

## Metabolic implications of ammonia production in the ruminant

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NH<sub>3</sub> is generated in the gut of all animal species as a result of two main processes: (1) microbial degradation of nitrogenous compounds such as proteins, peptides, amino acids and nucleic acids within the gut lumen and (2) microbial hydrolysis of urea passing across the gut wall from the blood and interstitial fluids. Whereas in most species the production of NH<sub>3</sub> and its incorporation into microbial protein in the hindgut is considered of little nutritional benefit to the host (apart from coprophagic species), the pathway of N assimilation into microbial protein in the reticulo-rumen is an essential component of protein flow to the small intestine of ruminant animals. As such it has been demonstrated that ruminants can sustain a modest level of productivity when provided only with non-protein-N in the diet (Virtanen, 1969). Protein rationing for this group of livestock is based on provision of rumen-degradable N for microbial protein synthesis in addition to an undegradable component calculated to support required levels of output (Agricultural Research Council, 1980, 1984; Agricultural and Food Research Council, 1993). It is not the purpose of the present review, however, to evaluate rumen N transactions but to identify the pathways by which NH<sub>3</sub> is generated within the gut and factors which affect its absorption and detoxification in the liver. There are a number of excellent reviews which discuss the broader aspects of N metabolism in the ruminant (MacRae & Reeds, 1980; Chalupa, 1984; Egan *et al.* 1986; Loble, 1991).

### RUMEN AMMONIA TURNOVER

The primary sources of NH<sub>3</sub> within the rumen are the protein components of the diet. Protein degradability is dependent on a number of factors including solubility, susceptibility to microbial proteases and residence time in the rumen (Taminga, 1983). These factors combine to produce a pattern of release of peptides, amino acids and NH<sub>3</sub>, all of which provide a source of N for microbial protein synthesis. The extent to which the range of microbial species within the rumen are able to utilize these different sources is a matter of debate. Although early work (Bryant & Robinson, 1962) indicated that about 90% of bacterial species isolated from the rumen could utilize NH<sub>3</sub> as the main source of N for growth, further studies have demonstrated a potential for free amino acids and peptides to become incorporated into microbial protein without passing through the rumen NH<sub>3</sub> pool (Cotta & Hespell, 1986; MacKie & White, 1990). More recent studies using <sup>15</sup>NH<sub>3</sub> to quantify uptake of protein degradation products for microbial protein synthesis have also shown that for a range of feed protein sources a maximum of 0.4–0.68 of microbial N was derived from the rumen NH<sub>3</sub> pool (Hristov & Broderick, 1994).

Our understanding of the extent of the flux of NH<sub>3</sub> within the rumen is based on

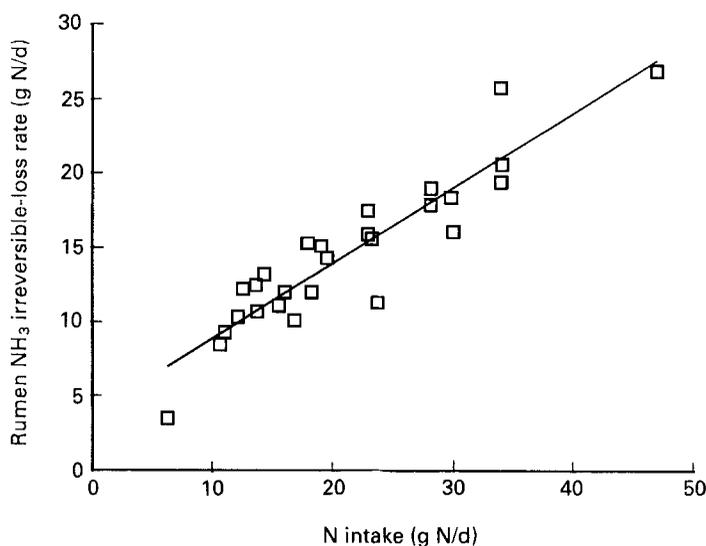


Fig. 1. The relationship between rumen ammonia irreversible-loss rate (gN/d) and N intake (gN/d). Each point represents animal means from individual experiments. The equation of the regression line is  $y = 3.829 + 0.507x$  ( $r^2 0.853$ ). Data are from the experiments of Pilgrim *et al.* (1970); Mathison & Milligan (1971); Nolan *et al.* (1976); Nolan & MacRae (1976); Kennedy & Milligan (1978); Nolan & Strachin (1979); Siddons *et al.* (1985*b*) and Kennedy *et al.* (1986).

