

# Amino Acid Metabolism (Chapter 21)

Jianhan Chen

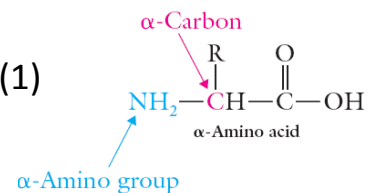
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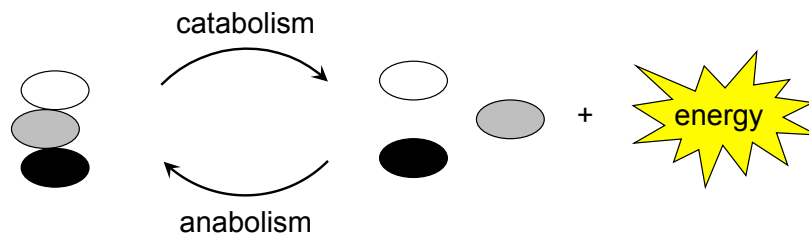
## Overview

- Introduction to amino acids and proteins (1)
- Protein degradation (1)
- Amino acid deamination (1)
- The urea cycle (1)
- Breakdown of amino acids (2)
- Amino acid synthesis (1)
- Nitrogen fixation (1)
- **Key reference:** Chapter 21 of Voet, Voet & Pratt (and this lecture note/google)



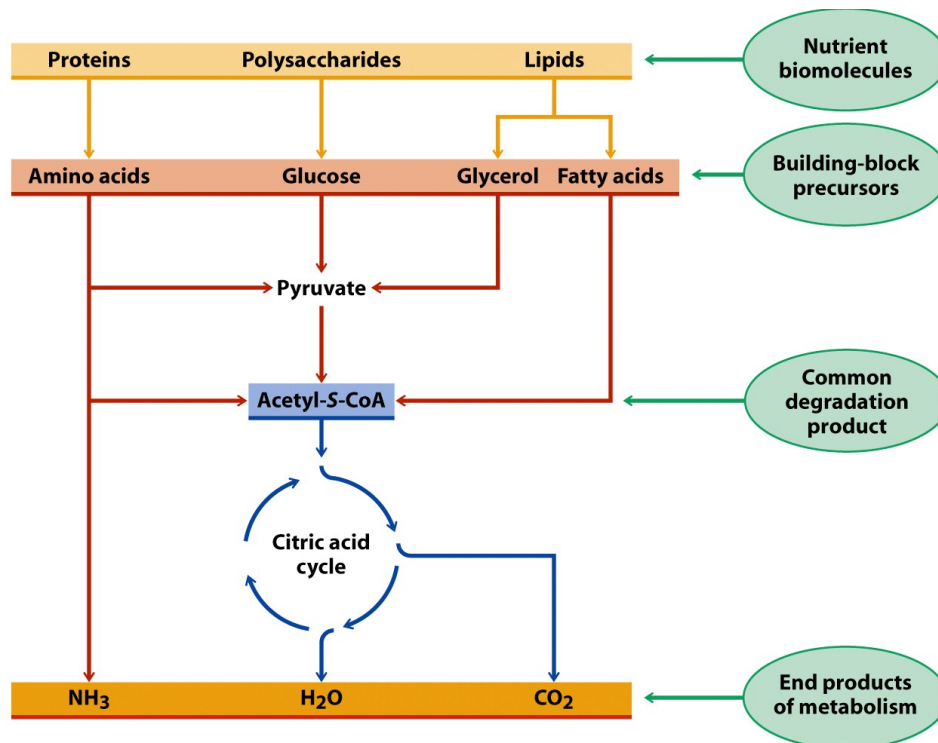
# Overview of Metabolism

- **Metabolism** is the sum/total of all the biochemical reactions that take place in a living organism.
- **Catabolism** is all metabolic reactions in which large biochemical molecules are broken down to smaller ones, thus generating energy.
- **Anabolism** is all metabolic reactions in which small biochemical molecules are joined to form larger ones through consumption of energy.



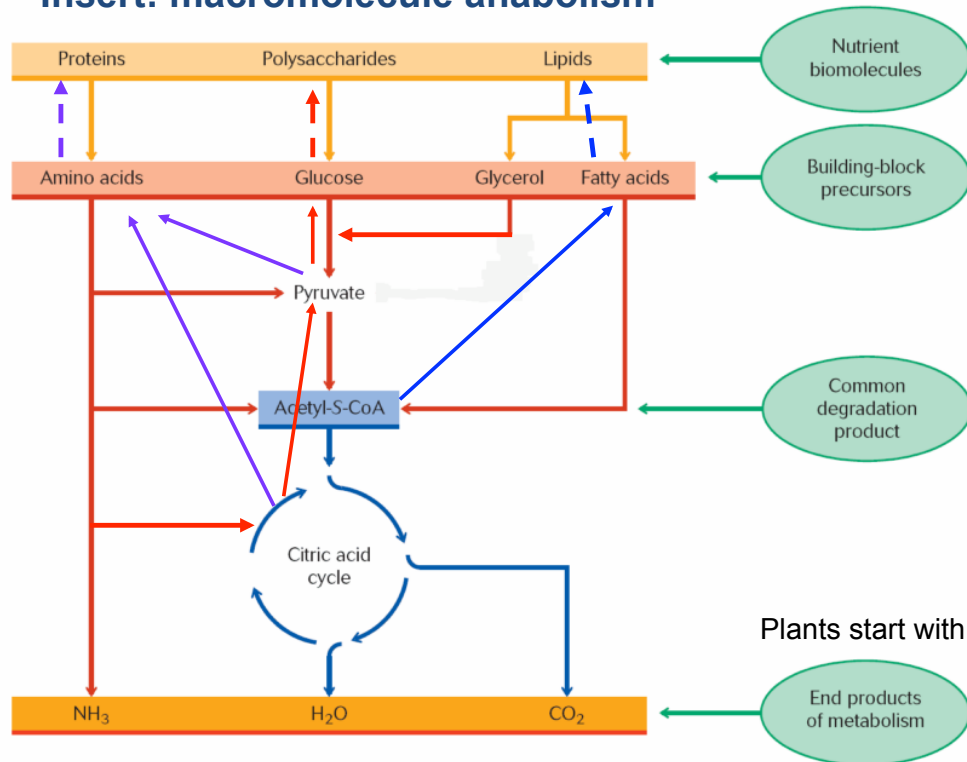
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## Major Stages of Catabolism



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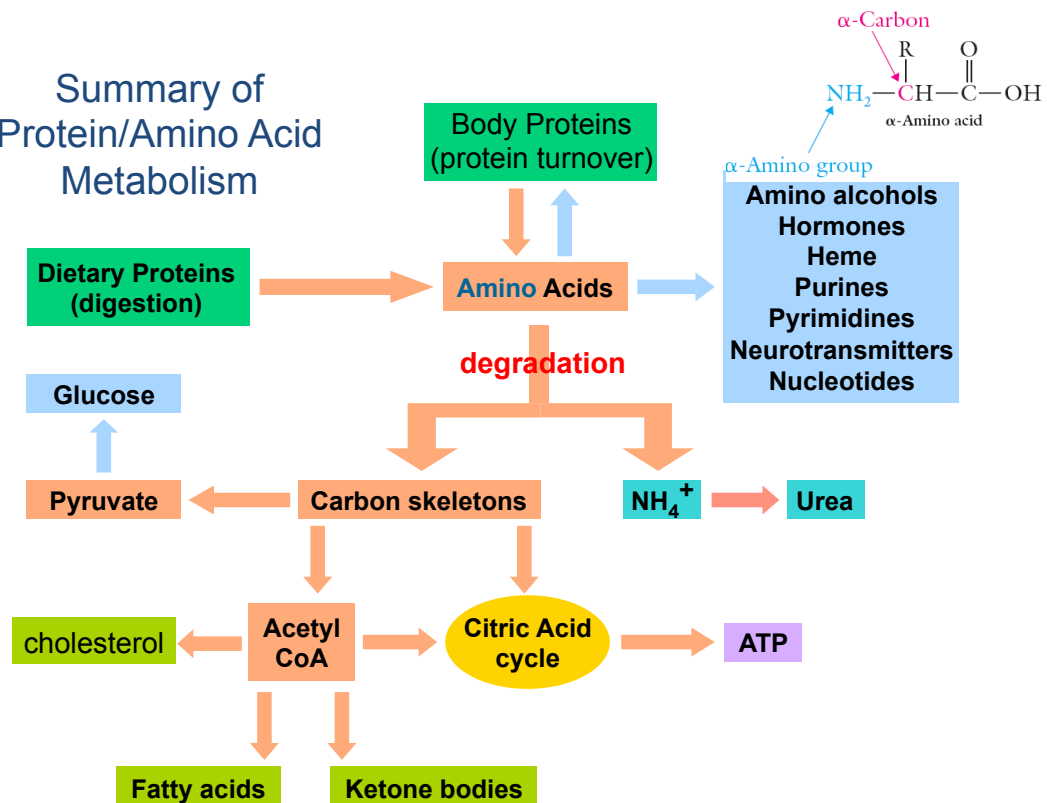
## Insert: macromolecule anabolism



Biosynthetic pathways always differ from catabolic pathways.

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## Summary of Protein/Amino Acid Metabolism



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# 1. PROTEIN DEGRADATION

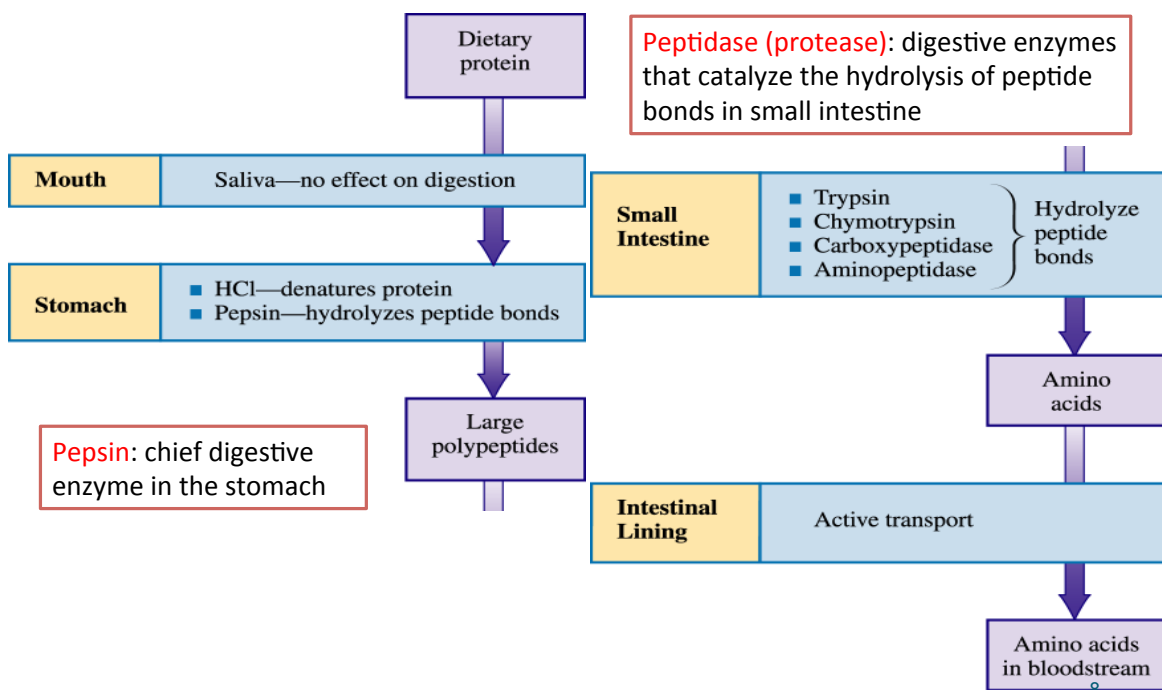
## Key Concepts 21.1

- Extracellular and intracellular proteins may be digested by lysosomal proteases.
- Other proteins to be degraded are first conjugated to the protein ubiquitin.
- The proteasome, a barrel-shaped complex, unfolds ubiquitinated proteins in an ATP-dependent process and proteolytically degrades them.

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## Protein Digestion



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# Protein Turnover

- Proteins are constantly being turned over in cell
  - Clear damaged proteins
  - Part of cell regulation
  - Metabolic needs
- Correlation of enzyme lifetime and the need to regulate
- The turnover rate also depend on cellular and nutritional conditions

**TABLE 21-1 Half-Lives of Some Rat Liver Enzymes**

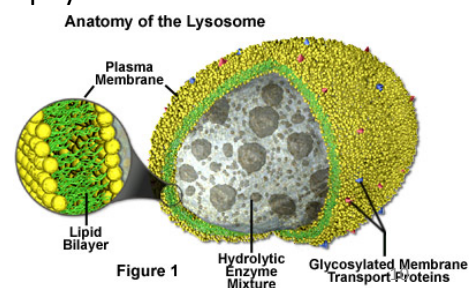
Enzyme	Half-Life (h)
<b>Short-Lived Enzymes</b>	
Ornithine decarboxylase	0.2
RNA polymerase I	1.3
Tyrosine aminotransferase	2.0
Serine-threonine dehydratase	4.0
PEP carboxylase	5.0
<b>Long-Lived Enzymes</b>	
Aldolase	118
GAPDH	130
Cytochrome <i>b</i>	130
LDH	130
Cytochrome <i>c</i>	150

Source: Dice, J.F. and Goldberg, A.L., *Arch. Biochem. Biophys.* 170, 214 (1975).

Table 21-1  
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## Lysosomes: non-selective degradation

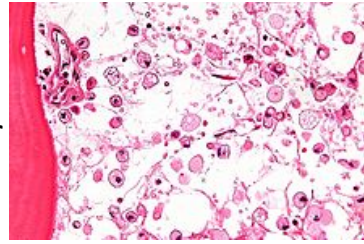
- Cellular organelles that contain acid hydrolase enzymes
- pH ~ 5
  - Lysosomal enzymes inactive @ neutral pH: protection from lysosome leakage
- Feed by endocytosis and autophagy
- Selective pathway activated after a prolonged fast
  - Imports and degrades cytosolic proteins contain KFERQ or a closely related sequence
  - Not proteins from tissues that do not atrophy (e.g., brain and testes)
- Regression of uterus after childbirth
  - 2000g -> 50g in nine days



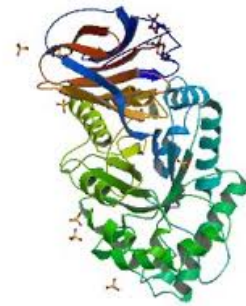
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# Lysosomal Storage Diseases (LSD)

- Genetic malfunction of lysosomal enzymes
- 1 in 5000 live births
- Accumulation of specific macromolecules or monomeric compounds inside the endosomal–autophagic–lysosomal system, leading to abnormal signaling
- Gaucher's disease
  - deficiency of glucocerebrosidase
  - Glucosylceramide lipid accumulation
  - affects spleen, liver, kidneys, lungs, brain and bone marrow.
  - bruises, fatigue, anaemia, low blood platelets, osteoporosis, and enlargement of the liver and spleen



“crinkled paper” macrophages



Acid beta-glucosidase

[http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gaucher%27s\\_disease](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gaucher%27s_disease)

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## Ubiquitin Dependent Degradation

- ATP-dependent process
- Required ubiquitination
  - **Ubiquitin**: 76-residues, highly conserved
  - Involves three types of enzymes
    - E1: ubiquitin activating enzyme (one): consume ATP
    - E2's: ubiquitin conjugating enzymes (>20 in mammals)
    - E3: ubiquitin-protein ligases (many): transfer ubiquitin from E2 to Lys sidechains (responsible for recognizing proteins to clear!)
  - At least four ubiquitin units
    - Some poly-ubiquitin > 50
  - Recognition rules yet to be fully understood
- Both housekeeping (maintain protein balance and remove damaged proteins) and regulation
- Ubiquitinated proteins processed by **proteasome**

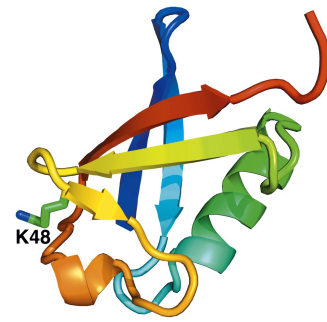
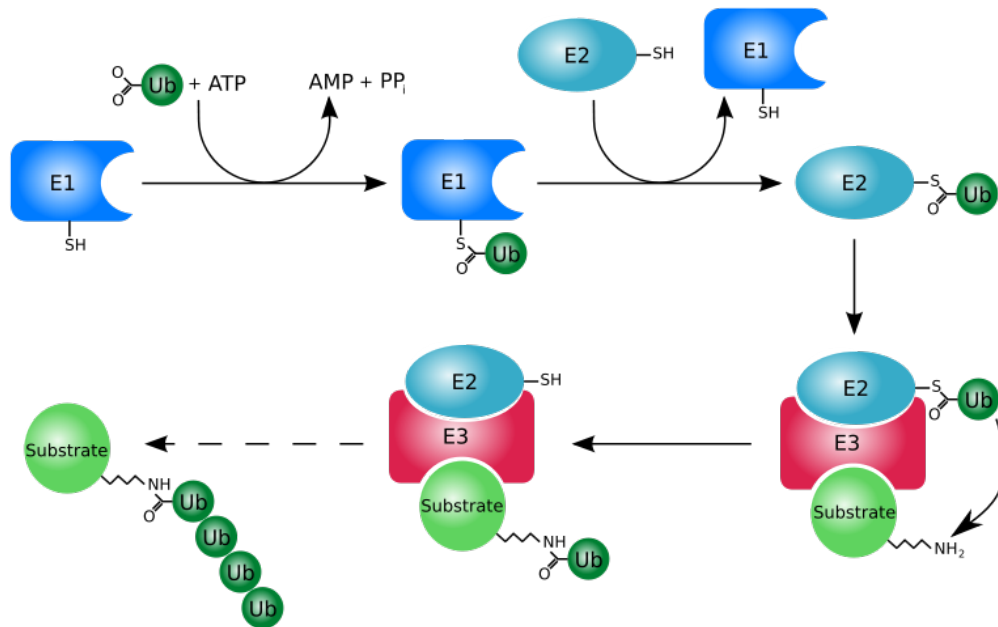


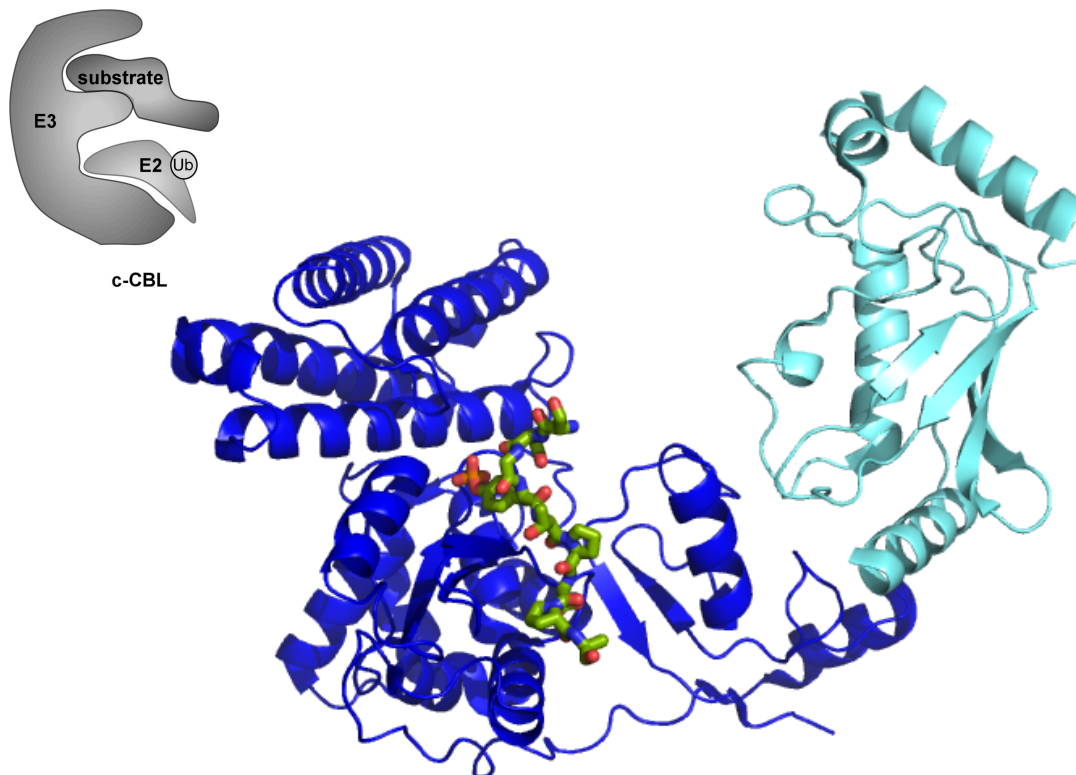
Figure 21-1  
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# Ubiquitin Dependent Degradation



<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ubiquitin> (c) Jianhan Chen

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# Proteasome

- Consume ATP to unfold and hydrolyze ubiquitinated proteins
- Multi-protein assembly (~2100 KD, 26S)
  - Jeroen Roelofs in Biology is an expert on proteasome assembly

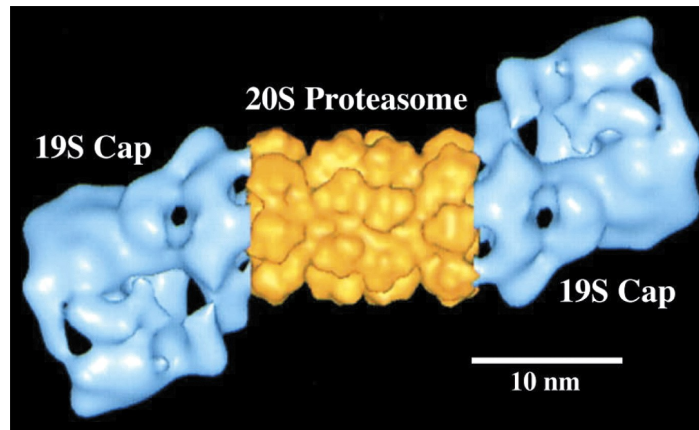


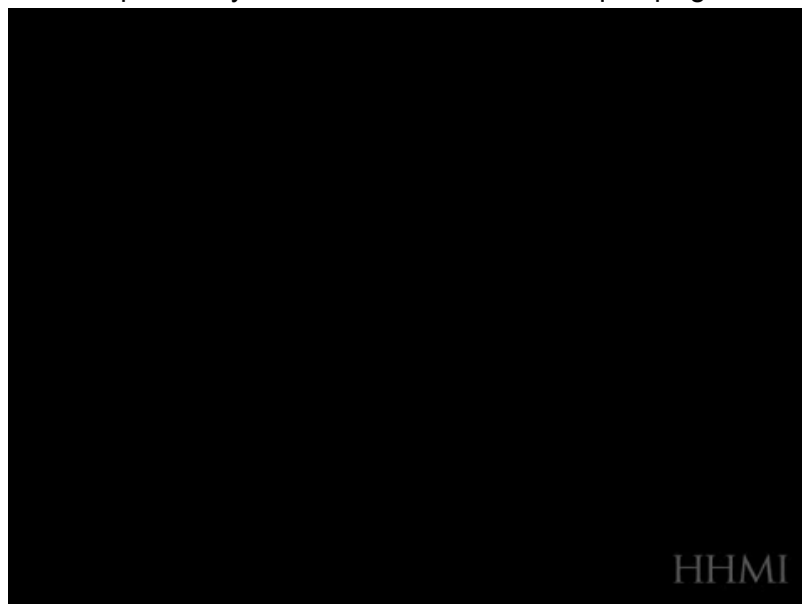
Figure 21-3  
Courtesy of Wolfgang Baumeister, Max-Planck-Institut für Biochemie, Martinsried, Germany

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# Proteasome

<http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=4DMqnfrzpKg>



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## 20S Proteasome (Core Particle)

- 7 alpha and beta subunits; catalytic activity in beta-rings
- Narrow, hydrophobic chamber: accessible only by unfolded proteins

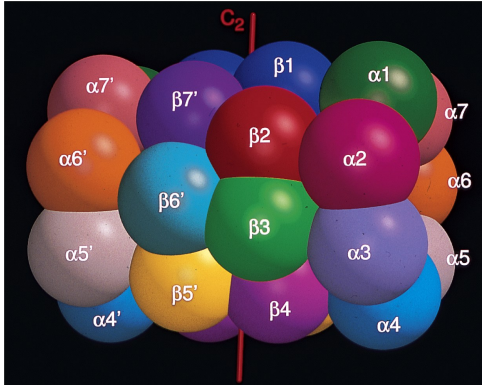


Figure 21-4a  
Courtesy of Robert Huber, Max-Planck-Institut für Biochemie, Martinsried, Germany

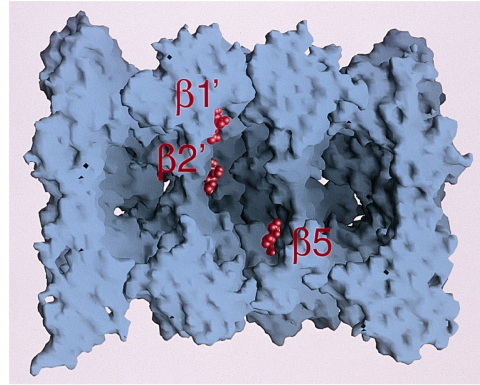


Figure 21-4b  
Courtesy of Robert Huber, Max-Planck-Institut für Biochemie, Martinsried, Germany

Yeast 20S proteasome  
PDBid [1RYP](#)

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## 20S Proteasome (Core Particle)

- 7 alpha and beta subunits; catalytic activity in beta-rings
- Narrow, hydrophobic chamber: accessible only by unfolded proteins
- Only three beta-subunits are catalytically active
  - N-terminal Thr residues as catalytic nucleophiles
  - Located in the center of 20S chamber
- Three active beta-subunits have different substrate specificities, cleaving after acidic (beta1), basic (beta2; trypsin-like) and hydrophobic (beta3; Chymotrypsin-like) residues.
  - Lead to ~8 residue fragments, which are degraded further by cytosolic peptidase
- Ubiquitin not degraded; they are released for reuse

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## Open Discussion: why ~8 residue fragments?

