

Protein metabolism By Dr. Anwar Almzaiel



GOALS

- -Amino acid pool
- Protein turnover
- Nitrogen Balance
- Digestion of Dietary Proteins
- Removal of Nitrogen from Amino Acids
- **A. Transamination**
- **B. oxidative deamination**
- Transport of ammonia to the liver
- Urea Cycle
- Transport of ammonia in the circulation



Proteins are degraded into amino acids. **Protein turnover is tightly** regulated. **First step in protein** degradation is the removal of the nitrogen Ammonium ion is converted to urea in most mammals. Carbon atoms are converted to • precursors of other major metabolic intermediates.

Metabolic uses of amino acids

- building blocks for protein synthesis
- precursors of nucleotides and heme
- source of energy
- neurotransmitters

neurotransmitters and hormones



The amino group nitrogen is converted to urea and excreted. -Glucose, fatty acids and ketone bodies can be formed from amino acids.

Dietary Protein Degradation

Dietary proteins are a vital source of amino acids.

Discarded cellular proteins are another

source of amino acids.

Dietary proteins are hydrolyzed to amino acids and absorbed into the bloodstream.



some major biological functions

Detoxification of drugs, chemicals and metabolic by-

products

- * Excess dietary amino acids(AAs)are neither stored nor
 - excreted. Rather, they are converted to common

metabolic intermediates444

- The requirements of protein for the health: the minimal requirement of protein is 30~50 gram for the adult
- Advice: 80 gram/day? ? ?



Nitrogen balance

Zero or total nitrogen balance:

the intake = the excretion (adult)

Amount of nitrogen intake is equal to the amount of nitrogen excreted is zero or total nitrogen balance

• Positive nitrogen balance:

the intake > the excretion

during pregnancy, infancy, childhood and recovery from severe illness or surgery

• Negative nitrogen balance:

the intake < the excretion

following severe trauma, surgery or infections. Prolonged periods of negative balance are dangerous and fatal if the loss of body protein reaches about one-third of the total body protein **CHEMICAL NATURE OF PROTEINS** All proteins are polymers of amino acids. The amino acids in proteins are united through "Peptide" linkage. Sometimes proteins are also called as polypeptides because they contain many peptide bonds.

Amino acids (a.a)

-Amino acids are the fundamental units of proteins. -Amino acids are composed of an amino group (-NH2), a carboxyl group (-COOH), a hydrogen atom -Proteins are polymers of amino acids, with each amino acid residue joined to its neighbor by a specific type of covalent bond.

-Proteins can be broken down (hydrolyzed) to their constituent amino acids the free amino acids derived from them.



Peptides and polypeptide: The linkage of a.a together produces peptide chains or polypeptides if many amino acids are linked. The peptide bond is the bond formed between the α carboxyl group of one a.a and the α -amino group of another, H₂O is removed.

Free amino acid



B Amino acids combined through peptide linkages

-NH-CH-CO-NH-CH-CO-R R Side chains determine properties of proteins.



Classification of amino acids:

1. Chemical classification.

a. According to the chemistry of the side chains.b. According to polarity of side chains.

3. Nutritional classification :

- Essential
- Non-essential

3. Metabolic classification :

- Glucogenic,
- Ketogenic
- Both glucogenic and ketogenic





Fig. 4.5: Classification of amino acids.



Classification of amino acids

- non-essential amino acids
 - can be synthesized by an organism
 - usually are prepared from precursors in 1-2 steps
- Essential amino acids ***
 - cannot be made endogenously
 - must be supplied in diet

eg. Leu, Phe.....

	Nonessential	Essential
	Alanine	Arginine*
O	Asparagine	Histidine *
	Aspartate	Valine
	Cysteine	Lysine
	Glutamate	Isoleucine
	Glutamine	Leucine
	Glycine	Phenylalanine
	Proline	Methionine
	Serine	Threonine
	Tyrosine	Tyrptophan

*The amino acids Arg, His are considered "conditionally essential" for reasons not directly related to lack of synthesis and they are essential for growth only

Essential and nonessential amino acids

Essential	Nonessential
Arginine	Alanine
Histidine	Aspartate
Isoleucine	Asparagine
Leucine	Cysteine
Lysine	Glutamate
Methionine	Glutamine
Phenylalanine	Glycine
Threonine	Proline
Trptophan	Serine
Valine	Tyrosine