extensive use of  $^{15}\text{N}$ -tracer methodology developed to study N transactions within the gut, and between the gut and peripheral blood in sheep (Mathison & Milligan, 1971; Nolan, 1975; Nolan *et al.* 1976; Siddons *et al.* 1985*a*; Kennedy *et al.* 1986). These turnover studies have identified the relationship between N intake in the diet and  $\text{NH}_3$  irreversible-loss rates over a wide range of N source and level in the diet (Fig. 1). These findings indicate that 0.5 of dietary N entering the rumen passes directly through the rumen  $\text{NH}_3$  pool which is somewhat higher than previously calculated (0.3; Nolan, 1975). The difference reflects the availability of data from an increased number of trials carried out over a wider range of N intakes. Production of  $\text{NH}_3$  from endogenous sources within the rumen, calculated from the intercept of the regression line, has also changed from 4.4 g N/d in the original study to 3.8 g N/d when all the available data are included. This value represents primarily the flow of urea into the rumen via saliva and direct transfer across the rumen wall. Apart from incorporation into microbial protein, loss from this small (0.5–1.5 g N) but highly labile pool is either by absorption across the rumen wall or by passage out of the rumen in digesta flowing to the small intestine. Duodenal  $\text{NH}_3$  flow measured in cows (Firkins *et al.* 1987; Song & Kennelly, 1990) and in sheep (MacRae *et al.* 1972; MacRae & Ulyatt, 1974) represented 0.02 and 0.09 of N intake respectively. Of this, isotope-exchange studies suggest that about half (0.4–0.6; Siddons *et al.* 1985*b*) represents  $\text{NH}_3$  derived directly from the rumen  $\text{NH}_3$  pool. It is apparent, therefore, that the primary pathway of  $\text{NH}_3$  loss from the rumen is via absorption across the gut wall.

The dynamics of rumen N transactions measured using  $^{15}\text{N}$  isotope techniques provide important quantitative data relating feed N intake and the transfer of N between gut and

body pools. This experimental approach is dependent on the establishment of steady-state conditions within the animal in order to measure nutrient flux in metabolite pools which, ideally, do not alter during the course of the experiment. In practice, however, N dynamics are dominated by cycles of nutrient release which are linked to patterns of intake and the physico-chemical characteristics of the feed. Numerous experiments have reported the effect of feeding either concentrate- or forage-based diets on rumen  $\text{NH}_3$  levels and the fluctuations in metabolite concentrations with time period after feeding (Wernli & Wilkins, 1980). Silage feeding is an extreme example of this effect, the soluble nitrogenous components being rapidly degraded in the rumen to result in peaks of  $\text{NH}_3$  concentration of 18–20 mM within 1 h after feeding from a basal level of 2–4 mM. These levels can be attenuated by chemical treatment of the forage material before ensilage using acid-formaldehyde to reduce N solubility (Thompson *et al.* 1981) or by provision of a readily-fermentable carbohydrate to provide energy for N capture by the rumen microflora (Rooke *et al.* 1987). Rumen infusion studies in which either pulsed or continuous infusions of N and energy-yielding substrates have been used (Henning *et al.* 1993) demonstrate that providing a constant supply of energy may be a critical factor in improving nutrient utilization. In the absence of such provision, rapid fluctuations in  $\text{NH}_3$  concentration result in inefficient use of N for microbial protein synthesis and loss of  $\text{NH}_3$  from the rumen by absorption across the gut wall. In addition there may be periods during which rumen  $\text{NH}_3$  levels fall below those thought to be optimal for microbial growth; 3.5 mM (Satter & Slyter, 1974) to 6 mM (Kang-Meznarish & Broderick, 1981), thereby reducing both energy and protein supply to the host animal. Synchronization of N and energy release within the rumen in order to maximize nutrient capture by the microbial population has been an objective of ruminant feeding systems. Recent experiments in sheep (Sinclair *et al.* 1993) in which diets were formulated on the basis of either asynchronous or synchronous release of nutrients have shown that manipulation of the pattern of substrate availability in this way can provide a practical method of improving the efficiency of N capture and reducing the magnitude of rumen  $\text{NH}_3$  cycling.

