NATIONAL METABOLIC BIOCHEMISTRY NETWORK

GUIDELINES FOR THE INVESTIGATION OF HYPERAMMONAEMIA

Hyperammonaemia results from defective catabolism of amino acids to urea. Recognition and treatment of hyperammonaemia, especially in the neonatal period, is a clinical emergency as if left untreated morbidity and mortality is high. These guidelines describe the differential diagnosis of hyperammonaemia, providing guidance to the non-specialist clinician and laboratories on appropriate investigation, particularly with regards to inherited metabolic disorders.

Introduction

Ammonia is produced from the deamination of amino acids in the liver, muscle and kidney, and by the action of gut bacteria.

At physiological pH 95% is in the ammonium form (NH_4+) which is less permeable to cell membranes however an increase in pH results in a shift in the equilibrium towards ammonia (NH_3) enhancing toxicity. In the liver ammonia is converted to urea, via the urea cycle, for excretion by the kidneys. Most clinical chemistry methods measure total NH_3 and NH_4+ . Typical plasma ammonia levels are shown in table 1.

Table 1 – Typical plasma ammonia levels.

Premature Neonate	< 150 µmol/L
Term Neonate	< 100 µmol/L
Infant / Child	< 40 µmol/L
Adult	< 40 µmol/L

Mildly raised levels up to 80 μ mol/L are seen quite commonly, and in neonates any illness may result in levels around 150 μ mol/L. Any ammonia >150 μ mol/L in children, or >200 μ mol/L in neonates and >100 μ mol/L in adults requires immediate attention.

Ammonia is neurotoxic and symptoms are therefore essentially neurological, however there is a wide clinical spectrum with varying severity and age of onset. Neonates with inherited metabolic disorders resulting in hyperammonaemia may have overwhelming illness (often mistaken for sepsis) with rapid deterioration from

poor feeding and vomiting to tachypnoea, convulsions and coma. Respiratory alkalosis is an early sign. There should be a low threshold for suspicion of hyperammonaemia in any neonate with neurological deterioration for no apparent cause. Patients may die during an acute episode due to cerebral oedema and those who survive the crisis often have remaining handicap or neurological deficit. In contrast to other urea cycle disorders argininaemia presents with spasticity rather than an acute hyperammonaemia syndrome. Milder defects may not present until later in life or during intercurrent illness. Symptoms of chronic hyperammonaemia may be episodic and are non-specific such as vomiting, faddy eating, behavioural changes, slow developmental progress and neurological deficits. Consequently hyperammonaemia may be difficult to recognise.

Untreated hyperammonaemia can cause irreversible brain damage and death at any age. Therefore it is essential to measure ammonia in every sick patient in which a metabolic disease may be the underlying diagnosis.

Causes of Hyperammonaemia

The causes of hyperammonaemia can be classified as detailed in table 2.

Table 2 – Causes of Hyperammonaemia

DEFECTS OF THE UREA CYCLE	OTHER METABOLIC DISORDERS
Inherited Deficiencies of : - N-Acetyl glutamate synthase (NAGS) - Carbamoyl phosphate synthase (CPS) - Ornithine transcarbamylase (OTC) - Argininosuccinate synthase (citrullinaemia) - Argininosuccinate lyase (argininosuccinic aciduria) - Arginase (argininaemia) - Carbonic anhydrase VA deficiency	Organic Acidurias e.g Propionic aciduria, Methylmalonic aciduria, Isovaleric aciduria Disorders of Fatty Acid Oxidation e.g Medium chain acyl-CoA dehydrogenase deficiency Carnitine palmitoyltransferase II deficiency Others - HHH syndrome - Lysinuric protein intolerance (LPI) - Hyperinsulinaemic hyperammonaemia - Ornithine aminotransferase deficiency (OAT) (neonatal form) - Mitochondrial respiratory chain defects - Pyruvate dehydrogenase deficiency - Citrin deficiency (citrullinaemia type II) - Congenital lactic acidosis
ACQUIRED	OTHER
 Liver failure / impairment Urinary tract infection GI bacterial overgrowth Drugs e.g. valproate, chemotherapy Total parenteral nutrition Severe illness e.g. asphyxia, sepsis Reyes syndrome Systemic herpes simplex 	 Artefactual increase : poor specimen quality / haemolysis difficult venepuncture skin contamination contaminated tube delayed analysis / protein breakdown Transient hyperammonaemia of the Newborn

Investigation

1. Check Ammonia (see appendix for notes on the measurement of ammonia)

Ideally ammonia should be measured on a free flowing venous sample or arterial stab. Capillary samples should be avoided. Samples should be sent to the laboratory as soon as possible (ideally within 15 minutes and on ice). However if it is not possible to collect the 'perfect sample' and send under ideal conditions, send the sample anyway. If a high ammonia result is obtained, the result should be confirmed by repeat analysis as soon as possible. An increasing trend in the ammonia concentration provides evidence towards a metabolic cause, with particularly rapid increases being seen in urea cycle disorders.

The commonest cause of a mildly raised ammonia level is contamination or sample deterioration. If it is suspected that the raised ammonia is due to artefactual factors, the result should be confirmed on a second sample prior to initiating treatment.

