The effect of urea synthesis on extracellular pH in isolated perfused rat liver

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In a non-recirculating system of isolated liver perfusion, stimulation of urea synthesis by NH4C1 is followed by ^a decrease of effluent pH by up to 0.2 pH unit. This effect is not observed when urea synthesis is inhibited by amino-oxyacetate or norvaline. When the urea formed by the liver is immediately hydrolysed with urease before the effluent perfusate reaches the pH electrode, the urea-synthesis-induced acidification is no longer observed. This indicates that accompanying alterations in hepatic metabolism after stimulation of urea synthesis, such as increased energy provision and consumption, are not responsible for the extracellular acidification, but that the effect is due to the formation of urea itself. The acidification of the extracellular space after stimulation of urea synthesis by $NH₄Cl$ is quantitatively explained by the consumption of 2 mol of $HCO₃⁻/mol$ of urea formed: 1 mol being incorporated into urea, the other being protonated to yield CO₂ and H_2O . The data match the theoretically predicted HCO_3^- consumption during ureogenesis and underline the role of hepatic urea synthesis for disposal of HCO_3^- by converting it into the excretable products CO_2 and urea.

INTRODUCTION

The maintenance of ^a physiological extracellular pH of 7.4 requires mechanisms to keep the extracellular $HCO₃⁻/CO₂$ ratio constant. Because both compounds of this buffer system are continuously formed during the oxidation of ingested foodstuffs, it is necessary that $HCO₃$ and $CO₂$ are eliminated from the organism at the same rate at which they are generated. The hydrolysis of proteins produces bipolar amino acids, yielding $HCO₃$ and $NH₄⁺$ in almost stoichiometric amounts, whereas $CO₂$ and $H₂O$ are the only products of the complete oxidation of carbohydrates and fat and are excreted via the lungs and kidneys. In man, ingesting an average diet

containing about 100 g of protein/day, about ¹ mol of $HCO₃$ ⁻ and 1 mol of $NH₄$ ⁺ are produced. In view of the limited volume of urine, such a high amount of $HCO₃$ cannot be disposed of by the kidneys. In mammals, the major pathway for disposal of $HCO₃⁻$ is hepatic urea synthesis, which consumes $HCO₃⁻$ and $NH₄⁺$ in stoichiometric amounts, yielding an excretable neutral product (Oliver & Bourke, 1975; Oliver et al., 1977; Atkinson & Camien, 1982; Atkinson & Bourke, 1984; Häussinger et al., 1984):

$$
\begin{array}{c}\nO \\
||\n\angle HCO_3^- + 2 NH_4^+ \rightarrow H_2N-C-NH_2 + CO_2 + 3 H_2O\n\end{array}
$$
 (1)

Fig. 1. NH₄⁺ metabolism and regulation of $HCO₃$ ⁻ homoeostasis

 NH_4 ⁺ and HCO₃⁻ arise in almost stoichiometric amounts during protein breakdown. Whereas urea synthesis consumes HCO₃⁻, $HCO₃$ is spared when hepatic urea synthesis is switched off and $NH₄$ is excreted as such into the urine, with glutamine serving as non-toxic transport form of $NH₄$ ⁺. In metabolic acidosis flux through reactions 1 and 2 (urea synthesis and glutaminase) is decreased, whereas flux through reactions 3 and 4 (glutamine synthetase and renal glutaminase) is increased, resulting in NH_4 ⁺ disposal without concomitant HCO_3^- removal. When NH_4^+ ions are excreted as such into urine, there is no net production or consumption of 2-oxoglutarate in the organism.

