



# Carbohydrates

**Summer semester 2023-2024**

# What are they?



- Carbohydrates are valuable for its function

**Carbohydrates** are **polyhydroxy aldehydes or ketones**.

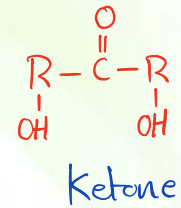
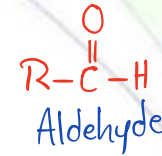
**Saccharide** is another name for a **carbohydrate**

- Saccharide = Carbohydrate
  - the functional group for the sugars either aldehyde or Ketone & they have hydroxyl groups
  - the carboxyl group is the predominant
    - the weakest is the alkane



## Functions:

- it doesn't store energy, but a little amount of it gets stored for long time
- it can be degraded easily



**Source of energy (glycogen and starch)**

دعامة **Structure (cellulose and chitin)** ● Cellulose Found in tree ● Chitin exoskeleton of animals / insects

make larger molecule ← **Building blocks (glycosaminoglycans)** → ex glycoprotein → the sugar compound has the important function

**Cellular recognition (glycoproteins)** → important "found in ECM"

in providing Cushion → Shock Absorber

● مع لترن الخلية على الخلية الأخرى

- Also if I want to look at the function of the immune system

it recognizes the bacteria by the Sugar group it attached to the surface

# Classification I



By the number of sugars that constitute the molecule

**Monosaccharides, Disaccharides, Oligosaccharides, Polysaccharides**

*Different classification system "methodology"*



monosaccharide



disaccharide



oligosaccharide

(chain containing  
3–10 units)



polysaccharide

(long chain with possibly hundreds  
or thousands of units)

# Carbohydrates – natural forms



Most carbohydrates are found naturally in bound form rather than as simple sugars.

Polysaccharides (starch, cellulose, inulin, gums)

Glycoproteins and proteoglycans (hormones, blood group substances, antibodies)

↳ depends on how much sugar

• if I have large protein structure & little groups of sugars

it called glycoprotein

• if I have large sugar structure polysaccharide & little group of amino acids - little peptides

it called proteoglycan

• Sugar molecule can be a part of a larger structure

Glycolipids (cerebrosides, gangliosides)

↳ lipids molecule with little sugar molecules

Glycosides ↳ Sugar molecule reacted with alcohol molecules

Mucopolysaccharides (hyaluronic acid)

Remember Histology:-  
it's found in Cartilage in the GS → GAGs

Nucleic acids (DNA, RNA) ↳ large molecule "EC" out the cell

# Monosaccharides



- Ose prefix refers to sugars
- Sugars can make stereoisomers *on the right side*
- All sugars are **D** Sugars

Basic chemical formula:  $(CH_2O)_n$

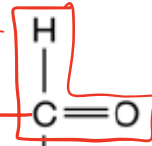
They contain two or more hydroxyl groups.

● in aldehyde it has to be on TOP, because it's stronger

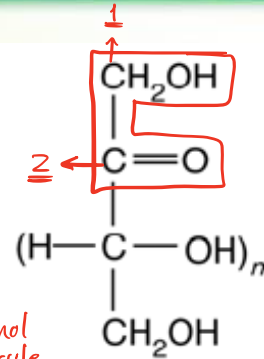
● the simplest aldose it has to be carbons → glyceraldehyde

● Simplest Ketone Dihydroxyacetone

$CH_2OH$   
|  
 $C=O$   
|  
 $CH_2OH$   
→ this Ketone can't do isomers since it's achiral, but other Ketone may be able to do stereoisomers



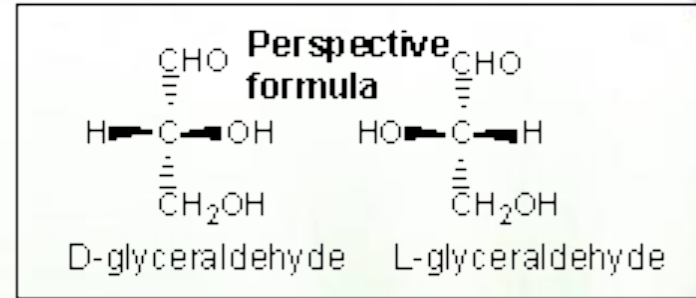
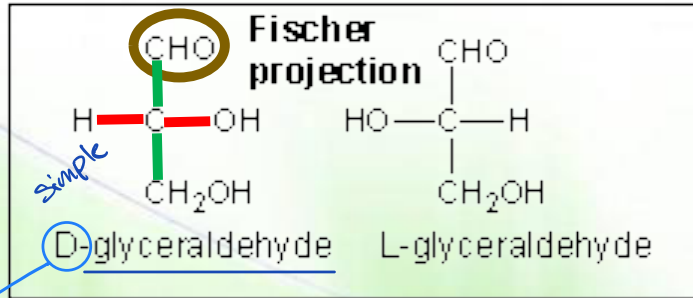
An aldose  
Aldehyde



A ketose  
Ketone

● in Ketone it has to be on TOP also, but carbon no. 2

in 3D ← Fisher projections or perspective structural formulas.



*this's right*  
(L) for left

— Forward    Backward

Top (C1): Most highly oxidized C

# Classification 2



each carbon have OH except Carboxyl group

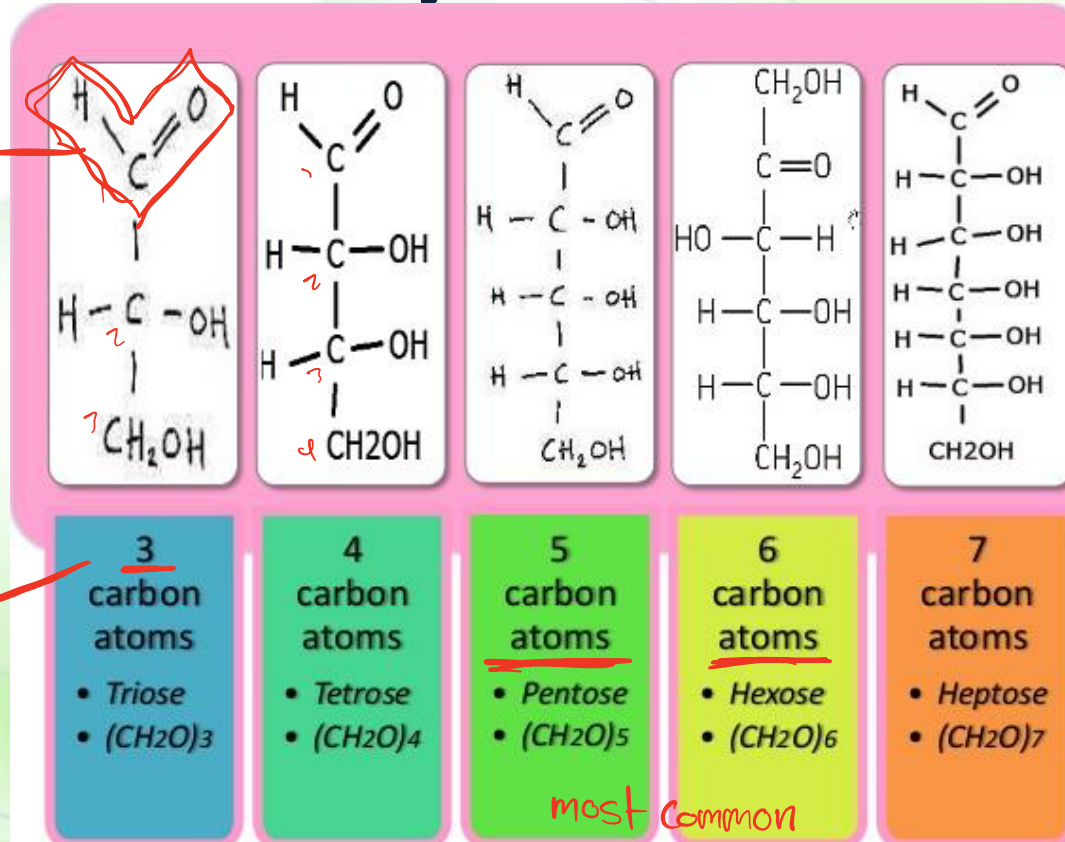
By the number of carbon atoms they contain.

**Triose**  
**Tetrose**  
**Pentose**  
**Hexose**  
**Heptose**

...

aldehyde  
on TOP

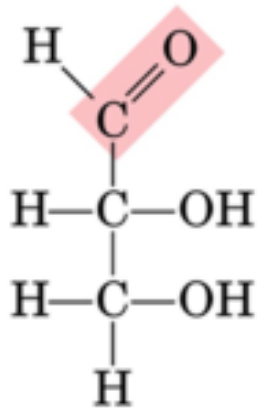
less number  
in monosaccharide



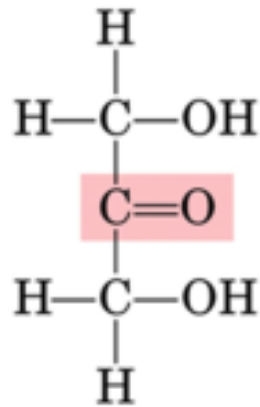
# Classification III



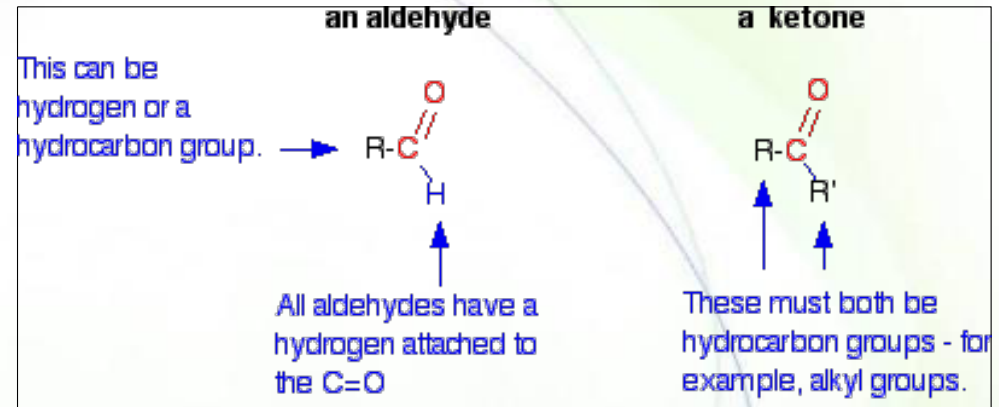
## By the functional group



**Aldose**



**Ketose**

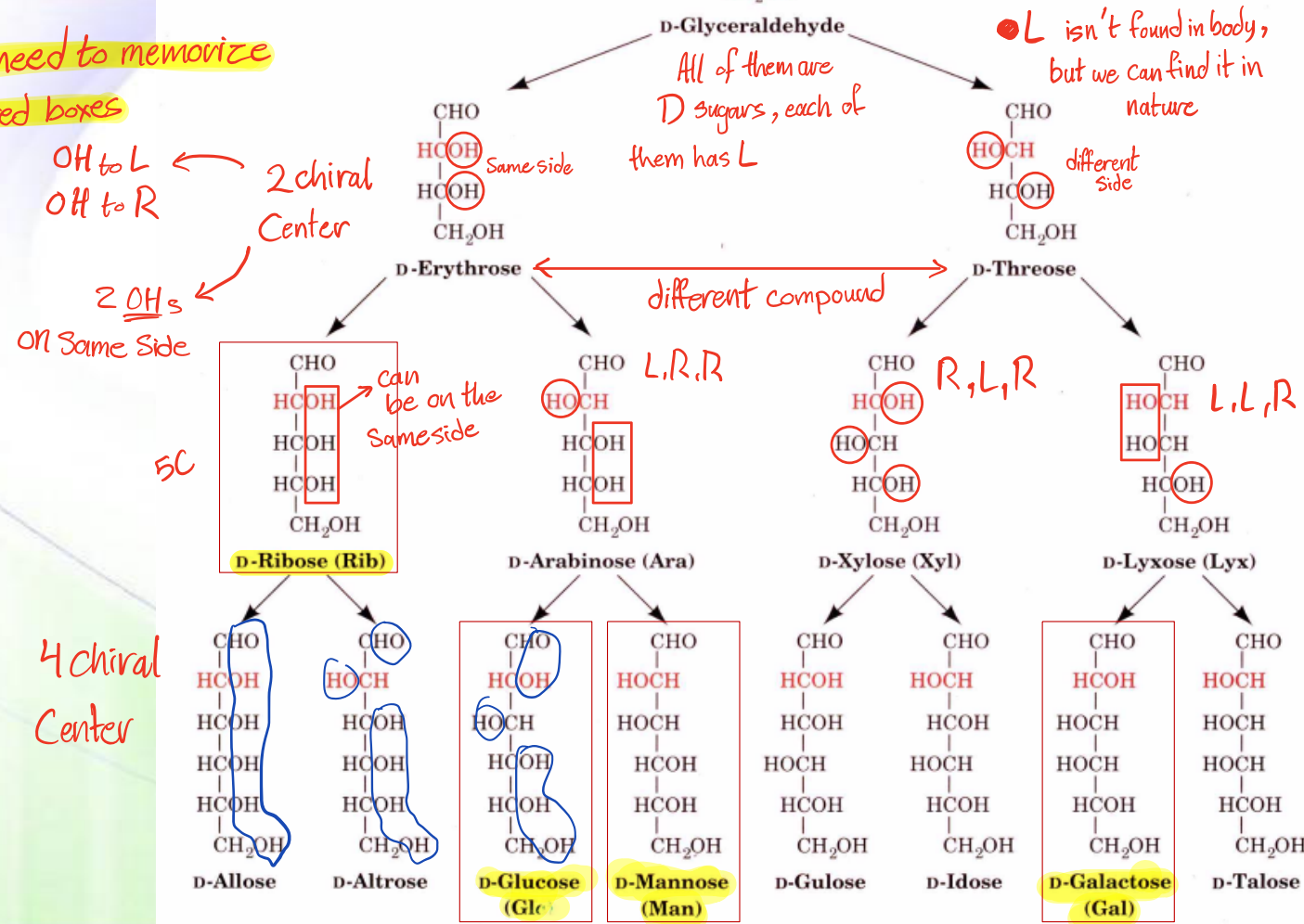




# Aldoses

• You need to memorize all the red boxes

Memorize the ones in boxes.



Aldotriose

Aldotetroses

Aldopentoses

Aldohexoses

• more carbo → more chiral center  
→ more options "Compound"

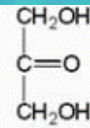
no. C - 2 = chiral Center

↳ on aldoses  
 Ketoses is different  
 $2^n$  CC → chiral center  
 $2^n$

↳ no. of products



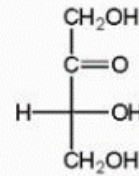
# Ketoses



all the carbons  
are achiral

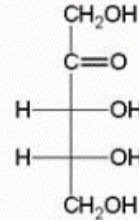
So! no. C - 3 = chiral  
Center

Dihydroxyacetone

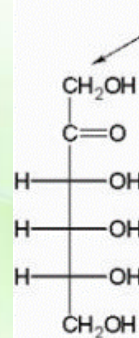


D-Erythrulose

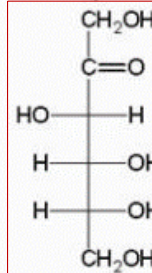
Ketoses



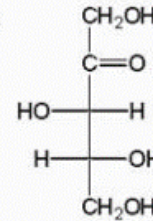
D-Ribulose



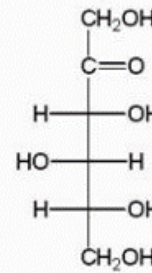
D-Psicose



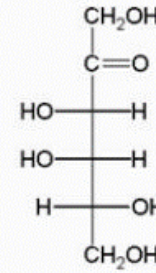
D-Fructose



D-Xylulose



D-Sorbose



D-Tagulose

it's less complex  
& it has less number  
of stereoisomers

Memorize the  
ones in boxes.