Glucogenic and ketogenic amino acids

Glu	ıcogenic	Both Glucogenic and ketogenic	ketogenic
Alanine	Arginine	Isoleucine	Leucine
Asparagine	Aspartate	Phenylalanine	Lysine
Cysteine	Glutamate	Trptophan	
Glutamine	Glycine	Tyrosine	
Histidine	Methionine		
Proline	Serine		
Threonine	Valine		



Amino acids Abbreviations

Amino acid	3-letter abbreviation	1-letter abbreviation
Alanine	Ala	Α
Arginine	Arg	R
Asparagine	Asn	N
Aspartic acid	Asp	D
Cysteine	Cys	С
Glutamic acid	Glu	E
Glutamine	Gln	Q
Glycine	Gly	G
Histidine	His	Н
Isoleucine	lle	I
Leucine	Leu	L
Lysine	Lys	К
Methionine	Met	м
Phenylalanine	Phe	F
Proline	Pro	Р
Serine	Ser	S
Threonine	Thr	Т
Tryptophan	Trp	w
Tyrosine	Tyr	Y
Valine	Val	V



Overview of amino acid metabolism



Protein catabolism Digestive Tract of protein

- Proteins are generally too large to be absorbed by the intestine and therefore must be hydrolyzed to the amino acids
- The proteolytic enzymes responsible for hydrolysis are produced by three different organs: the stomach pancreas and small intestine (the major organ)



Stomach

- HCI (parietal cells) and Pepsinogen (chief cells)
- The pH of gastric juice is around 1.0. Food is retained in the stomach for 2-4 hrs
- HCI kills microorganisms, denatures proteins, and provides an acid environment for the action of pepsin
- Autocatalysis: pepsinogen is converted to active pepsin(*Pepsin A*) by HCI
- Pepsin coagulates milk in presence of Ca²⁺ ions



Pancreas and small intestine

Endopeptidase (pancreas)
 Trypsin: carbonyl of arg and lys
 Chymotrypsin: carbonyl of Trp, Tyr, Phe, Met, Leu
 Elastase: carbonyl of Ala, Gly, Ser

- Exopeptidase (pancreas)
 Carboxypeptidase A:amine side of Ala, Ile, Leu, Val Carboxypeptidase B: amine side of Arg, lys
- Aminopeptidase (small intestine): cleaves N-terminal residue of oligopeptidaes
 Dipeptidase (small intestine)





absorption

- There is little absorption from the stomach apart from short- and medium- chain fatty acids and ethanol
- Under normal circumstances, the dietary proteins are almost completely digested to their constituent amino acids, and these end products of protein digestion are rapidly absorbed from the intestine into the portal blood



- Amino acids are transported through the brush border by the carrier protein and it is an active transport
- The classification of carrier protein: aciditic; basic; neutral and gly-carrier
- 2. γ-glutamyl cycle
- 3. The bi-and tri- peptidase carrier system in the intestinal mucosa cell



The mechanism of AA's absorption



intestine





Source of ammonia

A. some amino acids are degraded by the in the intestine bacteria





2. Ammonia

B. urea from the blood to the intestine with resultant increased diffusion of NH_3 into the intestinal





Protein and amino acid turnover





Overview of the protein metabolism





introduction

- Free amino acids are metabolized in identical ways, regardless of whether they are released from dietary or intracellular proteins
- The metabolism of the resulting amino group and nitrogen excretion are a central part of nitrogen metabolism



DEAMINATION

A. Transamination

B. Oxidative deamination

C. purine nucleotide cycle

A. Transamination

- Transamination by Aminotransferase (transaminase)
- always involve PLP coenzyme (pyridoxal phosphate)
- reaction goes via a Schiff's base intermediate
- all transaminase reactions are reversible



Aminotransferases

- Aminotransferases can have specificity for the alpha-keto acid or the amino acid
- Aminotransferases exist for all amino acids except proline and lysine
- The most common compounds involved as a donor/acceptor pair in transamination reactions are glutamate and a-ketoglutarate, which participate in reactions with many different aminotransferases

to an alpha-keto acid \rightarrow alpha-amino acid



-The most important transaminases identified are glutamate-oxaloacetate transaminase (GOT) glutamate- pyruvate transaminase (GPT).