#### MECHANISM OF INTESTINAL ABSORPTION OF AMMONIA

The mechanisms involved in the bi-directional movement of  $\text{NH}_3$  across tissues of the gastrointestinal tract between the lumen and blood are not fully understood. Absorption does not appear to be active, but occurs by passive non-ionic diffusion down a concentration gradient. In ruminant animals the high concentrations of  $\text{NH}_3$  in rumen fluid favour the flux of  $\text{NH}_3$  into the bloodstream, but in small intestinal tissues there may be considerable movement of  $\text{NH}_3$  back into the intestinal lumen. Free  $\text{NH}_3$  diffuses readily across biological membranes because of its lipid solubility and lack of charge, in contrast to  $\text{NH}_4^+$  which as a hydrated, charged molecule has low lipid solubility and cannot diffuse across the cell membrane (Visek, 1969). The pK for the equilibrium between free  $\text{NH}_3$  and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  is approximately 9.1, thus under normal physiological conditions most of the  $\text{NH}_3$  present in the gut lumen (pH range 2–6) will be in the ionized form. Diffusion of free  $\text{NH}_3$  across the rumen wall in the undissociated form has been demonstrated *in vivo* (Hogan, 1961; Siddons *et al.* 1985a; Bödeker *et al.* 1990; Rémond *et al.* 1993b) and *in vitro* (Mooney & O'Donovan, 1970). Net  $\text{NH}_3$  flux across the rumen

wall has been shown to be linearly correlated to both free  $\text{NH}_3$  (Siddons *et al.* 1985a) and to total  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations (Rémond *et al.* 1993a) in rumen fluid, although it is thought that the free  $\text{NH}_3$  levels are more significant. Using the isolated rumen technique, however, Bödeker *et al.* (1990) showed that at a constant rumen  $\text{NH}_3$  concentration,  $\text{NH}_3$  absorption did not reflect the concentration ratio for undissociated:free  $\text{NH}_3$  in the artificial rumen fluid. These results suggest either a flux of  $\text{NH}_3$  molecules across the rumen wall or titration of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  at the absorptive surface. Further experiments by Bödeker *et al.* (1992b) have implicated volatile fatty acids (VFA) in this latter process.  $\text{NH}_3$  uptake was stimulated by the presence of VFA in the mucosal buffer solution either individually or as a mixture of acetate, propionate and butyrate. Similar responses to additional butyrate on transfer of  $\text{NH}_3$  into the ruminal vein of sheep have been reported by Rémond *et al.* (1993b). The mechanism involved is unclear, although the exchange of protons between the VFA and  $\text{NH}_3$  either at the cell surface and/or within the mucosa has been suggested. It is interesting that in rats fed on diets containing fermentable carbohydrates  $\text{NH}_3$  absorption from the caecum was increased (Révész & Demigné, 1989). Although this may in part be due to the increased entry of urea into the caecum and its hydrolysis by the caecal flora, it is possible that the increased concentration of VFA in the caecal digesta also had a more direct effect on  $\text{NH}_3$  flux across the caecal wall.

The importance of bicarbonate in stimulating colonic  $\text{NH}_3$  absorption has been demonstrated in several studies in single-stomached animals (Wrong, 1978) and it is possible that similar mechanisms occur in the ruminant animal. Bödeker *et al.* (1992a), for example, have shown *in vitro* that inhibition of carbonic anhydrase (which would result in a lowering of free bicarbonate ions) caused a reduction in  $\text{NH}_3$  flux across the rumen wall. In this experiment addition of VFA to the mucosal incubation solution restored  $\text{NH}_3$  flux to control levels suggesting that bicarbonate and VFA may play similar roles in mediating  $\text{NH}_3$  uptake. Increasing  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  levels in rumen fluid by bubbling  $\text{CO}_2$  into the rumen also caused an increase in  $\text{NH}_3$  flux in sheep (Rémond *et al.* 1993b) although it is not clear whether this was a direct effect on transfer across the ruminal epithelium or increasing ruminal vein blood flow.

#### AMMONIA ABSORPTION INTO PORTAL BLOOD

As a consequence of the extensive turnover of N-containing compounds in the digestive tract of ruminants and the loss of  $\text{NH}_3$  across the gut wall a significant proportion of dietary N intake can be measured as  $\text{NH}_3$  flux in portal blood. The relationship between these two variables has been examined recently (Seal & Reynolds, 1993) for a wide range of diets and these authors confirm previous observations that portal  $\text{NH}_3$  flux can represent as much as 0.65 of N intake and in many circumstances exceed net  $\alpha\text{-NH}_2\text{-N}$  absorption into portal blood. Similar calculations for single-stomached species are hampered by the lack of quantitative information concerning arterio-venous blood concentrations across the gut and measurements of blood flow. There are, however, a number of studies in pigs in which between 0.14 and 0.24 of daily N intake can be accounted for in the measured flux of  $\text{NH}_3$  in portal blood (Malmlöf, 1987; van Berlo *et al.* 1988; Yen & Pond, 1990; Yen & Nienaber, 1993). Detoxification of absorbed  $\text{NH}_3$  by urea cycle activity in the liver is common to all species and calculation of portal  $\text{NH}_3$  flux on a metabolic-weight ( $W^{0.75}$ ) basis provides a mechanism of 'scaling' the effects of