Aldoses has more number of molecule

# Common Monosaccharides



**Glucose:** *aldose* → *Aldohexoses*

*6 Carbon*

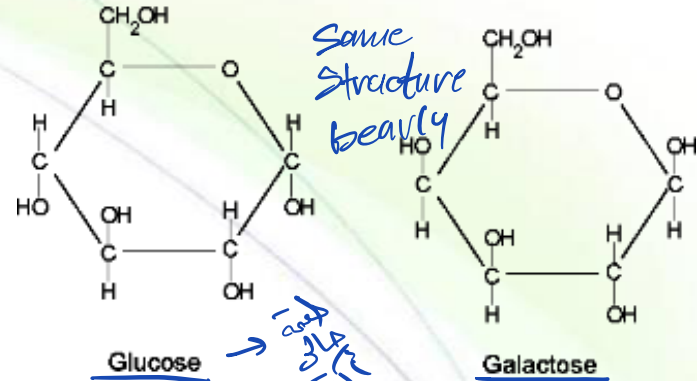
*Carbonyl → no. 1*

**Mild sweet flavor**

**Known as blood sugar**

**Essential energy source**

**Found in every disaccharide and polysaccharide**



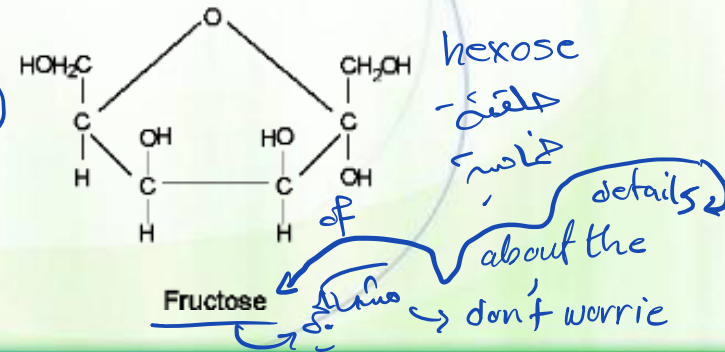
**Galactose:**

**Hardly tastes sweet & rarely found naturally as a single sugar**

**Fructose:** → *Very Sweet*

**Sweetest sugar, found in fruits and honey**

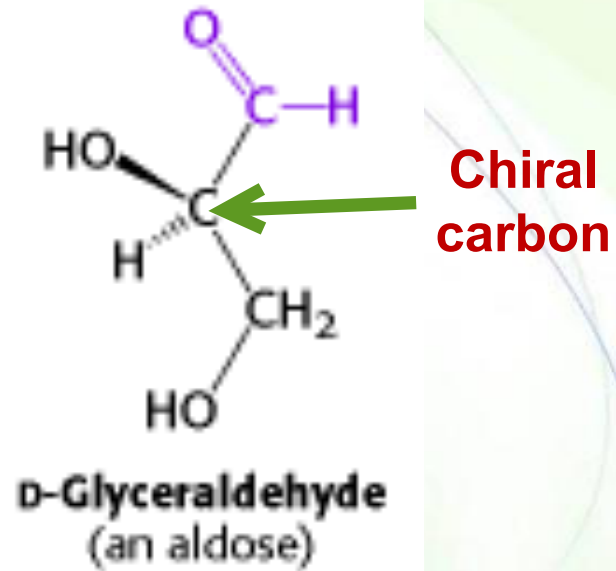
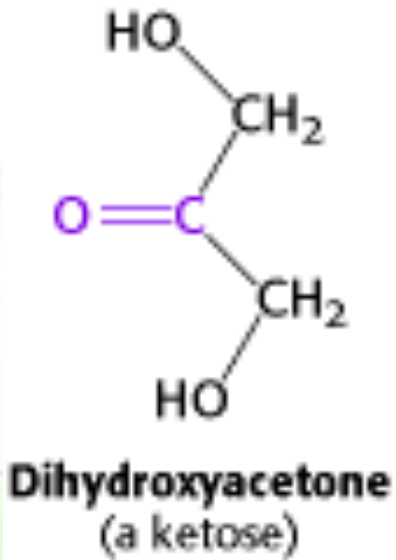
**Added to soft drinks, cereals, desserts**



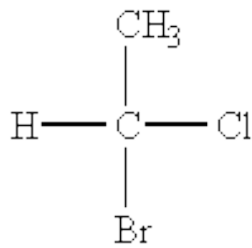
# Trioses



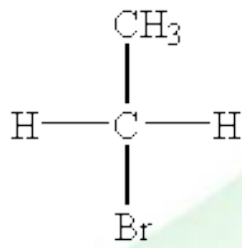
What is a chiral carbon?



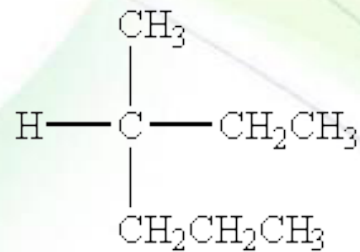
# Note what a chiral carbon is...



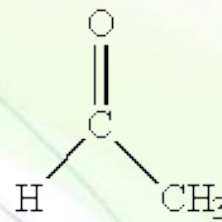
Chiral



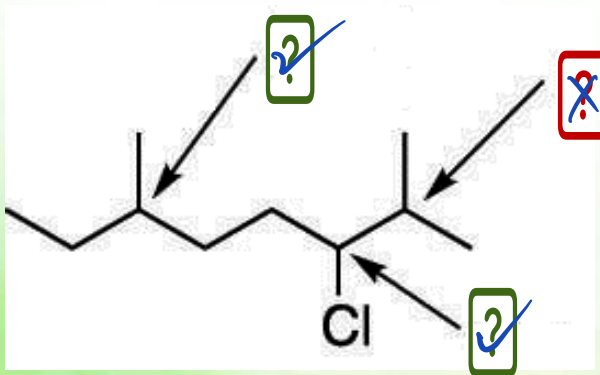
A



e



A



# Isomerism



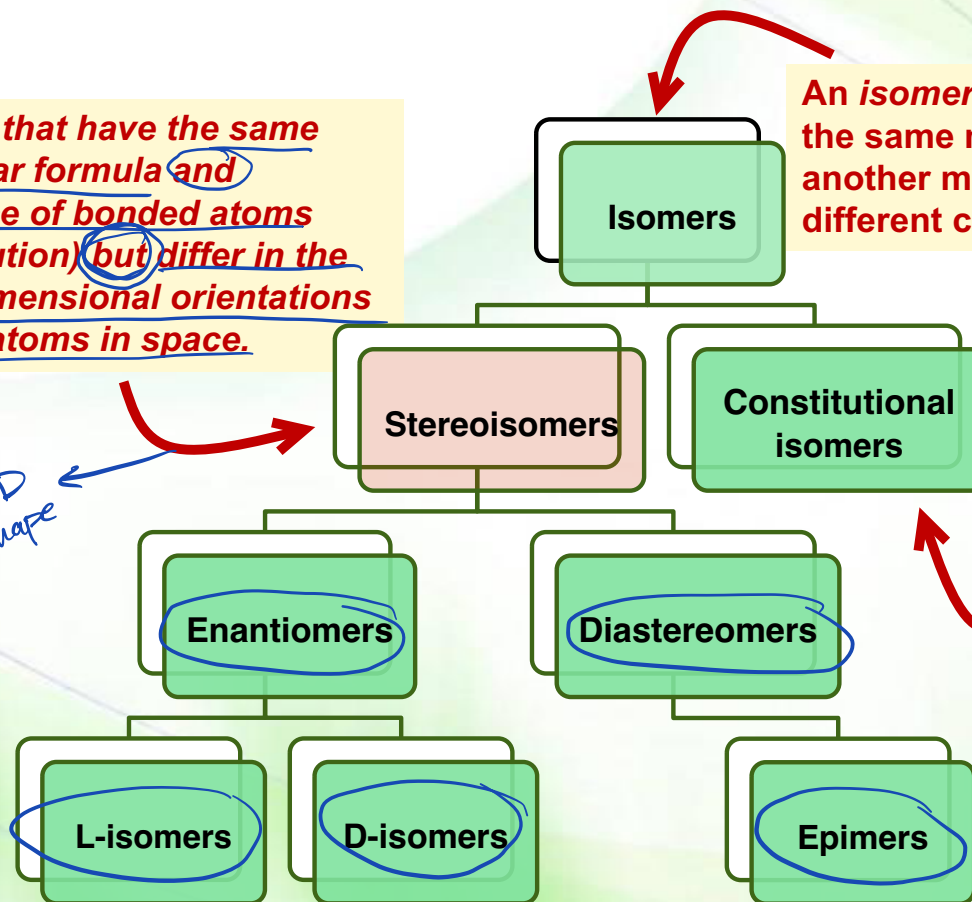
*Isomers that have the same molecular formula and sequence of bonded atoms (constitution) but differ in the three-dimensional orientations of their atoms in space.*

*An isomer is a molecule with the same molecular formula as another molecule, but with a different chemical structure.*

*Molecules with the same molecular formula but have different bonding patterns and atomic organization.*

*3D Shape*

*Functional group different*



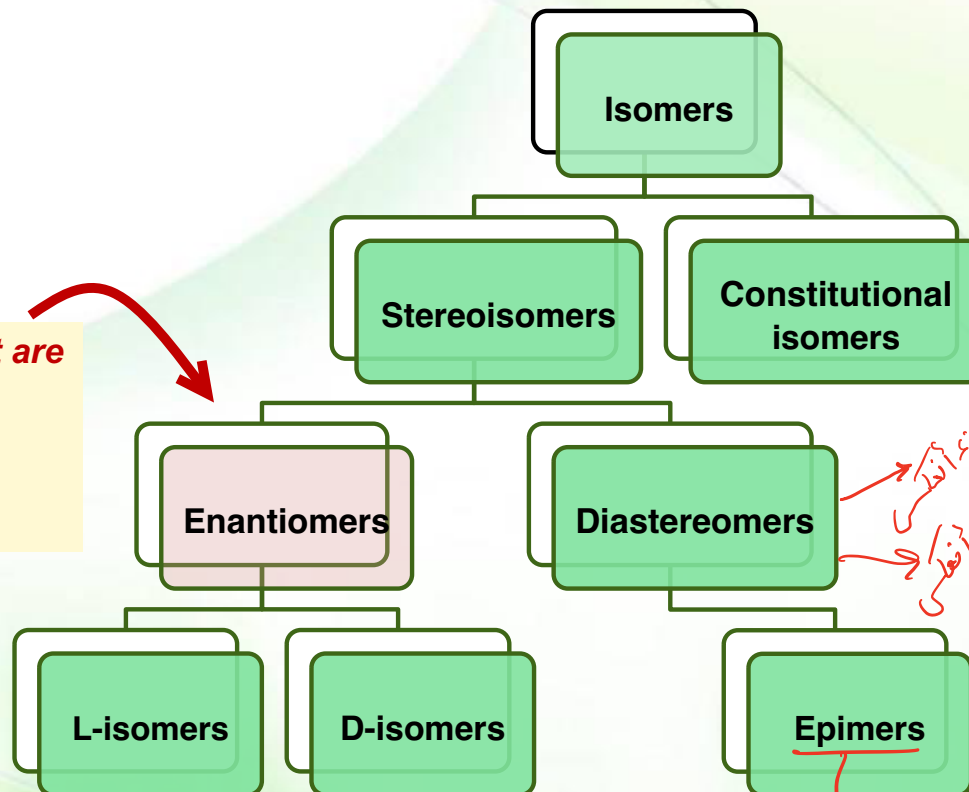
**Search for:**  
**Glucose,**  
**Galactose**  
**Mannose**

[illegible]

# Enantiomers

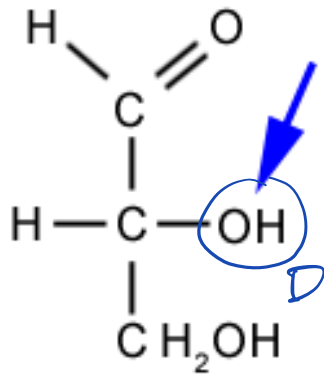


Two stereoisomers that are mirror images of each other and are non-superimposable (not identical)

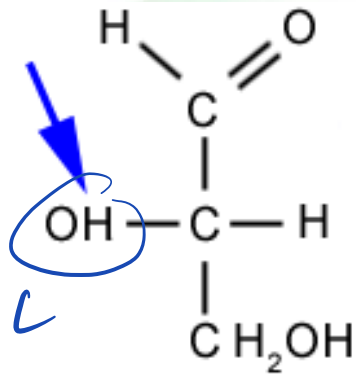


Special case  
every epimer is diastereomer  
but not every diastereomer is epimer

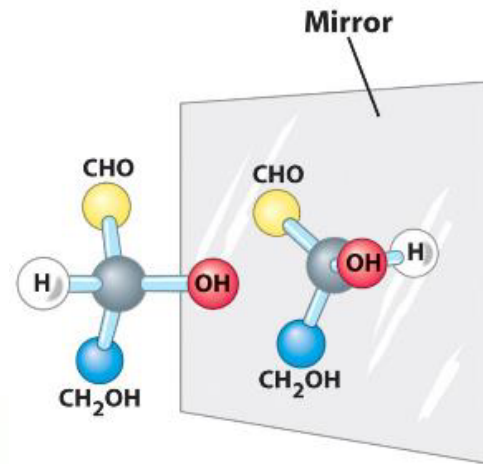
# Sugar enantiomers (D- vs. L-)



D-Glyceraldehyde



L-Glyceraldehyde

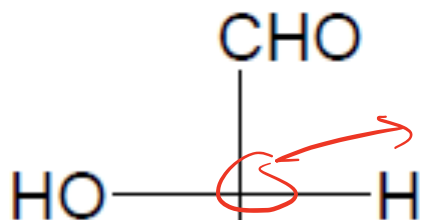


Ball-and-stick models

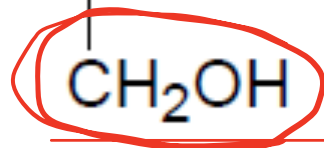
# Which one(s) is a chiral carbon?



Which one to use to determine that it's a D sugar?  
the farthest chiral center select the direction

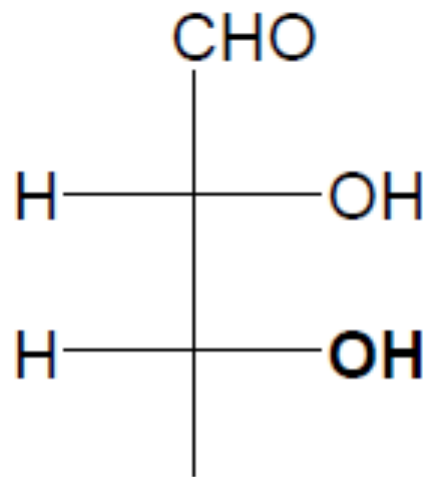


this one



L-erythrose

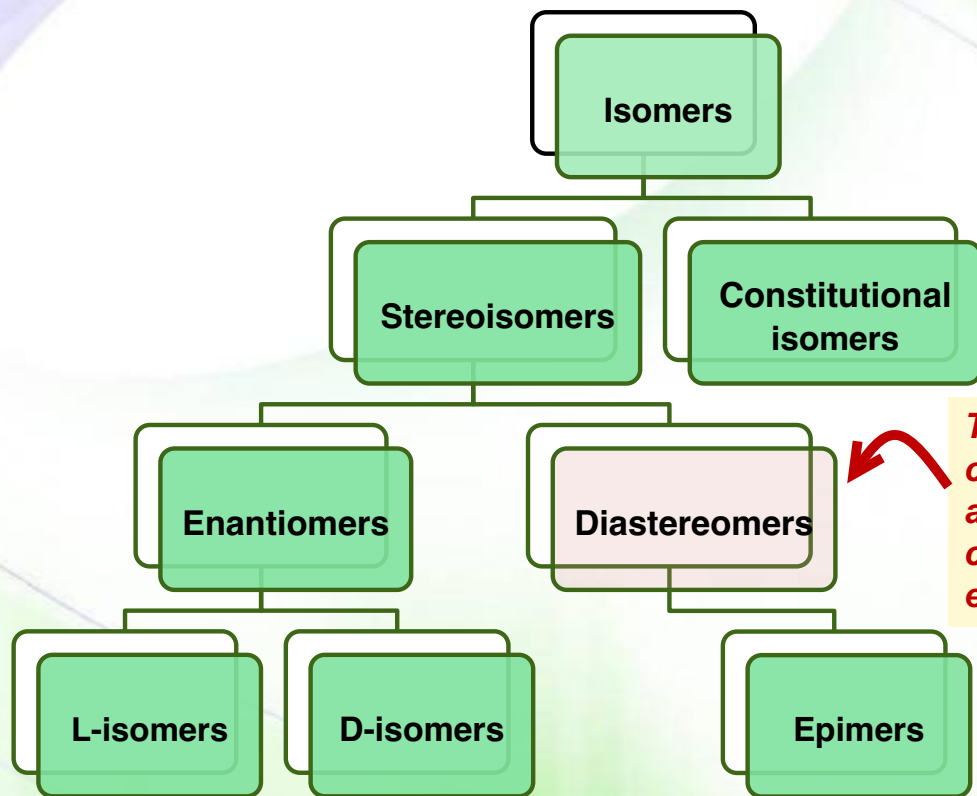
that determine  
the direction



D-erythrose

Do not memorize  
but study them.