One of the thousands kinds of liver enzymes, and a kind of transferase

Large amount of transaminase is released into blood mostly on liver cell damages. Thus, detection of serum level tells the existence of

liver cell damage.





B. Oxidative Deamination

L-glutamate dehydrogenase (in mitochondria)

Glu + NAD⁺ (or NADP⁺) + $H_2O \Leftrightarrow NH_4^+$ + a-ketoglutarate + NAD(P)H +H⁺

Requires NAD⁺ or NADP ⁺ as a cofactor

Plays a central role in AA metabolism ?



It is inhibited by GTP and ATP, and activated by GDP and ADP



Glutamate Dehydrogenase

This enzyme is found in many tissues, where it catalyzes the reversible oxidative deamination of the amino acid glutamate. It produces the citric acid cycle intermediate α -ketoglutarate, which serves as an entry point to the cycle for a group of glucogenic amino acids. Its role in urea synthesis and nitrogen removal is still controversial, but has been included in Figure I-17-1.





The metabolism of α -ketoacid

 Biosynthesis of nonessential amino acids

TCA cycle member + amino acid $\rightarrow \alpha$ -keto acid + nonessential amino acid

- A source of energy (10%)
 (CO₂+H₂O)
- Glucogenesis and ketogenesis



* Classification of amino acids

- * glucogenic amino acid : are converted into either pyruvate or one of the citric acid cycle intermediates (a-ketoglutarate, succinyl CoA, fumarate or malate)
- ketogenic amino acid: will be deaminated via Acetylc-CoA and thus can be made into a ketone body. such as: Leucine and lysine
- * glucogenic and ketogenic amino acid: isoleucine, phenylalanine, tryptophan and tyrosine, threonine



Degradation of amino acids

- Amino acid breakdown can yield:
 - Acetyl-CoA
 - -α-KG(alpha keto glutarate
 - Succinyl-CoA
 - OAA(oxalacetate)
 - fumarate

α-KG is generated from five amino acids

- Proline
- Glutamate
- Glutamine
- Arginine
- Histidine



Four amino acids are converted to Succinyl-CoA

- Methionine
 - Converted to homocysteine through methyl group transfer, generates cysteine as converted to α -ketobutyrate
- Isoleucine
 - Transamination, oxidative decarboxylation to acetyl-CoA and propionyl CoA
- Valine
 - Transamination, decarboxylation to propionyl CoA
- Threonine
 - α -ketobutyrate generated and converted to propionyl CoA

NH₂ CH₃-S-CH₂-CH₂-ĊH-COO Methionine **Propionyl-CoA is** 3 steps a common intermediat NH_3 for amino acids \rightarrow HS-CH2-CH2-CH2-CH-COO Homocysteine succinyl-CoA PLP cystathionine Serine β -synthase PLP cystathionine >> Cysteine γ -lyase OH NH₃ threonine dehydratase CH₃-CH₂-CH₃-CH--CH-COO PLP α -Ketobutyrate Threonine NH_4^+ H_2O CoA-SH CH₃ NH₃ NAD^+ α-keto acid CH₃-CH₂-CH-CH-COO dehydrogenase \rightarrow NADH + H⁺ CO_2 Isoleucine $\rightarrow CO_2$ 6 steps CH₃ NH₃ CO_2 $7\,\mathrm{steps}$ CH₃-CH-CH-COO $CH_3 -$ -CH 0 Propionyl-CoA Valine CH₃-C-S-CoA 2 steps - HCO₃ Acetyl-CoA CH₃ O -00C· S-CoA Methylmalonyl-CoA methylmalonylcoenzyme B₁₂ CoA mutase OOC-CH2-CH S-CoA Succinyl-CoA

Branched-chain α-keto acid dehydrogenase complex

- In certain body tissues, this enzyme catalyzes the oxidative decarboxylation of valine, isoleucine, and leucine yielding CO_2 , and acyl-CoA derivatives.
- Shares ancestry with pyruvate dehydrogenase complex, α -KG dehydrogenase complex another example of gene duplication

Branched-chain ... complex



Asparagine and aspartate are degraded to OAA



Fate of metabolites derived from amino acids

• In addition to feeding the citric acid cycle, amino acids can result in ketone bodies, while others are gluconeogenic

