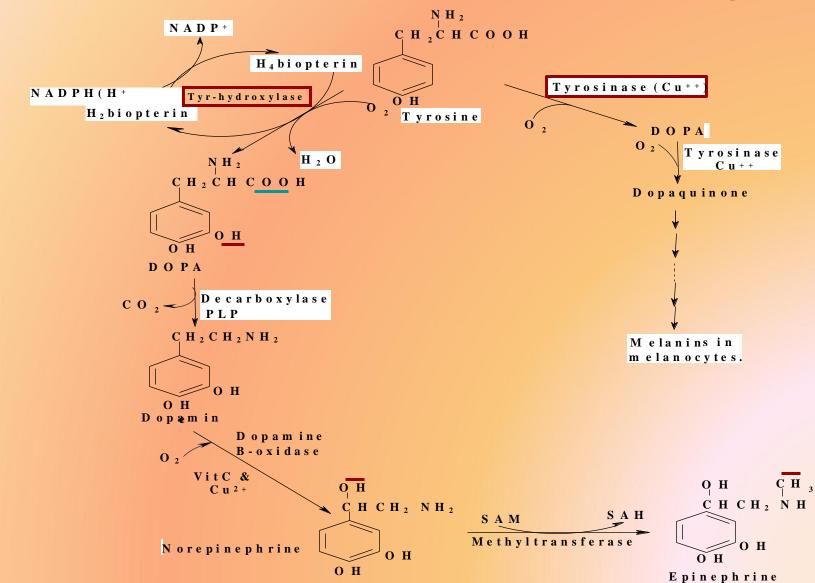


4. Aromatic amino acids a) Metabolism of Phenylalanine ketogenic)&(glucogenic)



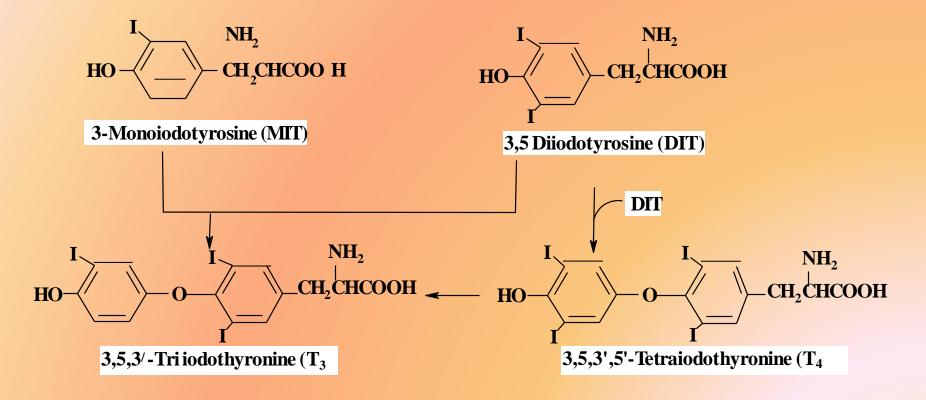
b) <u>Tyrosine is a precursor of:</u>

-1DOPA (3.4 dihydroxy phenylalanine)

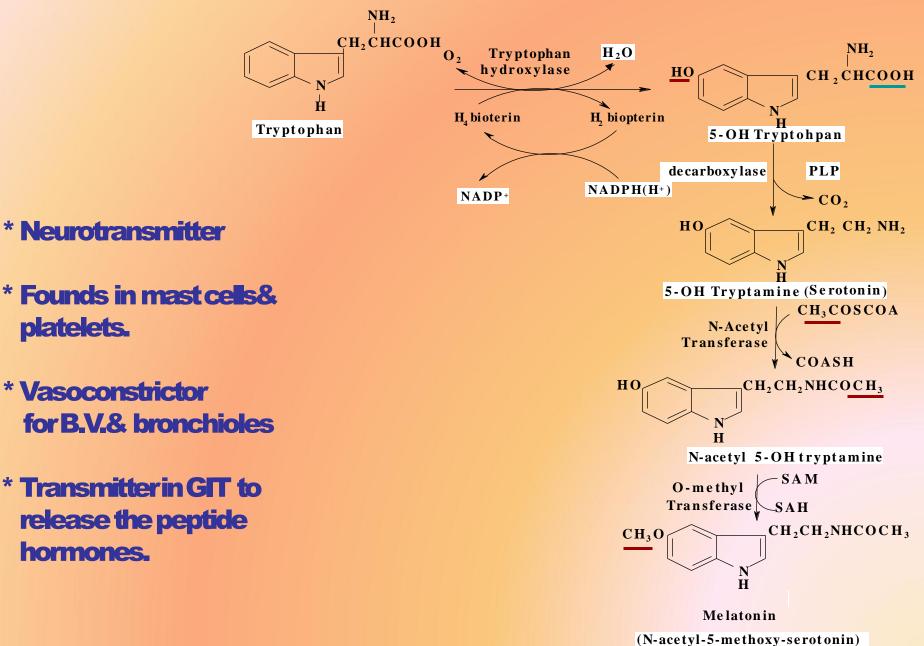


-2Thyroid hormones:

Thyroxine Formation:



II] <u>Serotonin Pathway</u>:



III] Melatonin formation pathway

- It is the hormone of **pineal body** in brain of man.
 Formed by the acetylation and methylation of serotonin.
- It has effects on hypothalamic-pituitary system.
 It blocks the action of MSH & ACTH.
- It is important in regulation of **gonad & adrenal functions.**
- It has a circadian rhythm due to its formation occurs only in dark, due to high activity of N-acetyl transferase enzyme so it is a biological clock.
- It keeps the integrity of cells during aging due to it has an antioxidant property
- It enhances the body defense against infection in AIDS patients by increasing the number of immune cells.
- It reduces the risk of cancer&heart diseases

5. Branched Chain Amino Acids:

- Leucine, isoleucine and valine are taken up by striated muscles after protein meal and oxidized in sk. muscle.
- They are used by the brain.
- Summary of their degredation:

Nitrogen : Transferred from all of them forming glutamate

Carbons	:	Leucine Acetyl CoA	
			& acetoacetate
		Isoleucine	Succinyl CoA
			& Acetyl COA
		Valine	Succinyl CoA
			& CO ₂

6. Basic Amino Acids:

1) Histidine (glucogenic amino acid):

- a) Together with B-alanine, It forms carnosine (B-alanyl histidine) and anserine (methyl carnosine):
 - 1. They are buffer the pH of anerobically contracting skeletal muscle
 - 2. They activate myosin ATP-ase

3. They chelate copper and enhance Cu²⁺ uptake.

- b) Histidine is a source of one-carbon atom.
- c) Histidine decarboxylase Histamine

Histamine is a chemical messenger that mediates allergic and inflammatory reactions, gastric acid secretion and neurotransmission in the brain.

(2) Arginine: (nonessential & glucogenic amino acid): It participates in formation of: a)Creatine b)Polyamines C)Nitric oxide NO (Free radical gas). NADPH(H+) NADP⁺ NO synthase L-Citrulline L-Arginine possesses tumoricidal NO and bactericidal action in macrophages. relaxes smooth muscle (vasodilation) prevents platelet 🔫 aggregation neurotransmitter in brain

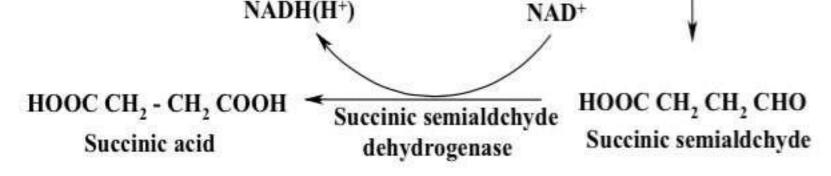
7. Acidic Amino Acids :

1. Glutamic acid : (nonessential & glucogenic amino acid).

It participates in formation of:

- 1- GSH. 2- Proline
- 3- Glutamine: as storage and transporter form of ammonia
- 4- GABA (δ-aminobutyric acid) neurotransmitter in brain.

HOOC CH₂ - CH₂ CH COOH Glu-decarboxylase HOOC CH₂ CH₂ CH₂ NH₂ (GABA) HOOC CH₂ CH₂ CH₂ NH₂ (GABA) PLP TA



2. Aspartic acid

- Acidic, non essential & glucogenic
- It is important in formation of:
 - 1. Asparagine with NH3.
 - 2.Purine&pyrimidine.
 - 3. Arginosuccinate in urea cycle.
 - 4. Alanine by decarboxylation.
 - 5. Oxalate & glucose by T.A.

Amino acids as precursors of neurotransmitters

Serine Choline --- Acetyl choline.
 Arginine -----NO
 Tryptophan-----Serotonin
 Histidine-----Histamine
 Phenyl alanine----dopa,dopamine, NE&E
 Glutamic acid-----GABA

Errors Of Amino Acid Metabolism And Clinical Significance--

Medical condition	Approximate incidence (per 100,000 births)	Defective process	Defective enzyme	Symptoms and effects
Albinism	<3	Melanin synthesis from tyrosine	Tyrosine 3- monooxygenase (tyrosinase)	Lack of pigmentation: white hair, pink skin
Alkaptonuria	<0.4	Tyrosine degradation	Homogentisate 1,2-dioxygenase	Dark pigment in urine; late-developing arthritis
Argininemia	<0.5	Urea synthesis	Arginase	Mental retardation
Argininosuccinic acidemia	<1.5	Urea synthesis	Argininosuccinase	Vomiting; convulsions
Carbamoyl phosphate synthetase I deficiency	<0.5	Urea synthesis	Carbamoyl phosphate synthetase I	Lethargy; convulsions; early death
Homocystinuria	<0.5	Methionine degradation	Cystathionine β -synthase	Faulty bone develop- ment; mental retardation
Maple syrup urine disease (branched- chain ketoaciduria)	<0,4	Isoleucine, leucine, and valine degradation	Branched-chain α-keto acid dehydrogenase complex	Vomiting; convulsions; mental retardation; early death
Methylmalonic acidemia	<0.5	Conversion of propionyl- CoA to succinyl-CoA	Methylmalonyl-CoA mutase	Vomiting; convulsions; mental retardation; early death
Phenylketonuria	<8	Conversion of phenyl- alanine to tyrosine	Phenylalanine hydroxylase	Neonatal vomiting; mental retardation

TABLE 18-2 Some Human Genetic Disorders Affecting Amino Acid Catabolism