# Isomerism

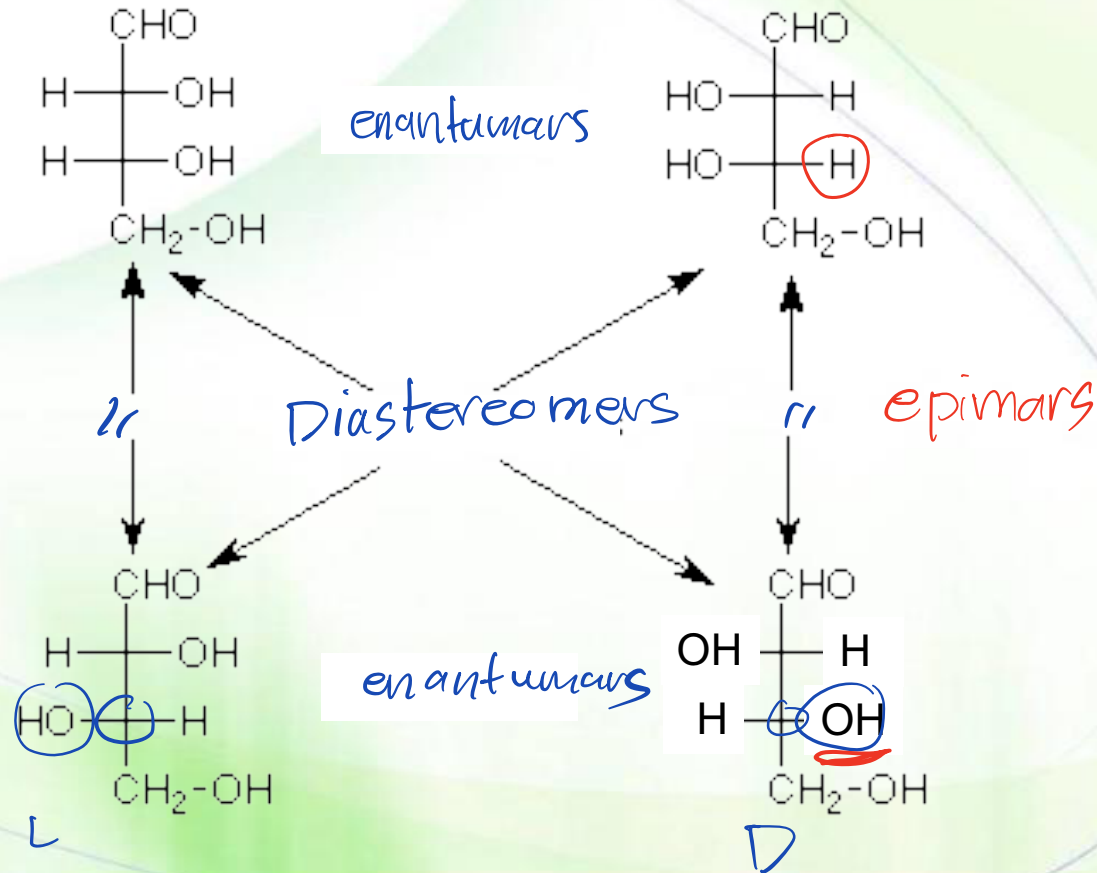


*Two or more stereoisomers of a compound having different configurations at one or more (but not all) of the chiral carbons and are not mirror images of each other.*

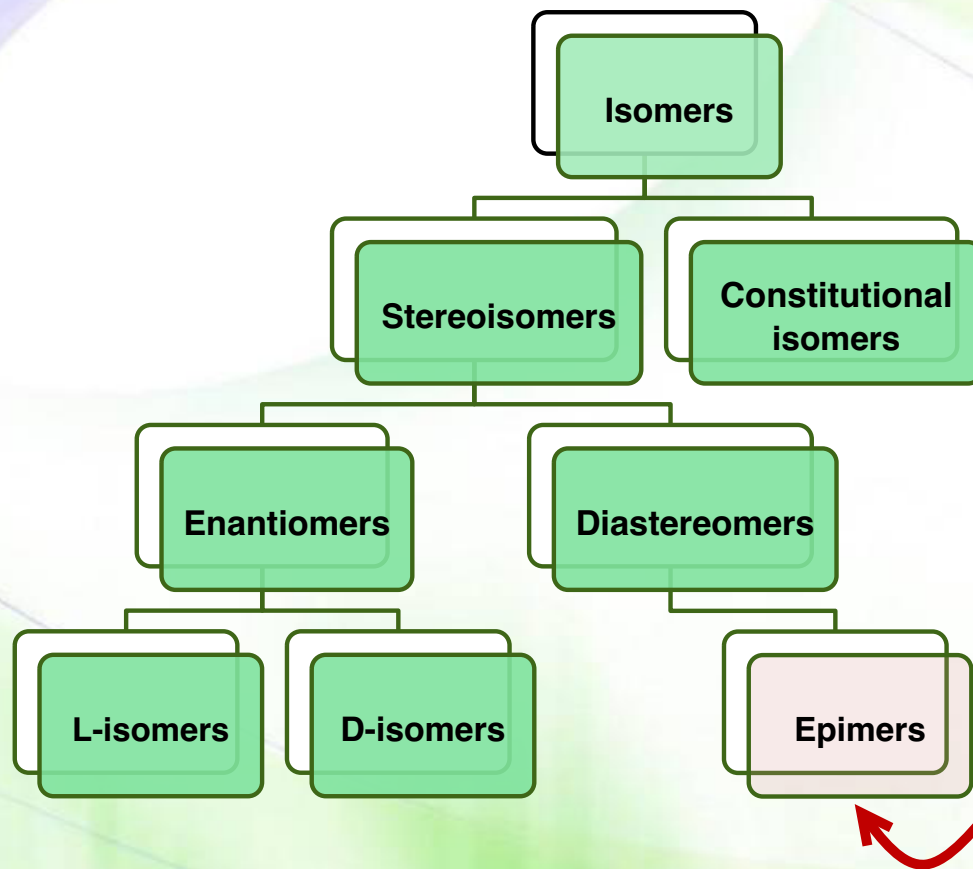
# Stereoisomers, but non-mirror images and non-



then...**diastereomers**



# Isomerism

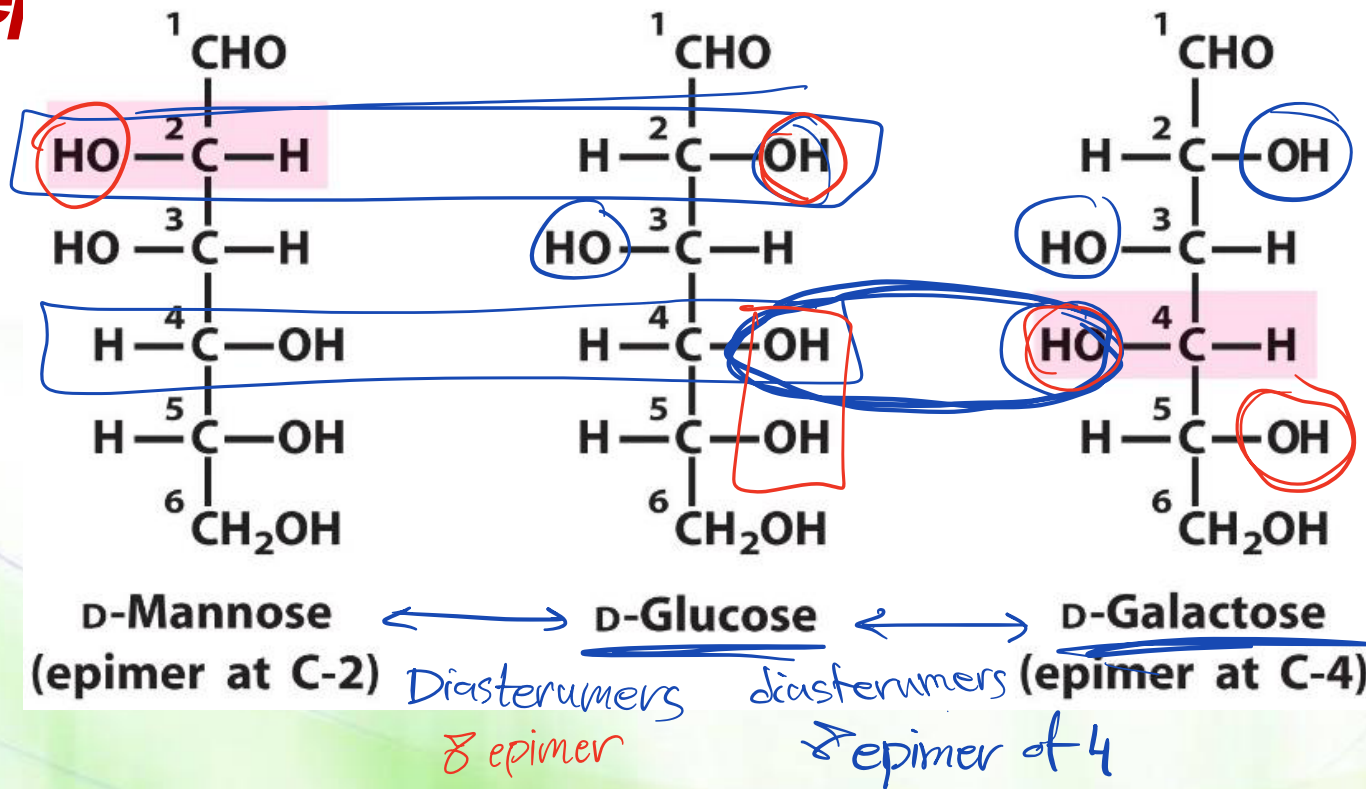


*Epimer refers to one of a pair of stereoisomers whereby two isomers differ in configuration at only one chiral carbons.*

# Diastereomers with different orientation of one chiral



Carbon  
then... *epimers*



Memorize and study them.

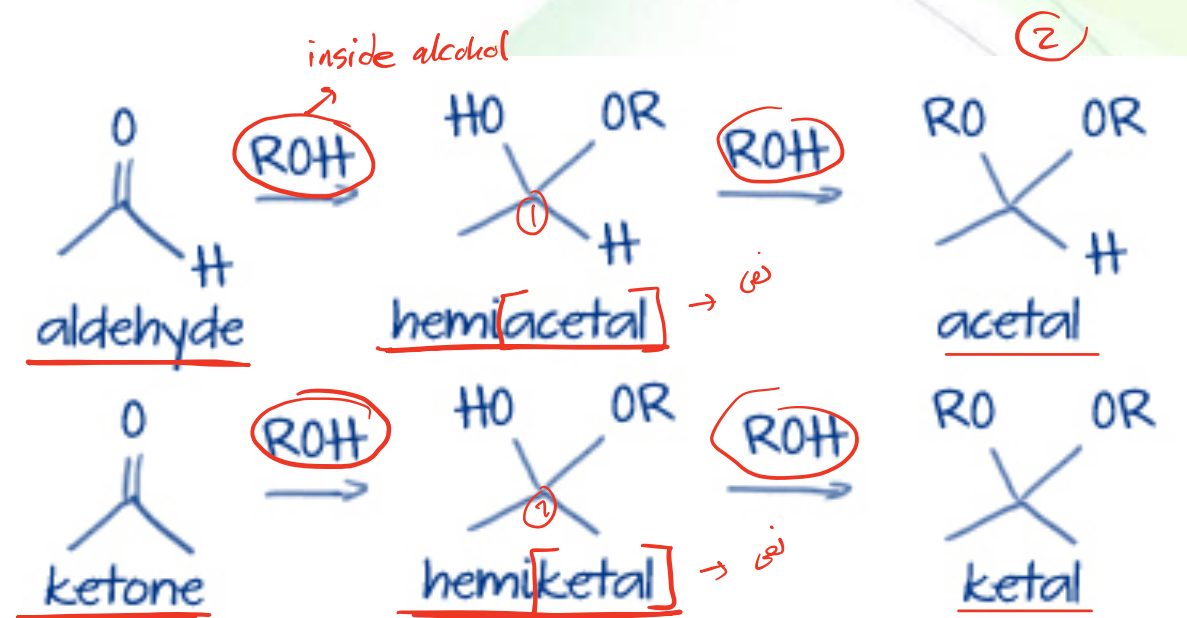
the relation between Mannose & Galactose? Diastereomers ONLY

**Is L-glucose an epimer with D-mannose and D-galactose?**

# Acetal/ketal vs. hemiacetal/hemiketal



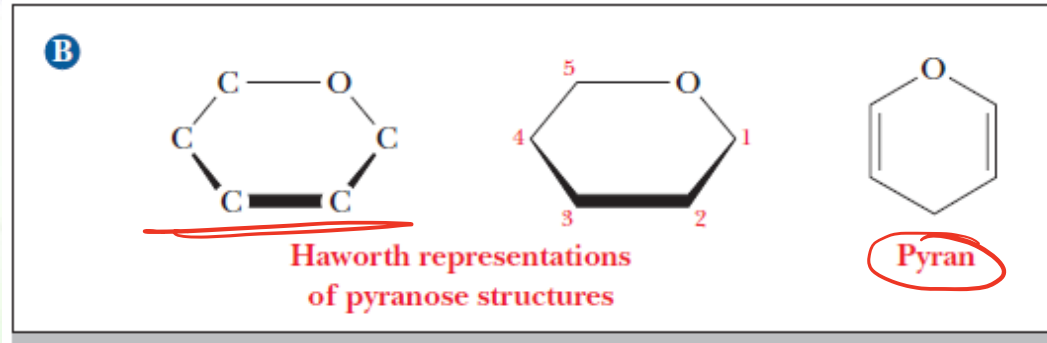
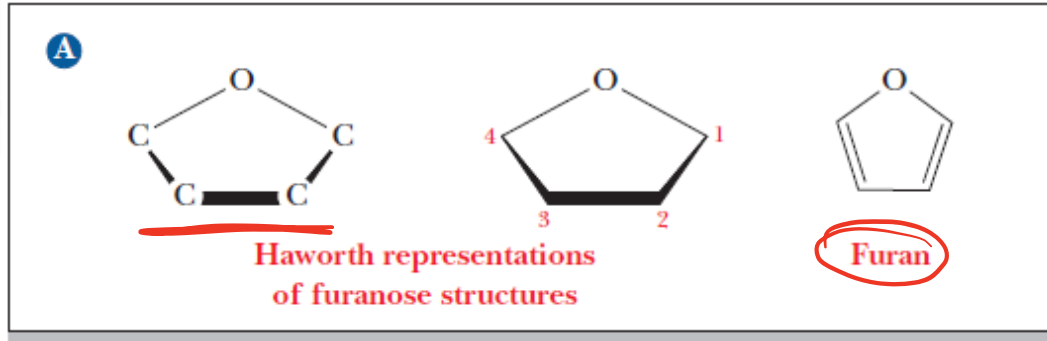
Hemiacetal and hemiketal: ether and alcohol on same carbon  
Acetal and ketal: two ethers on same carbon



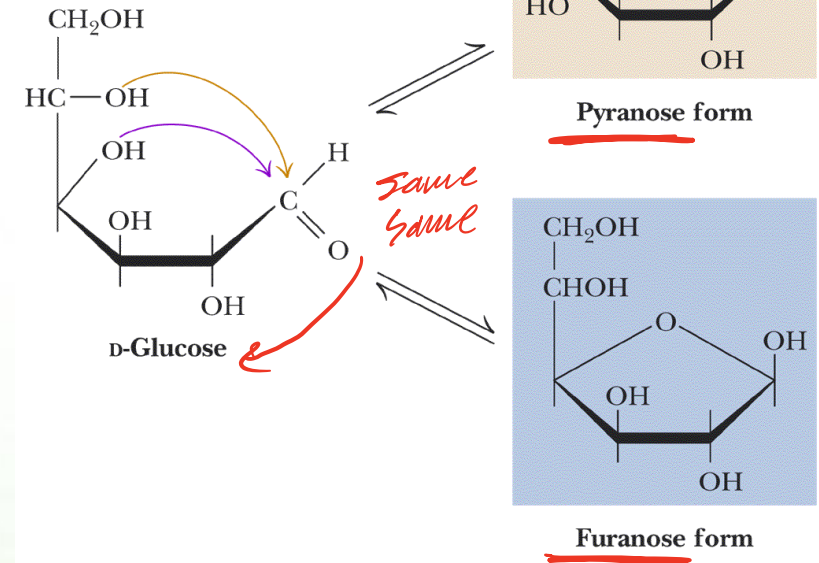
when they do full reaction they will become no. 2

What is the difference between hemiacetal and hemiketal and the difference between acetal and ketal?

# Formation of a ring structure



Glucopyranoses  
↳ pyran



Fructofuranoses

# Anomers



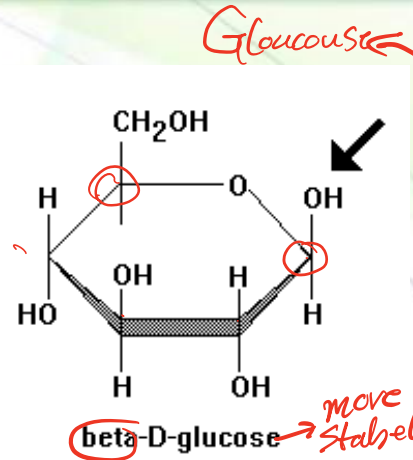
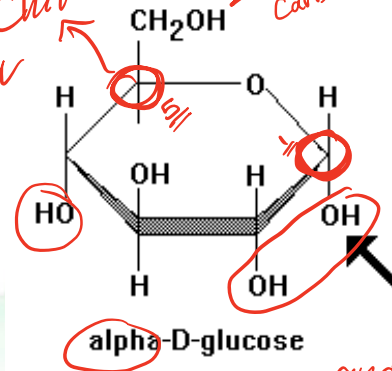
- Carbonyl reacts with Chiral Center

- Ring is more reactive

- the bond is changing but not the places of OH in learner was carbonyl

- must one of the oxygen bonds break down & change to OH

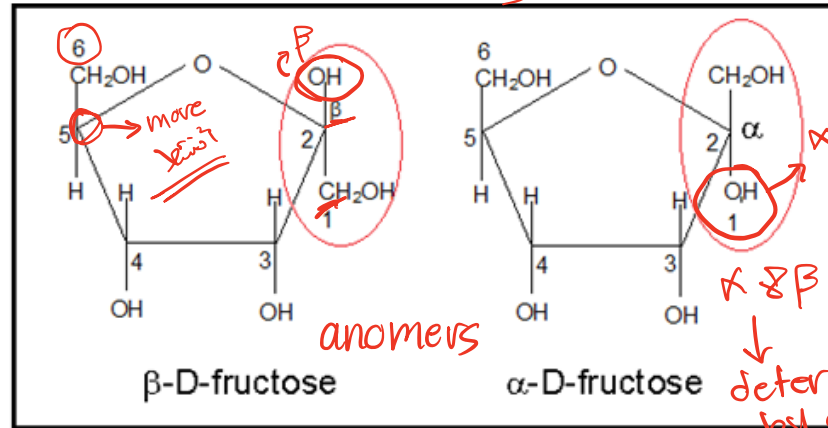
last Chiral Center  
last Carbon



Glucose either D or L only  
can be changed by enzyme

on Right go down  
on left go up

anomers can change from it self



what determine the stability?