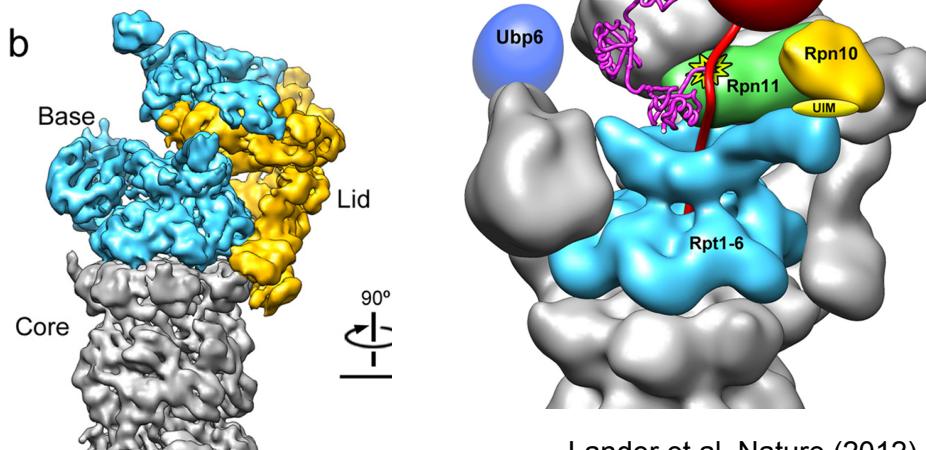
- Biochemical limit: not possible to make an enzyme that can cut every peptide bond
- Speed limit: too slow to cut shorter fragments; would require many more ribosomes
- No need: abundant peptidase in cell
- Functional need: e.g., short fragments for antigen presenting in immune response

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## 19S Cap/Regulatory Particles

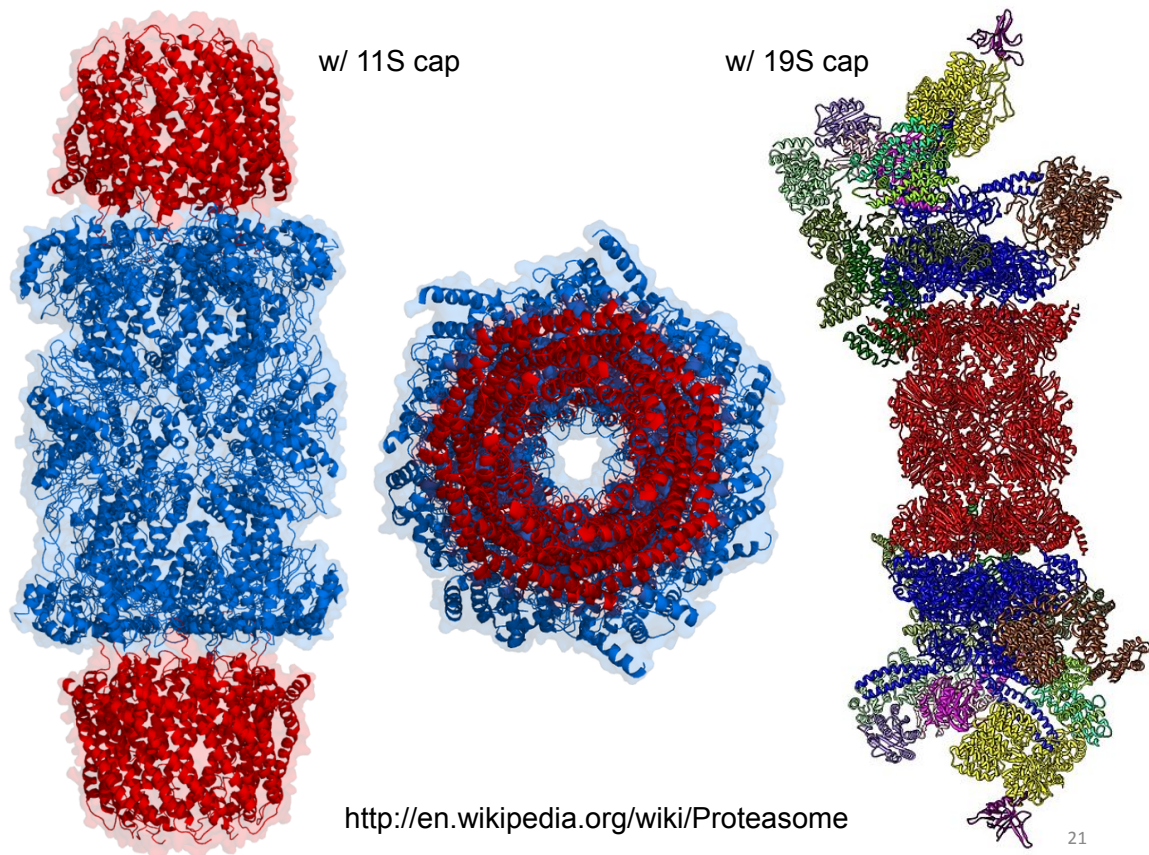
- Recognize ubiquitinated proteins, unfold them and feed to the 20S core protease particle
- ATP-dependent
- Base + Lid



Lander et al, Nature (2012)

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## Protease ClpP

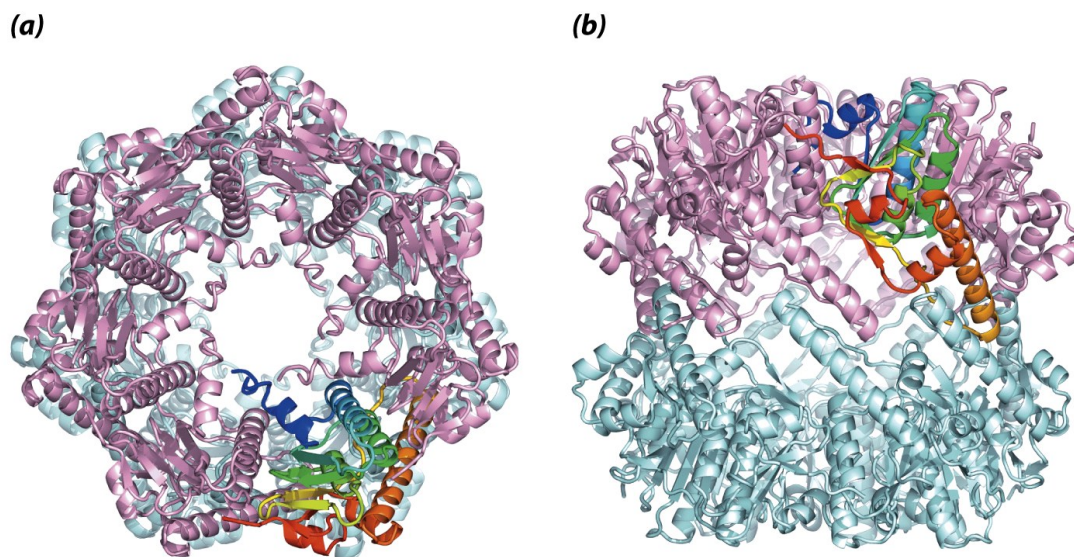


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## Subtopic Summary

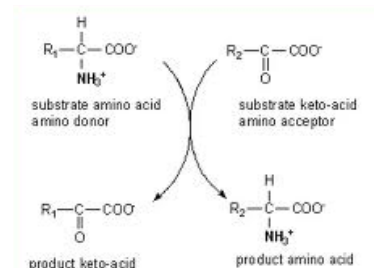
- What is the role of the lysosome in degrading extracellular and intracellular proteins?
- Why must protein degradation be somewhat selective?
- Describe the steps of protein ubiquitination;
  - What is the difference between mono- and polyubiquitination?
- Describe the pathway for proteasome-mediated protein degradation, including the roles of ubiquitin and ATP.
- What is the advantage of the proteasomal active sites having different substrate specificities?

[This is also your future study guide ...](#)

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Chapter 21-2



## AMINO ACID DEAMINATION

### Key Concepts 21.2

- Transamination interconverts an amino acid and an  $\alpha$ -keto acid.
- Oxidative deamination of glutamate releases ammonia for disposal.

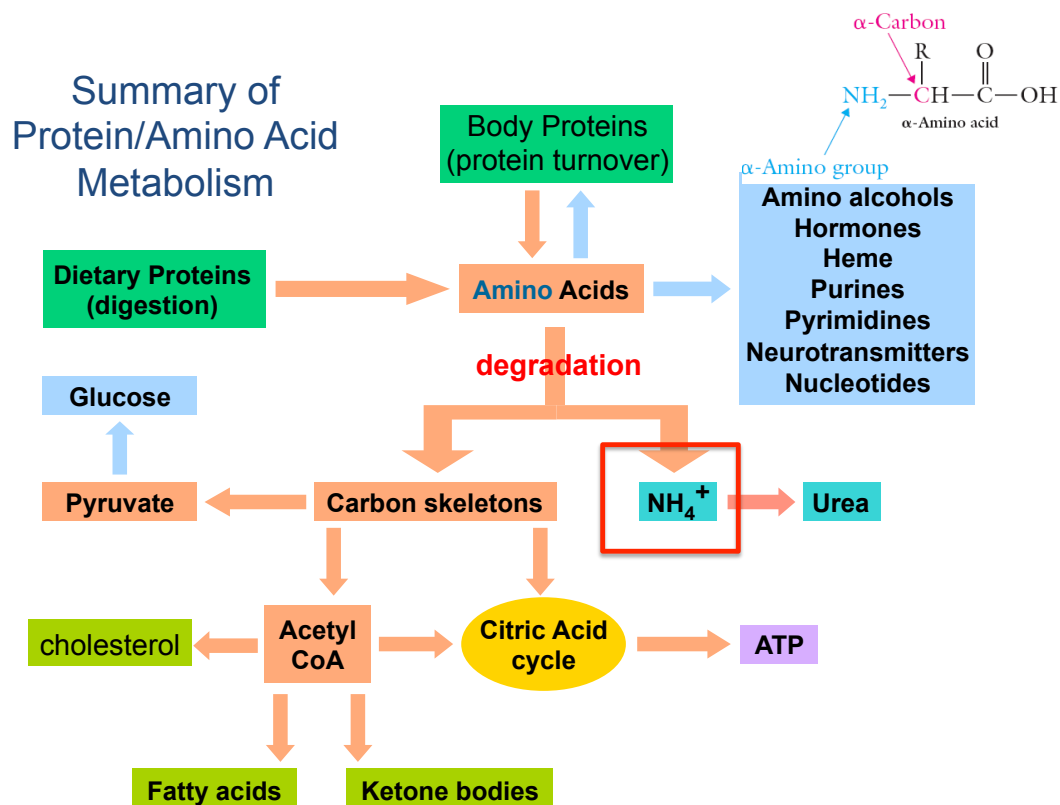
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# Amino acid utilization

- **No long-term storage** of amino acids besides muscle proteins
- Proteins from diet, protein synthesis and *turnover* contribute to the amino acid pool.
  - Most important usage: protein synthesis (~75%).
  - Synthesis nonessential amino acids and other of nitrogen-containing compounds
  - Production of energy (catabolism)
- The *amino acid pool* is the total supply of free amino acids (**GLN** and **GLU** represent 50% of the aa pool) available for use in cell. (**why?**)
- (positive and negative) **Nitrogen balance** is the state that results when the amount of nitrogen taken into the human body as protein equals the amount of nitrogen excreted from the body in waste materials.
  - Each day a 75 kg person synthesizes about 400 g protein as tissues turn over
  - 50-100 g protein is consumed in the diet. So, each day equivalent of 50-100 g of protein must be excreted in some way

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# Amino Acid Catabolism

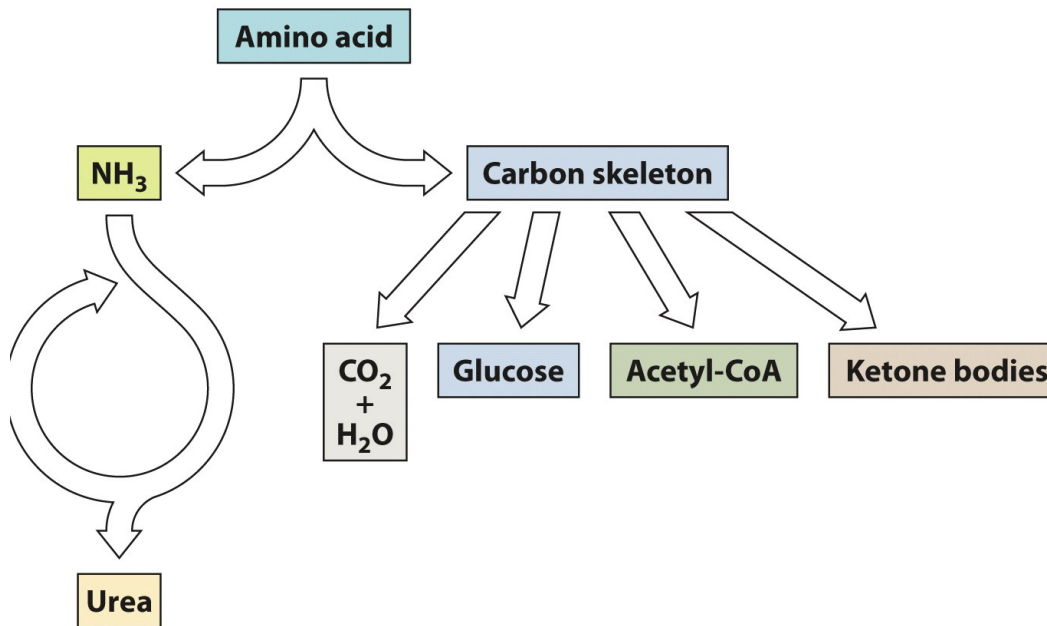


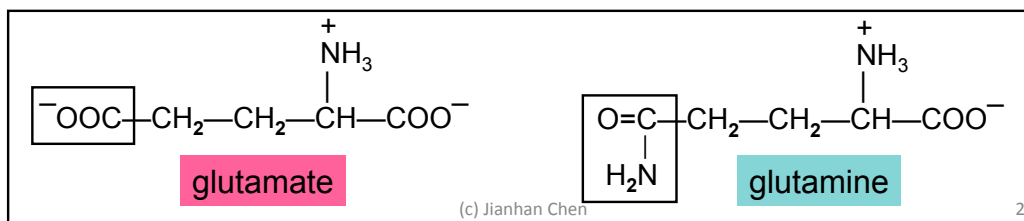
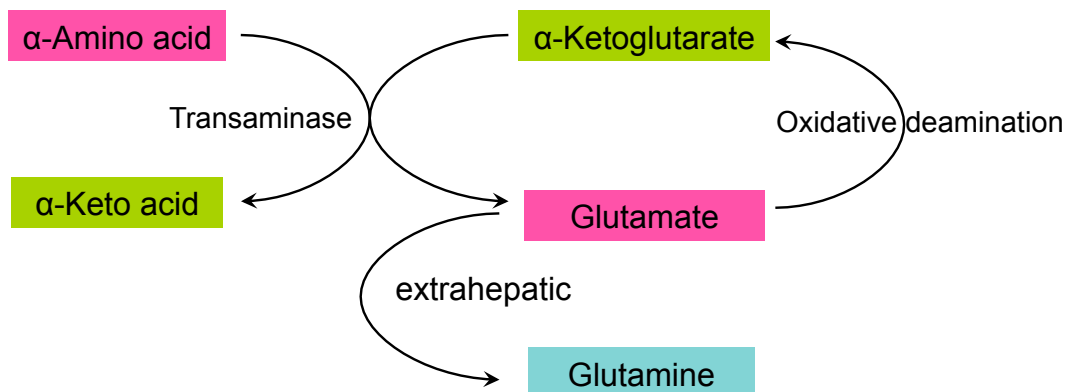
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## Transamination and Oxidative Deamination

- Removal of amino group: 1<sup>st</sup> step to amino acid catabolism

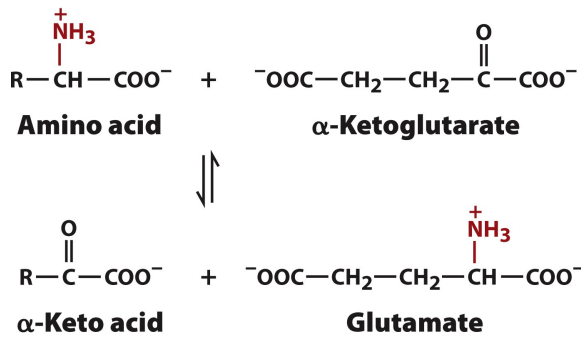


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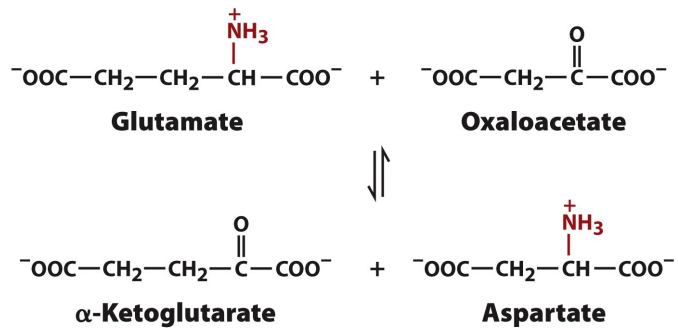
# Transamination



**Transamination:** the transfer of the amino group to an alpha-keto acid

← **α-Ketoglutarate** is main amino group acceptor

↓ Glutamate can under 2<sup>nd</sup> transamination to produce aspartate



Occurs mostly in **liver** (Ala aminotransferase) and **heart** (Asp aminotransferase); presence of those activities in the blood are used as diagnostic tool to detect liver and heart damage.