In contrast, $NH₄$ ⁺ fixation by glutamine synthesis does not affect $HCO₃^-$ homoeostasis, and $NH₄$ ⁺ may be excreted as such into urine after renal glutamine degradation (Fig. 1). Thus, in acidosis, $HCO₃$ is spared when hepatic urea synthesis decreases (Atkinson & Camien, 1982; Atkinson & Bourke, 1984; Häussinger et al., 1980, 1984), whereas waste nitrogen is increasingly excreted as $NH₄$ ⁺ by the kidney, with glutamine being the non-toxic transport form between these tissues (Fig. 1). In this concept, the disposition of hepatic $NH₄$ ⁺ either into urea or into glutamine synthesis will affect pH homoeostasis, whereas the renal step of $NH₄$ ⁺ or urea excretion will not itself affect directly the extracellular pH in the organism. However, the co-ordinated action of both processes, hepatic $HCO₃⁻$ removal during urea synthesis and renal $NH₄$ ⁺ excretion, is a prerequisite for an effective regulation of pH and $HCO₃⁻$ homoeostasis independent of the requirement for waste nitrogen disposal. This is met by a sensitive regulation of hepatic $HCO₃$ consumption during urea synthesis (Oliver *et al.*, 1977; Haussinger et al., 1975, 1983, 1984; Bean & Atkinson, 1984; Haussinger & Gerok, 1985) and of renal ammoniagenesis (for reviews see Tannen, 1978; Welbourne & Phromphetcharat, 1984; Tannen & Sastrasinh, 1984) by the extracellular pH and the absolute $HCO₃$ and $CO₂$ concentrations.

Such a role of the liver in controlling the extracellular pH by regulating urea-cycle flux, however, has been questioned, and renal $NH₄$ ⁺ excretion was considered to be the crucial step in the regulation of extracellular pH and generation of new $HCO₃⁻$ in the kidney (Halperin & Jungas, 1983; Welbourne & Phromphetcharat, 1984; Walser, 1986). The present study was undertaken to demonstrate experimentally the theoretically postulated effect of urea synthesis on extracellular pH (cf. eqn. 1).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Liver perfusion

Livers of male Wistar rats (100-200 g body wt.), fed ad libitum on standard diet (Altromin), were perfused as described previously (Sies, 1978) in an open nonrecirculating system. The perfusate was bicarbonatebuffered Krebs-Henseleit saline plus L-lactate (2.1 mM) and pyruvate (0.3 mM), both added as sodium salts. When ornithine was present, its concentration in the influent was 2 mm . NH₄Cl was added from neutralized stock solution by precision micro-pumps. The perfusion medium was gassed with $O_2/CO_2(19:1)$. The temperature was 37 °C. Perfusate flow was approx. 4 ml/g per min and was kept constant throughout each individual perfusion experiment.

Assays

The perfusate concentrations of $NH₄$ ⁺ and urea were determined in enzymic optical tests based on the procedures given in Bergmeyer (1974). Effluent pH was monitored with ^a glass pH electrode (Fa. Ingold).

Materials

All enzymes, NADH and 2-oxoglutarate were from Boehringer (Mannheim, Germany). L-Lactic acid was from Roth (Karlsruhe, Germany). All other chemicals were from Merck (Darmstadt, Germany).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Stimulation of urea synthesis in an open (nonrecirculating) perfused rat liver system by addition of $NH₄$ ⁺ ions was followed by a decrease in effluent pH. This acidification of effluent perfusate shows a time course similar to that for urea formation (Fig. 2). However, when urea synthesis from $NH₄Cl$ is inhibited by aminooxyacetate, the decrease in extracellular pH was no longer observed, indicating that not $NH₄Cl$ itself, but its conversion into urea, caused the decrease in extracellular pH. As for control, amino-oxyacetate itself was without effect on the pH in the effluent (Fig. 2). Similarly, when urea synthesis was partly inhibited by norvaline (Marshall & Cohen, 1973), the decrease in effluent pH after NH4Cl addition was largely diminished (results not shown).

When the urea synthesized by the liver was subsequently hydrolysed by addition of urease to the effluent perfusate, before it reached the pH electrode, stimulation of urea synthesis by $NH₄Cl$ was without effect on pH (Fig. 3). This shows that the acidification of the extracellular space during urea synthesis is directly due to the formation of urea, whereas accompanying metabolic alterations after the addition of $NH₄Cl$, such as stimulation of pyruvate dehydrogenase flux or increased hepatic oxygen uptake (Häussinger et al., 1975), do not contribute significantly to the acidification of the extracellular space. Similarly, when urea is added to the portal perfusate, its hydrolysis by urease addition leads to an alkalinization of the perfusate (Fig. 3). In the absence of added $NH₄Cl$ or urea, urease infusion led only to a slight increase in effluent pH, owing to hydrolysis of the small amount of urea produced from endogenous proteins and amino acids.