Ketone bodies

 The six amino acids that are degraded to acetoacetyl-CoA and/or acetyl-CoA) can be converted to acetoacetate and β-hydroxybutyrate



Glucogenic amino acids

 Amino acids that are degraded to pyruvate, α-KG, succinyl-CoA fumarate, and/or OAA can be converted to glucose

by Site of Entry			
Pyruvate	Succinyl-CoA		
Alanine	Isoleucine [†]		
Cysteine	Methionine		
Glycine	Threonine		
Serine	Valine		
Tryptophan [†]	Fumarate		
α- Ketoglutarate Arginine Glutamate	Phenylalanine [†] Tyrosine [†]		
Glutamine	Oxaloacetate		
Histidine	Asparagine		
Proline	Aspartate		
Arginine	Phenylalani		
Glutamate	Tyrosine [†]		
Glutamine	Oxaloacetat		
Histidine	Asparagine		
Proline	Aspartate		

Clucogenic Amino Acids Grouped

*These amino acids are precursors of blood glucose or liver glycogen because they can be converted to pyruvate or citric acid cycle intermediates. Only leucine and lysine are unable to furnish carbon for net glucose synthesis.

[†]These amino acids are also ketogenic (see Fig. 18–19).





1. amino acids degradation

RCCO,H,NH2

МАО

 $RCHO+NH_3$

Monoamine oxidase

2. glutamine (glutaminase, kidney)

3. catabolism from bacteria in intestine (two)

4. purine and pyrimidine catabolism



- Fix ammonia onto glutamate to form glutamine(Gln) and use as a transport mechanism
- Transport ammonia by alanine-glucose cycle and Gln regeneration
- Excrete nitrogenous waste through urea cycle
- Transport of ammonia
- alaninie glucose cycle *
- regenerate Gln





L-Glutamate



**** Urea synthesis

- Synthesis in liver (Mitochondria and cytosol)
- Excretion via kidney
- To convert ammonia to urea for final excretion











Figure I-17-2. The Urea Cycle in the Liver



UREA CYCLE (liver)

1. Overall Reaction:

NH₃ + HCO₃⁻ + aspartate + 3 ATP + H₂O → urea + fumarate + 2 ADP + 2 Pi + AMP + ppi

2. Requires 5 enzymes:

2 from mitochondria and 3 from cytosol



Regulation of urea cycle

1.Mitochondrial carbamoyl phosphate synthetase I (CPS I)

CPS I catalyzes the first committed step of the urea cycle CPS I is also an allosteric enzyme sensitive to activation by *N*-acetylglutamate (AGA) which is derived from glutamate and acetyl-CoA





Increased rate of AA degradation requires higher rate of urea synthesis \uparrow AA degradation \rightarrow \uparrow glutamate concentration \rightarrow \uparrow synthesis of Nacetylglutamate \rightarrow \uparrow CPS I activity \rightarrow \uparrow urea

cycle efficiency



2. All other urea cycle enzymes are controlled by the concentrations of their substrates

Deficiency in an $E \rightarrow \uparrow$ (substrate) $\rightarrow \uparrow$ rate of the deficient E

3. The intake of the protein in food

the intake $\uparrow \rightarrow \uparrow$ urea synthesis



Hyper-ammonemia

and the toxic of the ammonia

GDH

Why is ammonia toxic?

 α -ketoglutarate + NH3 + NADPH \leftrightarrow glutamate + NADP+

High ammonia depletes the TCA cycle of α -ketoglutarate \rightarrow low ATP \rightarrow COMA (a symptom of high ammonia levels).

- Hyperammononemia: ammonia intoxication tremors, slurring of speech, and blurring of vision, coma/death
- Cause by cirrhosis of the liver or genetic deficiencies



Table I-17-1. Genetic Deficiencies of Urea Synthesis

Carbamoyl Phosphate Synthetase	Ornithine Transcarbamoylase
↑ [NH4 ⁺]; hyperammonemia	↑ [NH ₄ +]; hyperammonemia
Blood glutamine is increased	Blood glutamine is increased
BUN is decreased	BUN is decreased
No orotic aciduria Autosomal recessive	Orotic aciduria X-linked recessive
Cerebral edema	Cerebral edema
Lethargy, convulsions, coma, death	Lethargy, convulsions, coma, death



Figure I-17-3. Genetic Deficiencies of Amino Acid Metabolism