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# Co-enzyme PLP

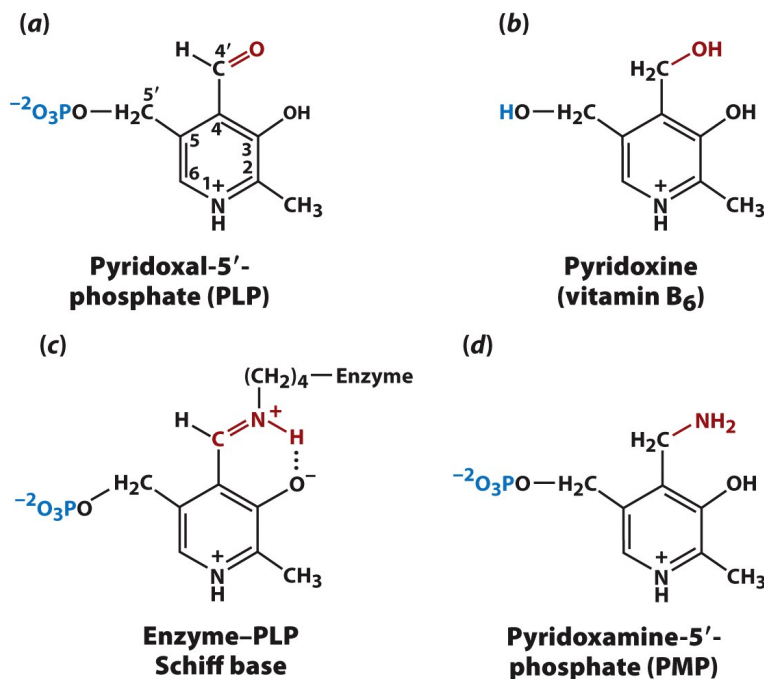
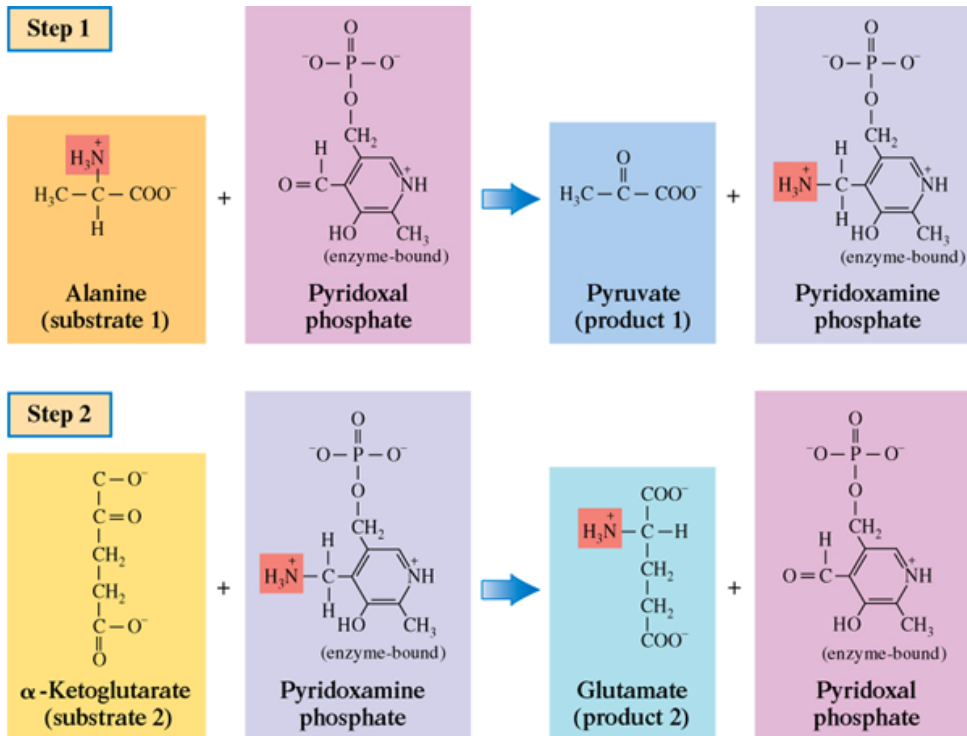


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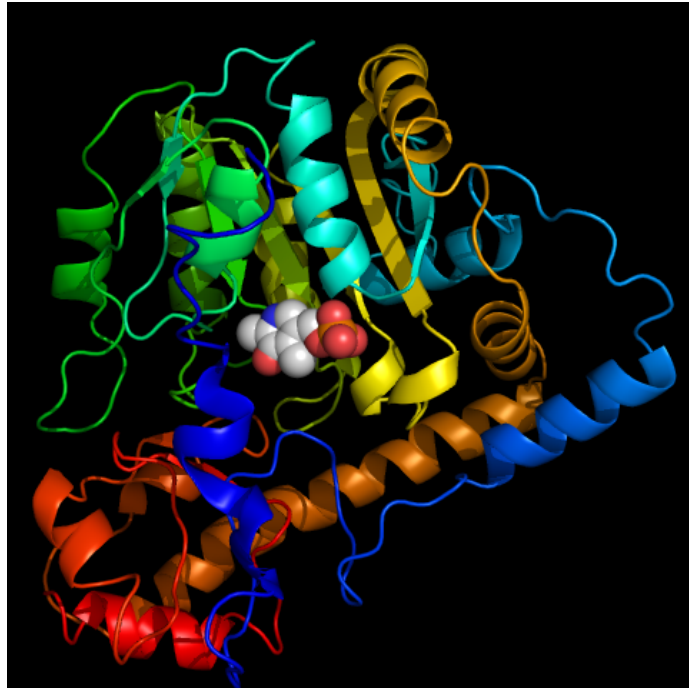
## Transaminases

- Different transaminase for different amino acids, but most only accept  $\alpha$ -Ketoglutarate and to a less degree oxaloacetate
  - collect the amino groups onto a single amino acid, glutamate (“amino group storage”)
  - Reversible (both synthesis and degradation)
  - Lysine not transaminated
- $\alpha$ -ketoglutarate (intermediate of citric acid cycle) is the main amino group acceptor; pyruvate in the amino group acceptor in muscles
- Transamination occurs mostly in liver (alanine aminotransferase) and heart (aspartate aminotransferase); presence of those activities in the blood are used as diagnostic tool to detect liver and heart damage.

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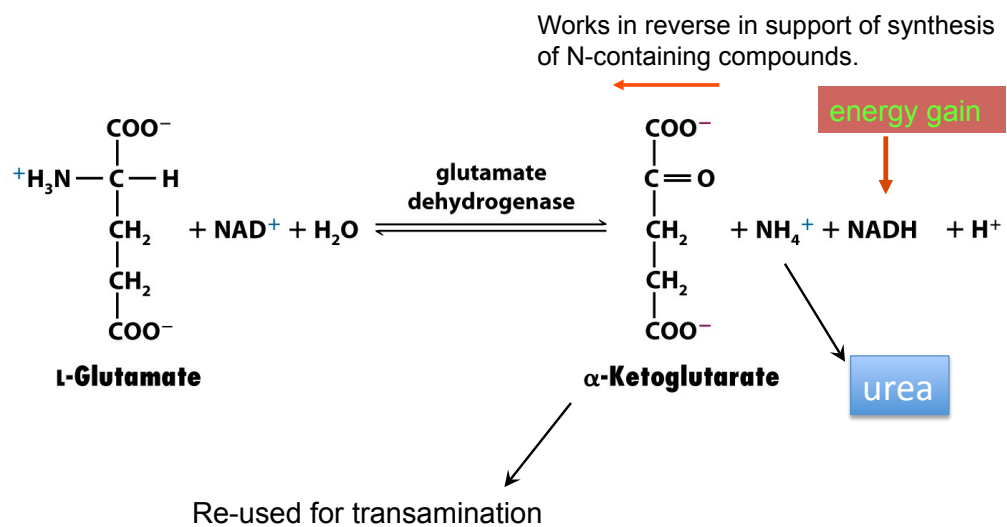
## Aspartate Transaminase with PLP



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## Oxidative Deamination



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### Use of muscle protein (wasting) during starvation.

Our **only storage form of amino acids** is **muscle protein** and this must be used under **conditions of starvation to make glucose** and support essential protein synthesis.

Amino acid degradation in the muscle first involves the standard transamination to produce glutamate and all **gluconeogenic  $\alpha$ -keto acids produced** are converted to **pyruvate**.

Then by transamination the amino group of glutamate is passed to pyruvate to produce **alanine**. **Alanine is then transferred in blood to the liver**.

In the liver, the **urea cycle** gets rid of ammonia. **Pyruvate is converted to glucose** for export back to the **brain** or if fat is depleted to muscle.

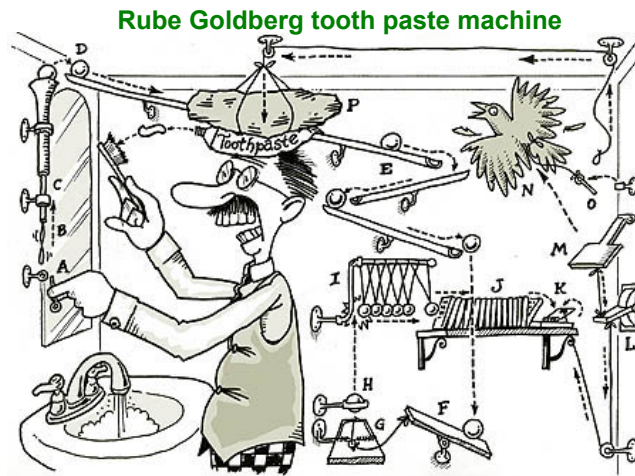
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## Quick Summary

- Describe how  $\alpha$ -ketoglutarate and oxaloacetate participate in amino acid catabolism.
- Why Glu/Gln represent ~50% of the amino acid pool?
- What is the role of PLP in transamination?
- Summarize the reactions that release an amino acid's amino group as ammonia.

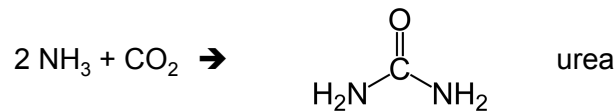


# UREA CYCLE



## Key Concepts 21.2

- Five reactions incorporate ammonia and an amino group into urea.
- The rate of the urea cycle changes with the rate of amino acid breakdown.

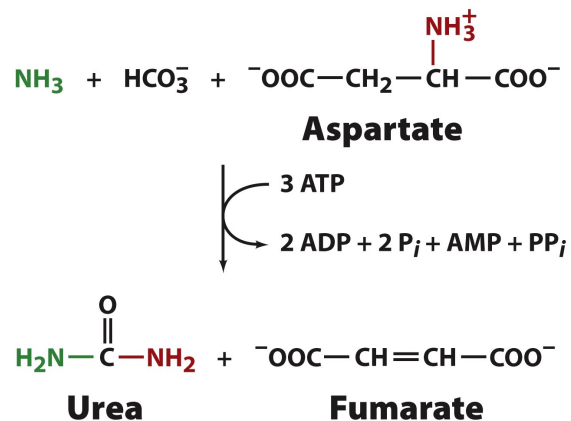


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## Overall Urea Cycle Reaction

- 1<sup>st</sup> metabolic cycle known: outlined in 1932
- Urea synthesized in **liver**, secreted into blood stream, and sequestered by **kidneys** for excretion in urine
- **Nitrogen atoms in urea come from NH<sub>3</sub> and aspartate**
- 2 NADH produced, which is equivalent to 5 ATPs (i.e., a **net gain of 2 ATPs!**).
- Involve 5 key enzymes!



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# Urea Cycle

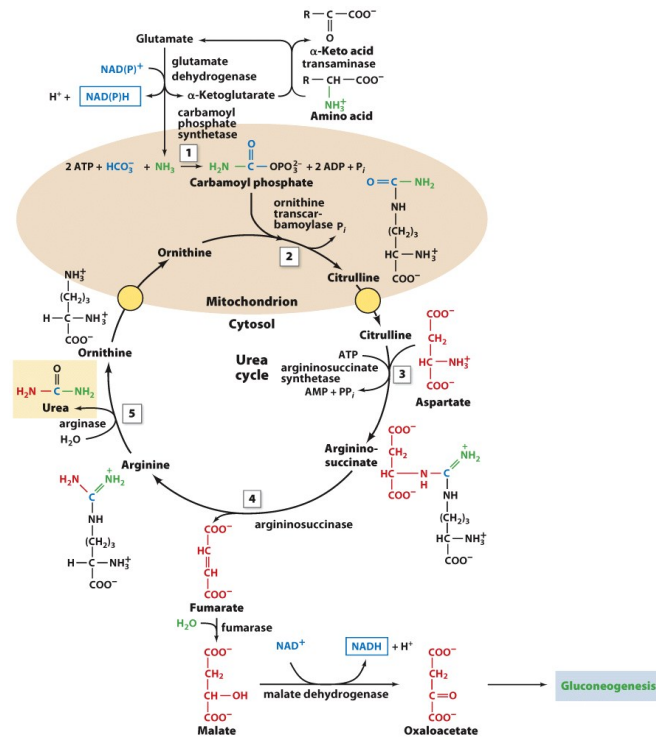


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## The Urea Cycle

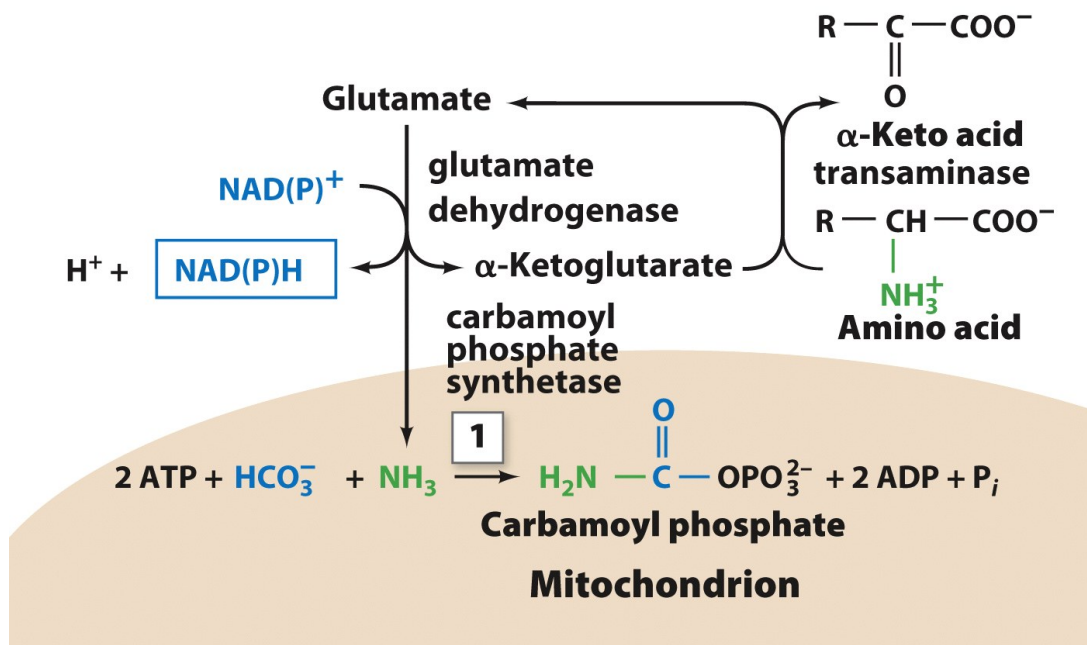


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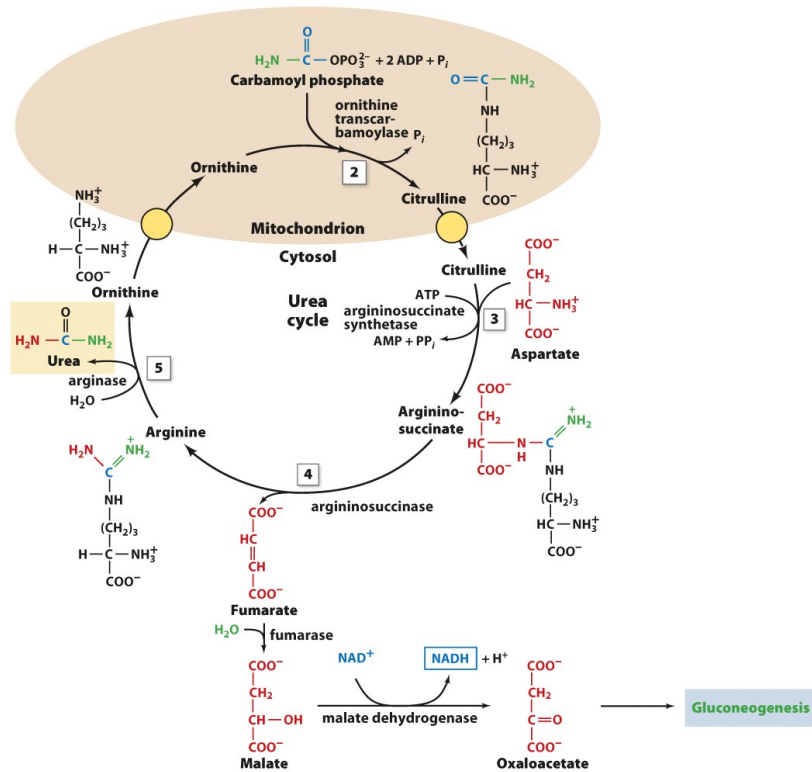
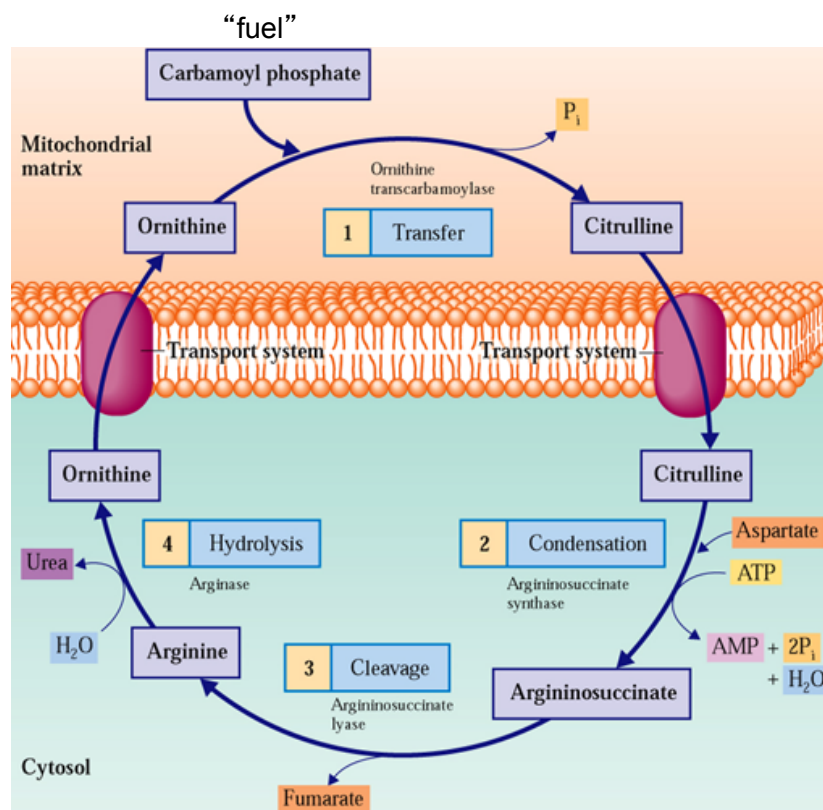
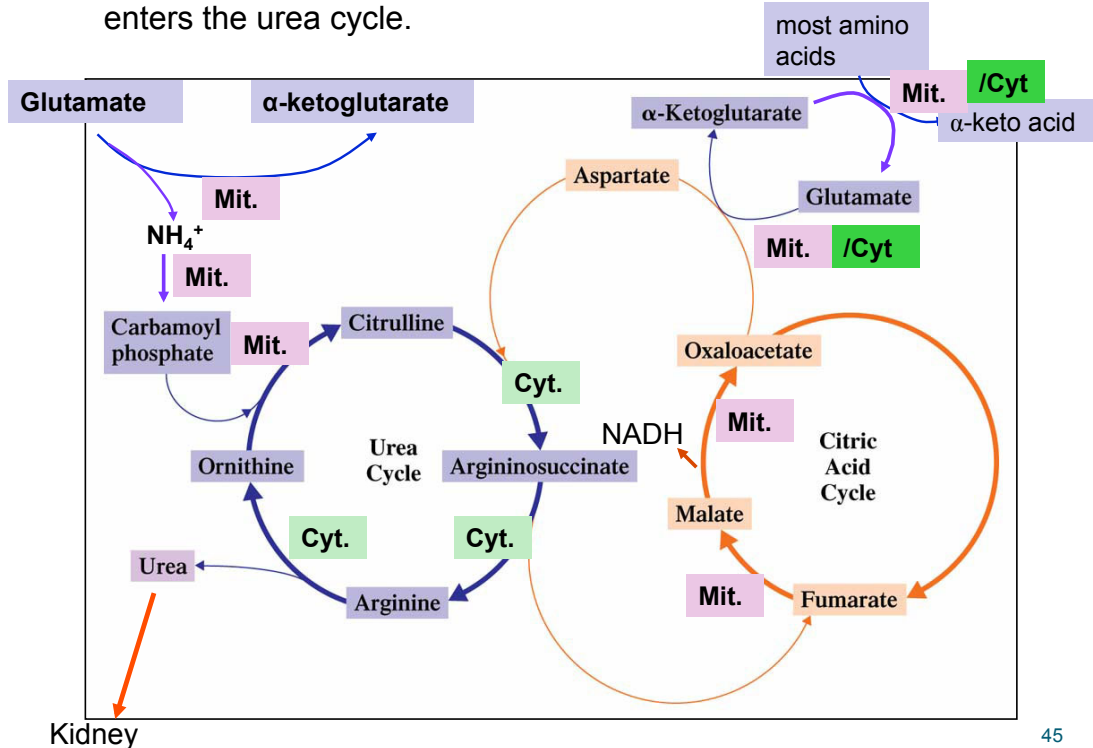


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Fumarate from the urea cycle enters the citric acid cycle, and aspartate produced from oxaloacetate of the citric acid cycle enters the urea cycle.



## Carbamoyl Phosphate Synthase (CPS)

- Condensation and activation of  $\text{NH}_3$  and  $\text{CO}_2$
- Rate limiting irreversible reaction
  - Also involved in pyrimidine and arginine biosynthesis
- Three steps: catalyzed by the same CPS
  - Mitochondria CPS I:  $\text{NH}_3$  as nitrogen donor
  - Cytosolic CPS II: glutamine as nitrogen donor

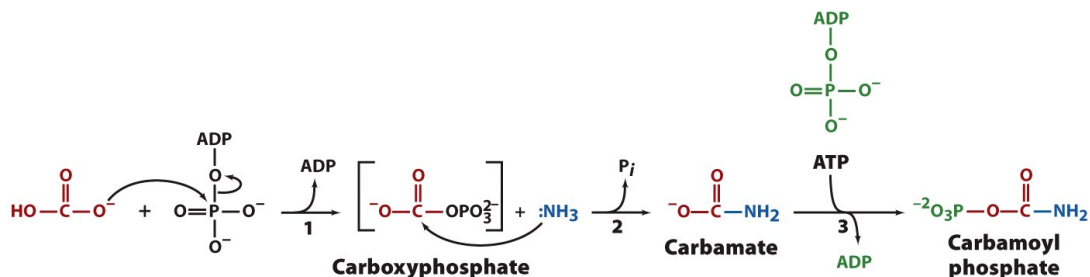


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## CPS II

**Channeling:** three active sites connected by a narrow 96 Å long tunnel

NH<sub>3</sub> travels ~45 Å to react with carboxyphosphate and resulting carbamate travels 35 Å to reach carbamoyl phosphate synthesis site

Dramatically increased efficiency of the overall reaction!

Critical for CPS as the intermediates are short-lived (<100 ms)

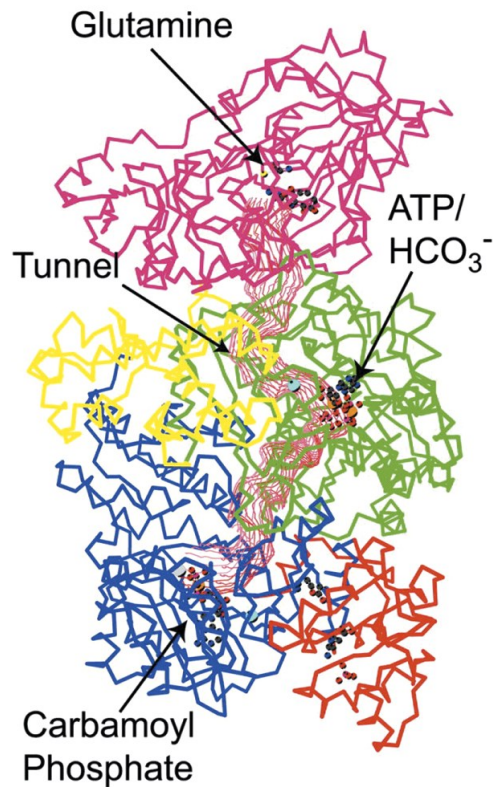


Figure 21-11  
(Courtesy of Hazel Holden and Ivan Rayment, University of Wisconsin)

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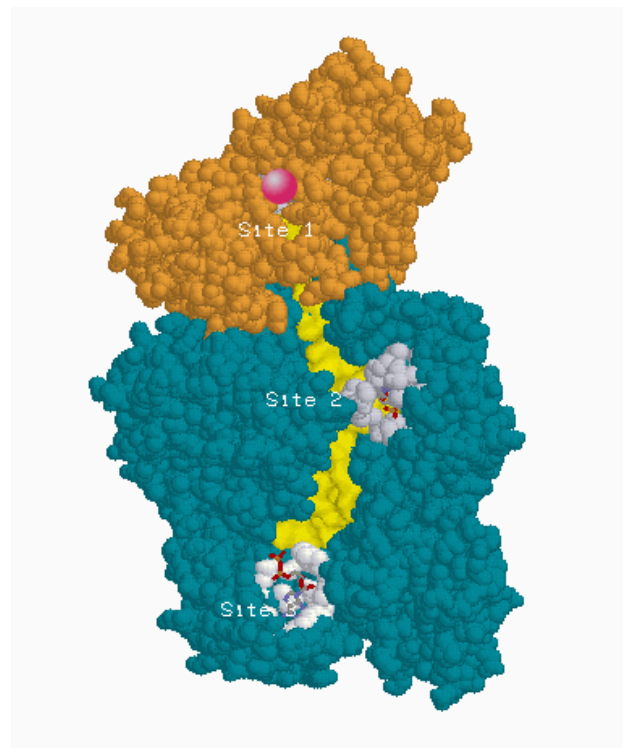
## CPS II

**Channeling:** three active sites connected by a narrow 96 Å long tunnel

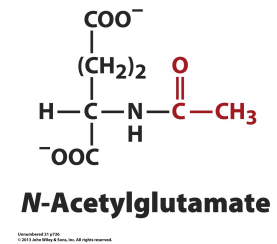
NH<sub>3</sub> travels ~45 Å to react with carboxyphosphate and resulting carbamate travels 35 Å to reach carbamoyl phosphate synthesis site

Dramatically increased efficiency of the overall reaction!