Table 1. Net portal ammonia absorption in different species

Species	Portal NH <sub>3</sub> ( $\mu\text{M}$ )	Arterial NH <sub>3</sub> ( $\mu\text{M}$ )	Net absorption ( $\mu\text{mol}/\text{min}$ per $\text{kgW}^{0.75}$ )	Reference
Rat	193	72	2.8	Hartman & Prior (1992)
Pig	285	142	14.3	Malmlöf (1987)
	165	44	17.9	van Berlo <i>et al.</i> (1988)
	205	39	8.2	Yen & Pond (1990)
Sheep: Fed	487	210	33.2	Gross <i>et al.</i> (1990)
Intragastric infusion	377	200	19.5	Gross <i>et al.</i> (1990)
Steers	560	220	35.2	Harmon <i>et al.</i> (1988)
Cows (lactating)	650	350	71.5	Huntington (1984)
Steers (2 $\times$ daily fed):	Min	122	44.2	Wilton (1989)
	Max	525	112	82.1

differences in the digestion of dietary N between ruminant and non-ruminant species. The results of this calculation are shown in Table 1. It is apparent that for both rats and pigs the mean value of 11  $\mu\text{mol}/\text{min}$  per  $\text{kgW}^{0.75}$  is significantly lower than that for ruminants of between 20 and 75  $\mu\text{mol}/\text{min}$  per  $\text{kgW}^{0.75}$  dependent on the diet and pattern of feeding. Where measurements have been made over a period of time it is also apparent that flux rates are reasonably constant in pigs relative to the time interval after feeding (Yen & Nienaber, 1993), whereas in ruminants fed twice daily, rather than continuously as in most of the nutrient absorption studies, portal flux rates can virtually double between prefeeding and 90 min post-feeding (44–82  $\mu\text{mol}/\text{min}$  per  $\text{kgW}^{0.75}$ ; Wilton, 1989).

Although portal absorption rates provide an overall measure of NH<sub>3</sub> flux into the blood pool, a number of different techniques have been used to study the relative contribution of different sections of the digestive tract to total NH<sub>3</sub> absorption. Studies of digesta flow in sheep (MacRae & Ulyatt, 1974) showed that some 0.15 of N intake was absorbed as NH<sub>3</sub> in the small intestine and application of <sup>15</sup>N techniques provided a dynamic model of NH<sub>3</sub>-N movement across different sections of the tract (Siddons *et al.* 1985a). This latter study indicated that in sheep fed on a silage diet 0.25 of total NH<sub>3</sub> absorption occurred across small intestinal tissues. This proportion was increased to 0.37 when the sheep were fed on a diet consisting of dried grass. These values confirm measurements made in chronically-catheterized animals in which NH<sub>3</sub> flux into blood vessels draining the small intestine (mesenteric vein) has been compared with total uptake into the portal vein which includes absorption from both the rumen–reticulum–omasum and the large intestine. These studies are summarized in Table 2 and show that between 0.25 and 0.41 of portal NH<sub>3</sub> flux is attributable to absorption from the small intestine. The importance of this section of the digestive tract in the cycling of N in this way is underlined by the experiments of Gross *et al.* (1990) in which they maintained sheep by intragastric infusion of nutrients but with the protein component of the diet infused directly into the abomasum. Portal NH<sub>3</sub> flux in these animals was 20  $\mu\text{mol}/\text{min}$  per  $\text{kgW}^{0.75}$  during the infusion periods compared with 33  $\mu\text{mol}/\text{min}$  per  $\text{kgW}^{0.75}$  when the animals were fed on lucerne (*Medicago sativa*).

Table 2. Contribution of ammonia absorption from the small intestine to total net uptake into the portal vein in steers

Diet	Net NH <sub>3</sub> uptake ( $\mu\text{mol}/\text{min}$ per $\text{kgW}^{0.75}$ )		Mesenteric absorption as proportion of total	Reference
	Mesenteric vein	Portal vein		
Grass nuts	15.8	42.4	0.37	Seal <i>et al.</i> (1992)
Grass nuts-flaked maize (70:30 w/w)	10.58	25.6	0.41	
Grass nuts-intraruminal propionate	6.7	23.15	0.29	Seal & Parker (unpublished results)
Lucerne ( <i>Medicago sativa</i> ):				
Time-fed	13.12	46.0	0.28	Reynolds & Huntington (1988)
Meal-fed	17.62	64.68	0.27	
Concentrates (meal-fed)	14.31	28.25	0.51	

W<sup>0.75</sup>, metabolic weight.