From eqn. (1), per mol of urea formed by the liver, 2 mol of $HCO₃⁻$ is consumed and 1 mol of $CO₂$ is produced. Thus, when isolated rat liver is perfused with the bicarbonate-buffered Krebs-Henseleit medium $([HCO₃^-] = 25$ mm; $[CO₂] = 1.2$ mm) in an open (nonrecirculating) system, stimulation of urea synthesis by addition of $NH₄Cl$ will theoretically result in a decrease of extracellular pH. From the urea concentration measured in effluent and the stoichiometry given in eqn. (1), the new pH of the effluent perfusate after stimulation of urea synthesis can be calculated as:

$$
pH = 6.1 + log\left(\frac{25 - 2[urea]}{1.2 + [urea]}\right)
$$
 (2)

(with [urea] = urea concentration in effluent) and the extent of acidification is calculated to be:

$$
\Delta pH = \log\left(\frac{25}{1.2}\right) - \log\left(\frac{25 - 2[{\text{urea}}]}{1.2 + [{\text{urea}}]}\right)
$$

$$
= 1.32 - \log\left(\frac{25 - 2[{\text{urea}}]}{1.2 + [{\text{urea}}]}\right) \tag{3}
$$

As shown in Fig. 2, the theoretically expected decrease in extracellular pH according to eqn. (2) closely matches the extent and time course of that directly measured with the pH electrode in the effluent. Agreement between calculated and measured changes in extracellular pH after urea synthesis is observed at different rates of urea production and is also maintained when urea synthesis is stimulated by ornithine (Fig. 4). The acidification of the extracellular space after stimulation of urea synthesis can

Fig. 2. Effect of stimulation of urea synthesis by NH₄Cl on perfusate pH

pH in the effluent perfusate was measured with the pH electrode (continuous line in a) or was calculated from the measured urea concentration in the effluent by eqn. (2) (\triangle). NH₄Cl (1 mm) and amino-oxyacetate (0.19 mm) were added to the influent perfusate during the time periods indicated by the arrows.

Urease (2.5 units/ml of perfusate) was added to the effluent perfusate, so that the urea synthesized by the liver was hydrolysed before the effluent perfusate reached the pH electrode. The concentration of urea was measured at the pH electrode. NH₄Cl (0.65 mm) and urea (0.32 mm) were added to influent perfusate during the time periods indicated by the arrows.

be reversed by infusion of NaHCO₃. Because urea synthesis not only consumes $HCO₃^-$, but also produces $CO₂$, the amount of NaHCO₃ required to restore the initial pH exceeds by far the amount of HCO₃⁻ consumed by urea synthesis (Table 1). These data demonstrate the importance of urea synthesis as a $HCO₃$ -utilizing pathway and prove experimentally the predicted effect of urea formation on extracellular pH (eqns. 1 and 2). Thus, in man, a daily excretion of about 30 g of urea is equivalent to the disposal of about 1 mol of $HCO₃$. The findings also support the view that a diminution of hepatic urea synthesis as a consequence of a decreased 264

Fig. 4. Urea synthesis and extraceliular acidification

Livers were perfused with different concentrations of NH₄Cl (0.05-3 mM) in the absence (\bigcirc) or presence (\bigcirc) of ornithine (2 mM) and after inhibition of glutamine synthetase with methionine sulphoximine (0.15 mm) (∇), and the urea-synthesis-induced acidification (ΔpH) was measured with the pH electrode during metabolic steady states. The broken line refers to a theoretically expected ApH, as calculated from eqn. (3) from the extra urea in the effluent perfusate.

Table 1. Effect of urea synthesis on pH in effluent perfusate

Urea synthesis was stimulated by addition of NH₄Cl (1 mM); further additions are indicated in the text. The pH in effluent perfusate was calculated from urea synthesis by eqn. (2) or was directly measured with ^a pH electrode. Data are given as means \pm S.E.M. and are from six to nine different measurements during metabolic steady states. $NH₄Cl$, amino-oxyacetate (AOA) and NaHCO₃ were added to the influent perfusate.