Critical for CPS as the intermediates are short-lived (<100 ms)



## Regulation of Urea Cycle



- CPS: key regulation point
  - Allosterically regulated by N-acetylglutamate
  - Formed by glutamate and acetyl-CoA
  - Amino acid breakdown increases glutamate concentration and subsequently activate CPS
- Other enzymes of urea cycle are all regulated by the substrate concentration
- Hyperammonemia:
  - Urea cycle enzyme deficiency
  - Mental retardation and lethargy
- Ammonia toxicity: brain and central nerve system

## Quick Summary

- Summarize the steps of the urea cycle. How do the amino groups of amino acids enter the cycle?
- What is rate limiting step?
- Where are three ATPs used?
- What are the advantages of channeling?
- How is the rate of amino acid deamination linked to the rate of the urea cycle?



The energy consumed in the urea cycle can be recovered from metabolism associated with this cycle.

- A. True
- B. False
- C. Can't be determined

Open discussion: why the mess?

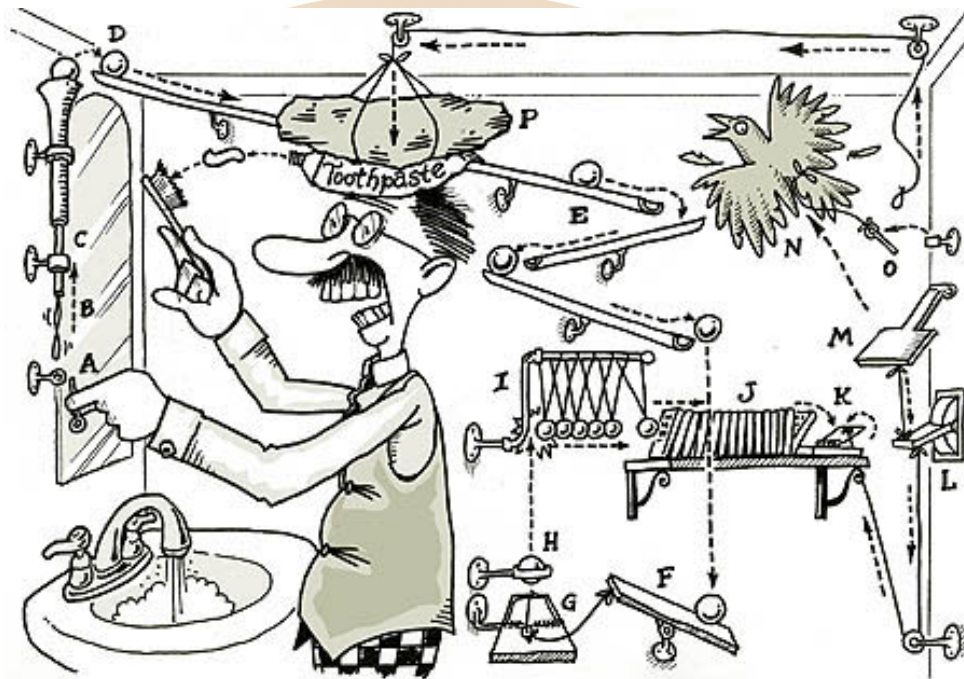


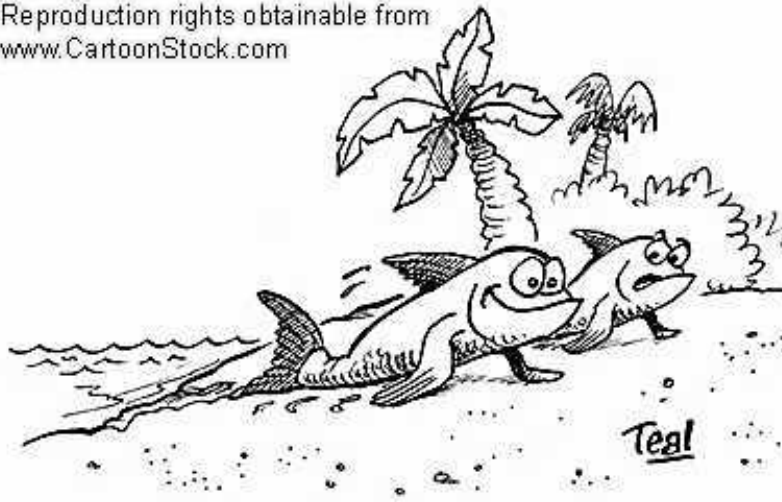
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$\text{NH}_4^+$  not a problem for our aquatic ancestors, until ...

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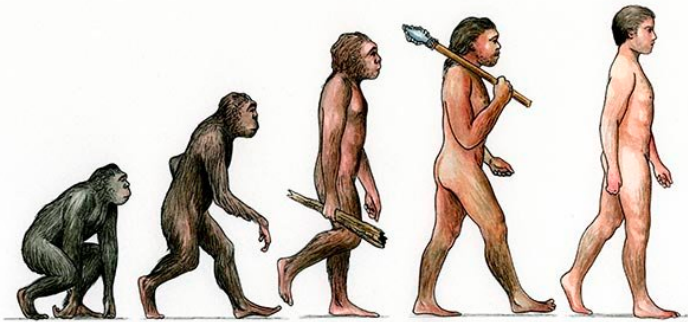
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"Ok, now what?"

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From hiccups to wisdom teeth, our own bodies are worse off than most because of the differences between the wilderness in which we evolved and the modern world in which we live. (The Print Collector / Corbis)

## The Top Ten Daily Consequences of Having Evolved

From hiccups to wisdom teeth, the evolution of man has left behind some glaring, yet innately human, imperfections

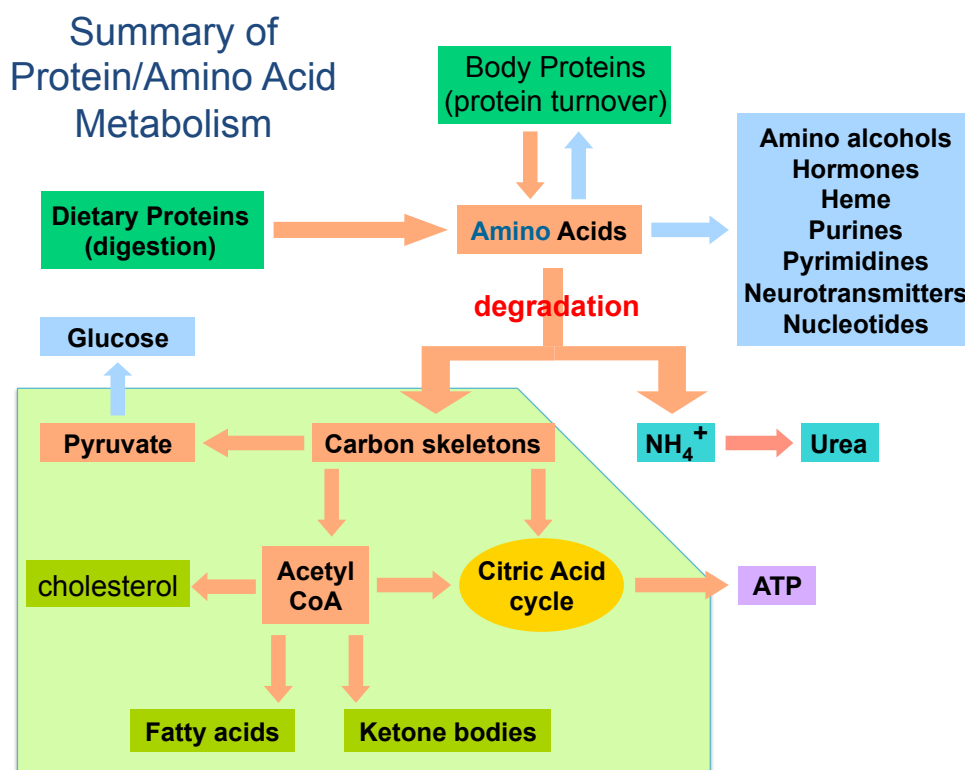
By **Rob Dunn**  
[SMITHSONIANMAG.COM](http://SMITHSONIANMAG.COM)  
NOVEMBER 19, 2010

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## BREAKDOWN OF AMINO ACIDS

### Key Concepts 21.4

- Alanine, cysteine, glycine, serine, and threonine are broken down to **pyruvate**.
- Asparagine and aspartate are broken down to **oxaloacetate**.
- **$\alpha$ -Ketoglutarate** is produced by the degradation of arginine, glutamate, glutamine, histidine, and proline.
- Isoleucine, methionine, threonine, and valine are converted to **succinyl-CoA**.
- Leucine and lysine degradation yields acetyl-CoA and **acetoacetate**.
- Tryptophan is degraded to **acetoacetate**.
- Phenylalanine and tyrosine yield **fumarate** and **acetoacetate**.



# Summary of Amino Acid Degradation

- 10-15% of energy usage
- 7 metabolic intermediates
- Grouping
  - 2 aa only ketogenic: Lys, Leu
  - 13 aa only\* glucogenic: Gly, Ser, Val, His, Arg, Cys, Pro, Ala, Glu, Gln, Asp, Asn, Met
  - 5 aa both glucogenic and ketogenic: ILE, Thr, Phe, Tyr, Trp

\* all AA can be eventually used for generating acetyl-CoA and thus fatty acids

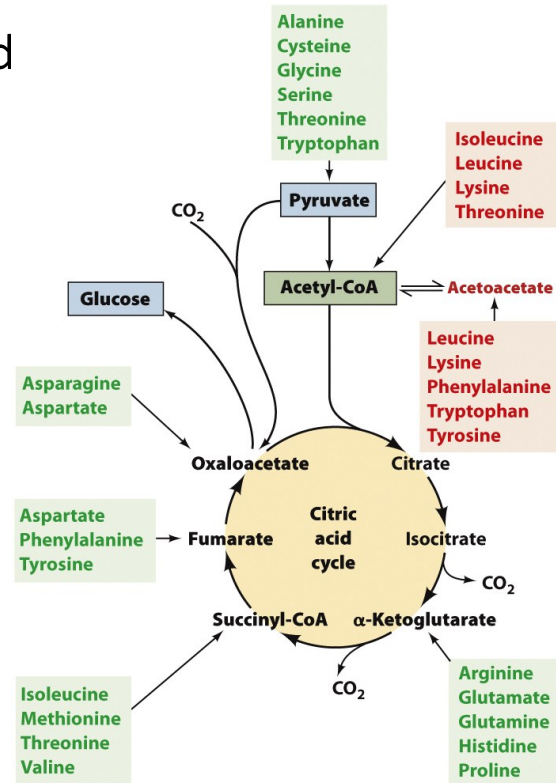


Figure 21-13  
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## 1). A, C, G, S & T to Pyruvate

- A: directly to pyruvate (transamination)
- S: dehydration (similar to deamination)
  - Serine-Threonine Dehydratase
- C: multiple routes for removing –SH, released in salts + NH<sub>3</sub>
- G: first converted to serine
  - Serine Hydroxymethyltransferase
  - Co-enzyme THF
- T: acetyl-CoA + glycine

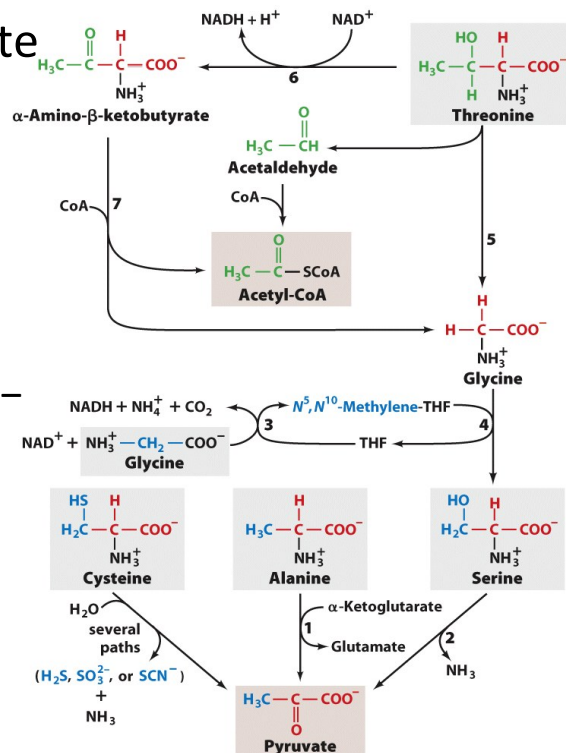
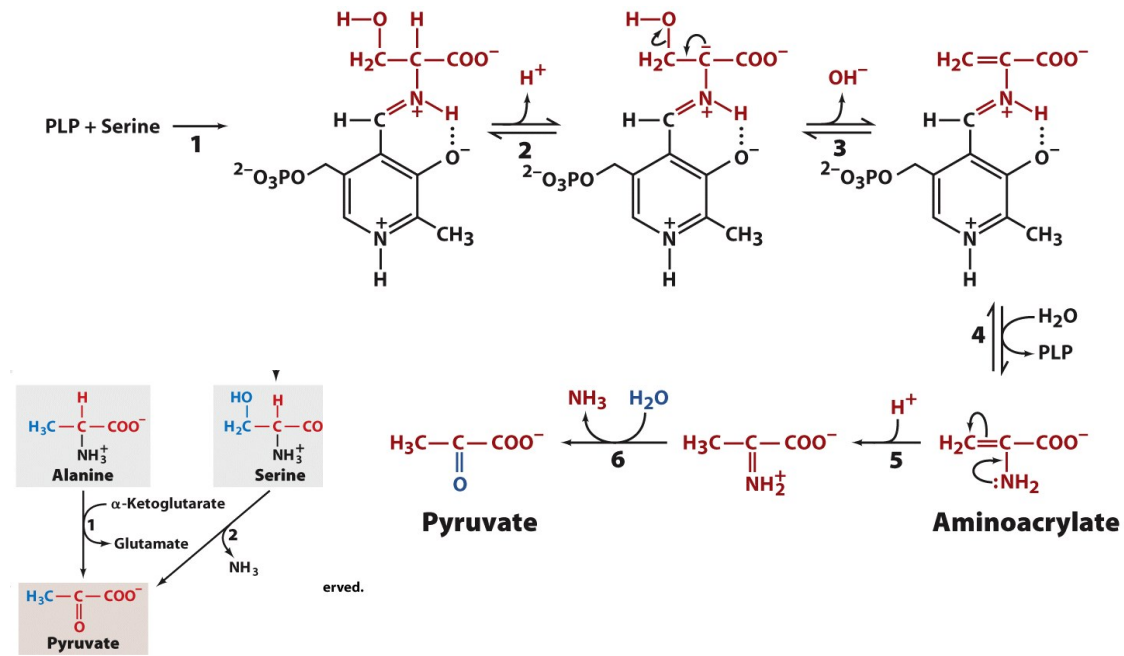


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# Serine-Threonine Dehydratase Reaction



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## Serine-Threonine Dehydratase Reaction

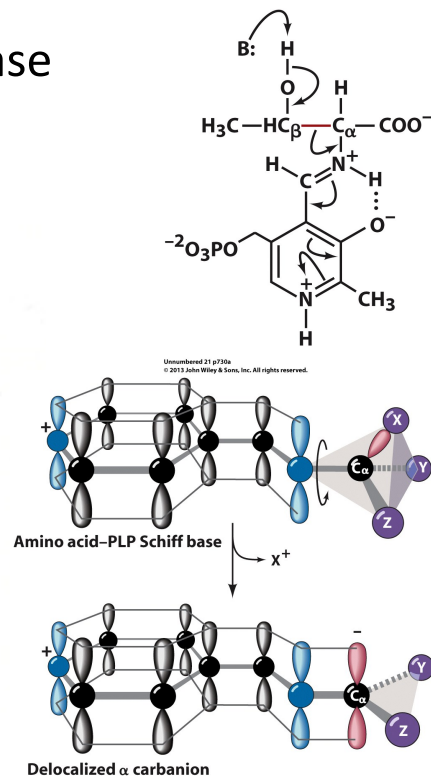
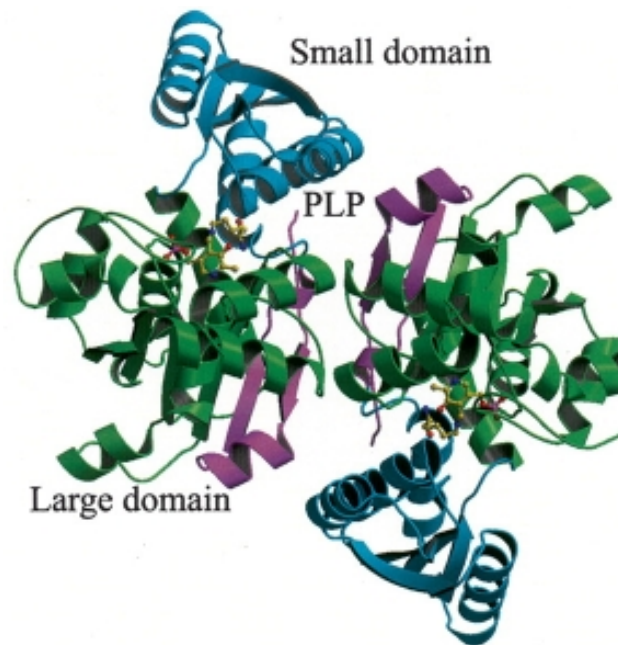


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# Serine Hydroxymethyltransferase

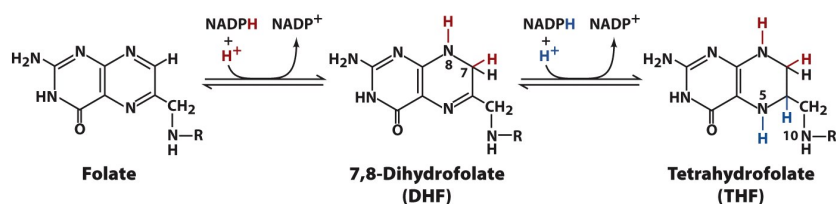
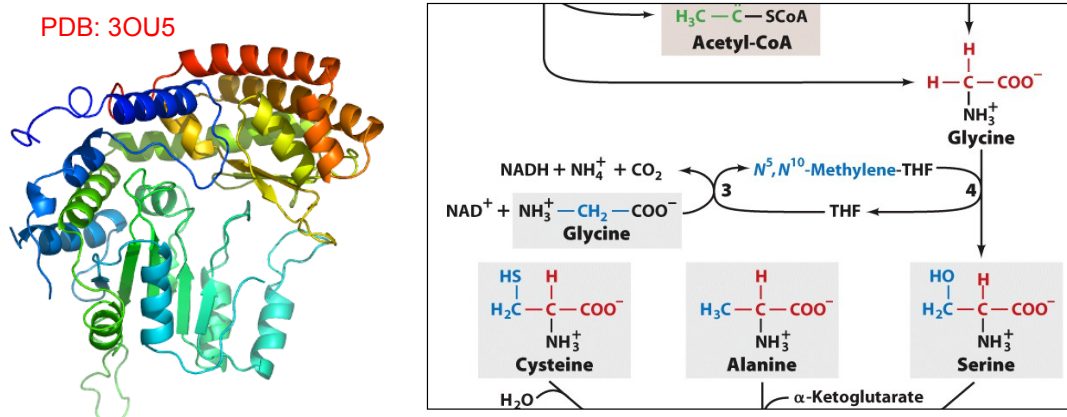
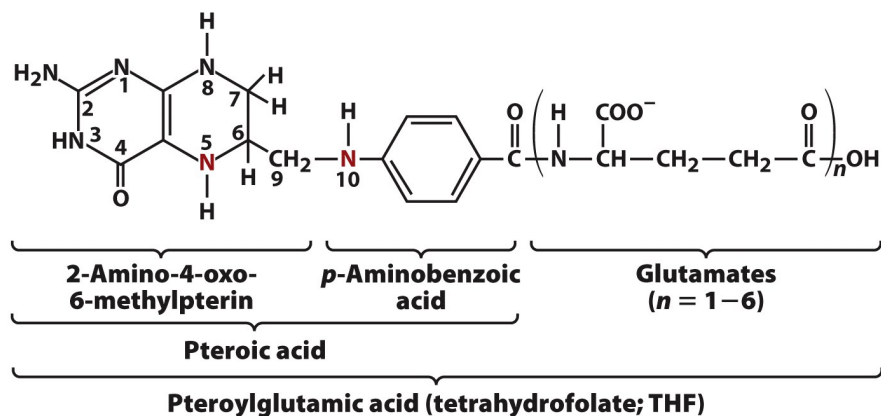


Figure 21-19  
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## One-Carbon Carrier THF



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- Biosynthesis often involves addition of one carbon
- Poly glutamate track
- Carries C1 at either N5 or N10 position



## Various C1 Unit Carried by THF

**TABLE 21-2** Oxidation Levels of C<sub>1</sub> Groups Carried by THF

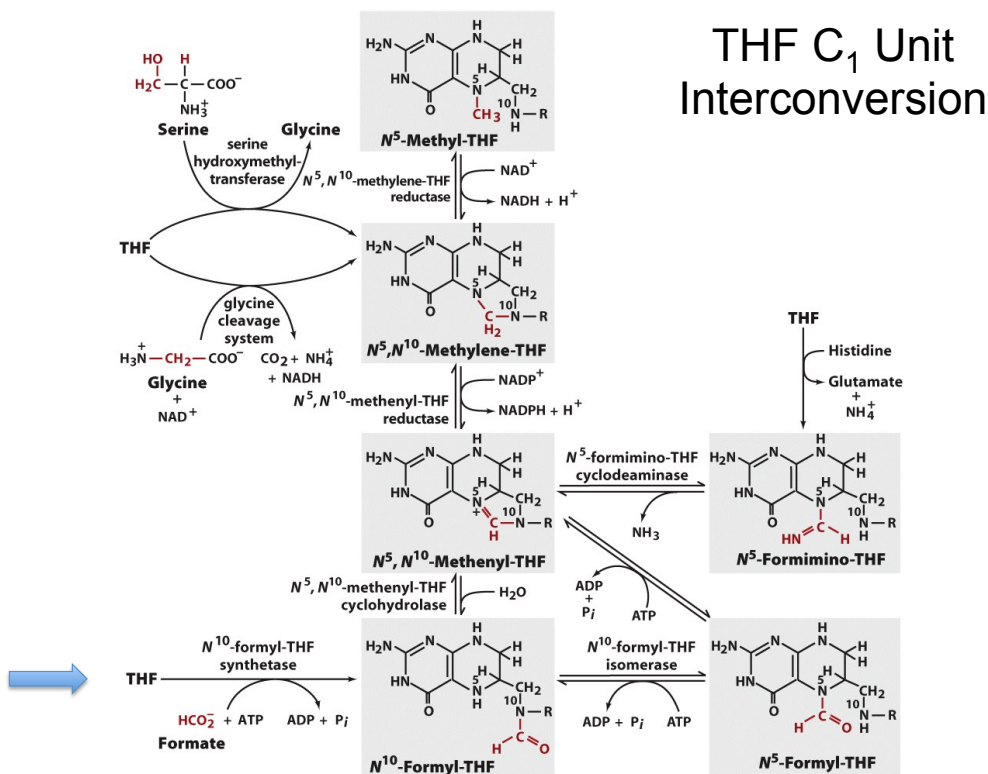
Oxidation Level	Groups Carried	THF Derivative(s)
Methanol	Methyl (— CH <sub>3</sub> )	<i>N</i> <sup>5</sup> -Methyl-THF
Formaldehyde	Methylene (— CH <sub>2</sub> — )	<i>N</i> <sup>5</sup> , <i>N</i> <sup>10</sup> -Methylene-THF
Formate	Formyl (— CH=O)	<i>N</i> <sup>5</sup> -Formyl-THF, <i>N</i> <sup>10</sup> -formyl-THF
	Formimino (— CH=NH)	<i>N</i> <sup>5</sup> -Formimino-THF
	Methenyl (— CH=)	<i>N</i> <sup>5</sup> , <i>N</i> <sup>10</sup> -Methenyl-THF

**Table 21-2**  
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- C1 units carried by THF can interconvert
- THF analogs can work antibiotics to inhibit bacteria synthesis of THF, thereby blocking THF-requiring reactions (mammals do not synthesize folic acids and thus unaffected).