2. Ammonia Level

The ammonia level may assist in the different diagnosis of the cause of hyperammonaemia. In general an ammonia level of greater than 200 µmol/L is more likely to have a metabolic cause whereas a level of less than 200 µmol/L is more likely to be acquired. The highest levels of ammonia are usually seen in urea cycle disorders such as OTC, CPS and NAGS, the acute organic acidurias, such as propionic acidaemia, and transient hyperammonaemia of the newborn. Metabolic conditions such as fatty acid oxidation disorders, hyperinsulinaemic hyperammonaemia and ornithine aminotransferase deficiency tend to have more moderate increases in ammonia. Some metabolic conditions, such as medium chain acyl-CoA dehydrogenase deficiency, mitochondrial disorders may present with normal or mildly raised ammonia levels.

3. First Line Investigations

First line investigations all patients with hyperammonaemia should include:

	Blood gases		
Blood	Urea and electrolytes	Blood or	Ketones
	Liver function tests	urine	
	Clotting studies		
	Glucose		
	Lactate		
	Calcium		
	Culture		

Results of these investigations may support an acquired cause or provide evidence for an underlying metabolic condition, directing further investigations. Findings associated with particular metabolic conditions are detailed in table 3.

Table 3 – First Line Biochemical Investigations in Hyperammonaemia

Investigation	Interpretation
Blood Gases	Ammonia is a respiratory stimulant therefore hyperammonaemia causes a respiratory alkalosis . The presence of a metabolic acidosis may suggest an organic acid disorder or fatty acid oxidation defect.
Urea	May be inappropriately low compared to other markers of renal function / dehydration in urea cycle disorder.
Liver Function Tests	Severely deranged in some acquired causes of hyperammonaemia. May be mild elevations in urea cycle defects and organic acidurias.
Glucose	Hypoglycaemia may occur in e.g. fatty acid oxidation disorders, hyperinsulinism and liver failure. (See MetBio.Net guidelines for investigation)
Lactate	May be raised in a number of metabolic conditions and also liver failure. (See MetBio.Net guidelines for investigation)
Calcium	Hypocalcaemia is a feature of some organic acid disorders.
Ketones	May differentiate organic acids disorders (increased) from fatty acid oxidation disorders and liver failure (not present/low).

4. Specialist Investigations

The following specialist metabolic investigations should be carried where a metabolic cause of hyperammonaemia is suspected:

- Plasma and urine amino acids
- Urine organic acids including orotic acid
- Blood spot or plasma acylcarnitines

Ideally samples should be collected prior to the initiation of treatment.

Plasma amino acids should be done **urgently** if there is significant hyperammonaemia and a urea cycle disorder is suspected.

The results of these investigations are usually diagnostic, however further confirmatory tests may be required.

Table 4 highlights the role of **urine orotic acid** and **plasma amino acids** in the differential diagnosis of urea cycle disorders indicating the potential findings. Citrullinaemia, arginosuccinic aciduria and argininaemia can all be diagnosed on the basis of amino acid results. Glutamine, glutamate, asparagine, aspartate, lysine and alanine can all be high and arginine may be low as non-specific findings secondary to hyperammonaemia.

Table 4 – Differential Diagnosis of Urea Cycle Disorders

Disorder	Urine orotic acid	Plasma amino acids
N-acetyl glutamate synthase deficiency	N or ↓	Citrulline ↓ Arginine ↓
Carbamoyl phosphate synthase deficiency	N or ↓	Citrulline N or ↓ Arginine N or ↓
Ornithine transcarbamylase deficiency	↑ ↑	Citrulline ↓ Arginine ↓ Lysine ↑
Citrullinaemia	↑	Citrulline ↑↑ Arginine ↓
Argininosuccinic aciduria	↑	Argininosuccinate ↑↑ Citrulline ↑ Arginine ↓
Argininaemia	↑ ↑	Arginine ↑↑

 $N = Normal \uparrow = Increased \downarrow = Decreased$

Urine organic acid analysis is diagnostic of organic acid disorders, each of which results in excretion of characteristic metabolites. In fatty acid oxidation disorders a dicarboxylic aciduria may be seen.

Acylcarnitines are diagnostic of fatty acid oxidation disorders which are differentiated according to the pattern of elevated acylcarnitines. Some acylcarnitines and other carnitine conjugates are elevated in organic acid disorders

5. Confirmatory Tests

Genetic and enzyme studies are available for the confirmation of many of the disorders resulting in hyperammonaemia. Enzyme studies are carried out on liver, fibroblasts or erythrocytes depending on the condition. Further details are available via the MetBioNet Metabolic Assays Directory (www.metbio.net) and the UK Genetics Testing Network (www.ukgtn.org).

6. Management of Hyperammonaemia

Please refer to the BIMDG: 'Emergency Protocols for Undiagnosed Hyperammonaemia and Immediate Management'.