extracellular pH (Oliver et al., 1977; Häussinger et al., 1984; Bean & Atkinson, 1984; Hiiussinger & Gerok, 1985) or a decrease in the absolute extracellular $HCO₃$ and $CO₂$ concentrations (Häussinger et al., 1975; Häussinger & Gerok, 1985) will lead to a decreased hepatic HCO_3 ⁻ consumption, in line with the proposed role of the liver in systemic pH regulation by adjusting the rate of $HCO₃⁻$ removal to the needs of acid-base homoeostasis. In this respect, it should be noted that $HCO₃$ consumption by urea synthesis is irreversible and

leads to the formation of an excretable metabolic end product. It has been argued that renal metabolism of 2-oxoglutarate via the oxidative or the gluconeogenic pathway derived from glutamine breakdown in acidosis will result in $HCO₃⁻$ formation or proton consumption by the kidney (Welbourne & Phromphetcharat, 1984; Walser, 1986). This, however, cannot affect $HCO₃$ homoeostasis in the whole organism, because 2 oxoglutarate formation in the kidney is accompanied by an 2-oxoglutarate consumption in the glutamineproducing organs, such as liver and muscle (Fig. 1).

Fig. 2 also shows that addition or withdrawal of $NH₄Cl$ to or from the extracellular space is nearly without effect on extracellular pH when urea synthesis is inhibited. This is simply explained by the comparatively high $pK(9.3)$ of the $NH₃/NH₄$ ⁺ system, and can be seen in rough analogy to renal NH₄Cl excretion. This important kidney function (see below) increases in a traditional sense the 'total body buffer base' (defined as the difference between non-metabolizable cations and non-metabolizable anions), but is without effect itself on extracellular pH (Atkinson & Camien, 1982; Atkinson & Bourke, 1984; Häussinger et al., 1984). Because $NH₄$ ⁺ and $HCO₃$ ⁻ arise in almost stoichiometric amounts during protein breakdown, renal excretion of NH_4^+ together with Cl⁻ or in exchange with Na⁺ will leave behind $HCO₃⁻$, which would otherwise be disposed of by hepatic urea synthesis. The question of whether the increased renal $NH₄$ ⁺ excretion in acidosis is a consequence of a decreased hepatic $NH₄$ ⁺ detoxication by urea synthesis or whether the decreased hepatic urea synthesis in acidosis results from an increased $NH₄$ ⁺ removal by renal excretion is considered to be of little relevance, because it was shown in isolated liver and kidney preparations that the metabolism of both organs adapts independently of each other in a meaningful way to changes in pH. The complex regulation of hepatic urea synthesis (which is equivalent to $HCO₃$ consumption) by extracellular pH and the absolute extracellular $HCO₃⁻$ and $CO₂$ concentrations (Häussinger et al., 1975, 1984; Häussinger & Gerok, 1985), involving flux changes through the substrateproviding reactions catalysed by mitochondrial carbonic anhydrase (Häussinger $\&$ Gerok, 1985) and glutaminase (Häussinger et al., 1980, 1983, 1984), is well designed to stabilize the extracellular pH near 7.4 and could also help to adjust the extracellular $HCO₃$ concentration near 25 mm. The sophisticated structural and functional organization of the urea-cycle enzymes glutaminase and glutamine synthetase in the liver acinus (Haussinger, 1983; Häussinger & Gerok, 1984; Gaasbeek-Janzen et al., 1984; Gebhardt & Mecke, 1983) guarantees the effective $NH₄$ ⁺ detoxication by a compensatory increase in hepatic glutamine synthesis when $HCO₃⁻$ consumption by urea synthesis decreases in metabolic acidosis. Independent of these changes in hepatic metabolism, which directly counteract and compensate the pH derangement, the complex regulation of renal ammoniagenesis then removes surplus nitrogen. This contribution of the kidney prevents recirculation of free or amino-group-bound NH_a ⁺, whose accumulation might otherwise override the control of hepatic urea synthesis by extracellular pH, $HCO₃⁻$ and $CO₂$. Such a situation is observed in chronic renal insufficiency, when renal NH_4 ⁺ excretion is impaired (Welbourne et al., 1972; Tizianello et al., 1980). Acidosis developing under these conditions can be explained as a consequence of an inadequate substrate

stimulation of $HCO₃$ -consuming urea synthesis, preventing hyperammonaemia for the price of hypobicarbonataemia.

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