OH up or down  
& if there's space for the atoms to move

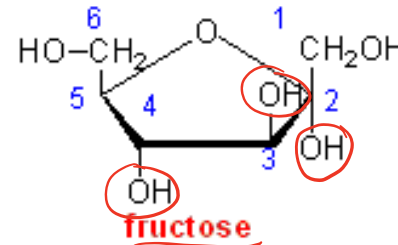
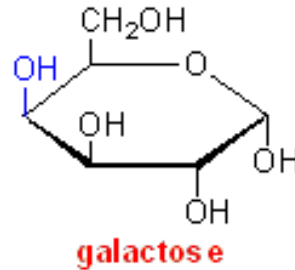
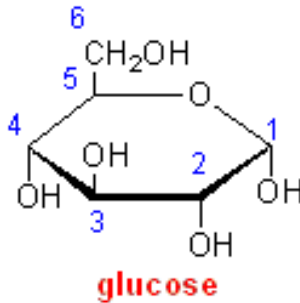
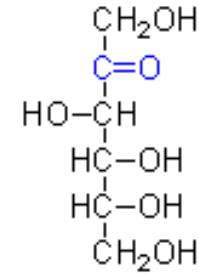
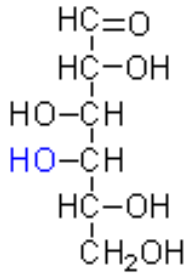
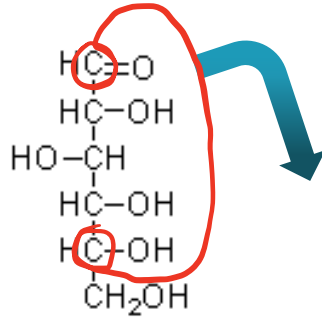
in the linear structure every thing on the right goes down & left goes up

determine by OH

# Chain to ring

## Left-up, right-down

Face the  
sugar and go  
down to  
YOUR right

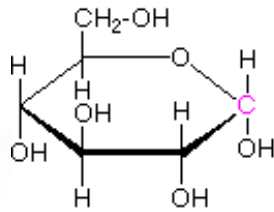


# Cyclic aldohexoses

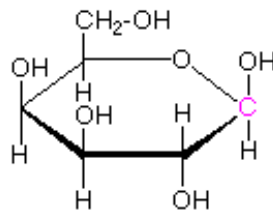


موقع السكر

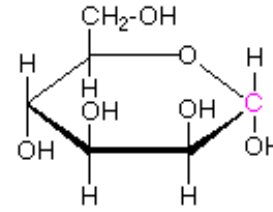
## Examples of Some Pyranose Forms of Hexoses



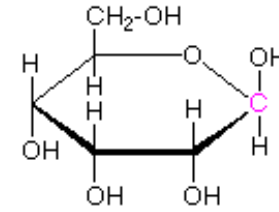
$\alpha$ -D-glucopyranose



$\beta$ -D-galactopyranose



$\alpha$ -D-mannopyranose



$\beta$ -D-allopyranose

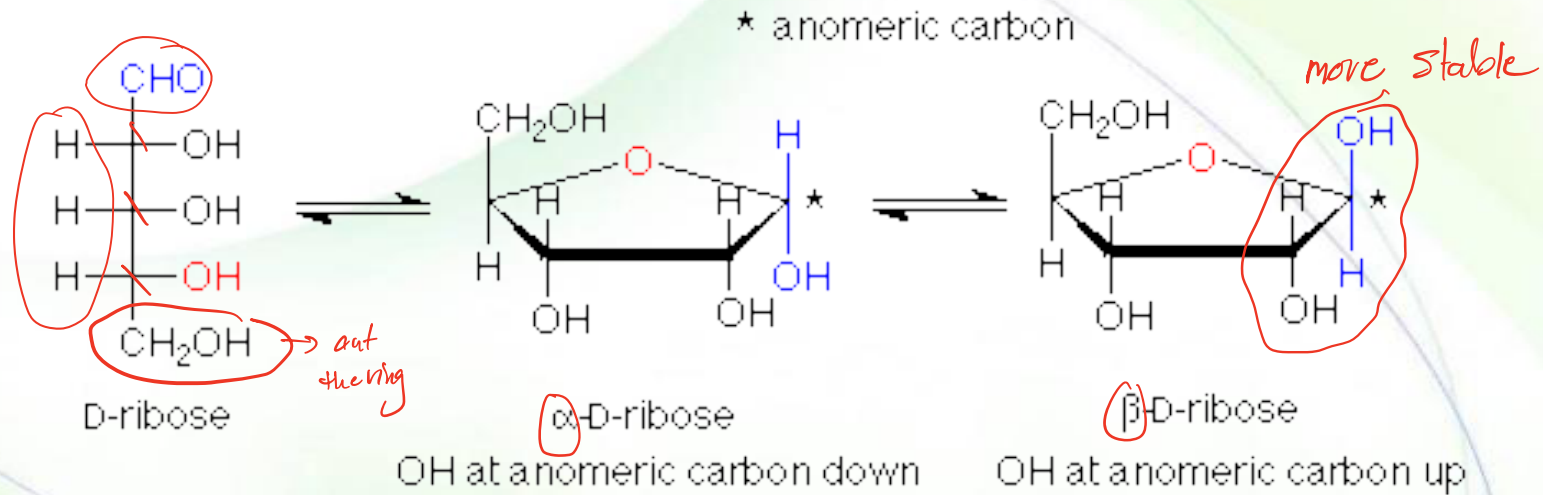
anomers  $\rightarrow$  64%  $\rightarrow \beta$   
 $\rightarrow$  36%  $\rightarrow \alpha$

بفتح و سكر بالفتح  
linear  
السكر  
الخطي

# Cyclic ribofurananose



Glucose + Ribose =  $\beta$  is the stable one



RNA, ATP, GDP, cAMP

↳ ribose sugar

• natural obtained sugars



# Modified sugars

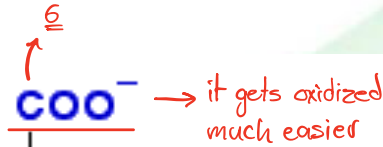
# Sugar acids (oxidation)



## Where is it oxidized? What does it form?

- Aldehyde group → oxidized
- Ketone group → can't oxidized
- Alcohol group → oxidized

OH → 4 → down



both have different since they are modified

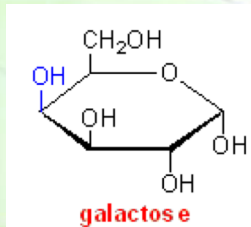
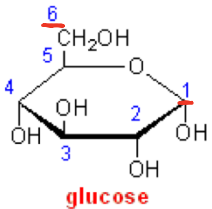
harder to react

to produce it we use enzyme

**α-D-glucuronate**

(D-glucuronic acid, **GlcUA**)

from **oxidation of glucose C6 OH**



**Do not memorize the structure but study it.**

where we can find these modified sugar?

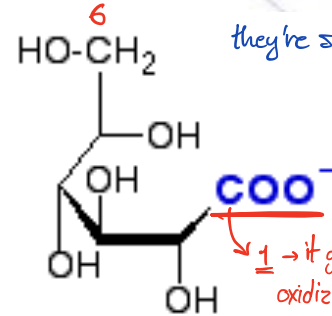
Glycos Amino Glycan

polysaccharides present in the ECM & they absorb H<sub>2</sub>O

molecule they bind to H<sub>2</sub>O molecule they're side groups, we increased the groups that have high electronegativity

Leads to s-

more polar bonds  
more charged → leads to attract H<sub>2</sub>O more  
more hydrogen bonds  
which leads to a gel like structure that can handle the Shocks "Shock absorber"



**D-gluconate**

(D-gluconic acid, **GlcA**)

from **oxidation of glucose C1 aldehyde**

out side the ring is much easier to do reactions

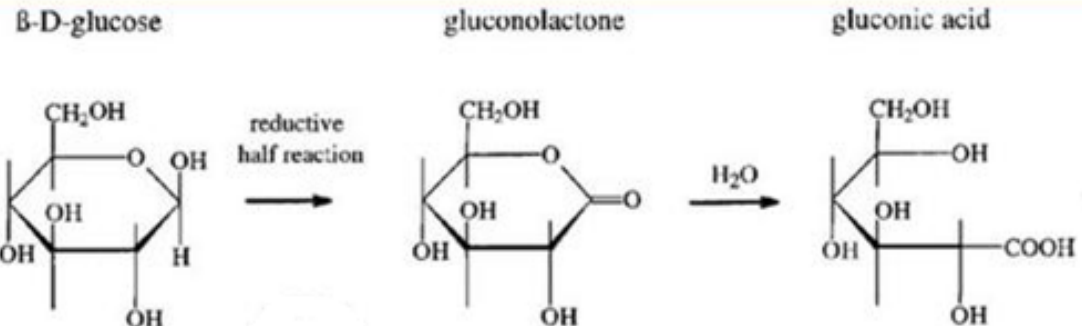
glycosidic linkage  
1,6 glucose linkage  
if a bond involves at least 1 anomeric carbon

$\text{H}-\text{C}=\text{O}$   
 $\text{H}-\text{C}-\text{OH}$   
 $\text{HO}-\text{C}-\text{H}$   
 $\text{H}-\text{C}-\text{OH}$   
 $\text{H}-\text{C}-\text{OH}$   
 $\text{CH}_2\text{OH}$

if strong both get oxidized  
Weak oxidizing  
 agent

$\text{HO}-\text{C}=\text{O}$   
 $\text{H}-\text{C}-\text{OH}$   
 $\text{HO}-\text{C}-\text{H}$   
 $\text{H}-\text{C}-\text{OH}$   
 $\text{H}-\text{C}-\text{OH}$   
 $\text{CH}_2\text{OH}$

--onic acid



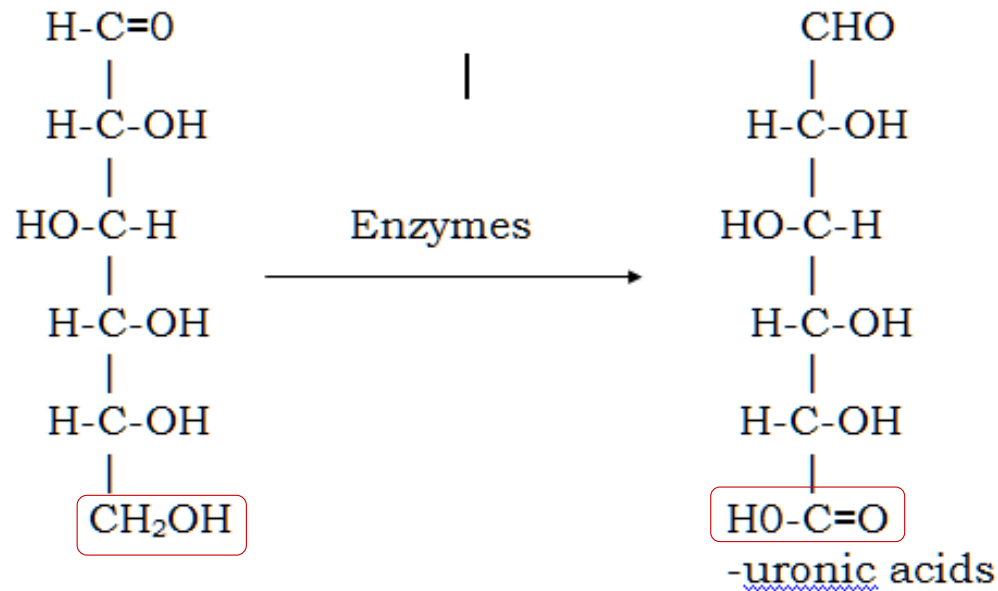
**Do not memorize the structure but study it.**

# Glucoronate

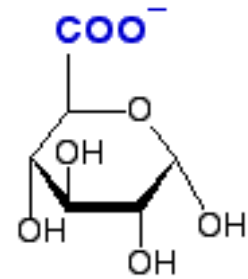


• using enzyme

c. Oxidation of primary alcohol end in biological systems



Do not memorize the structure but study it.



**$\alpha$ -D-glucuronate**  
(D-glucuronic acid, **GlcUA**)  
from **oxidation of glucose C6 OH**

# Note



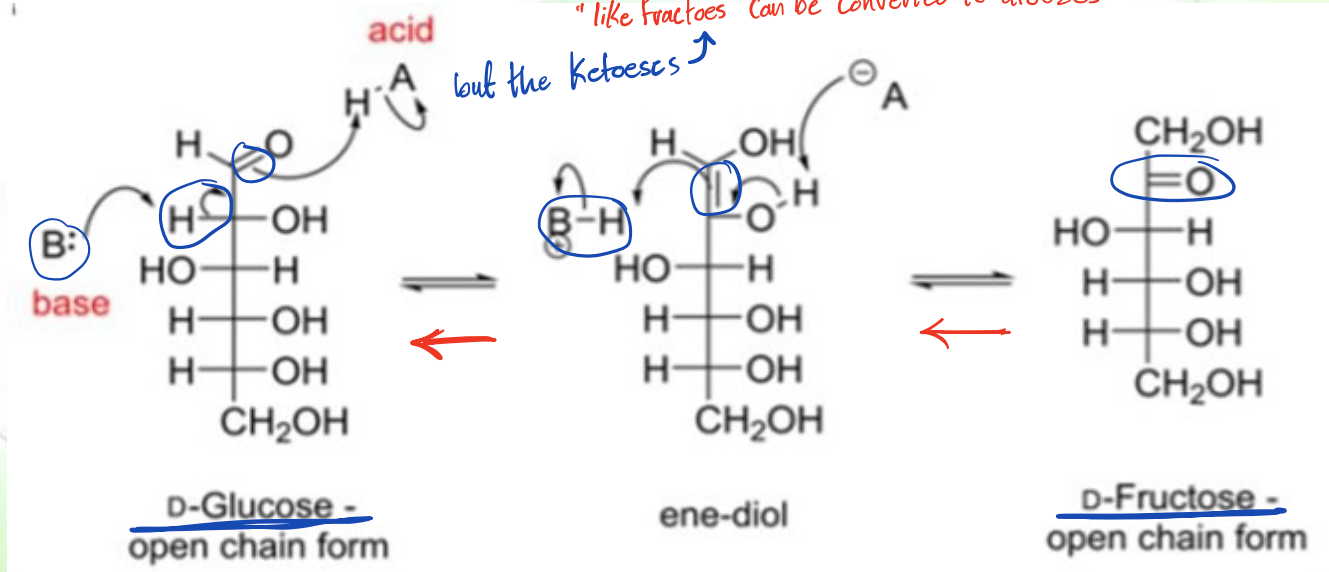
Oxidation of ketoses to carboxylic acids does not occur, but they can be oxidized indirectly.

→ Can't be oxidized

by electron & bond rearrangement process

"like fructoses" can be converted to aldoses

but the ketoses



indirect oxidation  
they become aldoses  
then get oxidized  
but it's slower & hard

Do not memorize the enediol structure but study it.

# Sugar alcohols (reduction)



- oxidizing → + reduction they reduce the other reactant  
"reducing sugar"
- reducing → they act as reducing reagent

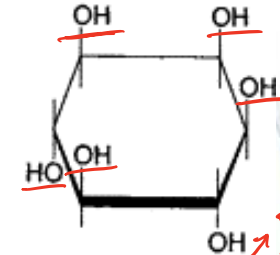
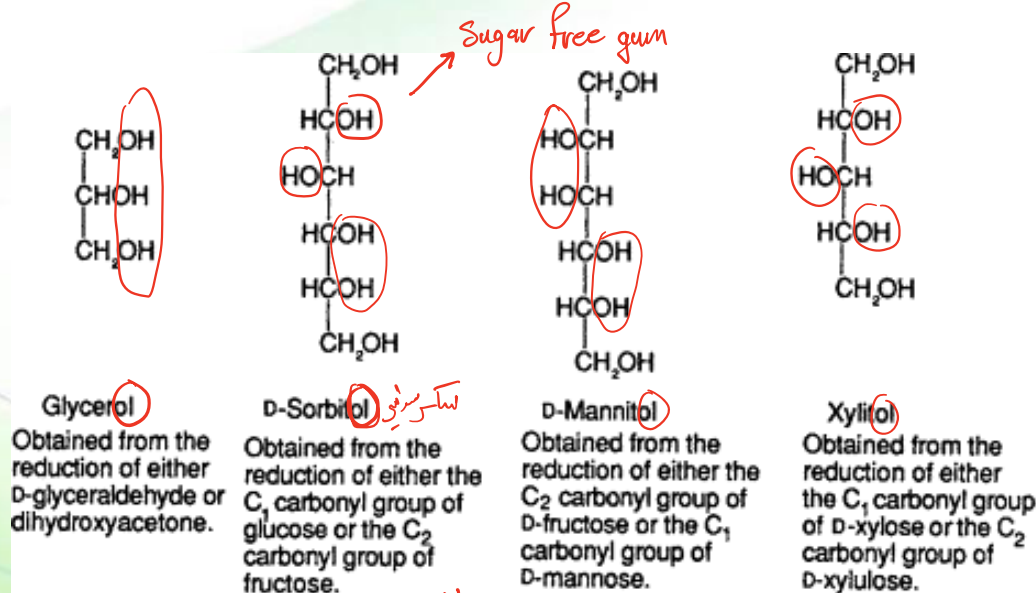
What does it form?