References/Further Reading

Emergency protocols for undiagnosed hyperammonaemia and immediate management. November 2008 (reviewed 2017). British Inherited Metabolic Disease Group (BIMDG). www.bimdg.org.uk

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Disclaimer

These are laboratory guidelines reflecting current best practice in specialist metabolic laboratories the UK. They are not evidence based but reflect expert opinion. The network cannot accept any responsibility for use of these guidelines.

DIAGNOSTIC ALGORITHM

? HYPERAMMONAEMIA

> 40 µmol/L or > 100 µmol/L in neonates



FIRST LINE BIOCHEMICAL INVESTIGATIONS

Blood gases
Urea and electrolytes
Liver function tests
Glucose
Lactate
Calcium
Ketones
Repeat ammonia



FURTHER SPECIALIST INVESTIGATIONS IF METABOLIC CAUSE SUSPECTED

? OA or FAO Disordere.g. acidosis ± ketonesAcylcarnitinesUrine organic acids

? Urea Cycle Disorder e.g. respiratory alkalosis Plasma amino acids Urine organic acids/ orotic acid

? Other metabolic cause e.g. acidosis ± ketones Acylcarnitines Urine organic acids



CONFIRMATORY TESTS IF REQUIRED

APPENDIX: Notes on the Measurement of Ammonia in Blood / Plasma

General Guidance

All hospitals with labour wards, neonatal units, paediatric wards and accident and emergency departments should provide a robust and reliable analytical service for measuring ammonia **24 hours a day, seven days a week**.

- All laboratories performing ammonia analysis should be accredited to ISO15189:2012 and ensure that their ammonia assay is included in their scope of accreditation.
- All laboratories should have details of precautions to be observed for sample handling, collection and transportation to the laboratory documented in their standard operating procedures (SOP).
- Laboratories should **accept all blood samples** for ammonia analysis even if the quality of the sample has been compromised.
- All staff who may be required to perform ammonia measurements should be aware of the factors contributing to artefactual increases in ammonia i.e. haemolysis, delay in analysis.
- All staff who perform ammonia analyses should be familiar with the laboratory SOP and know the operating characteristics and limitations of their assay.
 Training and revalidation should be provided for staff working in laboratories with a small analytical workload who undertake the analysis on an infrequent basis.

Sample Collection/Transportation/ Pre-analytical

To avoid artefactual increases in ammonia good sampling technique and rapid delivery of the sample to the laboratory is required.

- A free-flowing venous blood sample should be collected into specimen tubes containing either lithium heparin or EDTA as anticoagulant as per local laboratory instructions. Drawing blood through a small indwelling catheter may cause haemolysis and hence spuriously elevated ammonia; ideally blood obtained this way should be avoided.
- All specimens for ammonia analysis should be transported to the laboratory as soon as possible, ideally within 15 minutes of collection and preferably on wet ice.
- Laboratories should **accept all blood samples** for ammonia analysis even if the quality of the sample is less than ideal.

- The samples should be analysed immediately if the measurement is to be performed on whole blood or the plasma immediately separated and analysed. If a delay in analysis is envisaged, separated plasma can be stored for up to 4 hours at 4°C.
- Laboratories should document any delay in sample receipt and whether there is significant haemolysis as these are important causes of raised ammonia.
- It is important to recognise that environment sources of ammonia may be present in clinical areas and that vacutainers and equipment used for sample collection may be contaminated. Possible sources of contamination should be minimised.

Analytical Methodology

- Laboratories should **analyse all blood samples** for ammonia even if the quality of the sample is less than ideal.
- The majority of laboratories in the UK employ automated enzyme based (glutamate dehydrogenase) methods or dry slide chemistry for the measurement of plasma ammonia.
- The analytical method should be carefully selected to ensure that it is fit for purpose and consider whether the analytical range is appropriate for monitoring response to treatment. Reflectance meters employing dry slide chemistry strips for whole blood ammonia are suitable for the initial **screening** of patients for hyperammonaemia and as such are a suitable alternative for laboratories with a small workload. All abnormal specimens should be confirmed by a quantitative method. **Caution:** However the working range of such meters is limited to **285** μ**mol/L.** They are therefore **not** suitable for the monitoring of hyperammonaemia patients in whom treatment decisions require knowledge of the absolute concentration.
- All potential extraneous sources of ammonia contamination from other reagents (i.e. urease containing solutions) and water supply should be minimised,
- All laboratories should measure and record the haemolysis index (and icterus index if their assay is affected) of all plasma samples for ammonia analysis.

Quality Control and Quality Assurance

- All laboratories must quality control their ammonia analyses using third party quality control material.
- Laboratories should participate in a External Quality Assurance scheme e.g WEQAS

Reporting/Reference Ranges

- All laboratories should have agreed age related reference ranges for neonates (up to the age of 1 month), infants, children and adults. These reference ranges should be appropriate for the analytical method employed i.e. enzymatic, whole blood reflectance measurements etc.
- Laboratories should **append appropriate comments** to all ammonia results where samples have been delayed or are haemolysed or otherwise compromised.
- Laboratories should request a repeat sample for confirmation of hyperammonaemia where the ammonia result is elevated for the first time.
- Ammonia results of >100 μmol/L should be communicated urgently to the requesting doctor/clinical team.