#### HEPATIC DETOXIFICATION OF AMMONIA

Under normal physiological and nutritional conditions, NH<sub>3</sub> absorbed into the portal vein is efficiently extracted by the liver and detoxified by conversion to urea or glutamine. Over a wide range of portal NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations on a variety of different diets, the liver is able to extract 70–95% of portal NH<sub>3</sub> with the result that hepatic NH<sub>3</sub> removal is on average very slightly higher (4%) than portal absorption (Table 3). This results in arterial NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations remaining constant even when portal NH<sub>3</sub> absorption varies threefold. NH<sub>3</sub> is extremely toxic in non-hepatic tissues and causes changes in cerebral metabolism which result in tetany and death when circulating NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations exceed 0.7 mM (Symonds *et al.* 1981). Ruminants are susceptible to diet-induced NH<sub>3</sub> toxicity particularly when non-protein-N is rapidly converted to NH<sub>3</sub> in the rumen and absorbed into the portal vein (Visek, 1984). Most investigators have reported arterial NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations in the 0.1 mM range using a specific enzyme assay which follows the reaction with glutamate dehydrogenase (*EC* 1.4.1.2; Bergmeyer & Beutler, 1985). A number of estimates of circulating NH<sub>3</sub> concentration, however, have employed the Berthelot reaction (McCullough, 1967) which gives values of 300–400  $\mu\text{M}$  (Huntington, 1989; Reynolds *et al.* 1991; see also Table 1) due to non-specific reactions, although these overestimated values do not appear to affect the values for net NH<sub>3</sub> exchange across tissues (L. A. Crompton and C. K. Reynolds, personal communication).

A functional heterogeneity of metabolism, particularly of carbohydrates and N has been established in rat liver parenchymal cells (Jungermann, 1986). This ensures that any NH<sub>3</sub> which escapes conversion to urea in periportal hepatocytes is converted to glutamine in perivenous hepatocytes. The amide-N of glutamine is then removed and metabolized to urea by periportal hepatocytes during subsequent passages through the liver and may also provide a mechanism to prevent a decrease in extracellular pH (Haussinger *et al.* 1992). In ruminants, there is net hepatic uptake of glutamine and

Table 3. Nitrogen intake (g/d), portal ammonia absorption, hepatic NH<sub>3</sub>-N uptake and urea-N output (mmol/min) in cattle fed on a range of diets

Diet constituents	N-intake	Portal NH <sub>3</sub> uptake	Hepatic NH <sub>3</sub> uptake	Hepatic urea-N output	Hepatic NH <sub>3</sub> uptake: hepatic urea output	Reference
Grass nuts-flaked maize (70:30, w/w)	123	0.97	0.92	3.36	0.27	Wilton <i>et al.</i> (1988)
Grass nuts-flaked maize (50:50, w/w)	102	1.29	1.68	2.86	0.59	Fitch <i>et al.</i> (1989)
Grass nuts	172	3.06	3.18	6.72	0.47	
Maize silage	106	1.51	1.47	1.91	0.79	Maltby <i>et al.</i> (1991)
Grass silage-grass nuts (70:30, w/w)	94	2.48	2.50	2.27	1.10	Maltby <i>et al.</i> (1993a)
Barley-grass nuts (70:30, w/w)	79	1.19	1.28	1.98	0.65	
Lucerne ( <i>Medicago sativa</i> )	153	4.21	4.31	6.05	0.71	Maltby <i>et al.</i> (1993c)
Lucerne	162	4.85	4.83	6.10	0.79	Huntington (1989)
Lucerne-cracked maize	95	2.13	2.15	2.65	0.81	
Lucerne-ground maize (25:75, w/w)						
Low intake	98	2.38	2.47	3.92	0.63	Reynolds <i>et al.</i> (1991)
High intake	174	4.17	4.33	8.18	0.53	
Lucerne-ground maize (75:25, w/w)						
Low intake	133	3.10	3.23	5.90	0.55	
High intake	209	5.67	5.88	9.88	0.60	