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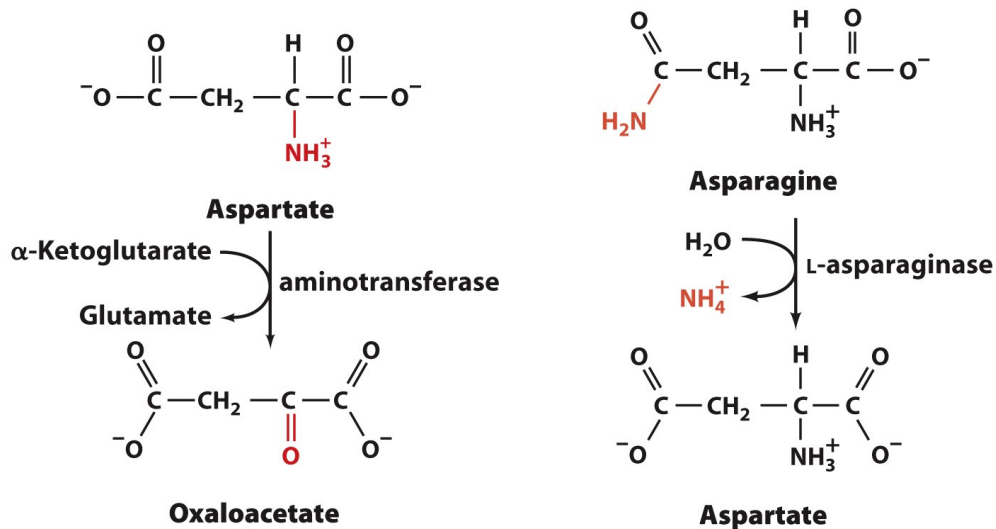


**Figure 21-20**  
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## 2). D & N to oxaloacetate

- Transamination; N->D via hydrolysis



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## 3). R, E, Q, H & P to $\alpha$ -Ketoglutarate

All of them are converted to **Glu** before transamination to produce  **$\alpha$ -Ketoglutarate**

Involve either transamination or hydrolysis reactions

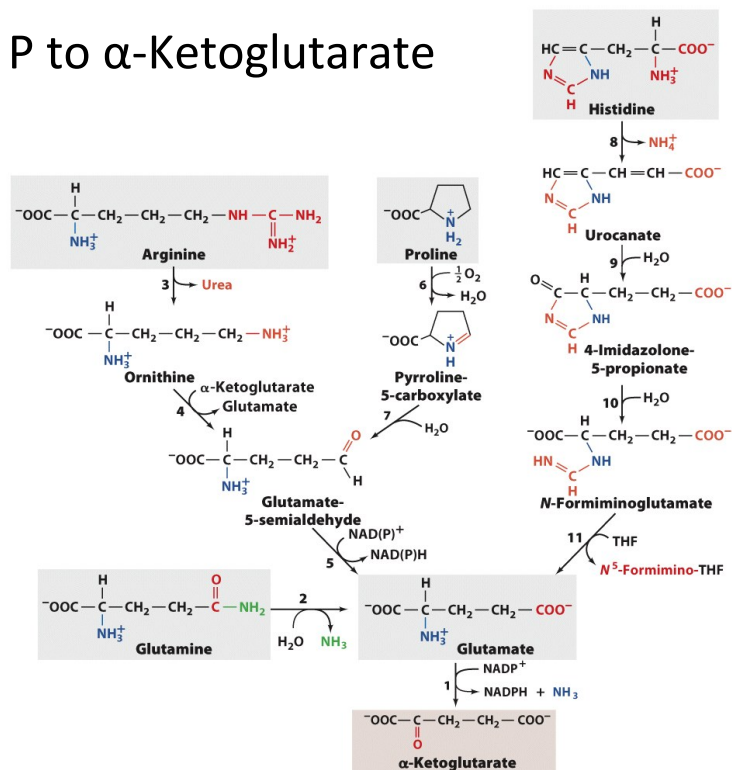


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## 4). M/T degradation

Complex pathways to produce **propionyl-CoA** (also from odd-chain fatty acid degradation), which is then converted to **succinyl-CoA**

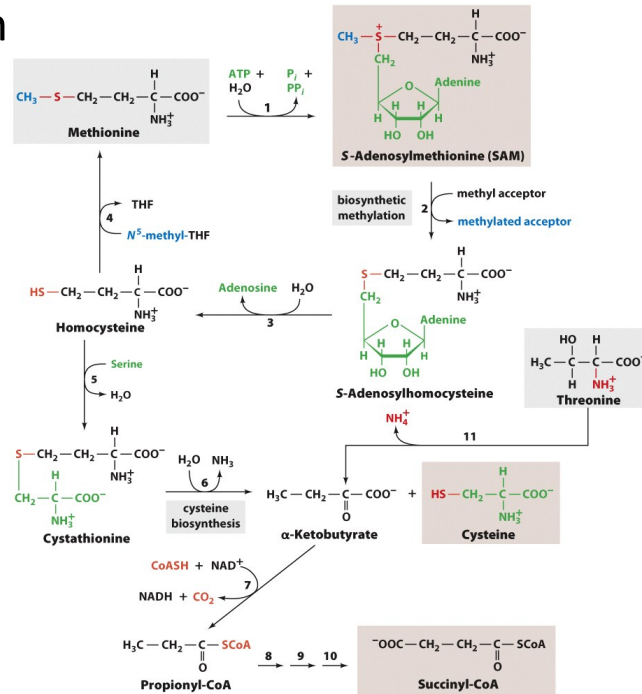


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## 5. Branched Amino Acid

- ILE, VAL and LEU
- Three main steps
  - Transamination
  - Oxidative decarboxylation
  - Dehydrogenation
- Products
  - Succinyl-CoA (ILE, VAL)
  - Acetyl-CoA (Leu, ILE)
  - Acetoacetate (Leu)

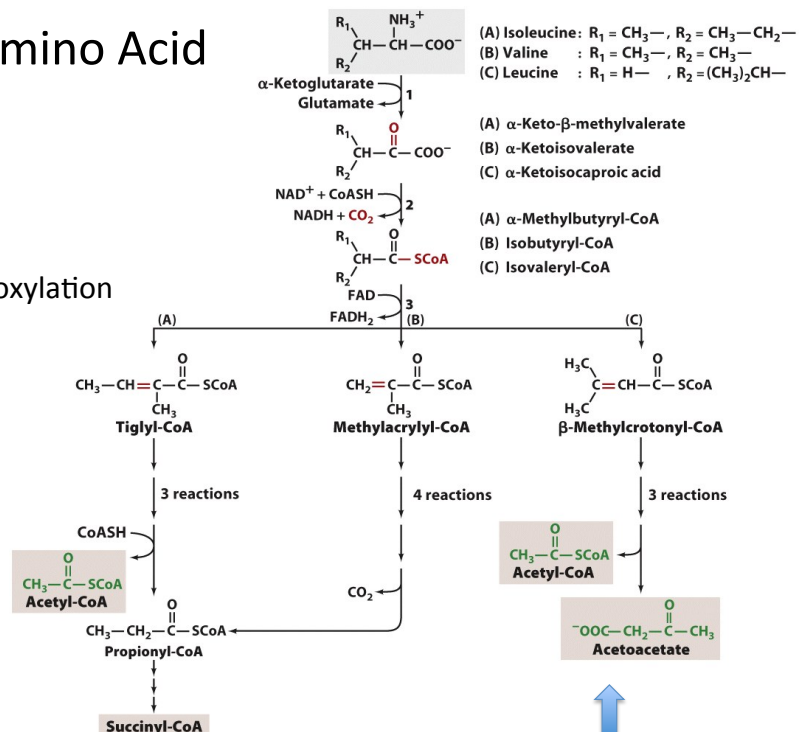


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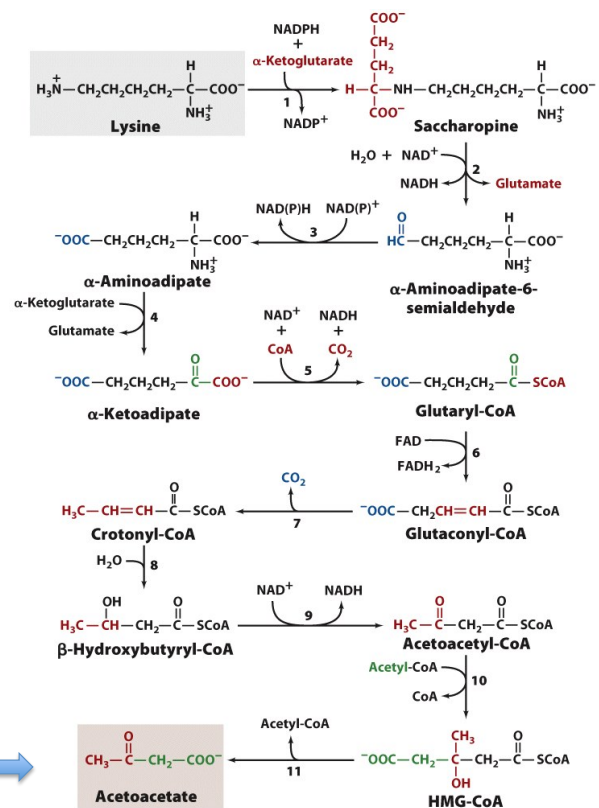
Leu is ketogenic only

68

## 6. Lys to Acetyl-CoA and Acetoacetate

- 2 CO<sub>2</sub> as by products
- Involves 11 enzymes!
- Three main types of reactions
  - Transamination
  - Oxidative decarboxylation
  - Dehydrogenation
- Consumes 1 NADPH but produces 4 NAD(P)H + FADH<sub>2</sub>

Lys is also ketogenic only →



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## 7. Trp to Ala and Acetoacetate

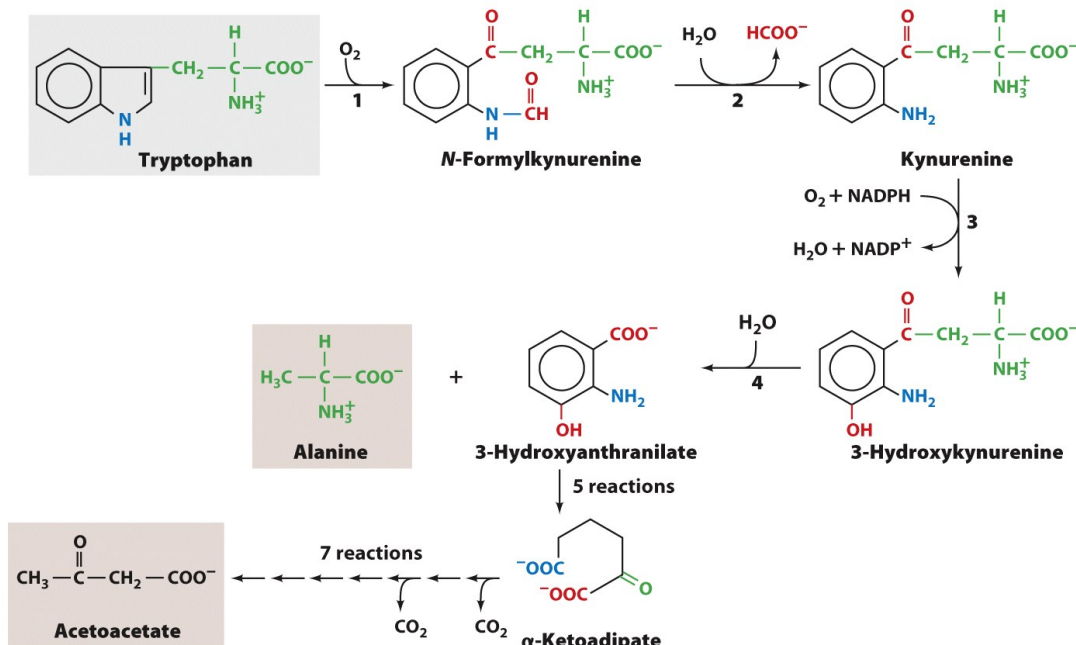


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## 8. Phe/Tyr to Fumarate and Acetoacetate

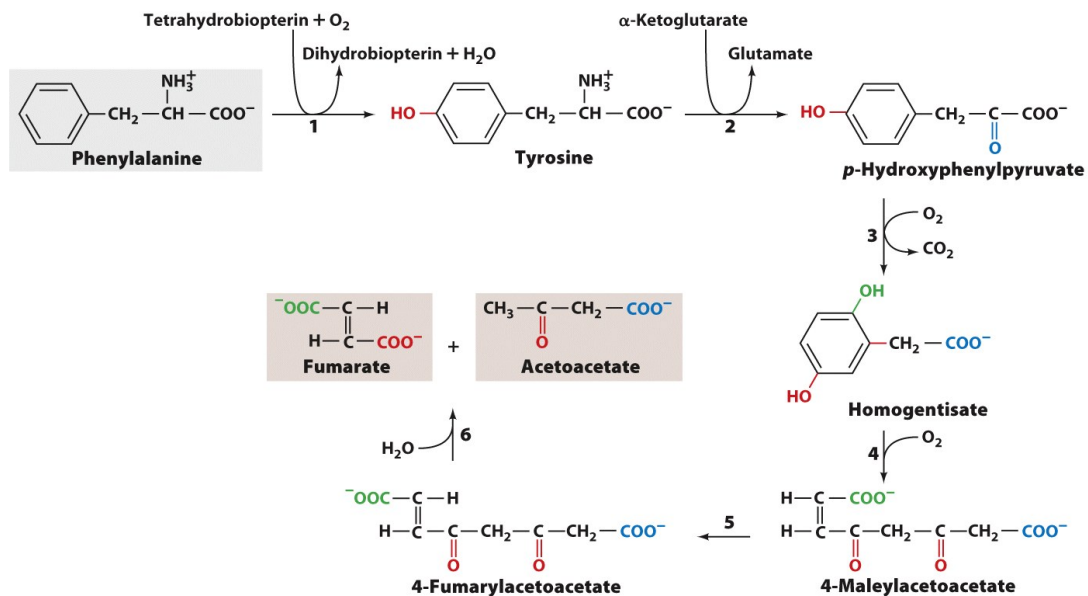


Figure 21-24  
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## Summary of Amino Acid Degradation

- 10-15% of energy usage
- 7 metabolic intermediates
- Grouping
  - 2 aa only ketogenic: Lys, Leu
  - 13 aa only\* glucogenic: Gly, Ser, Val, His, Arg, Cys, Pro, Ala, Glu, Gln, Asp, Asn, Met
  - 5 aa both glucogenic and ketogenic: ILE, Thr, Phe, Tyr, Trp

\* all AA can be eventually used for generating acetyl-CoA and thus fatty acids

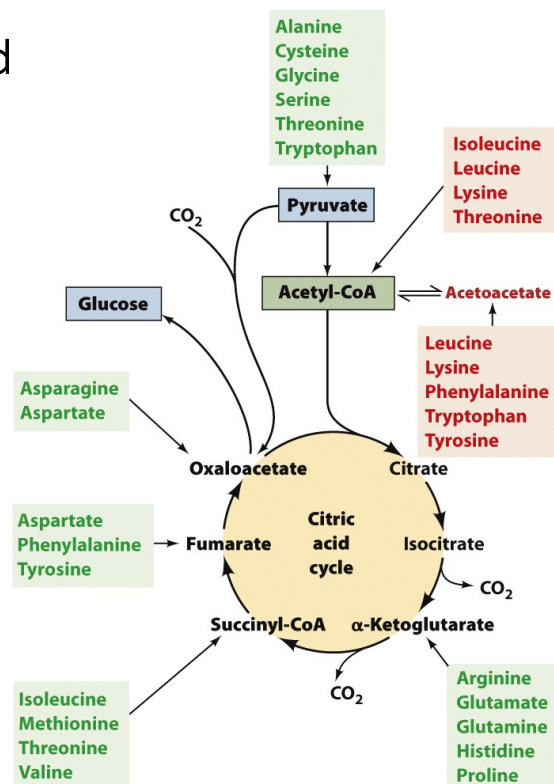


Figure 21-13  
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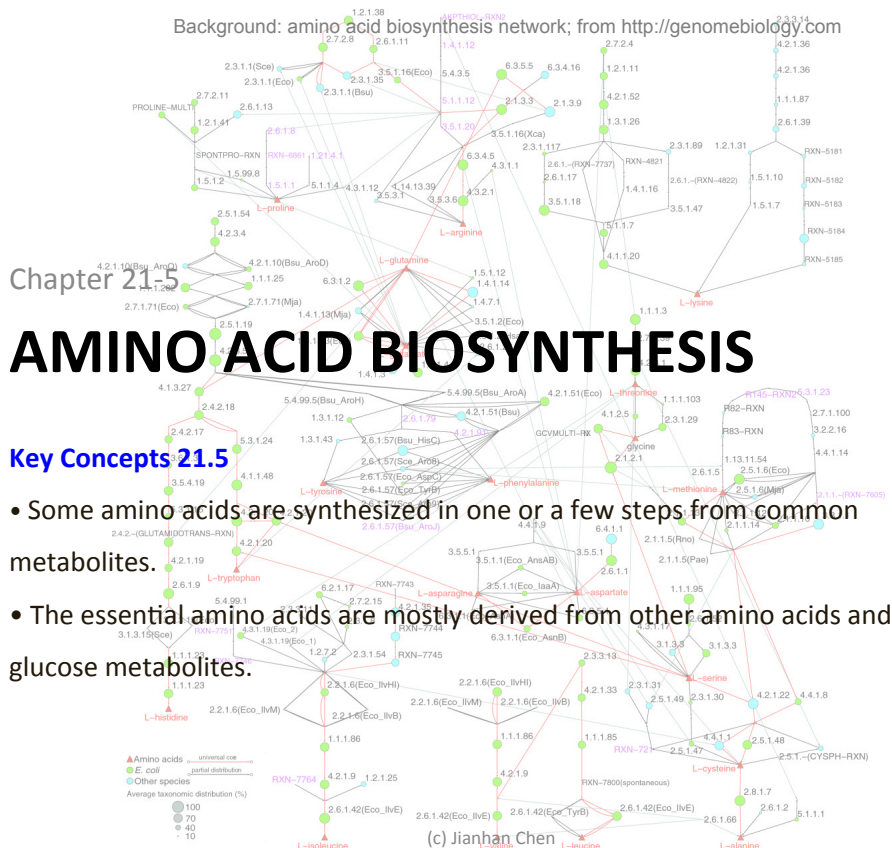
The carbon skeleton of amino acids may not be used to:

- A. Generate acetyl-CoA.
- B. Generate glucose.
- C. Generate urea.
- D. Generate ketone bodies.

Which of the following enzymes require ATP?

- A. Carbamoyl phosphate synthetase I
- B. Methionine synthase.
- C. Arginosuccinate synthetase.
- D. A and C.
- E. All require ATP.





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## Essential vs non-essential Amino Acids

**TABLE 21-3 Essential and Nonessential Amino Acids in Humans**

Essential	Nonessential
Arginine <sup>a</sup>	Alanine
Histidine	Asparagine
Isoleucine	Aspartate
Leucine	Cysteine
Lysine	Glutamate
Methionine	Glutamine
Phenylalanine	Glycine
Threonine	Proline
Tryptophan	Serine
Valine	Tyrosine

<sup>a</sup>Although mammals synthesize arginine, they cleave most of it to form urea (Section 21-3A).