Examples include sorbitol, mannitol, and xylitol, which are used to sweeten food products

first way to reduction

① transform the sugar from Ketone / Aldehyde to alcohol

"reducing the carbonyl Group"



We will get to this sugar in the lipids lecture

poly alcohol → الجليكولية المتعددة (OH)  
Polar group that's attached on the head of phosphatidyl enasetol

it can be produced in the body but in little amount, also the body capture it in the cells if it gets more than the usual rate

↳ the one that we eat can't be absorbed, because there's no transporter on its surface to get inside the cell

# Deoxy sugars (reduced sugars)

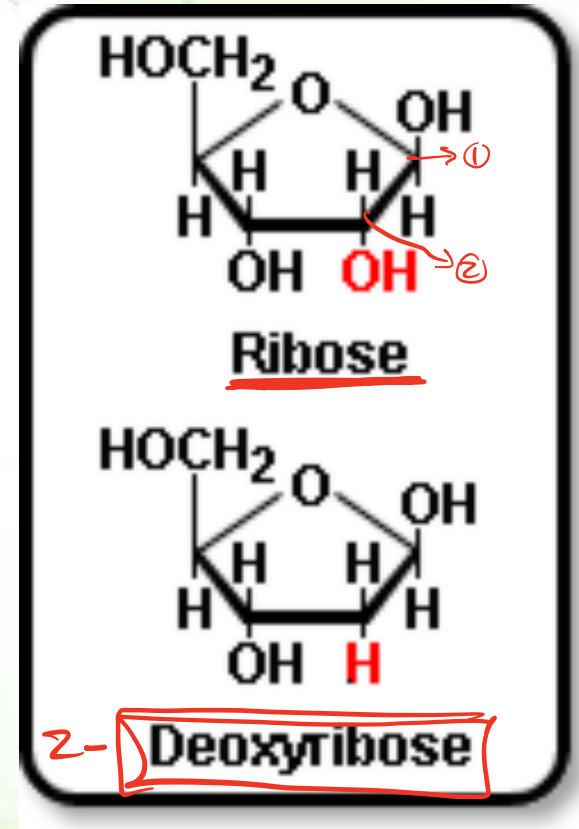


One or more hydroxyl groups are replaced by hydrogens.

An example is 2-deoxyribose, which is a constituent of DNA.

Second way for reduction "produce reduced sugars"

② it occurs in ribose, where we remove in carbon 2 an oxygen  
we will have 2-Deoxyribose sugar  
found in nucleic acid of DNA only



● Ribose is-  
Pentose sugar

# Another deoxy sugar

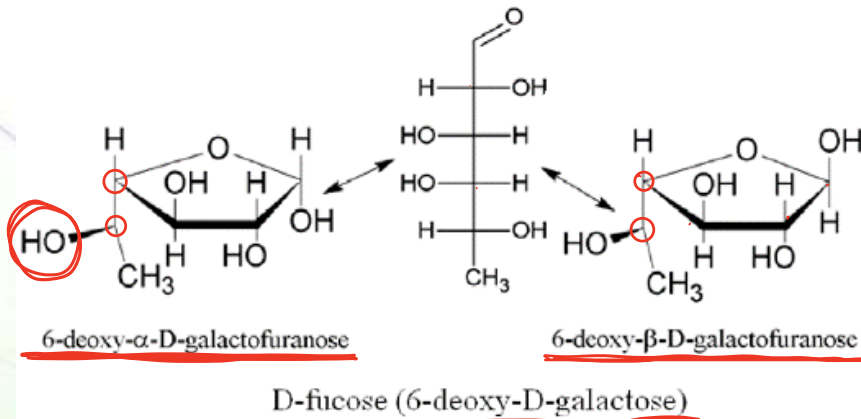


example of blood groups ABO (A,B,AB,O)

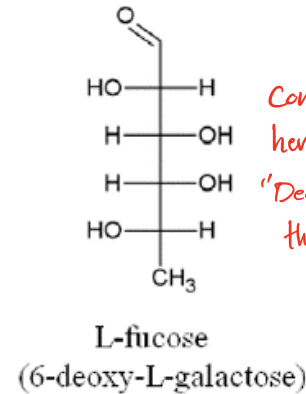
## L-fucose (L-6-deoxygalactose)

found in the carbohydrate portions of some glycoproteins

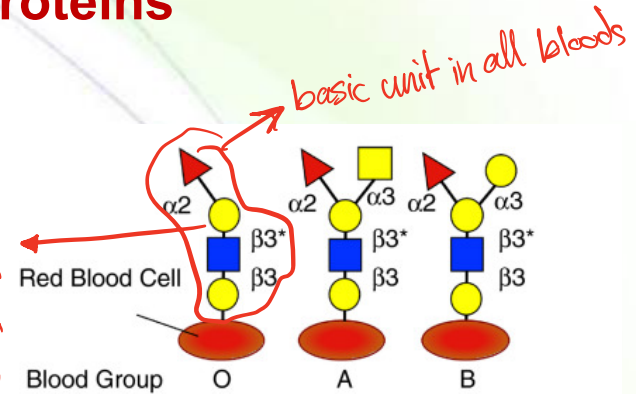
● blood can be known by the sugar group that's attached to the protein & lipids surface



Do not memorize the structure but study it.



comes from here "Galactoses"  
"Deoxy Galactoses"  
the 6<sup>th</sup> carbon



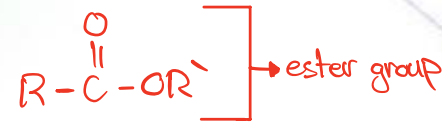
modify sugar

Do not memorize the components except for fucose.

# Sugar esters (esterification)



What is the reacting functional group? Where does it react? What are the end products? Where are they used?



third way to reduction

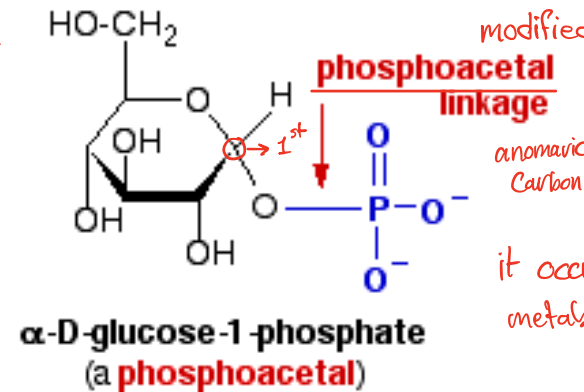
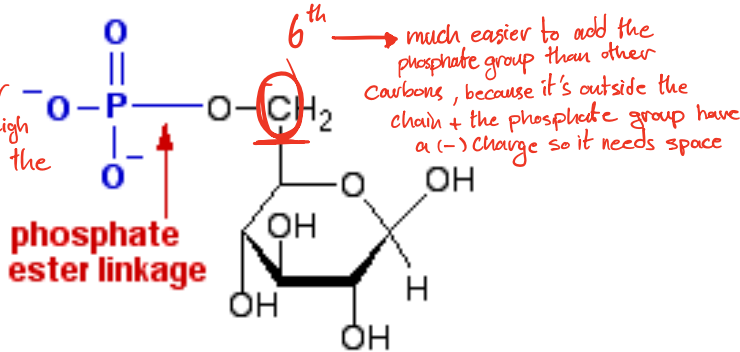
③ esterification

We add phosphates groups  
derived of phosphoric acid to  
modified the molecules to form certain  
functions

it's produced when  
we eat a meal & the sugar  
gets high & the insulin gets high  
which leads to high uptake of the  
sugars in the cells

but what make the glucose  
move inside the cells

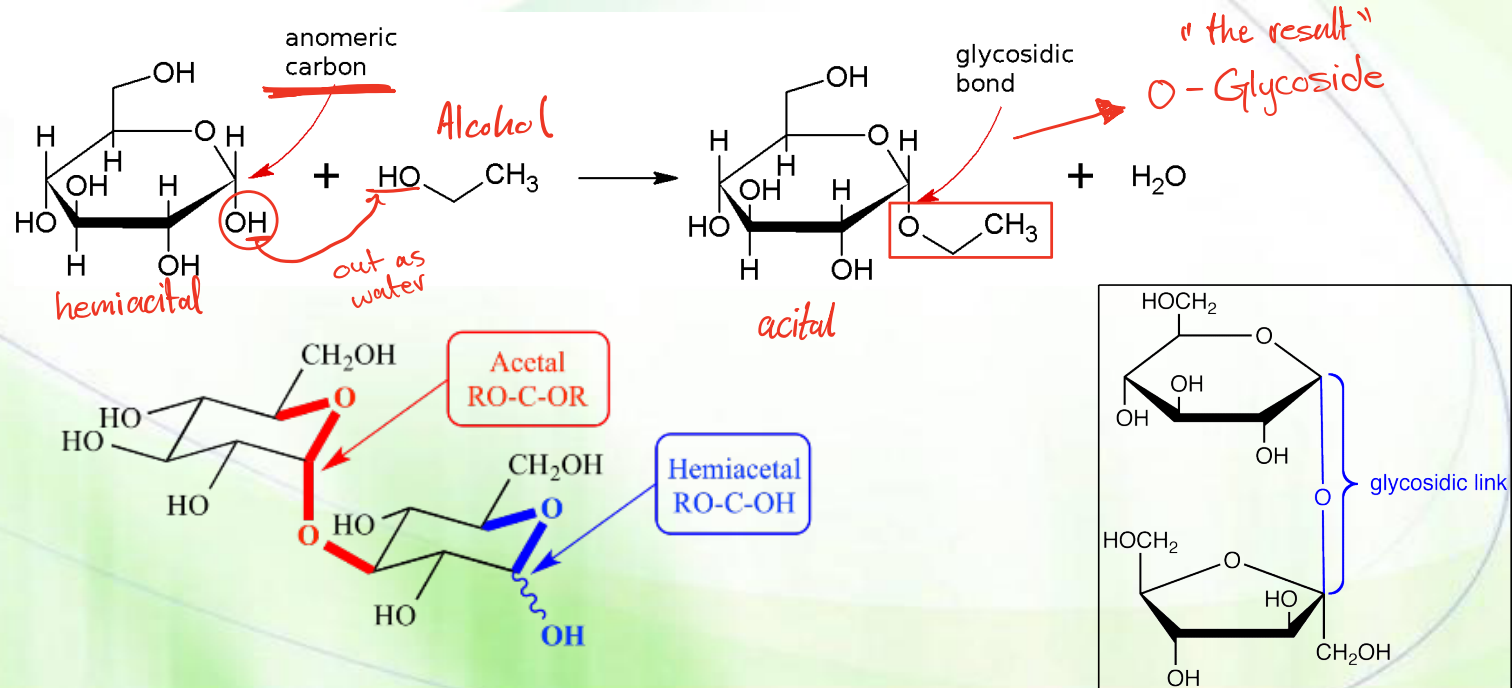
↑ conc. blood vs ↓ conc. cells  
so gradient move it  
& the opposite can be happened  
so! to stop it we use phosphate  
to trap it inside the cell which makes  
the transporter unable to identify it  
& move it



# O-Glycosides



What is the reacting functional group? Where does it react? What are the end products? Where are they used?



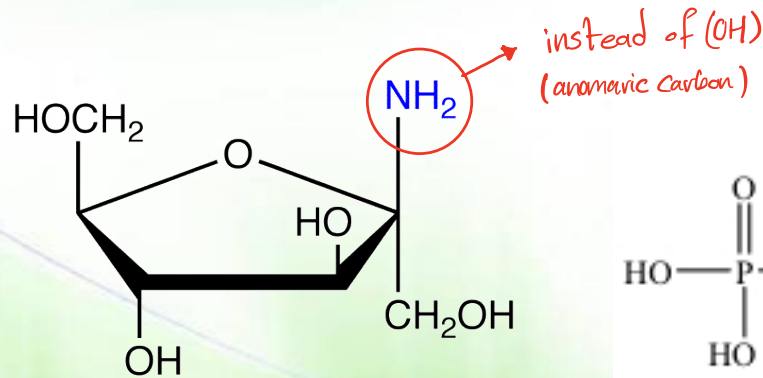
# N-Glycosides



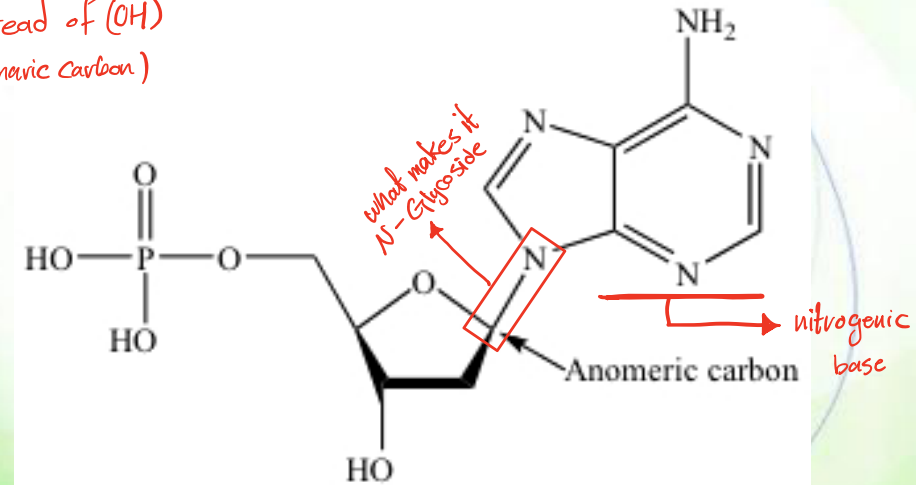
sugars that's modified

**What is the reacting functional group? Where does it react? What are the end products? Where are they used?**

**Examples: nucleotides (DNA and RNA)**



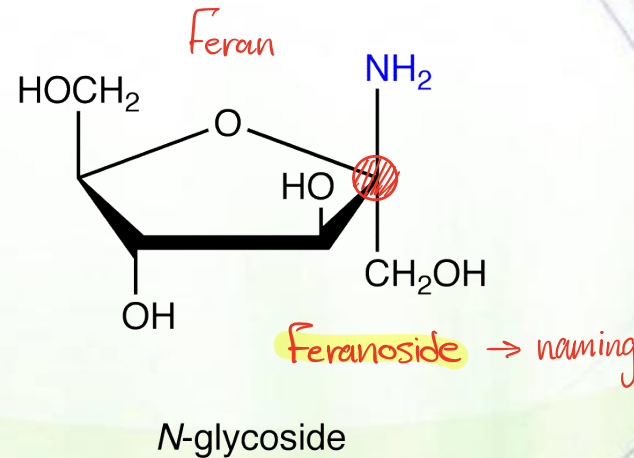
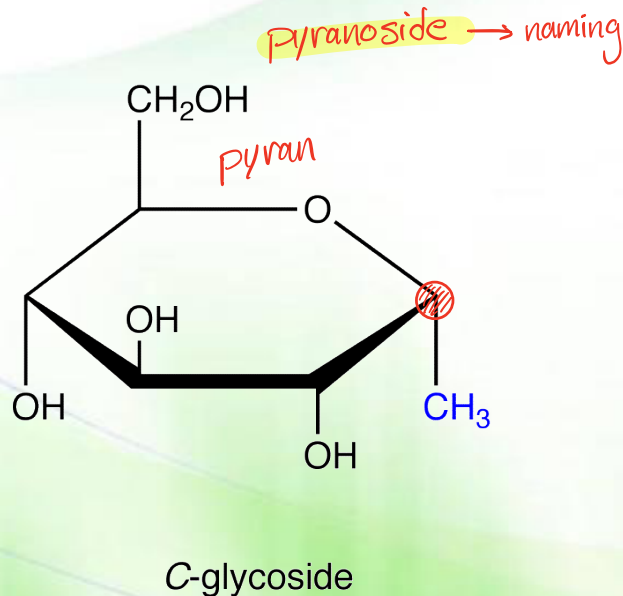
N-glycoside



# Note

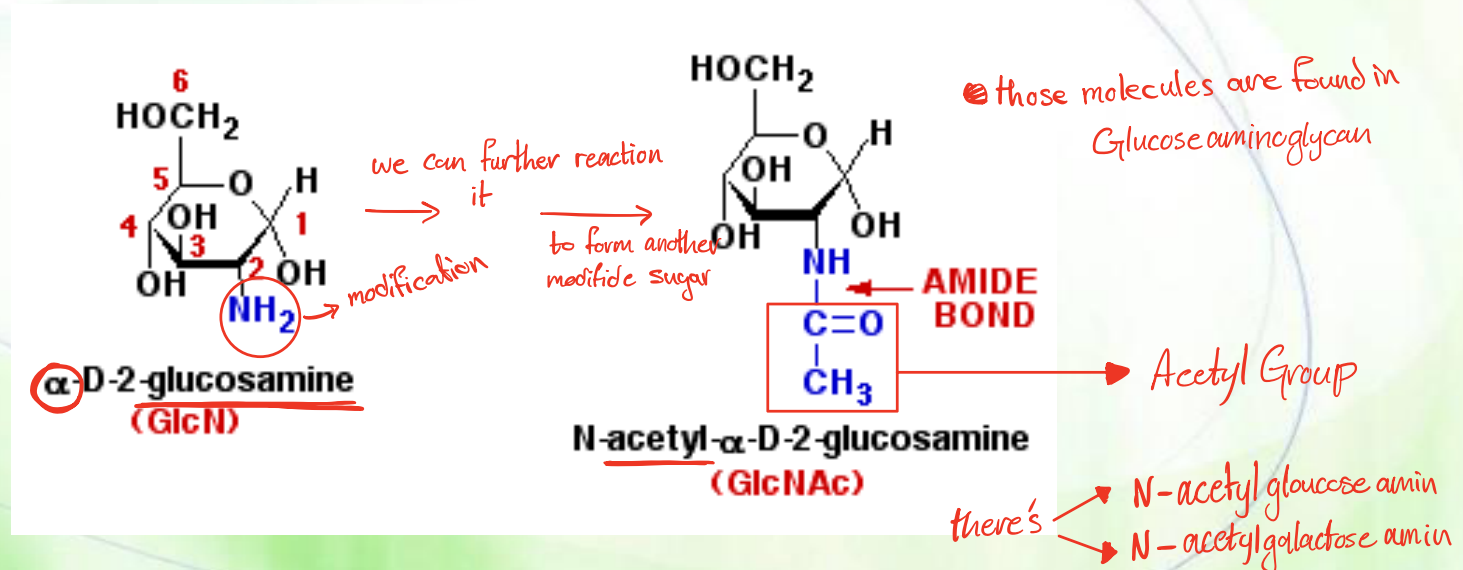


**Glycosides derived from furanoses are called furanosides, and those derived from pyranoses are called pyranosides, regardless if they are N- or O-linked.**



## Further modification by acetylation

ex: - the blood groups has amino groups to be able to identify it



# Disaccharides

next type of molecule



What are disaccharide? Oligosaccharides? Hetero- vs. homo-?