output of glutamate (Wolff *et al.* 1972; Reynolds, 1992) which is in agreement with the hepatic intracellular cycle proposed. When urea is added to ruminant diets there is increased hepatic uptake of  $\text{NH}_3$  but glutamine uptake is either unchanged or slightly increased whilst net hepatic glutamate output is decreased (Maltby *et al.* 1991, 1993b). However, these changes in amino acid flux are small and the increase in hepatic urea synthesis can more than account for  $\text{NH}_3$  removal, suggesting that conversion of  $\text{NH}_3$  to glutamine or glutamate is not a major detoxification pathway under normal feeding conditions. This has recently been confirmed by an *in vivo* study in sheep which demonstrated that 93.5 and 6% respectively of portal  $^{15}\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}$  is converted to  $[^{15}\text{N}]\text{urea}$  and  $[^{15}\text{N}]\text{glutamine}$  when portal vein  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations are increased to 0.5 mM by intramesenteric vein infusion (Lobley *et al.* 1995). The upper limit to the capacity of ruminant liver to remove  $\text{NH}_3$  is 1.2–1.5  $\mu\text{mol}/\text{min}$  per g (Linzell *et al.* 1971; Symonds *et al.* 1981; Orzechowski *et al.* 1987), which compares with a range of 0.2–0.8  $\mu\text{mol}/\text{min}$  per g over a wide variety of nutritional regimens. Therefore, the capacity of ruminant hepatocytes to detoxify  $\text{NH}_3$  directly to urea appears to be well adapted to large changes in portal  $\text{NH}_3$  concentration and is only exceeded when  $\text{NH}_3$  loads on the liver are abnormal (Symonds *et al.* 1981; Fernandez *et al.* 1990).

#### CONTRIBUTION OF AMMONIA TO HEPATIC UREA SYNTHESIS

In addition to the relationship between N intake and portal  $\text{NH}_3$  absorption (see p. 552), data in Table 3 show that hepatic  $\text{NH}_3$  uptake is positively correlated with N intake and accounts for between 16 and 60% of N intake.

$$\text{N intake (g/d)} = 64.5 + 22.5 \text{ hepatic } \text{NH}_3 \text{ uptake (mmol/min)} (r^2 0.74).$$

The potential contribution of extracted  $\text{NH}_3\text{-N}$  to hepatic urea-N formation ranges from 27 to 110%. This value compares with an estimated contribution of 33% of urea flux from portal  $\text{NH}_3$  in humans and rodents (Meijer *et al.* 1990). The reason for the variation in the apparent contribution of  $\text{NH}_3$  to hepatic urea production is not clear; the values in Table 3 have been obtained from different laboratories and using various techniques for measuring  $\text{NH}_3$  and urea, suggesting that the large range is not an artefact and animal factors such as breed or N quality and intake appear not to be implicated. Dietary differences may be relevant since low values for  $\text{NH}_3$  contribution to hepatic urea output have been reported for beef cattle fed on mixtures of dried grass nuts and flaked maize, while high values have been associated with diets based on lucerne hay–maize, grass silage–barley or maize silage (Table 3). There are inconsistencies within this pattern, however, and the results may represent the limitations of the arterio–venous difference techniques to establish stoichiometric relationships across an organ. The proportion of urea-N apparently accounted for by hepatic  $\alpha\text{-NH}_2\text{-N}$  removal ranges from 16 to 30% (Huntington, 1989; Reynolds *et al.* 1991), although these estimates are based on measurement of  $\alpha\text{-NH}_2\text{-N}$  rather than a summation of individual amino acids separated by ion-exchange chromatography. A recent comparison of the two methods suggests that they give approximately similar values (Maltby *et al.* 1993a).

#### IMPACT OF AMMONIA ON HEPATIC AMINO ACID METABOLISM

Wilton *et al.* (1988) imposed an acute (3 h) hepatic  $\text{NH}_3$  load in beef cattle by infusion of  $\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}$  into a mesenteric vein and observed that the increase in hepatic urea-N