Table 21-3  
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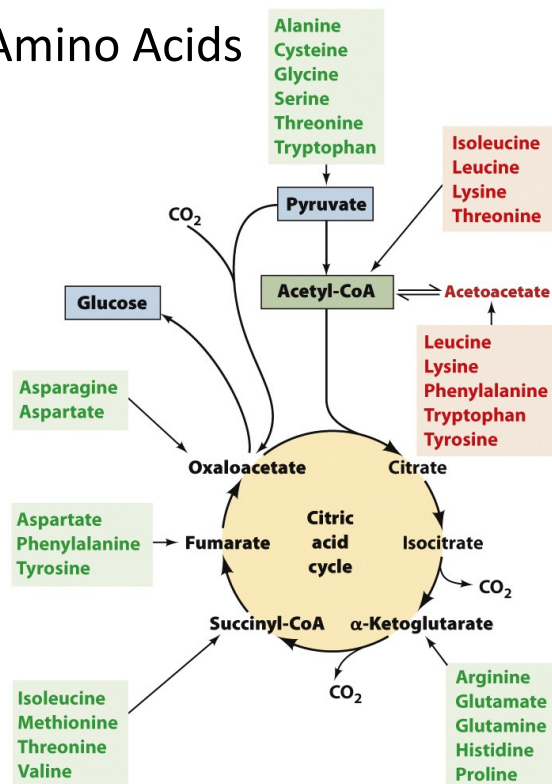


Figure 21-13  
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# 1. A, D, E, N, & Q Synthesis

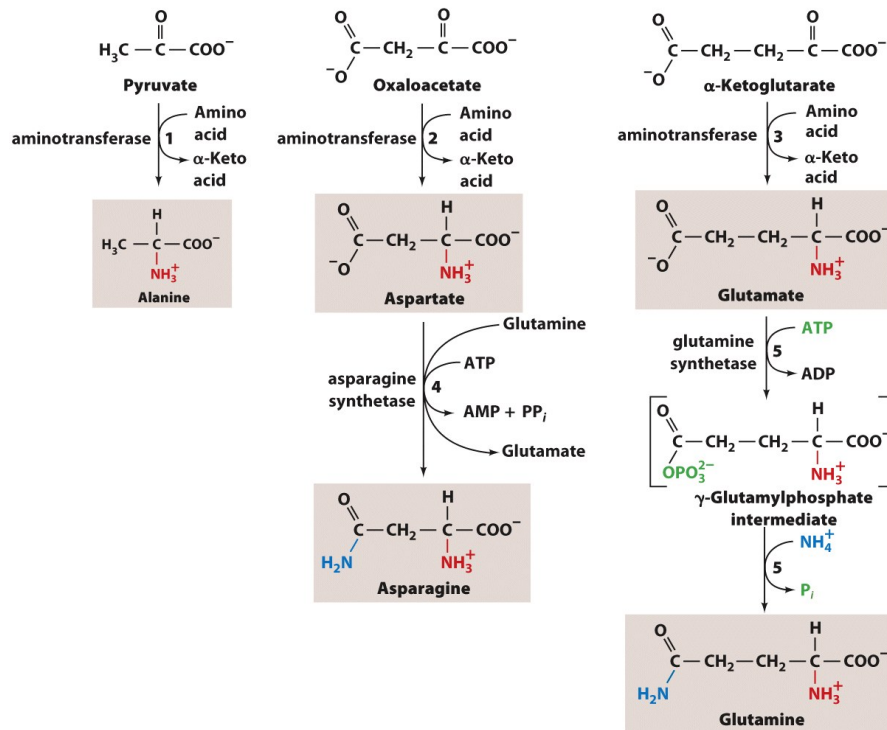
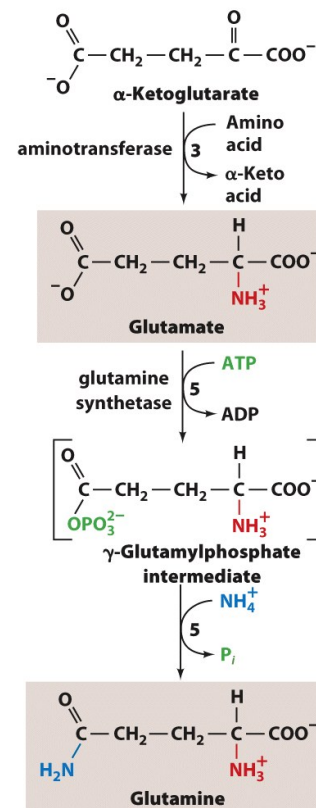


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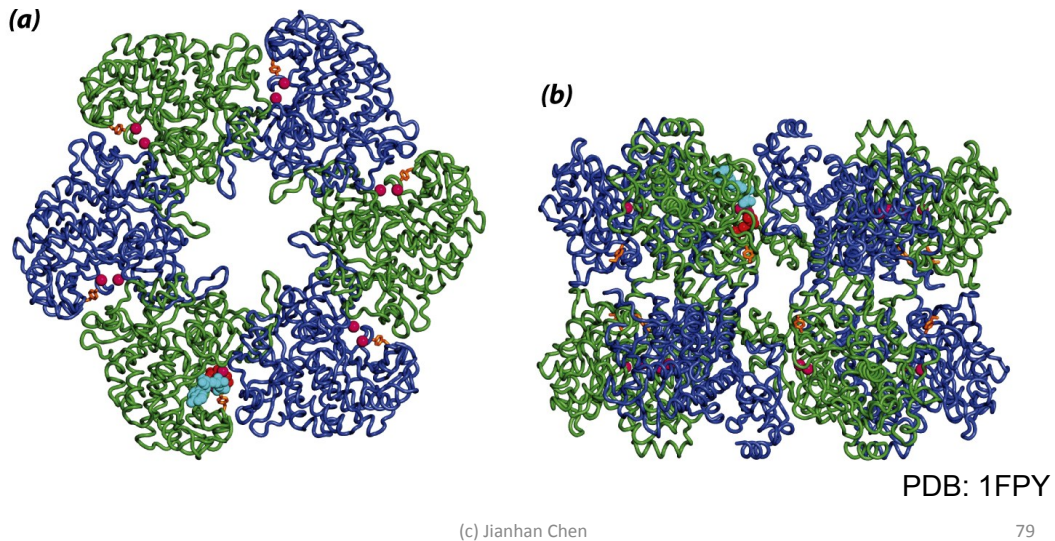
## Glutamine Synthetase

- A central control point for nitrogen metabolism
- Temporary ammonia storage
- Activated by  $\alpha$ -Ketoglutarate (product of deamination)
- Further regulated by several allosteric regulators
  - Either products of pathways leading from Gln/Glu
  - Ala/Ser/Gly: indicators of N level in cell
- 12-mer enzyme complex



# Glutamine Synthetase

- Key features: 12-mer; two  $\text{Mn}^{2+}$  per interface; Try 397 (adenylation site);
  - ADP (cyan) and phosphinathricin (red): competitive inhibitors



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## Adenylylation

- Cumulative inhibition of glutamine synthetase
- Complex cascade catalyzed by Adenylyltransferase and  $\text{P}_{\text{II}}$ .
- Reversible
- $\text{P}_{\text{II}}$  in turns regulated by uridylylation (for deadenylation)
- Uridylyltransferase activated by  $\alpha$ -Ketoglutarate and ATP; inhibited by glutamine and  $\text{P}_{\text{i}}$ .

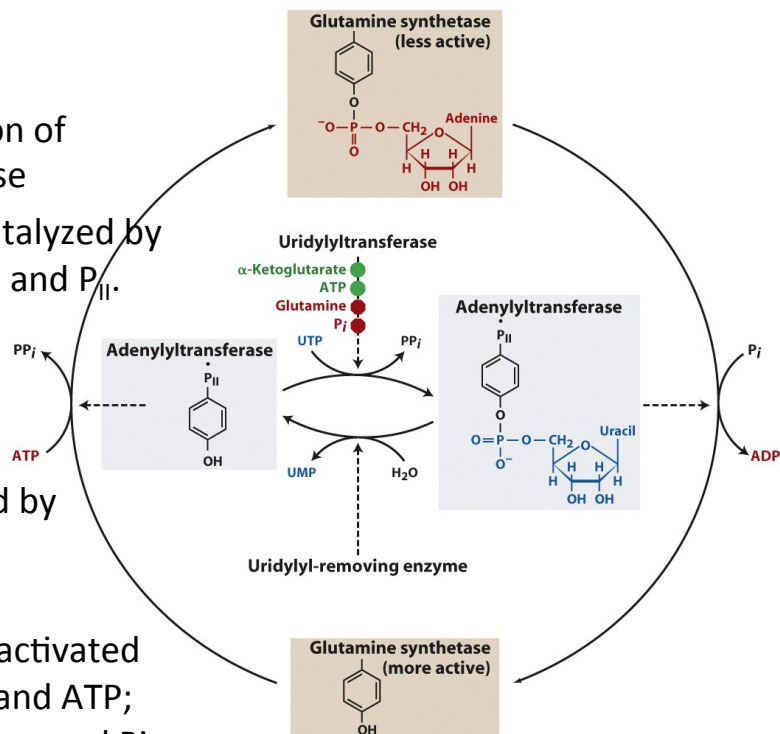


Figure 21-29  
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## 2. Biosynthesis of Glutamate Family (Pro, Arg)

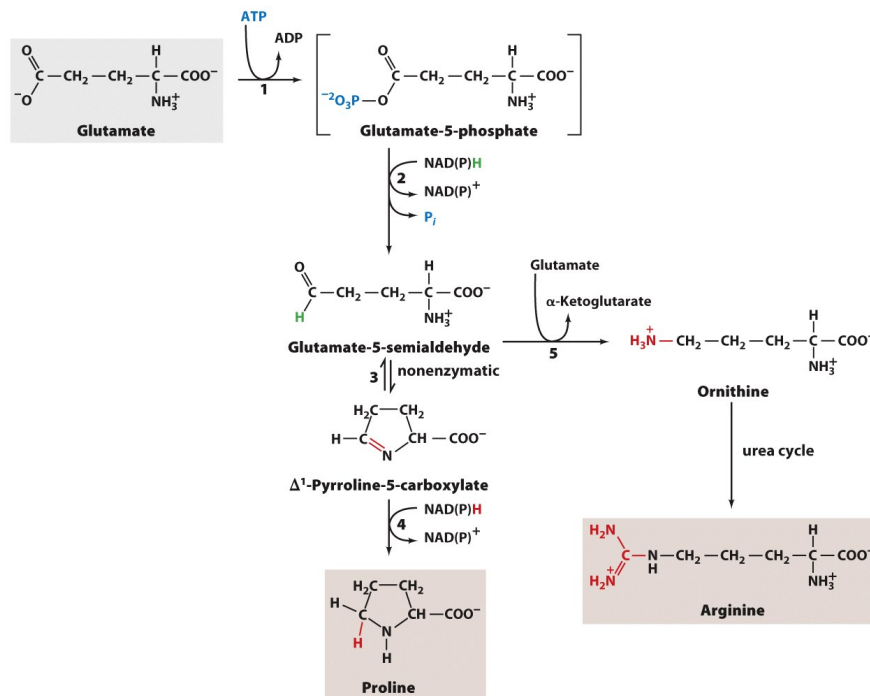
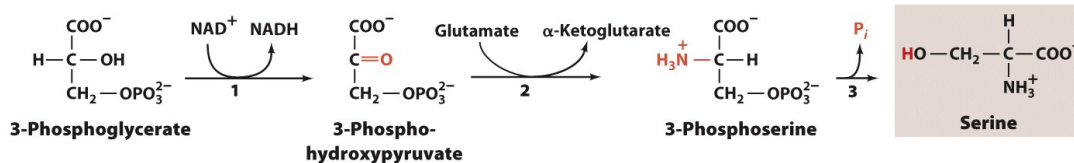


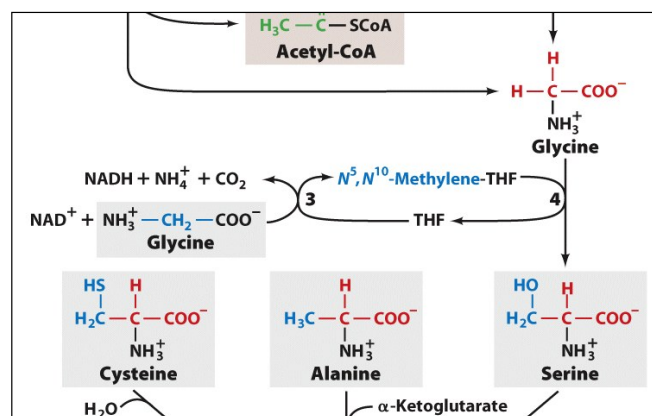
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## 3. Ser, Cys & Gly: from 3-Phosphoglycerate



Two routes for serine to glycine:



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## Serine to cysteine:

Requires methionine  
(essential AA)

Reactions 5 & 6:  
"trans-thiol reaction"

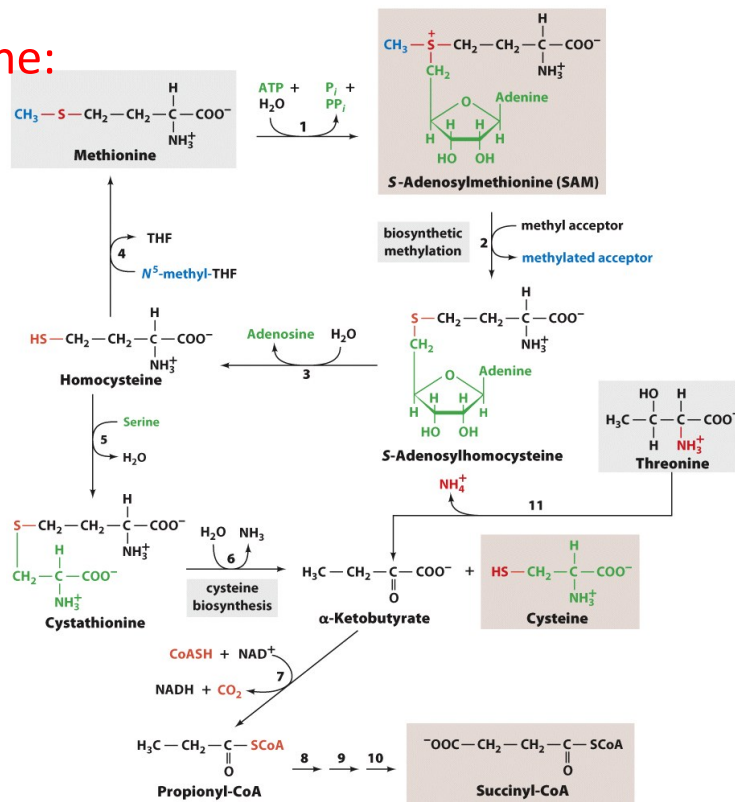


Figure 21-18 (c) Jianhan Chen  
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Which of the following is an essential amino acids in humans?

- A. Alanine
- B. Asparagine
- C. Aspartate
- D. Arginine



## Essential Amino Acids Biosynthesis

- In plants and microorganisms
- Typically more steps

**TABLE 21-3 Essential and Nonessential Amino Acids in Humans**

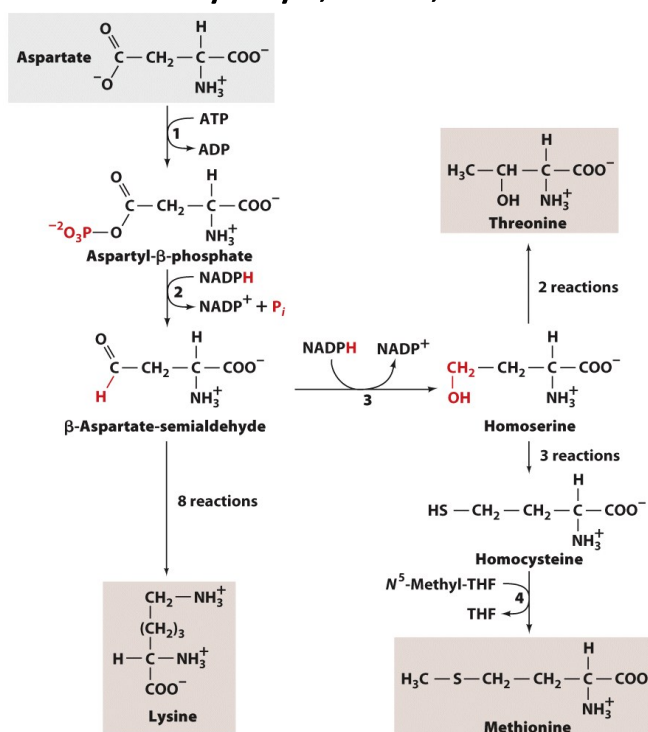
Essential	Nonessential
Arginine <sup>a</sup>	Alanine
Histidine	Asparagine
Isoleucine	Aspartate
Leucine	Cysteine
Lysine	Glutamate
Methionine	Glutamine
Phenylalanine	Glycine
Threonine	Proline
Tryptophan	Serine
Valine	Tyrosine

<sup>a</sup>Although mammals synthesize arginine, they cleave most of it to form urea (Section 21-3A).

Table 21-3  
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## 1. Aspartate Family: Lys, Met, Thr



**Figure 21-32**  
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## 2. Pyruvate Family: Leu, ILE, Val

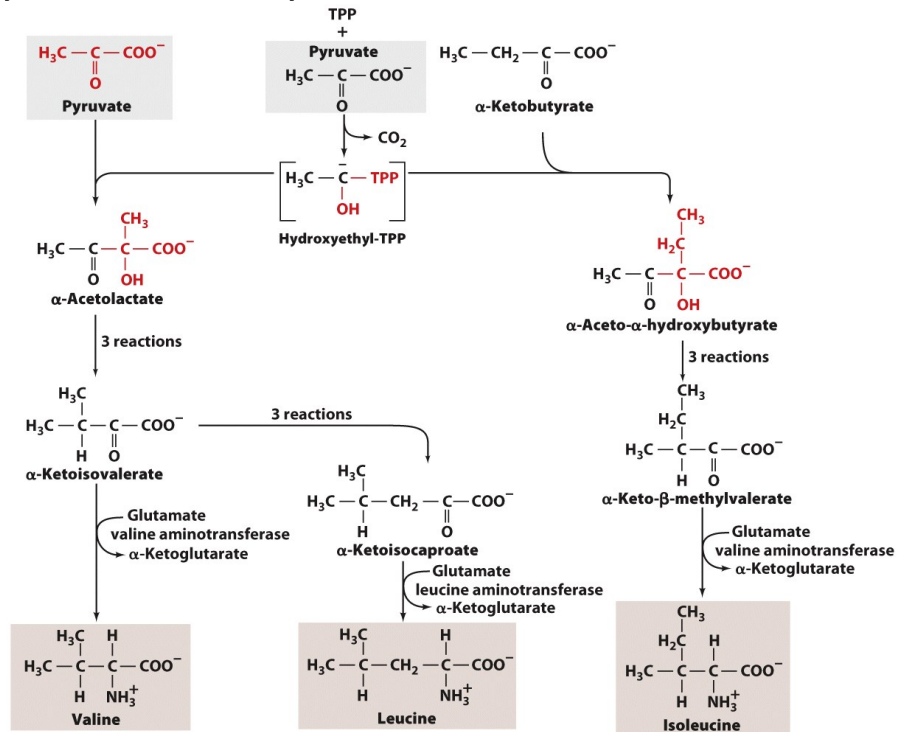


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## 3. Phe, Trp, & Tyr: from glucose derivatives

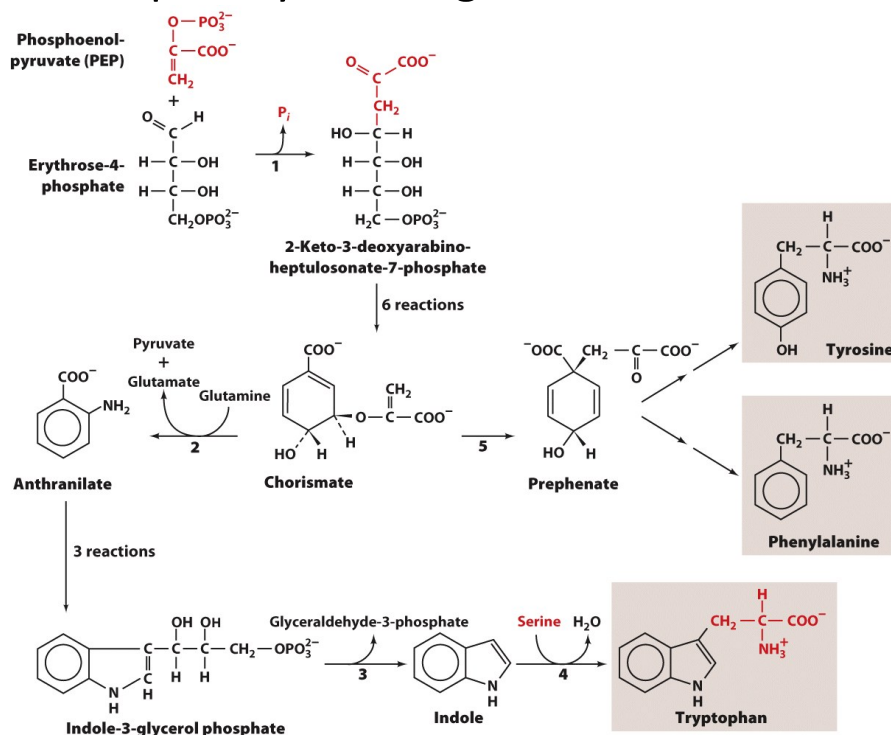


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# Tryptophan Synthase

Solvent filled wide channel

Regulation of entrance/ exit of the channel

Allosteric regulation that senses the chemical reactions

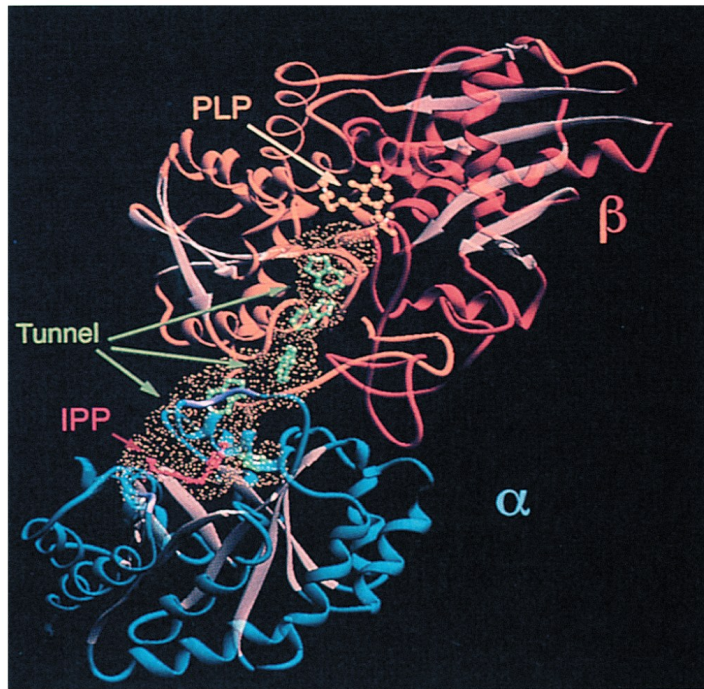


Figure 21-35  
Courtesy of Craig Hyde, Edith Miles, and David Davies, NIH

## 4. His: involves intermediates form purine synthesis (evidence of an RNA world?)

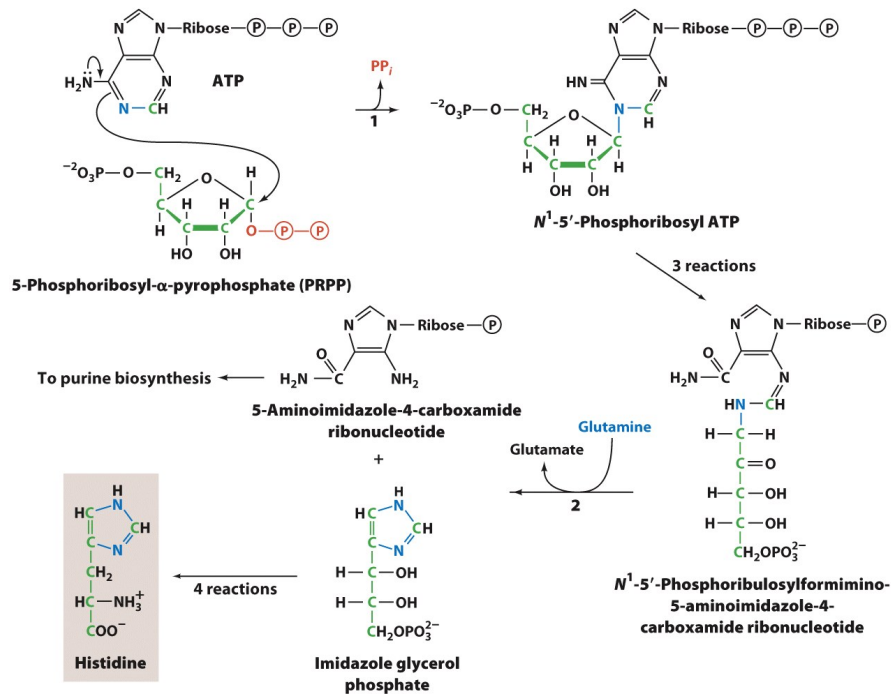


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## Summary

- What are the metabolic precursors of the nonessential amino acids (4 of them)?
- Summarize the types of reactions required to synthesize the nonessential amino acids.
- List the compounds that are used to synthesize the essential amino acids in plants and microorganisms.
- Compare the catabolic and anabolic pathways for one or more of the amino acids. In which pathways do oxidation reactions or reduction reactions predominate?