What is the type of reaction?

not all → the first sugar reacts with its anomeric carbon  
most common examples

What is a residue?

Synthesizing enzymes are glycosyltransferases

Do they undergo mutarotation?

Are products stable?

• different monosaccharides bonded  
to form disaccharides

what're the sugars that bonded

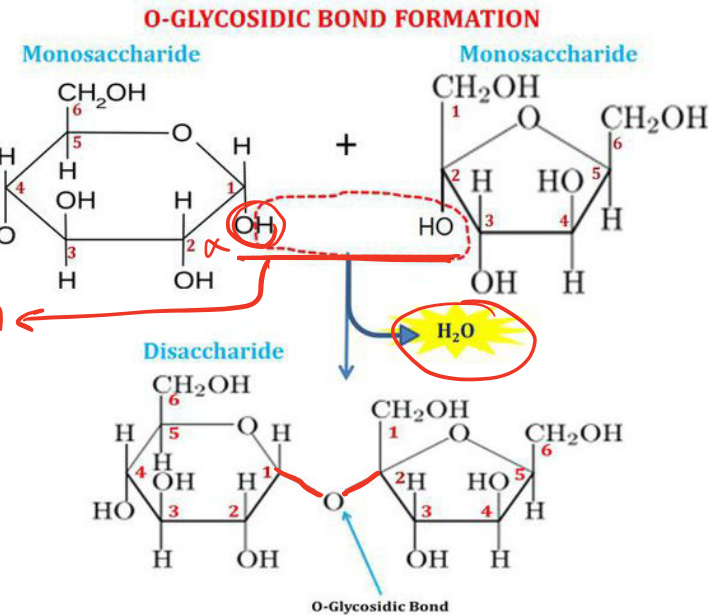
what're the sugars atoms that made the bond

what type of the linkage / the ordering of sugar

this first  
sugar decide  
if it's  $\alpha$  or  $\beta$

dehydration

$\alpha$  looks like  $\nabla$   
 $\beta$  looks like  $\sqcap$



# Distinctions of disaccharides



**The 2 specific sugar monomers involved and their stereoconfigurations (D- or L-)**

**The carbons involved in the linkage (C-1, C-2, C-4, or C-6)**

**The order of the two monomer units, if different (example: galactose followed by glucose)**

**The anomeric configuration of the OH group on carbon 1 of each residue ( $\alpha$  or  $\beta$ )**

# Abundant disaccharides



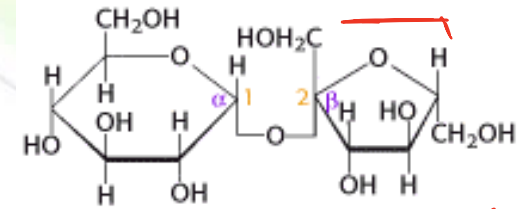
Configuration

Designation

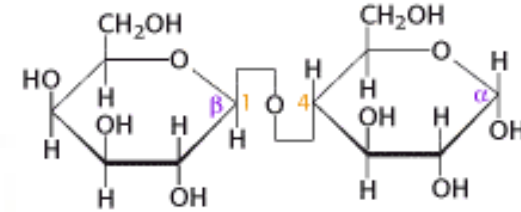
Naming (common vs.  
systematic)

Reducing vs. non-reducing

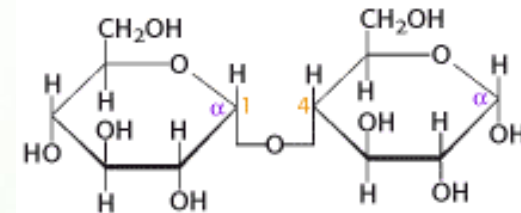
*Glucose is  
most common*



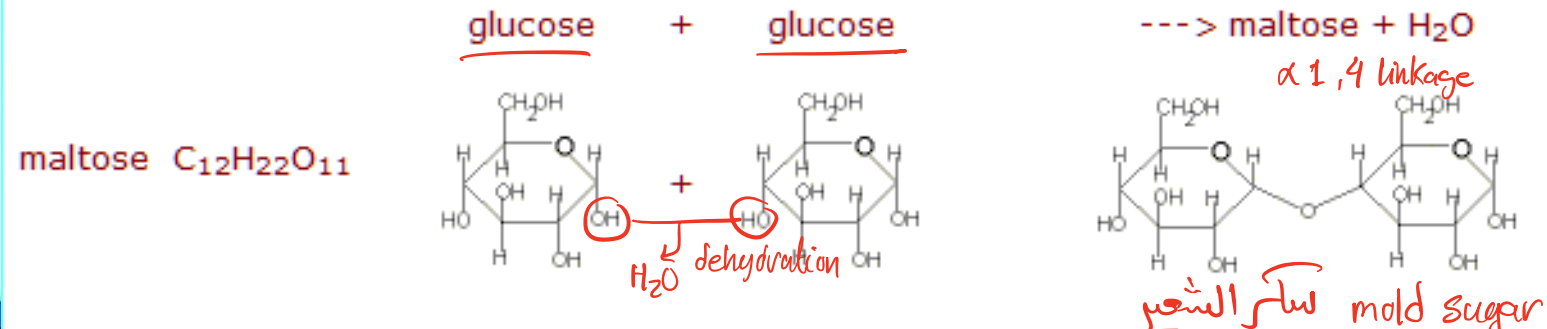
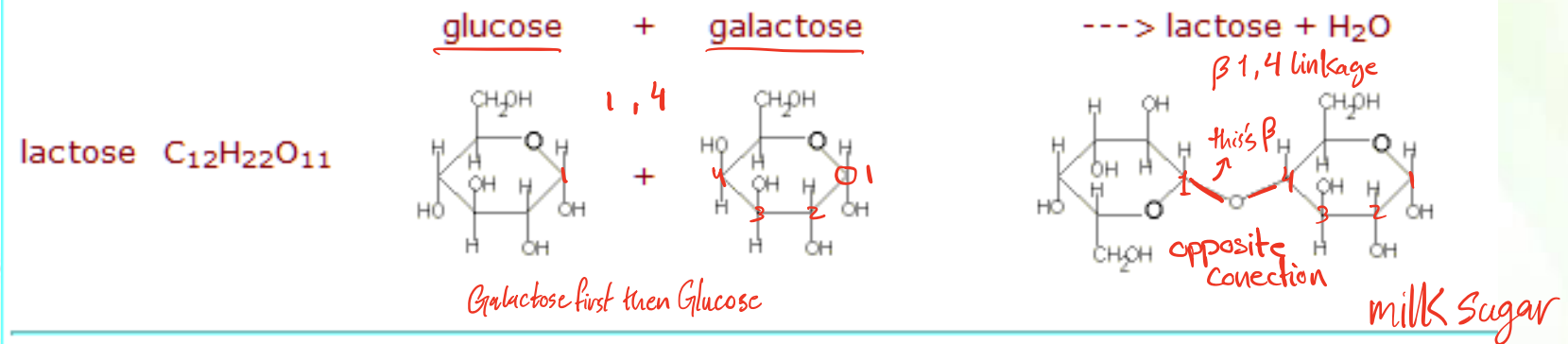
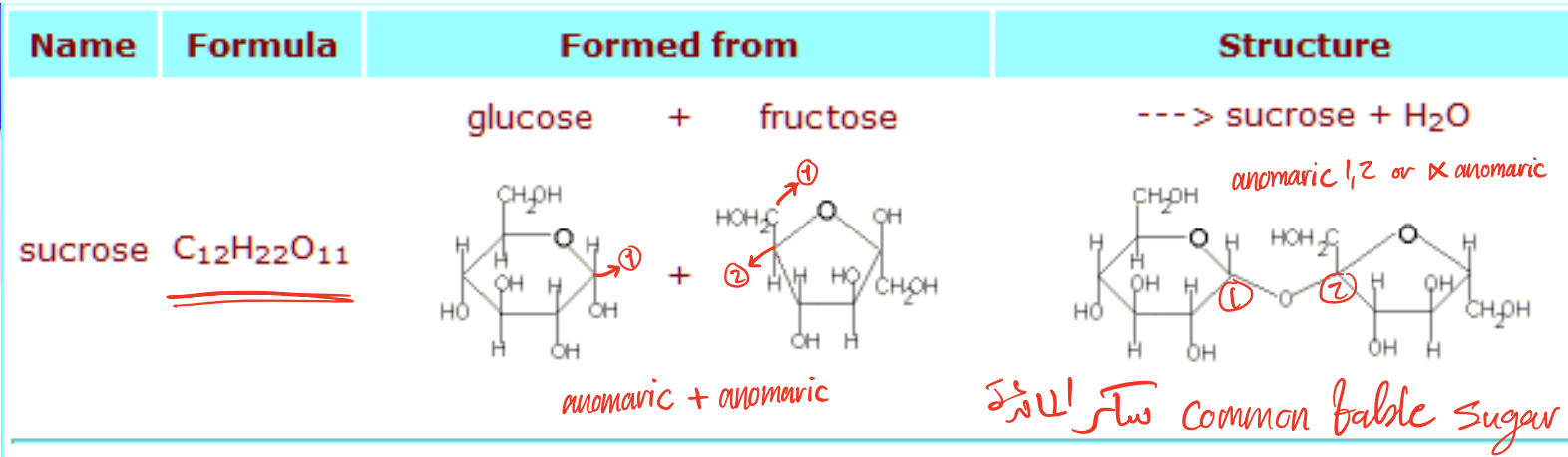
**Sucrose** → common name  
( $\alpha$ -D-Glucopyranosyl-(1 $\rightarrow$ 2)- $\beta$ -D-fructofuranose)



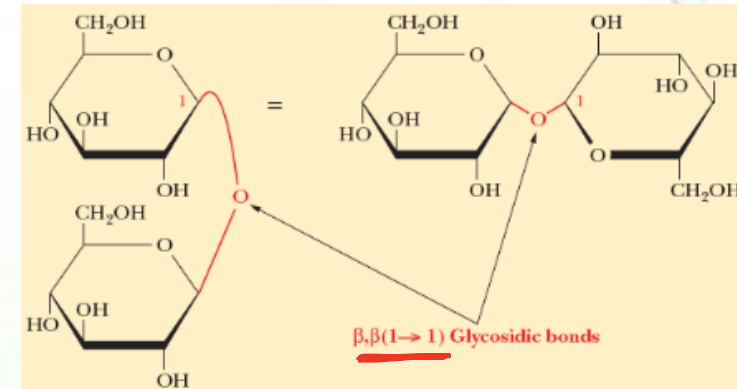
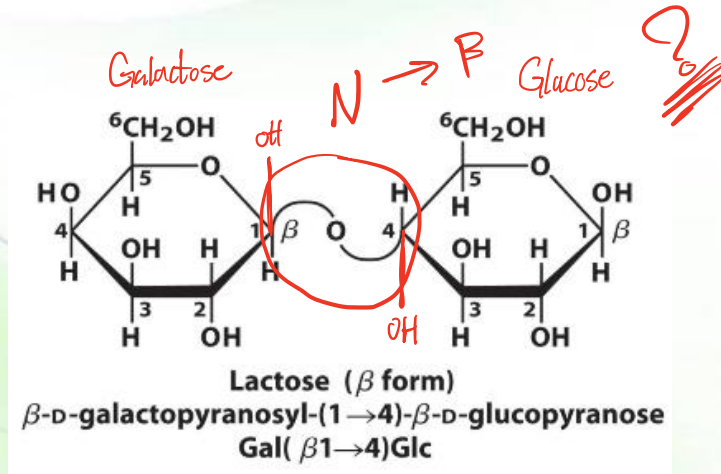
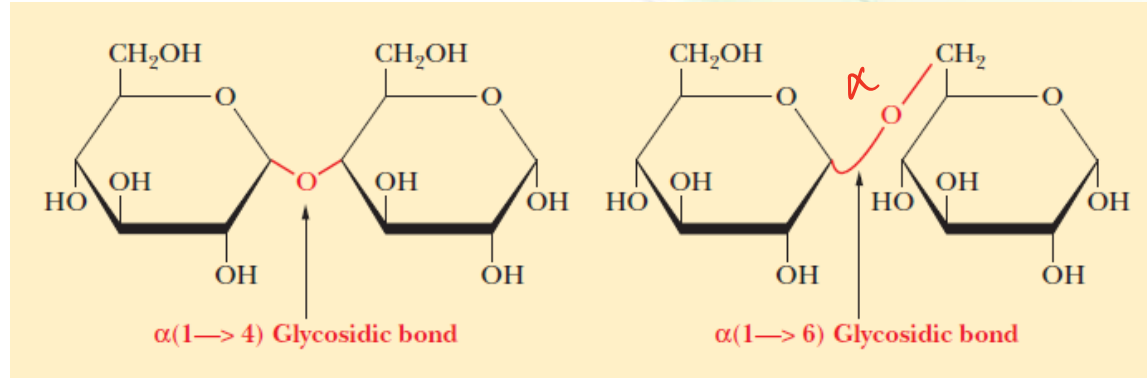
**Lactose**  
( $\beta$ -D-Galactopyranosyl-(1 $\rightarrow$ 4)- $\alpha$ -D-glucopyranose)



**Maltose**  
( $\alpha$ -D-Glucopyranosyl-(1 $\rightarrow$ 4)- $\alpha$ -D-glucopyranose)



# Different forms of disaccharides

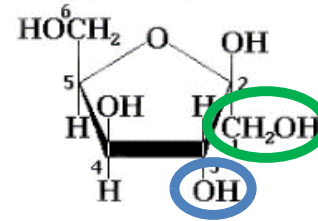
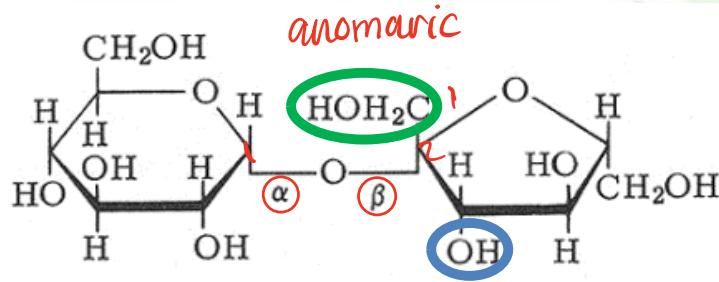


.A disaccharide of  $\beta$ -D-glucose

# Sucrose

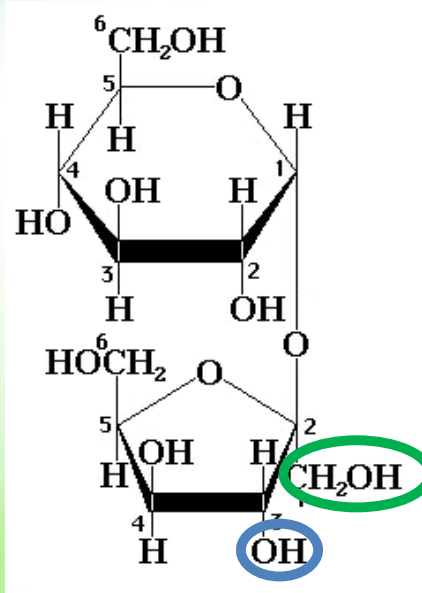


Sucrose come intermediate in Sweetness



$\alpha, 1-2$   
anomeric C 1-2

Fructose  $\rightarrow$  highest in Sweetness  
Sucrose  
Glucose



This is extra

# Lactulose



It is formed by the isomerization of lactose.

It has health benefits:

It is used in treating constipation.

It promotes the growth of health-promoting gut bacteria.