production was three times greater than that in the rate of  $\text{NH}_3\text{-N}$  removed by the liver. The findings suggested that the urea synthesis from non- $\text{NH}_3$  sources had been stimulated during  $\text{NH}_3$  load and were supported by a trend for increased free amino acid uptake. The findings of this study agreed with those of a similar experiment in sheep (Orzechowski *et al.* 1987), although in both reports the results could be explained by incomplete recovery in the portal vein of infused  $\text{NH}_3$ . Lobley *et al.* (1995) have confirmed recently in sheep that a 5 d intramesenteric vein infusion of  $\text{NH}_3$  increases hepatic urea production to approximately double that predicted from stoichiometric conversion of  $\text{NH}_3$  removed to urea. These findings could help to explain the inefficient retention of absorbed amino acids in forage-fed ruminants, since amino acid deamination may be increased as a result of the increased hepatic uptake of  $\text{NH}_3$  observed with forage-based diets (Fitch *et al.* 1989; Huntington, 1989; Reynolds *et al.* 1991). Other studies have altered  $\text{NH}_3$  supply to the liver by changing diet composition or level of intake: Fitch *et al.* (1989) and Huntington (1989) compared forage and cereal diets fed to cattle (Table 3) and demonstrated that the forage-based diet doubled both hepatic  $\text{NH}_3$  uptake and the proportion of urea-N output that was apparently synthesized from non- $\text{NH}_3\text{-N}$  sources. Huntington (1989) demonstrated that hepatic  $\alpha\text{-NH}_2\text{-N}$  removal was stimulated twofold on the forage diet with the result that total splanchnic supply of  $\alpha\text{-NH}_2\text{-N}$  to peripheral tissues was decreased by 30%. Regression of hepatic  $\text{NH}_3$  uptake *v.* urea production using the values in Table 3 yields a significant positive correlation.

$$\text{Hepatic NH}_3 \text{ uptake (mmol/min)} = 0.43 + 0.53 \text{ hepatic urea-N output (mmol/min)} \\ (r^2 0.80).$$

The slope of this line suggests that an increase in hepatic  $\text{NH}_3$  uptake is associated with twice as much urea production as that predicted from direct  $\text{NH}_3$  detoxification. When N intake is regressed *v.* the values for hepatic urea-N output in Table 3, the equation predicts that as N intake increases there is a proportionately greater increase in hepatic urea-N synthesis.

$$\text{N intake (g/d)} = 60.2 + 14.8 \text{ hepatic urea-N output (mmol/min)} (r^2 0.92).$$

Whilst it is possible that these relationships reflect the increasing supply of amino acids to the liver, they support the suggestion that an increased  $\text{NH}_3$  load on the liver has a cost of detoxification in relation to amino acid catabolism which would be of considerable significance to growth (muscle deposition) in silage-fed animals.

#### MECHANISM FOR THE INTERRELATIONSHIP BETWEEN AMMONIA AND HEPATIC AMINO ACID METABOLISM

The synthesis of urea involves the assimilation of two N atoms, one from  $\text{NH}_3$  via mitochondrial carbamoylphosphate synthesis and the other from cytoplasmic aspartate. Mitochondrial and cytosolic aspartate–glutamate transamination pools are thought to be in equilibrium (Cooper *et al.* 1991), with the result that N from  $\text{NH}_3$  or amino acids can contribute both N atoms of the urea molecule via the reversible action of glutamate dehydrogenase (Meijer *et al.* 1990). The *in vivo* studies discussed previously have led us to suggest, however, that under conditions of high urea flux, the mitochondrial supply of  $\text{NH}_3$  may not be able to supply both N moieties of urea, with the result that amino acid-N is transferred to urea. This would effectively induce an amino acid deamination ‘cost’ for

NH<sub>3</sub> detoxification. Strong evidence in support of this proposal has recently been obtained by the use of isotopomer analysis to examine the contribution of NH<sub>3</sub> to the two N moieties of urea by measuring the flux of <sup>15</sup>NH<sub>4</sub>Cl into [<sup>14</sup>N,<sup>15</sup>N]- and [<sup>15</sup>N,<sup>15</sup>N]urea: after 5 d of an infusion of NH<sub>3</sub> into the mesenteric vein of sheep, at least 97% of the [<sup>15</sup>N]urea molecules formed were as [<sup>14</sup>N,<sup>15</sup>N]urea and the amounts of [<sup>15</sup>N,<sup>15</sup>N]urea were close to the detection limits (Lobley *et al.* 1995). In the same study an increase in leucine oxidation was noted, supporting the concept of increased requirement of α-NH<sub>2</sub>-N for urea synthesis during NH<sub>3</sub> detoxification. This evidence, that there is a 'NH<sub>3</sub> detoxification cost' in terms of hepatic amino acid deamination, may not be exclusive to ruminants since ingestion of <sup>15</sup>NH<sub>4</sub>Cl by fed and fasted humans is followed by the appearance of the majority of the label in [<sup>14</sup>N,<sup>15</sup>N]urea (Weijts *et al.* 1995).