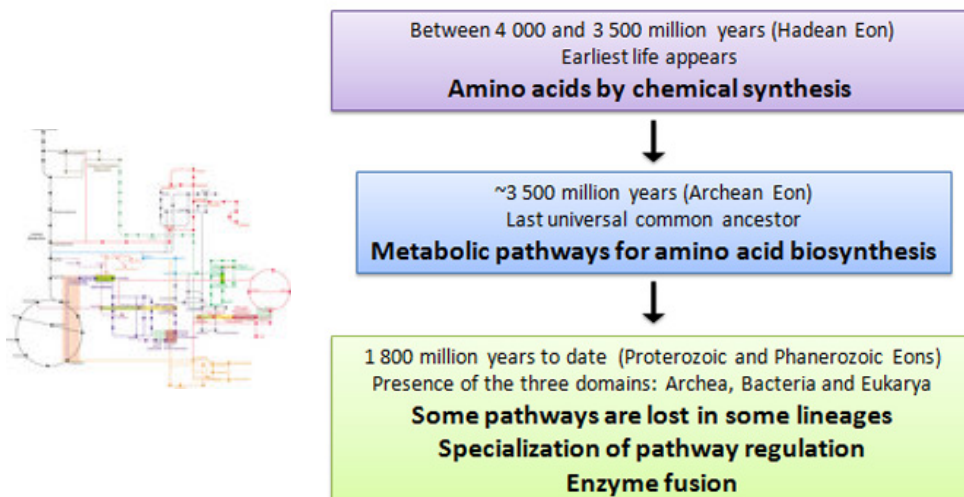
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## Optional Reading Assignment

- **An Evolutionary Perspective on Amino Acids**

<http://www.nature.com/scitable/topicpage/an-evolutionary-perspective-on-amino-acids-14568445>



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# OTHER PRODUCTS OF AMINO ACID METABOLISM

## Key Concepts 21.5

- **Heme** is synthesized from glycine and succinyl-CoA and is degraded to a variety of colored compounds for excretion.
- The synthesis of **bioactive amines** begins with amino acid decarboxylation.
- Arginine gives rise to the hormonally active gas **nitric oxide**.

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## 1. HEME: from glycine and Succinyl-CoA

- All C/N from Gly & acetate
- Mitochondria + cytosol
- Liver and Erythroid cells: ~85% of heme
- Several  $\text{NH}_4$  and  $\text{CO}_2$  produced
- Acute lead poisoning:
  - Inhibition of PBG synthetase
  - Accumulation of ALA in blood
- ALA synthetase: key regulation point

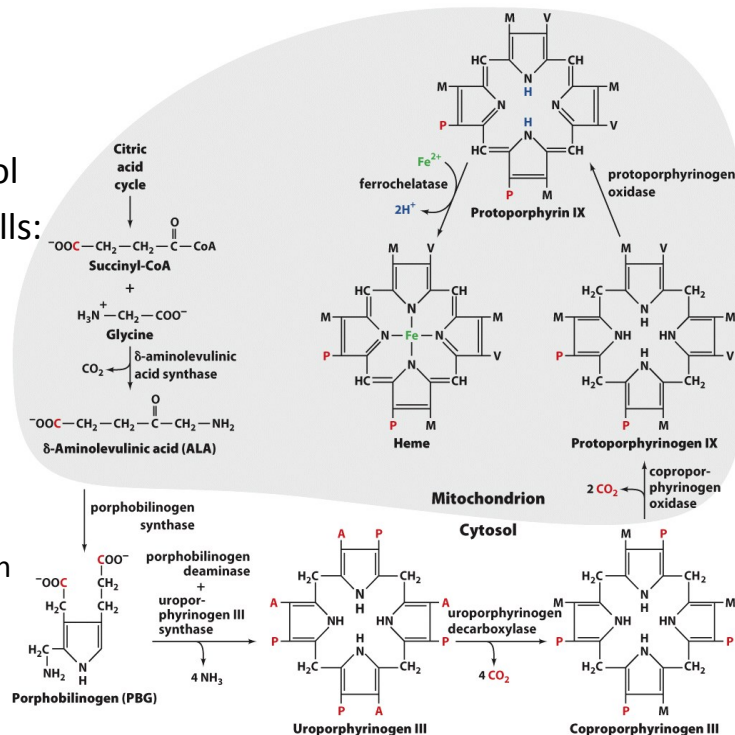


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# Heme Degradation

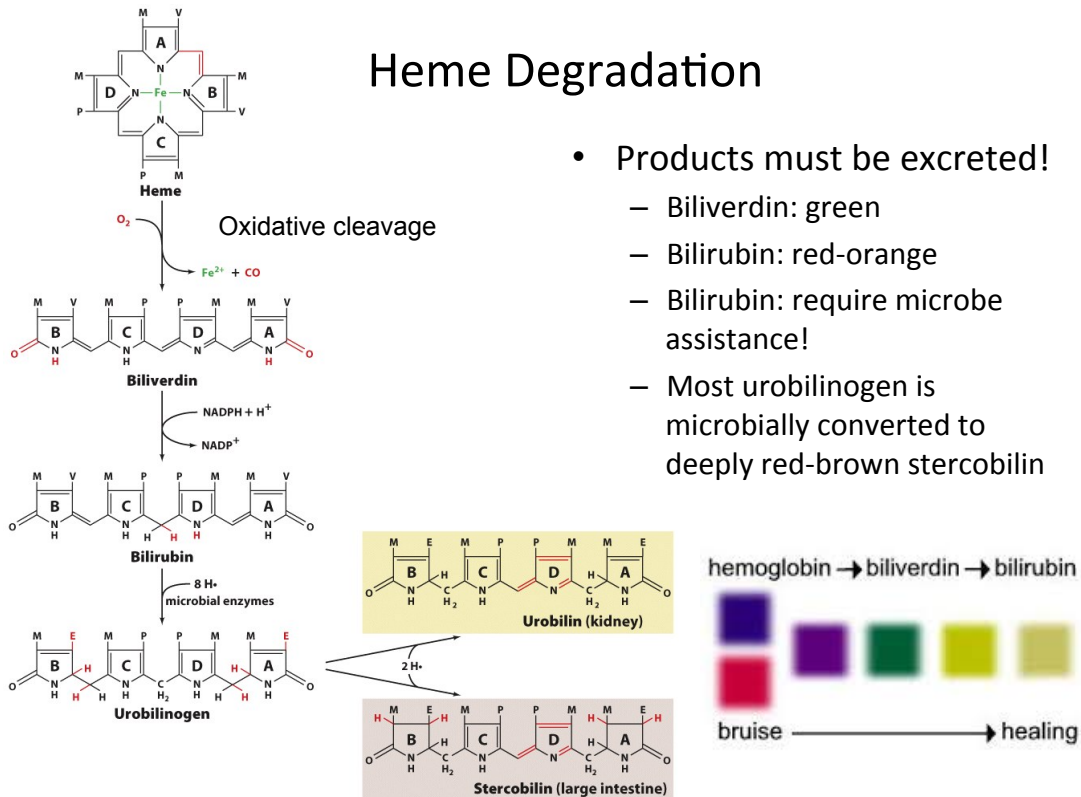


Figure 21-38  
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## (Infant) Jaundice

- Accumulation of bilirubin: under skin & whites of the eyes
- Liver dysfunction, bile duct obstruction: excessive red cell destruction
- Infant: lack an enzyme that breaks down bilirubin
  - Fluorescent bath: photochemically conversion to soluble isomers
  - Excessive high jaundice could damage brain once breaching BBB



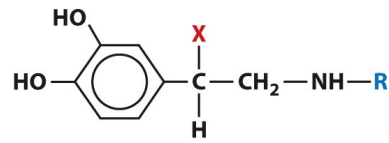
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## 2. Physiologically active amines

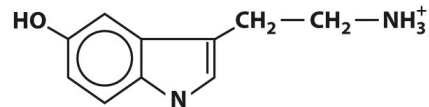
- Hormones & neurotransmitters
- Adrenaline: “fight and flight”
- Dopamine: Parkinson’s disease
  - Shaking palsy: loss of motor skills
  - >50 years old
  - Dopamine precursor supplement (L-DOPA)
- Histamine
  - Allergic responses
  - Anti-histamine drugs



**X = OH, R = CH<sub>3</sub> Epinephrine (adrenalin)**

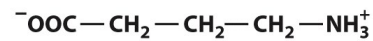
**X = OH, R = H Norepinephrine**

**X = H, R = H Dopamine**

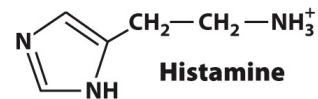


**Serotonin**

**(5-hydroxytryptamine)**



**γ-Aminobutyric acid (GABA)**

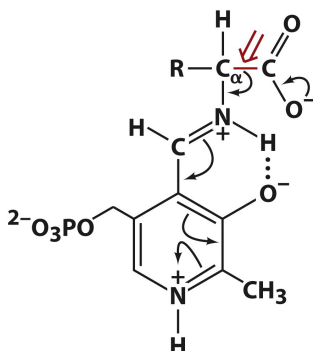


**Histamine**

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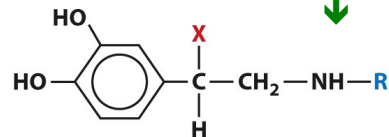
## PLP-dependent decarboxylation

- Biosynthesis of active amines involves decarboxylation of corresponding precursor amino acids
- PLP as a co-enzyme
  - Stabilize the intermediate carbanion upon CA-COO- cleavage



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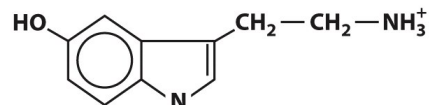
**Tyr**



**X = OH, R = CH<sub>3</sub> Epinephrine (adrenalin)**

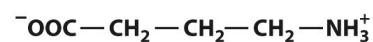
**X = OH, R = H Norepinephrine**

**X = H, R = H Dopamine**

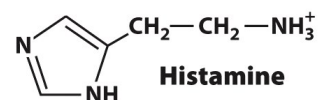


**Serotonin**

**(5-hydroxytryptamine)**



**γ-Aminobutyric acid (GABA)**



**Histamine**

**Trp →**

**Glu →**

**His →**

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## Sequential Synthesis of L-DOPA, Dopamine, Norepinephrine, & Epinephrine

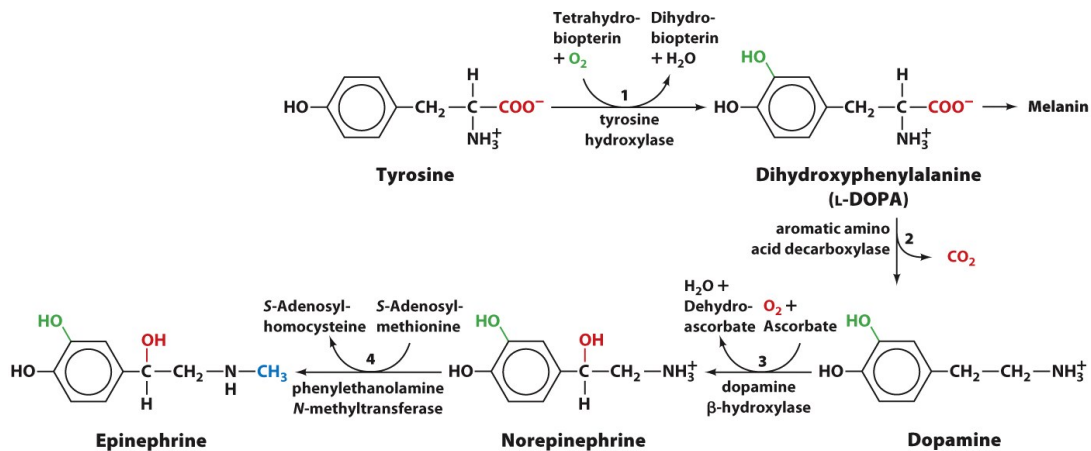


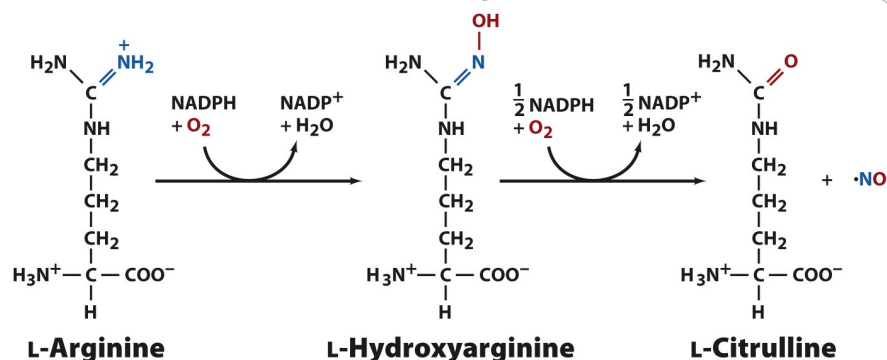
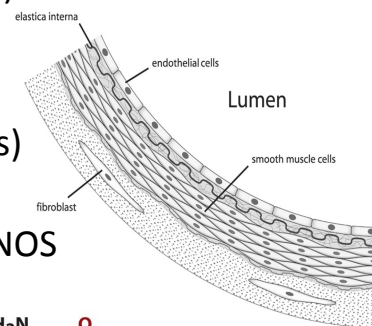
Figure 21-39  
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## 3. Nitric Oxide: derived from Arg

- Endothelium-derived relaxation factor (EDRF): relax the smooth muscle via stable nitric oxide (NO)
- Nitric oxide synthetase (NOS)
- NO has half-life ~5s: thus local (<1mm effects)
  - Made locally by endothelial cells
- Essential for brain function: highest level of NOS



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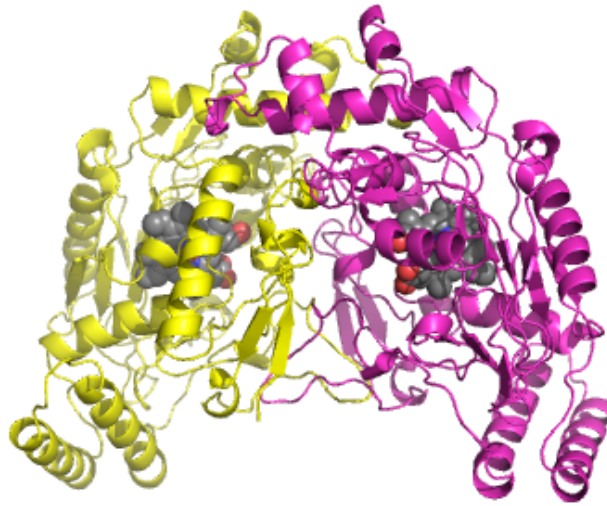
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**5 electron oxidation**

100

## Nitric oxide synthetase

- Homodimer
- Require several co-enzymes: FMN + FAD + BH4 + heme



PDB:1NSI

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## “Laughing Gas”



<http://www.nyhq.org/wtn/page.asp?PageID=WTN000228>

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## Quick Summary

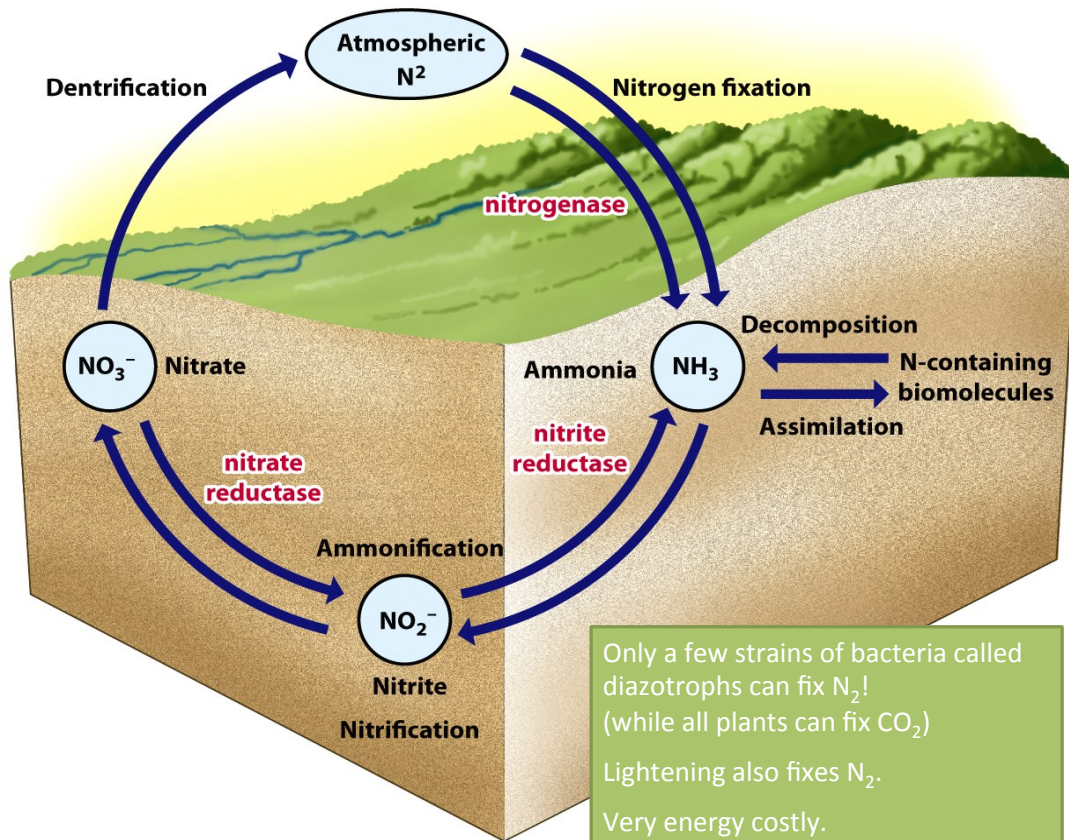
- What are the starting materials for heme biosynthesis?
- What are the end products of heme metabolism?
- Identify the amino acids that give rise to catecholamines, serotonin, GABA, and histamine.
- What are the substrates and products of the nitric oxide synthase reaction?
- How does NO differ from signaling molecules such as the catecholamines?

### Chapter 21-7

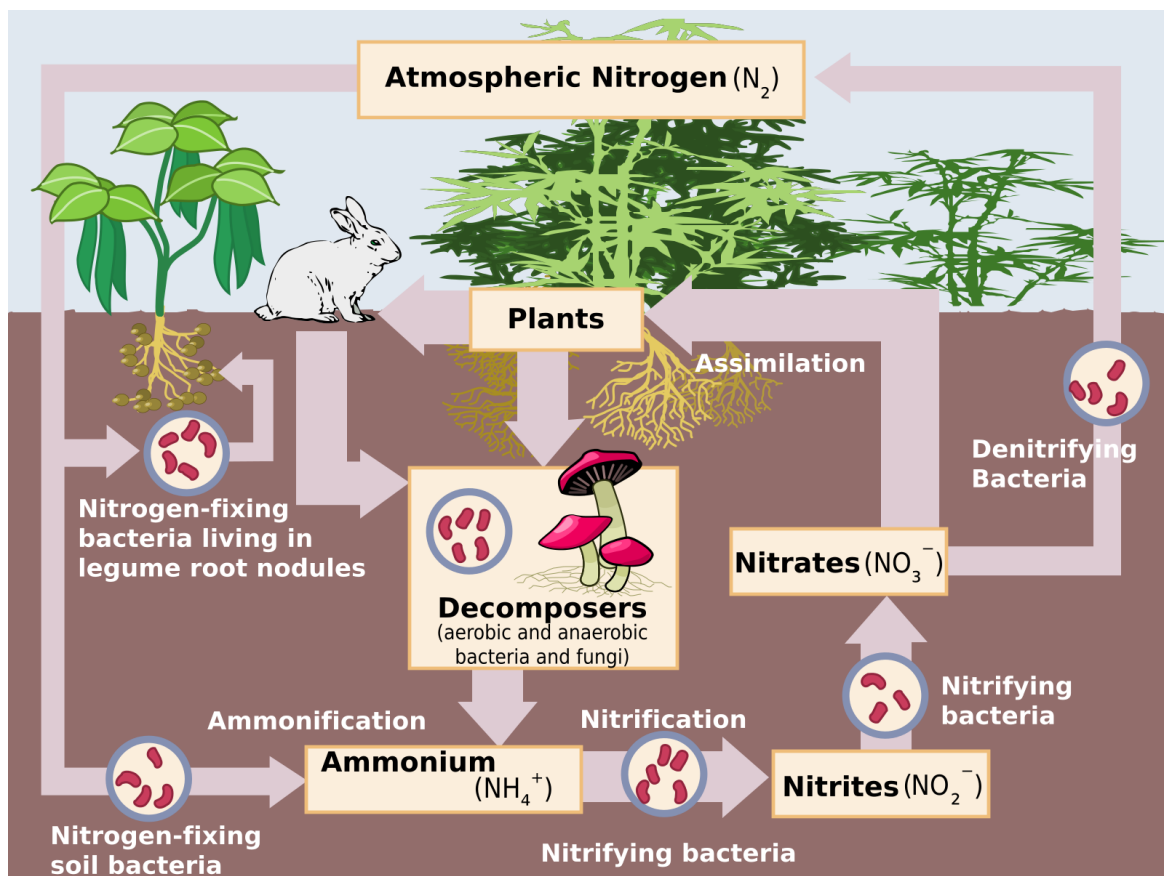
## NITROGEN FIXATION

### Key Concepts 21.5

- The reduction of  $N_2$  to  $NH_3$  by **nitrogenase** is an energetically costly process.
- Ammonia is incorporated into amino acids by the action of **glutamate synthase**.