It modulates the immune system.

the low activity of the enzyme in the body won't be able to digest the lactose fully

babies rely on milk to get nutrients, so they have enzyme that's called lactase that digests lactose. Keeps increasing till it reaches 1 month high

**Do not memorize the structure but study it.**

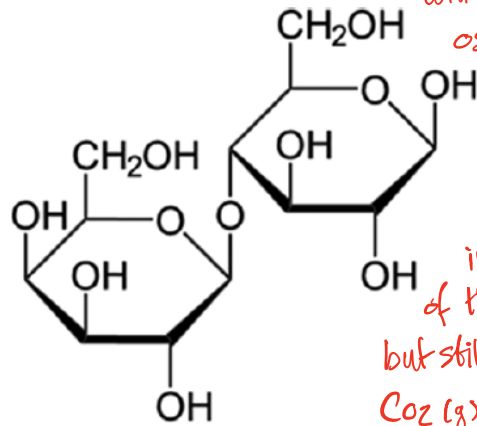
because if it was digested it will become glucose + fructose which's much easier for the body to absorb & since the lactose enzyme

activity is low there won't be a good absorption for the products, so lactose will stay in the intestines & will disturb the osmotic pressure. this will result in water moving to the intestines & diluting it. Also the remaining lactose

5-7 years it keeps decreasing till it reaches adult's enzyme activity "when it reaches 7y"

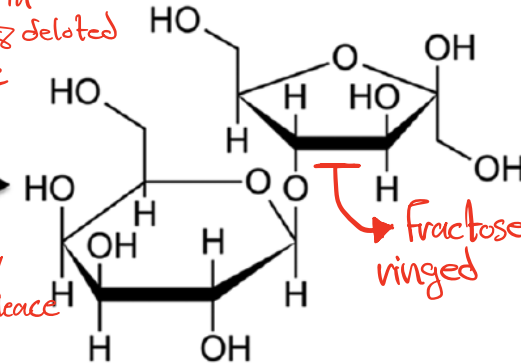
in the intestines will be the food of the flora "in the intestines" not fully but still will get neutralized from it to release  $\text{CO}_2$  (g) &  $\text{CH}_4$  (g) → side product

lactase which's enzyme for lactose



Lactose

Isomerization



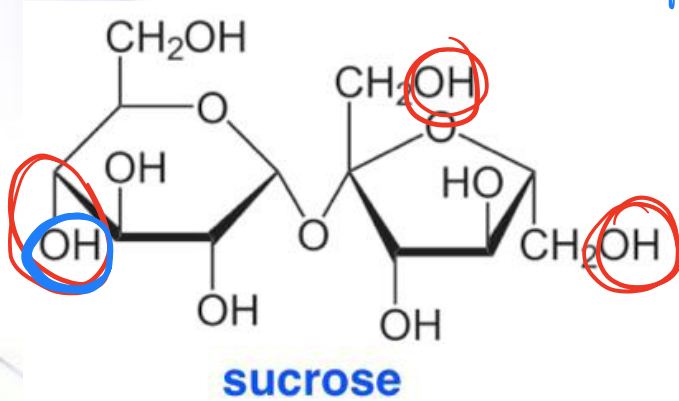
isomers of lactose

Lactulose

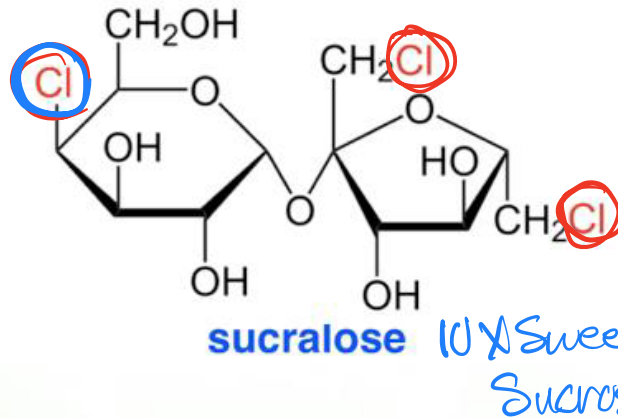
Fructose ringed

9g of lactose "1 glass of milk"  
→ 1L of water is lost from the body

# Sucralose (artificial sweetener)



the OH changed to Cl



10x Sweetness than  
sucrose



News > WebMD Health News

## Sucralose Damages DNA, Linked to Leaky Gut: Study

Lisa O'Mary  
June 01, 2023

Sucralose, a Common Artificial Sweetener, May Increase Cancer Risk

WebMD

Vit D:-

we can have it by getting it synthesized from the sun

& if we want it from milk we would need 10L to just get the wanted amount

\*  
read

# Milk problems



not genetic  
starts when hitting puberty

it's just a digestion problem that's caused by the reduced amount of lactase enzyme  
→ it doesn't consider as a disease it's the normal thing that people have after they get 7yo

**Lactose Intolerance:** A deficiency of the enzyme lactase

in the intestinal villi allows lactase of intestinal bacteria to digest it producing hydrogen gas, carbon dioxide, and organic acids and leading to digestive problems (bloating and diarrhea).

→ when we have a piled up of compounds it will try to have another track to reduce it

But when it enters the cell it will be a problem

**Galactosemia:** Missing a galactose-metabolizing

mono saccharide → if we absorb it or digest it, it's fine

the simplification of galactose function =

Mainly: GAGs, Sugars of glyco (protein/lipids) etc..  
Not Mainly: Store energy

Because of the enzyme deficiency it problem that the don't we will have a piled up galactose act like the transporter which we can't use it it will be reduced to surface alcohol = galactitol

**enzyme** can result in galactosemia where

**nonmetabolized galactose** accumulates within cells

and is converted to the hydroxy-sugar **galactitol**,

which cannot escape cells. Water is drawn into cells

and the swelling causes cell damage, particularly

the brain, resulting in severe and irreversible

retardation. It also causes **cataract**.

• One of it's problems - increasing the osmotic pressure & they stay inside the cell

mostly the neurons get effected so bad, because they can't be generated



(the optical cells of the eyes)

due to cellular death we will still have some of the dead cells & they're not transparent so they appear in the optical

موت الخلايا ببطء

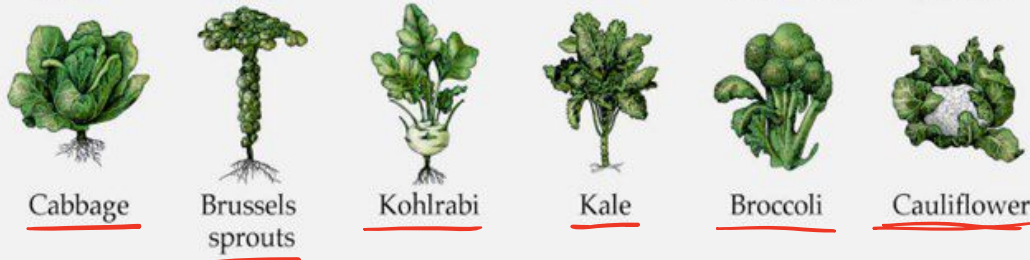
Genetic Disease

# Raffinose

What are oligosaccharides?

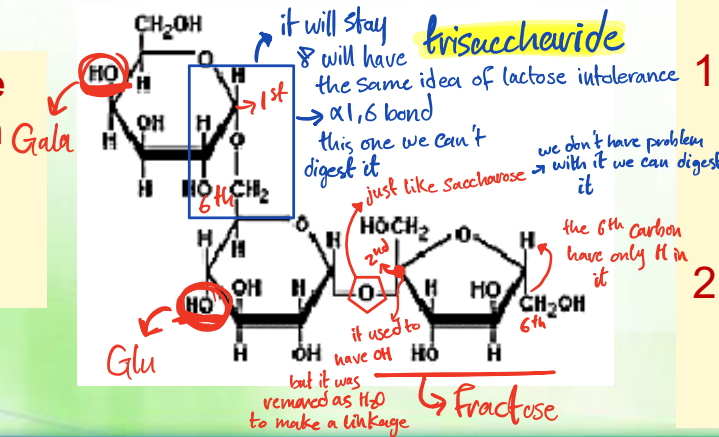
Example: raffinose *So many ex of green plants*

It is found in beans and vegetables like cabbage, brussels, sprouts, broccoli, and asparagus.



*Raffinose trisaccharide*

Humans lack the alpha-galactosidase enzyme that is needed to break down raffinose, but intestinal bacteria can ferment it into hydrogen, methane, and other gases.



• plants that makes flowering

if there's a lot of inflammations in the intestine it might leads to colon cancer

© Original Artist / Search ID: ide7143



"You want that double-order of our world-famous baked beans for here... or, we sincerely hope... to go?"

Rights Available from CartoonStock.com

## Homework

1. Recognize the monosaccharides that make up raffinose.
2. What is the monosaccharide that is attached to what disaccharide?

# Oligosaccharides as drugs



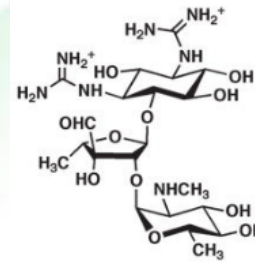
Some medications have a sugar like structure

(Streptomycin) and (erythromycin)  
(antibiotics)

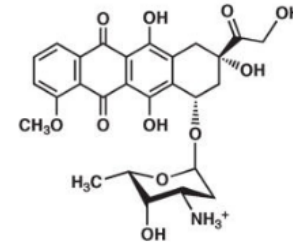
(Doxorubicin) (cancer  
chemotherapy)

(Digoxin) (cardiovascular  
disease)

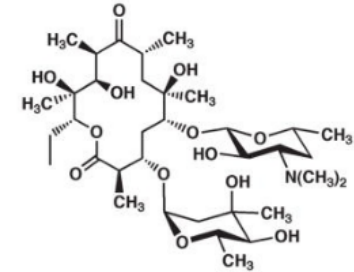
Just know  
the ex not the  
structure



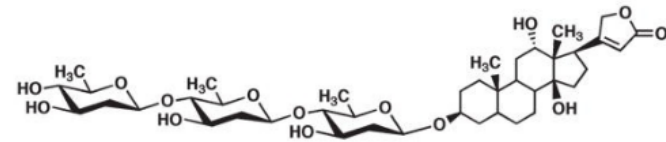
Streptomycin



Doxorubicin



Erythromycin A



Digoxin

Do not memorize or  
study the structures.

# Polysaccharides



*they're very complicated*

## What are polysaccharides?

### Homopolysaccharide (homoglycan) vs. heteropolysaccharides

*Same type*

*different type of monomers*

### Features of polysaccharides:

*what's its unit*

*the linkage in between*

*is there any branches*

*what's the purpose of*

*branching*

*polysaccharide*

- **Monosaccharides**

- **Length**

- **Branching**

- **Purpose:**

*the storage of monosaccharide*

*it can't be stored like mono it has to be in poly form*

*in every living being*

*we can store it like Glycolipids*

*plant*

*highly branched*

*bacteria*

**Storage (glycogen, starch, dextran)**

**Structural (cellulose, pectin, chitin)**

*they have mechanical function*  
*ميكانيكية*

*Jelling Agent*

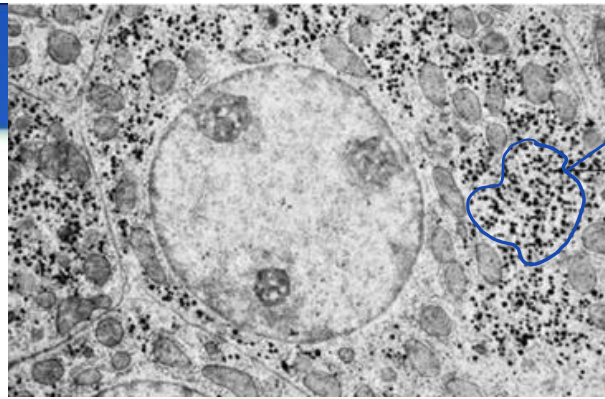
*exoskeleton creatures*

# Glycogen

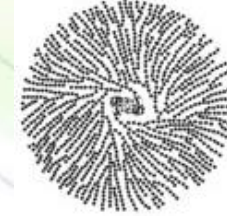
- looks like starch in structure so they called it

Animal Starch

homopolysaccharide



Glycogen granules

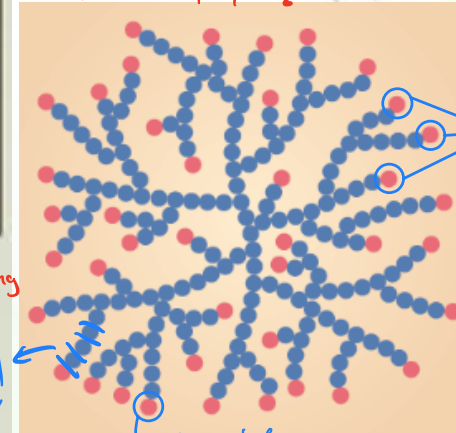


all cells can store glycogen but the largest storage are in liver & muscles. Also they don't last long "less than 24h"



**Memorize**

branches occur almost at every 10 it branches for 13 layers  
what's it porous? increase the area to have fast degradation



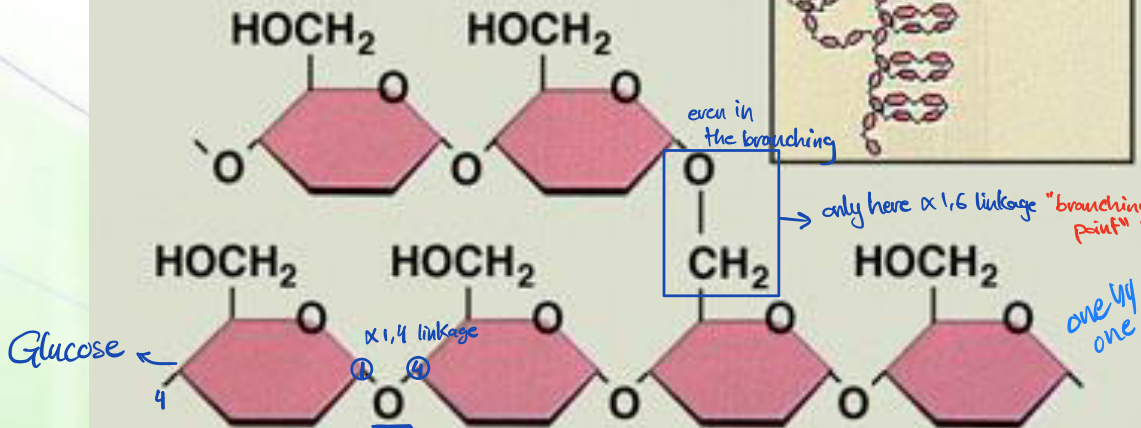
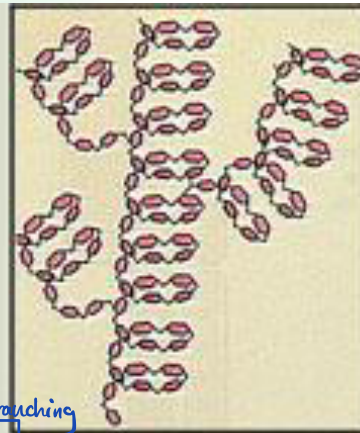
each one of them when the degradation of glycogen apperse each of them will bind to enzyme

Quick Sources of Glucose

the end of any branch

## Glycogen

Storage form of Glucose highly branched



when we eat a lot amount of sugar & this sugar increase the layer of sugar resulting in more uptake

# Starch



Can be found in  
potato, corn, rice

## Which organisms'

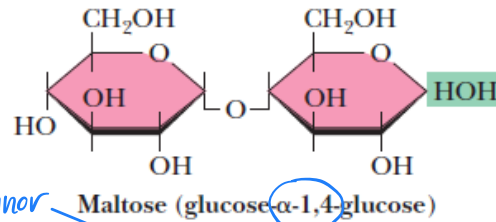
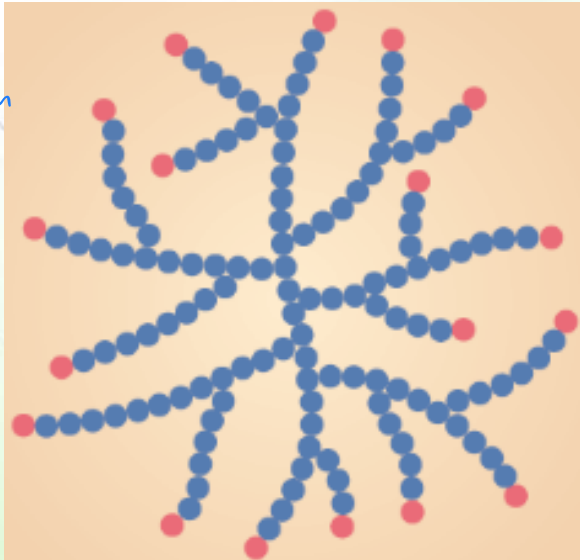
## Forms:

mixture of

- **amylose (10-20%)** minor

- **amylopectin (80-90%)** major

made from  
Glucose



Maltose (glucose- $\alpha$ -1,4-glucose)

→ structure  
of the starch

they're connected by  
 $\alpha$ 1,4 linkages

every 25 will start to branch  
→ Amylopectine

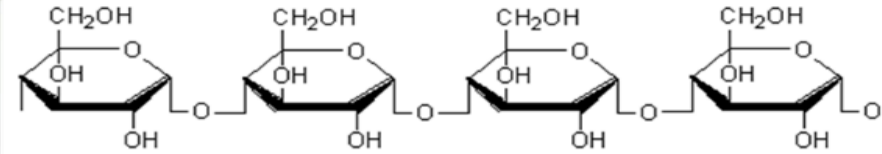
less complicated than glycogen

the purpose of branch also

"Solubility"

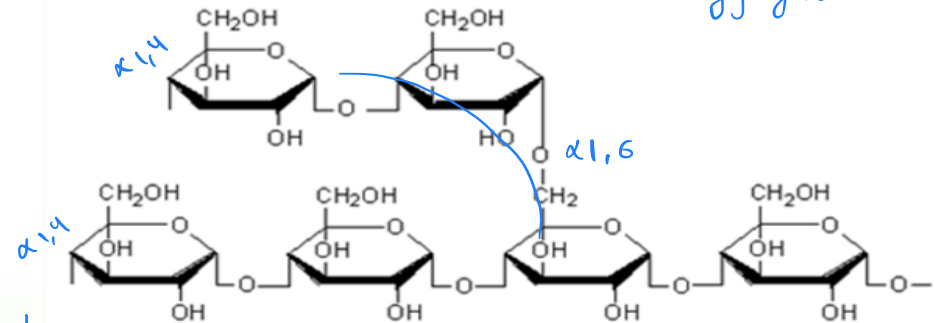
increase solubility

linear helix one no branches



Amylose Structure

like glycogen



Amylopectin Structure

**Memorize**

# Glycogen vs. amylopectin



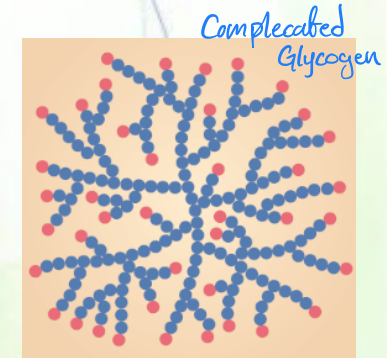
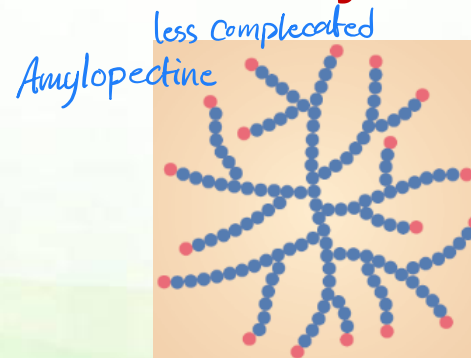
Both are made from the same monomer and both are branched.  
Glycogen exists in animals and amylopectin in plants.  
Glycogen is more highly branched.