The specific intracellular mechanism responsible for the proposed interaction between NH<sub>3</sub> and amino acid deamination is still unclear. Recent studies in fasted sheep hepatocytes (Luo *et al.* 1995) have demonstrated that when <sup>15</sup>NH<sub>4</sub>Cl is the only N source in the incubation, [<sup>15</sup>N,<sup>15</sup>N]urea is the predominant form of urea suggesting that pathways of NH<sub>3</sub> conversion to urea in ruminants are similar to those of rodents. Addition of a physiological mixture of unlabelled amino acids to hepatocyte incubations increased the rate of [<sup>14</sup>N<sup>15</sup>N]urea appearance, but this did not increase with higher rates of NH<sub>3</sub> detoxification as would be predicted from the *in vivo* results of Lobley *et al.* (1995).

Krebs *et al.* (1979) suggested that increased amino acid utilization with increased ureagenesis may be the result of competition between gluconeogenic and ureagenic pathways for cytoplasmic oxaloacetate. Gluconeogenesis is a major synthetic pathway in fed ruminant liver and NH<sub>3</sub> has been demonstrated to inhibit glucose synthesis by ovine hepatocytes (Weekes *et al.* 1978; Aiello & Armentano, 1987; Demigné *et al.* 1991) and urea feeding to calves has been shown to decrease glucose disposal rates (Spires & Clark, 1979). The experiments of Wilton *et al.* (1988) and Maltby *et al.* (1991, 1993a), however, have failed to confirm this effect *in vivo* since net hepatic glucose release is not altered either by mesenteric vein NH<sub>3</sub> infusion or by feeding urea to calves. Furthermore, altering the media concentration of propionate, the major gluconeogenic substrate in ruminants, does not alter the appearance of [<sup>14</sup>N,<sup>15</sup>N]urea from <sup>15</sup>NH<sub>4</sub>Cl in sheep hepatocyte incubations (Lou *et al.* 1995).

Nissim *et al.* (1992) reported the synthesis of both [<sup>14</sup>N,<sup>15</sup>N] and [<sup>15</sup>N,<sup>15</sup>N]urea from <sup>15</sup>N-labelled amino acids in rat hepatocytes, but suggested that a lag in the increase in isotopic enrichment of [<sup>15</sup>N,<sup>15</sup>N]urea was due to flux through glutamate dehydrogenase. It is possible that during NH<sub>3</sub> detoxification by ruminant liver *in vivo*, the equilibrium of glutamate dehydrogenase is also against the amination of 2-oxoglutarate and, thus, inhibits NH<sub>3</sub> contribution to both N moieties of the urea molecule. The equilibrium of this step will be determined in part by the mitochondrial redox state, and in sheep liver the concentrations of NADH and NADPH are lower on diets likely to increase NH<sub>3</sub> supply to the liver (Prior *et al.* 1970). In rat mitochondrial preparations it has been proposed that NH<sub>3</sub> inhibits the activity of citric acid cycle enzymes by causing a decrease in pyridine nucleotide levels (Katanuma *et al.* 1966), but the relevance of these results is unclear since an increase in hepatic O<sub>2</sub> uptake has been reported during conditions of increased NH<sub>3</sub> arrival at the liver (Wilton, 1989; Maltby *et al.* 1991). Calculations based on the maximum number of four ATP molecules hydrolysed for every mole of urea

synthesized reveals that only 13% of the increased O<sub>2</sub> uptake can be accounted for by urea synthesis, a value similar to that obtained by Reynolds *et al.* (1991). If the proposal that NH<sub>3</sub> detoxification causes an increase in amino acid deamination is correct, then it would appear that amino acid-C skeletons are oxidized rather than used for gluconeogenesis.

#### CONCLUSION

The ability of the liver to detoxify NH<sub>3</sub> to urea appears to be similar in ruminant and non-ruminant species, the principal difference being that the production of NH<sub>3</sub> by foregut fermentation in ruminants is extremely variable and dependent on feed sources, whilst in non-ruminants, NH<sub>3</sub> is produced in the hindgut and, therefore, absorption into the portal vein is affected far less by diurnal feed cycles. Despite the high rates of uptake from the gut which result from rapid fermentation of soluble N in forage diets, the ruminant liver is extremely adept at detoxifying NH<sub>3</sub> to urea. However, there is evidence to suggest that NH<sub>3</sub> detoxification to urea imposes a metabolic 'cost' in terms of amino acid deamination. This could explain observations of poor N retention in forage-fed ruminants, although further specific metabolic studies are required to identify a mechanism which could explain this interaction of NH<sub>3</sub> with amino acid metabolism.

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