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## Diazotrophs

- Nitrogen fixation
- Marine cyanobacteria and bacteria in root nodules of legumes (the pea family: beans, clover and alfalfa)
- Nitrogenase

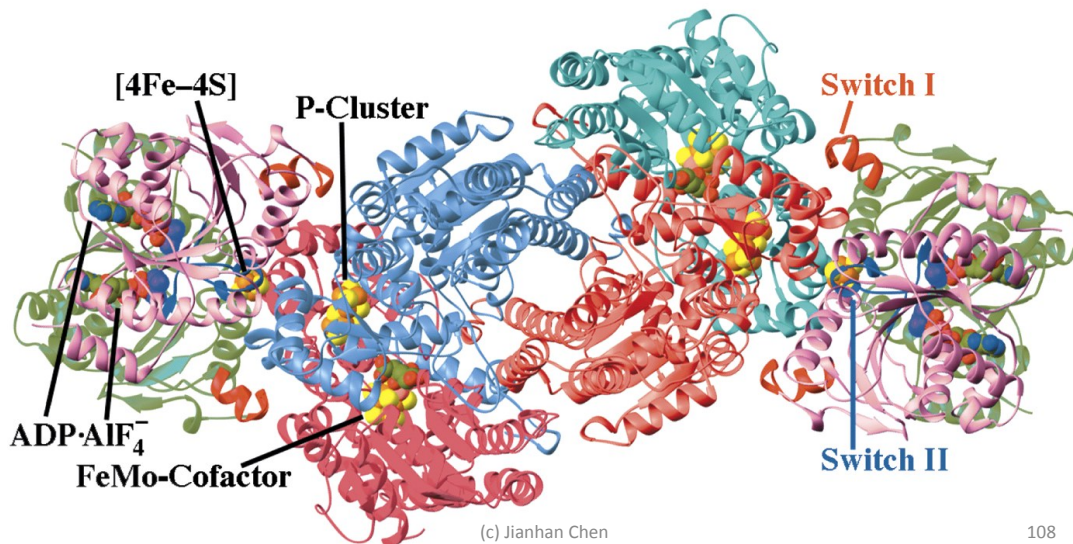


Root nodules of soybean plants

Figure 21-40  
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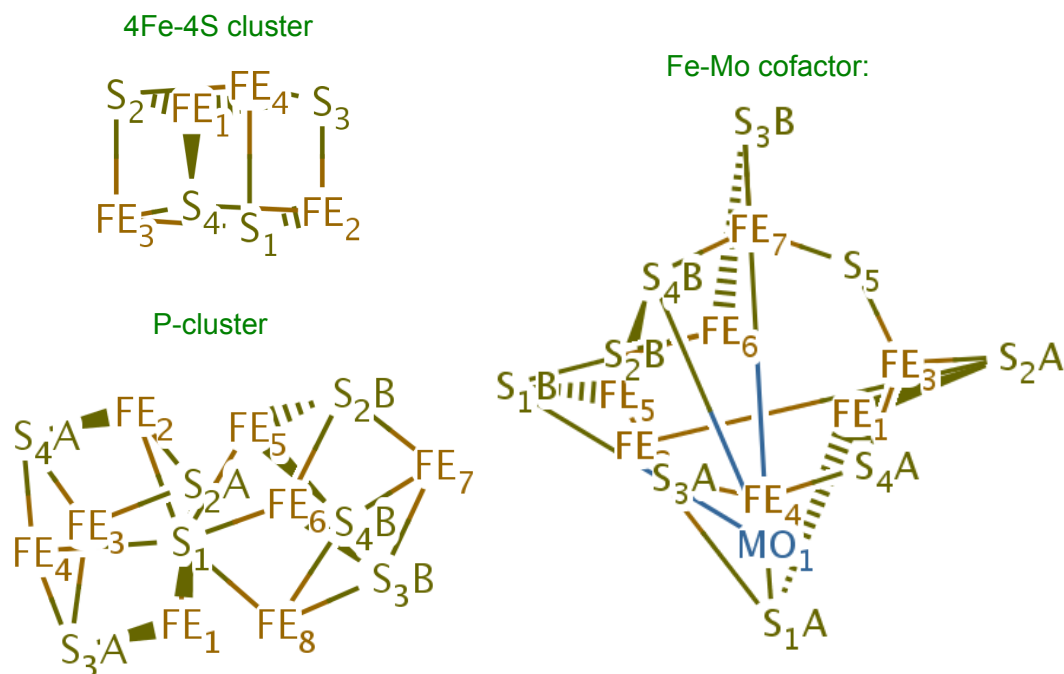
## Nitrogenase

- Catalyzes the reduction of  $N_2$  to  $NH_3$   
$$N_2 + 8 H^+ + 8 e^- + 16 ATP + 16 H_2O \rightarrow 2 NH_3 + H_2 + 16 ADP + 16 Pi$$
- 2 Fe-protein homodimer and 1 MoFe-protein heterotetramer



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## Nitrogenase: redox centers



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## Nitrogenase: redox centers

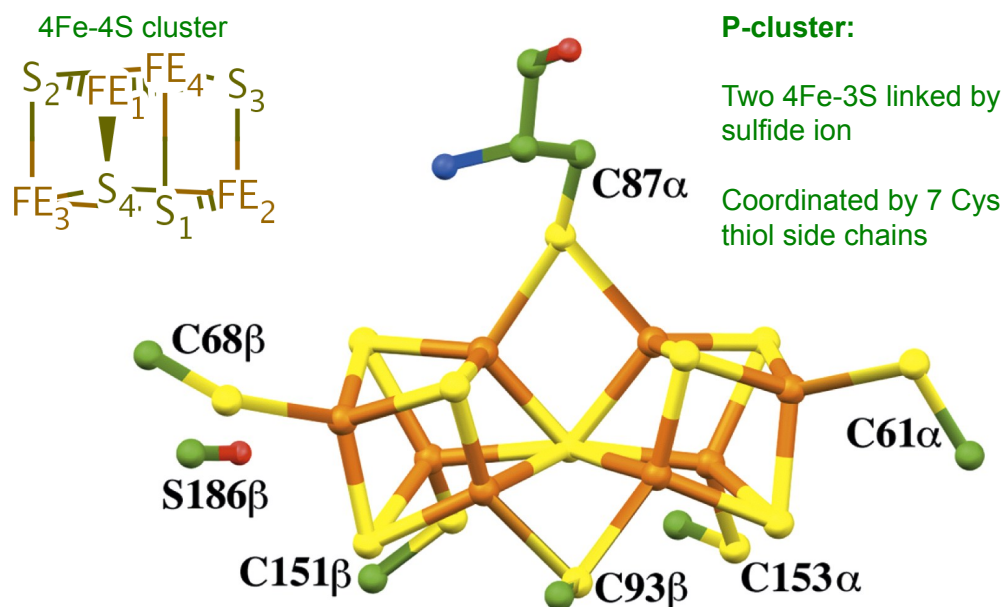


Figure 21-42a  
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## Nitrogenase: redox centers

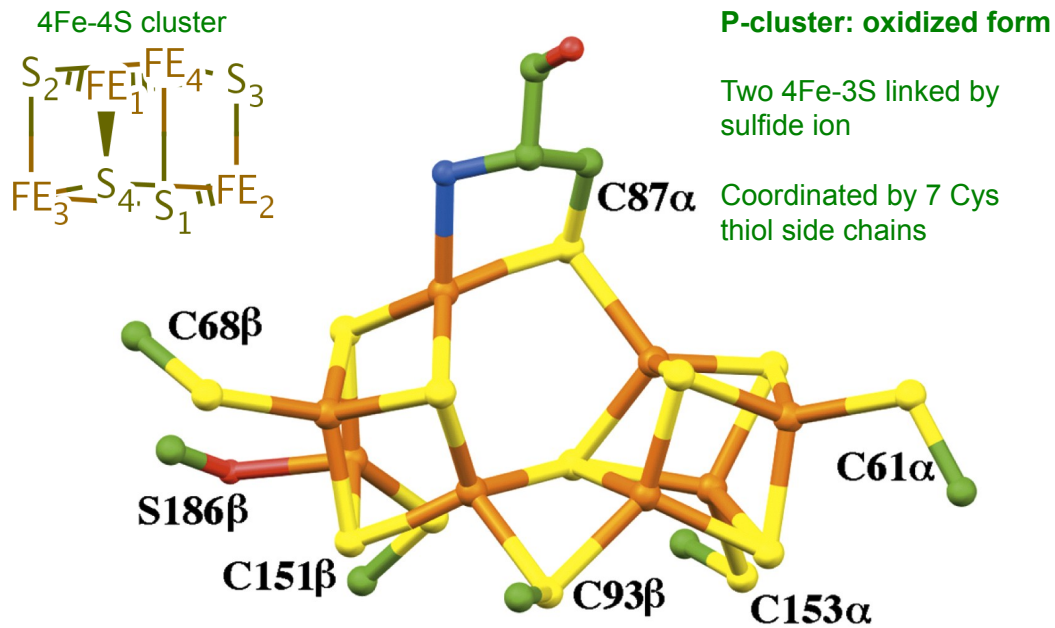


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## Nitrogenase: redox centers

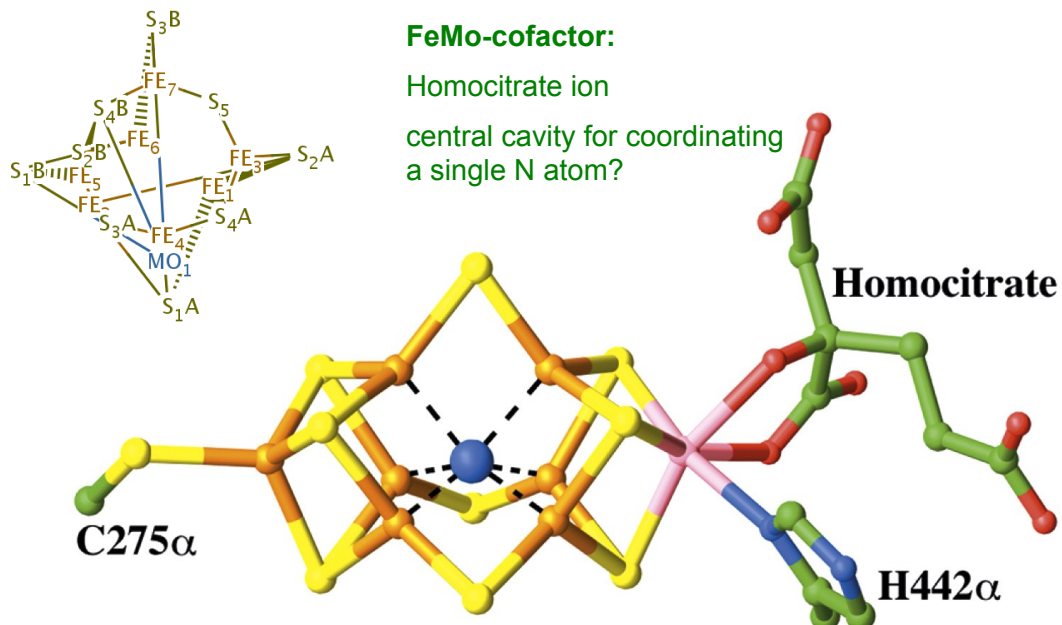
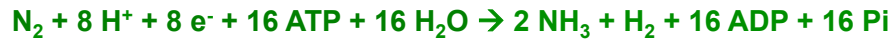


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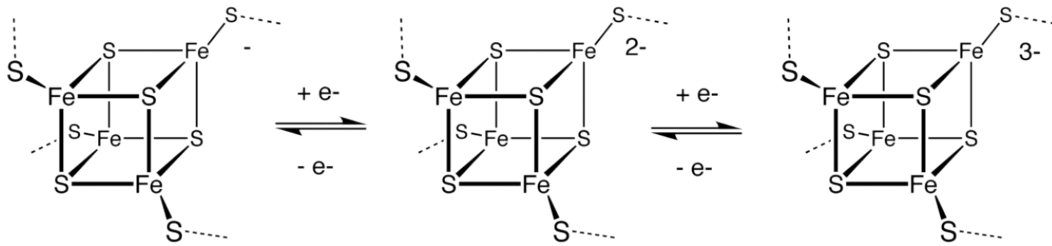
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## Nitrogenase: Electron Transfer and Conformational Switches



- Require electron source: generated either oxidatively or photosynthetically and carried by 4Fe-4S **ferredoxin**
- Require ATP hydrolysis driven conformational changes and disassociation of Fe- and MoFe-protein components after each electron transfer!

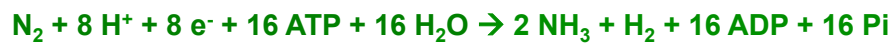


<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ferredoxin>

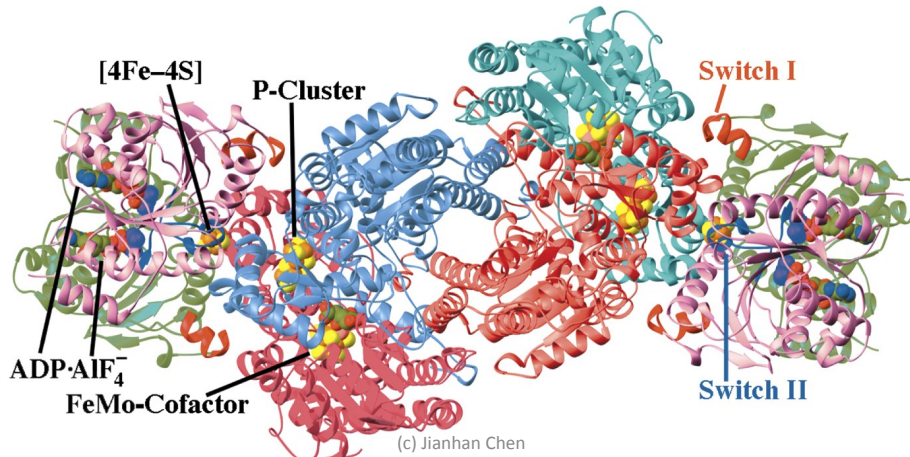
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## Nitrogenase: Electron Transfer and Conformational Switches



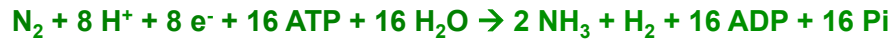
- Each electro transfer cycle involves two ATP hydrolysis, which induced conformational switches in Fe-protein to reduce its redox potential from -0.29 to -0.40 V (sufficient to drive N<sub>2</sub> reduction: N<sub>2</sub> + 6 H<sup>+</sup> + 6e<sup>-</sup> → NH<sub>3</sub> is -0.34 V)



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## Nitrogenase: Electron Transfer and Conformational Switches

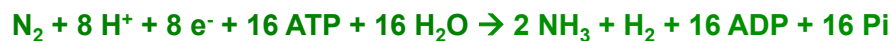


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- Switch I: drive disassociation from MoFe-protein complex (rate limiting)
- Switch II: modify 4Fe-4S environment (and thus redox potential); also bring 4Fe-4S closer to P-cluster (to facilitate electron transfer)
- ATP hydrolysis occur only when Fe-protein is in complex MoFe-protein: allow coupling of ATP hydrolysis with electron transfer (to MoFe-cofactor)

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## Nitrogenase: Electron Transfer and Conformational Switches



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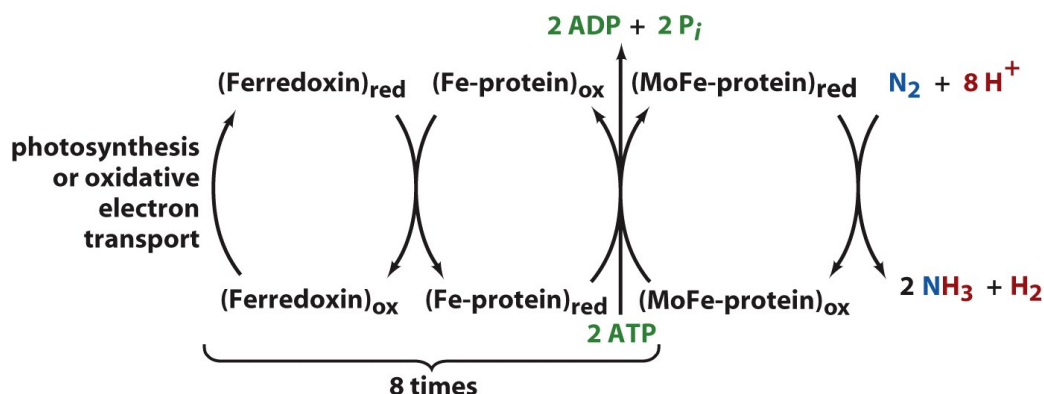
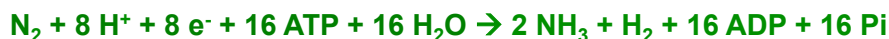
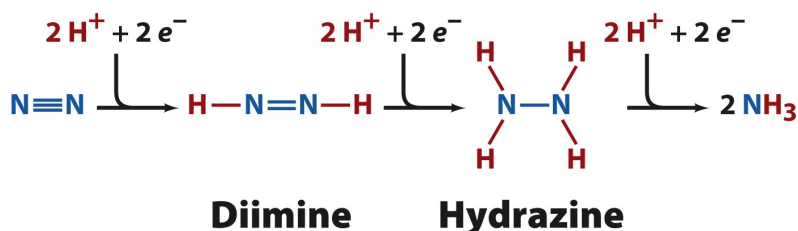


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## Nitrogenase: N<sub>2</sub> Reduction Reactions



- Energetically very costly
- 6 electrons for reducing N<sub>2</sub> + 2 electrons for reducing H<sub>2</sub>O
- Diimine can react with H<sub>2</sub> and produces N<sub>2</sub>!
- Actual cost: 20-30 ATP per N<sub>2</sub>



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## Moonlighting of Nitrogenase

- $\text{HC}\equiv\text{CH} \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{C}=\text{CH}_2$
- $\text{N}=\text{N}=\text{O} \rightarrow \text{N}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$
- $\text{N}=\text{N}=\text{N}- \rightarrow \text{N}_2 + \text{NH}_3$
- $\text{C}\equiv\text{N}- \rightarrow \text{CH}_4, \text{NH}_3, \text{H}_3\text{C}-\text{CH}_3, \text{H}_2\text{C}=\text{CH}_2 (\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_2)$
- $\text{N}\equiv\text{C}-\text{R} \rightarrow \text{RCH}_3 + \text{NH}_3$
- $\text{C}\equiv\text{N}-\text{R} \rightarrow \text{CH}_4, \text{H}_3\text{C}-\text{CH}_3, \text{H}_2\text{C}=\text{CH}_2, \text{C}_3\text{H}_8, \text{C}_3\text{H}_6, \text{RNH}_2$
- $\text{O}=\text{C}=\text{S} \rightarrow \text{CO} + \text{H}_2\text{S}$  [8][9]
- $\text{O}=\text{C}=\text{O} \rightarrow \text{CO} + \text{H}_2\text{O}$  [8]
- $\text{S}=\text{C}=\text{N}- \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{S} + \text{HCN}$  [9]
- $\text{O}=\text{C}=\text{N}- \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{HCN}, \text{CO} + \text{NH}_3$  [9]

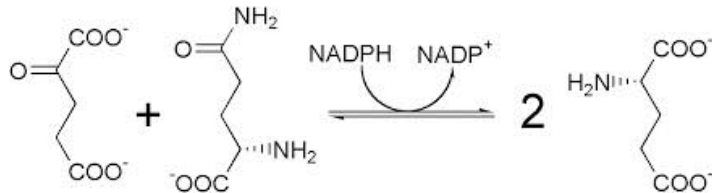
<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Nitrogenase>

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# Assimilation

- Critical process of incorporating fixed nitrogen into biomolecules
- Glutamine synthetase
- Glutamate synthase: bacteria and plants



- Net reaction (combining glutamine synthetase and glutamate synthase):



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## Glutamate Synthase Reaction

- Channeling!

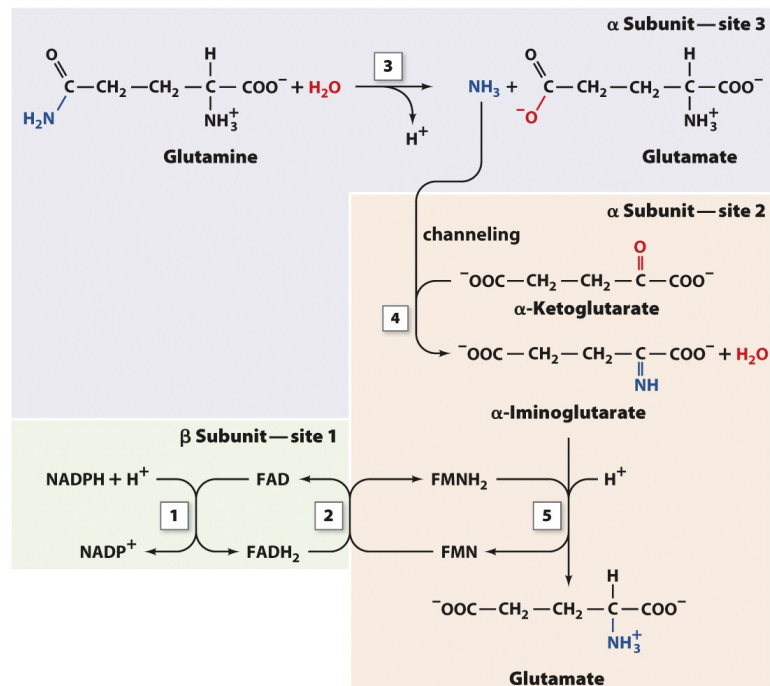
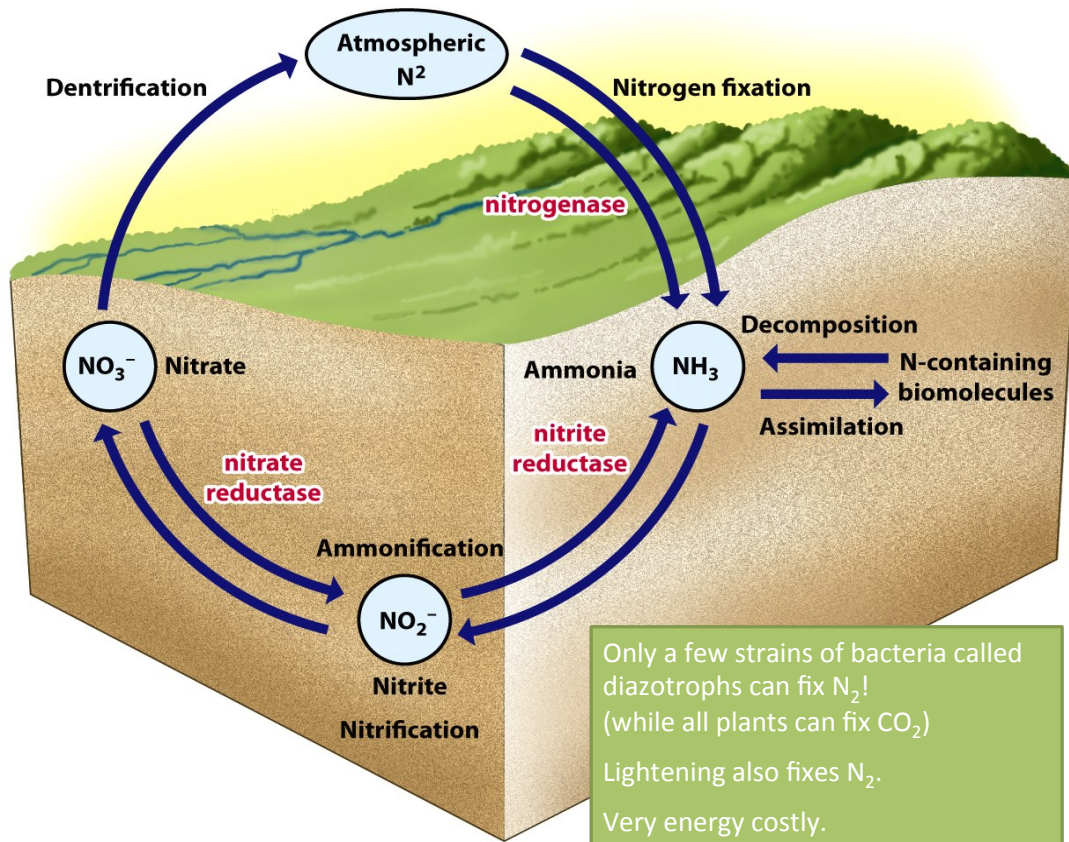


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## Quick Summary

- Summarize the mechanistic role of ATP in nitrogen fixation.
- Why is nitrogen fixation so energetically costly?
- Describe the reactions that assimilate  $NH_3$  into amino acids. Which reactions occur in mammals?
- List the enzymes of amino acid metabolism in which channeling occurs (three so far).
- How is fixed nitrogen recycled in the biosphere?



The combined effect of glutamine synthetase and glutamate synthase is to incorporate fixed nitrogen into an organic compound and to produce an amino acid.

- A. True
- B. False

Which of the following enzymes is not part of the nitrogen cycle?

- A. Nitrogenase
- B. Nitrate oxidase
- C. Nitrite reductase
- D. Nitrate reductase