**Branch points occur about every 10 residues in glycogen and about every 25 residues in amylopectin.**

**Why is branching important?**

**It makes it more water-soluble and does not crystallize.**

**Easy access to glucose residues.**



# Dextran



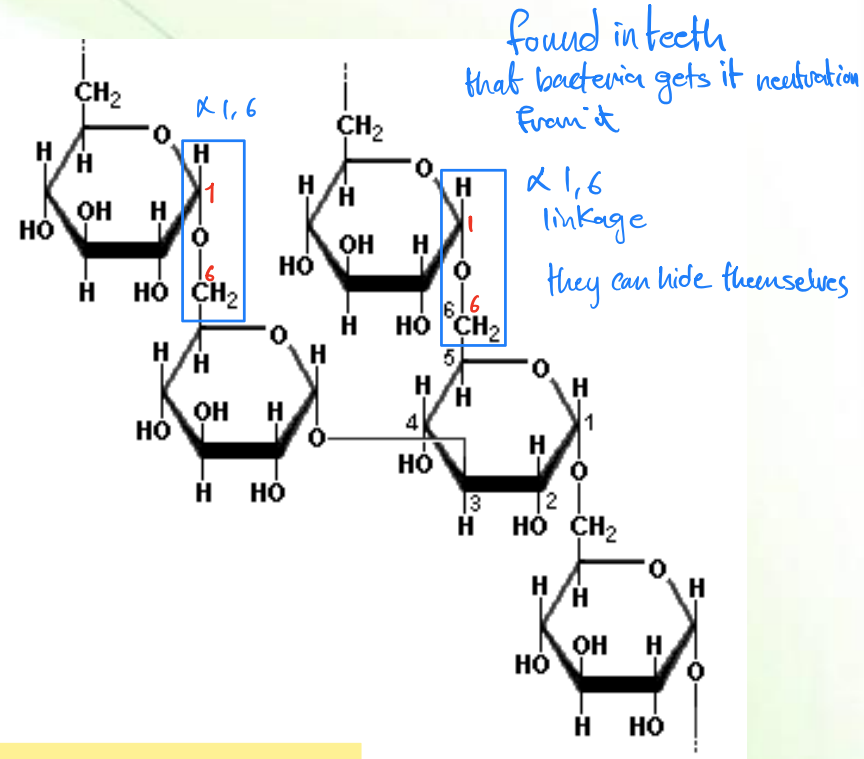
A storage polysaccharide  
Yeast and bacteria

☐ (1-6)-D-glucose with branched  
chains

Branches: 1-2, 1-3, or 1-4

highly branched  
homopolysaccharide made of  
glucose

highly branched

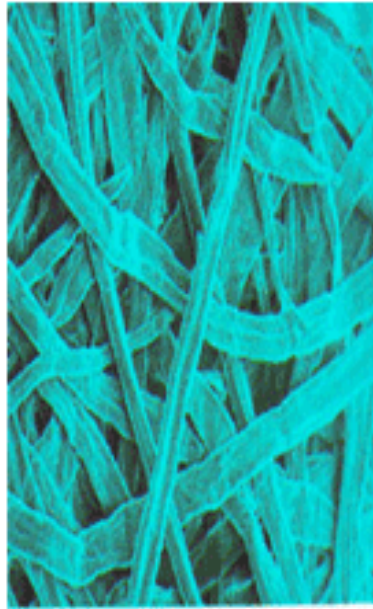


Do not memorize or  
study the structures.

# Cellulose



present in plants



(a) Cellulose fibers

• makes cellulose fibers

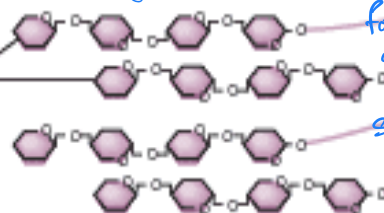
• they don't get digested  
the cellulose will stay as polysaccharide  
because we don't have the enzyme  
cellulase  
make the things less solid  
in the body

يوجد في النباتات  
التي تأكل النباتات

get bundled

they  
form large number  
of hydrogen bond  
to build better  
strength

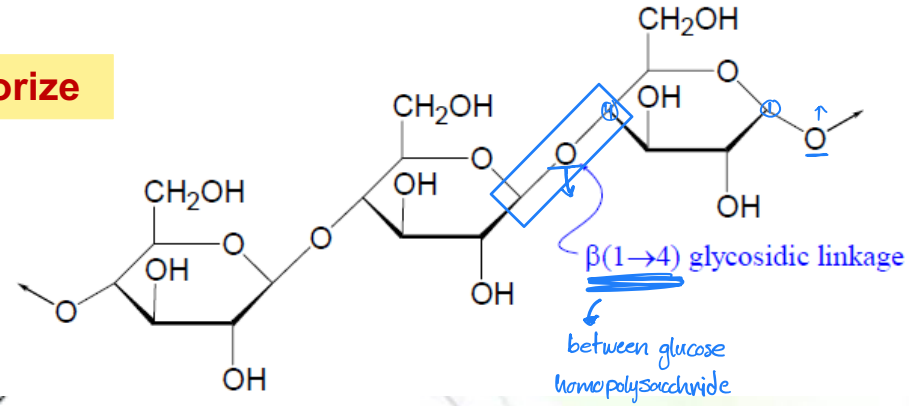
(d) Chains of  
cellulose  
molecules



we can get it from plants

**Memorize**

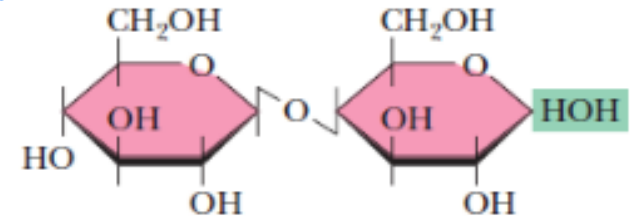
فِطَان



فَالْكَرْبُونِي إِلَى  
زِيَادَةِ عِلْمِ الْإِنْسَانِيَاتِ  
فِي الْأَعْيَادِ

they drag H<sub>2</sub>O molecules  
• form hydrogen bonds  
they size up, & they give  
the feeling of fullness

زِيَادَةِ الْفِطَانِ بَعْدَ  
شَبَابَةِ الْبَصِيرَةِ بِتَصِيرَةِ الْبَصِيرَةِ  
وَالْكَوْنِ بَعْدَ الْبَصِيرَةِ



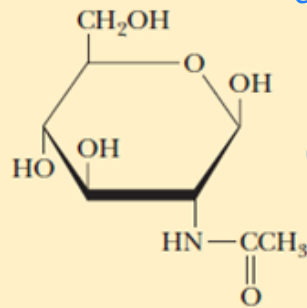
Cellobiose (glucose- $\beta$ -1,4-glucose)

# Chitin



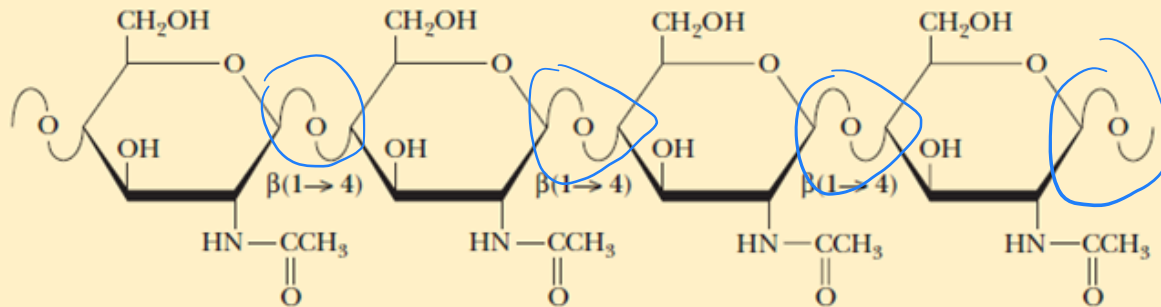
What is the precursor?  
Where does it exist?

homopolysaccharide



*N*-Acetyl- $\beta$ -D-glucosamine

Can add more groups  
which make it  
much stronger  
made from  
modified sugar



What manner of  
armor is this?!?



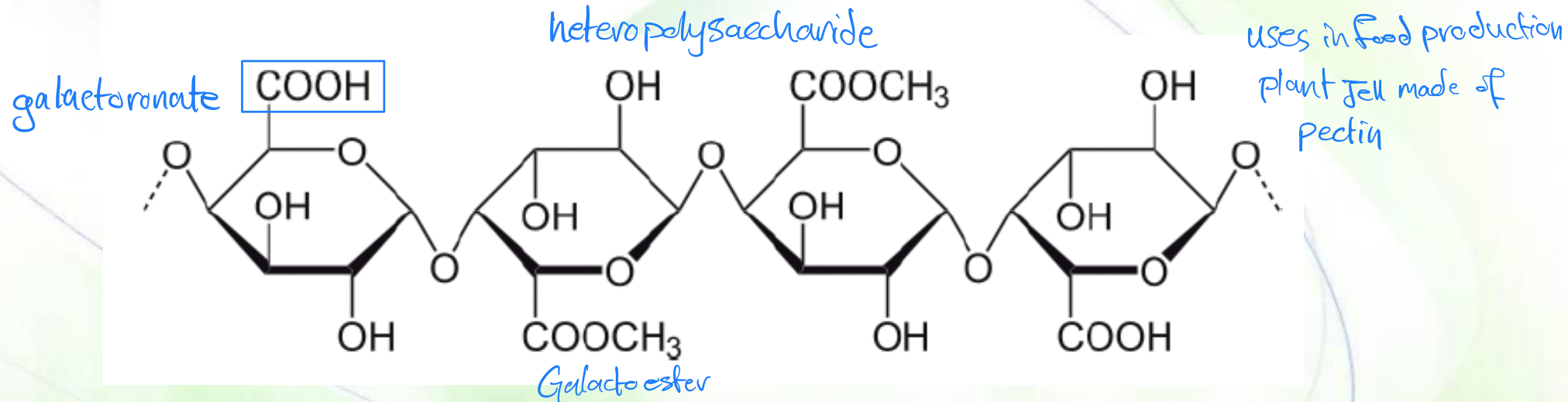
Do not memorize or  
study the structures.

# Pectin



What is the precursor?

Where does it exist?



**Do not memorize or  
study the structures.**

# Are polysaccharides reducing?



**A sample that contains only a few molecules of a large polysaccharide, each molecule with a single reducing end, might well produce a negative test because there are not enough reducing ends to detect.**

Saccharose → Can't be reduced  
the bond between glucose & Fructose  
bind the anomeric carbons together  
there's no more anomeric carbon  
free to be oxidized

# Glycosaminoglycans

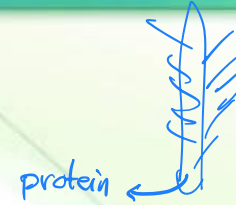


heteropolysaccharide repeated disaccharide unit

What are they? Where are they located?

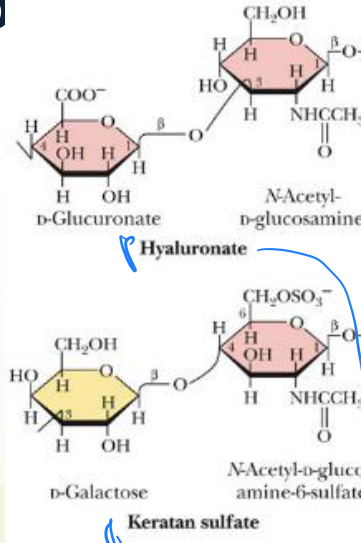
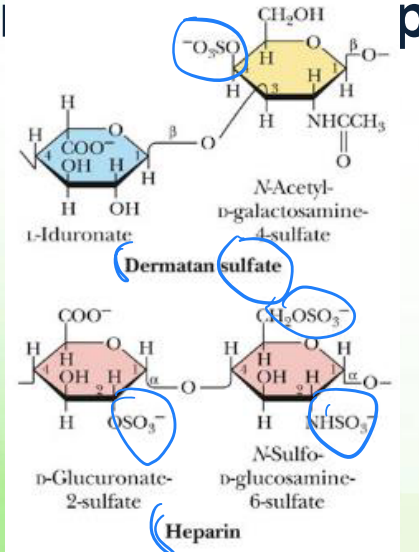
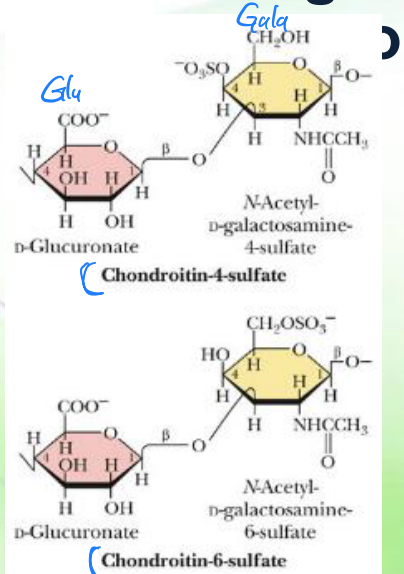
Derivatives of an amino sugar, either glucosamine or galactosamine

At least one of the sugars in the repeating unit has a negatively charged



amination  
oxidation  
sulfation

it main is  
Glucose / Galactose



more polarity = more H<sub>2</sub>O  
make a Jell structure in  
ECM

extra cushioning effect  
CT → made from ECM

**Do not memorize or  
study the structures.**

hyaluronic acid

# Localization and function of GAG



| GAG                                     | Localization                                                                                                                   | Comments                                                                             |
|-----------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Hyaluronate                             | synovial fluid, <b>vitreous humor</b> , <b>ECM of loose connective tissue</b><br><i>vitreous humor</i> → <i>السائل الزجاجي</i> | <b>the lubricant fluid , shock absorbing</b><br>As many as 25,000 disaccharide units |
| <i>Cartilage</i><br>Chondroitin sulfate | <b>cartilage</b> , bone, heart valves                                                                                          | <b>most abundant GAG</b>                                                             |
| <u>Heparan sulfate</u>                  | <u>basement membranes</u> , components of cell surfaces                                                                        | contains higher acetylated glucosamine than heparin                                  |
| <u>Heparin</u>                          | component of intracellular granules of mast cells lining the <u>arteries</u> of the <u>lungs</u> , liver and skin              | <b>A natural anticoagulant</b>                                                       |
| <u>Dermatan sulfate</u>                 | <u>skin</u> , <u>blood vessels</u> , <u>heart valves</u>                                                                       |                                                                                      |
| <u>Keratan sulfate</u>                  | <u>cornea</u> , <u>bone</u> , <u>cartilage</u><br>aggregated with chondroitin                                                  | Only one not having uronic acid                                                      |

# Proteoglycans



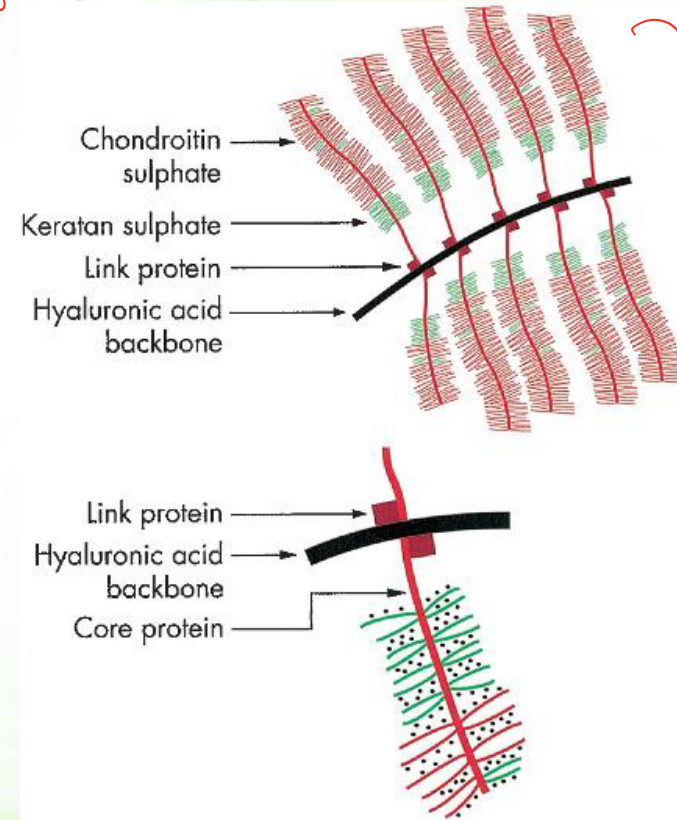
*multi gags*  
*more complex function*

**Lubricants**

**Structural components in  
connective tissue**

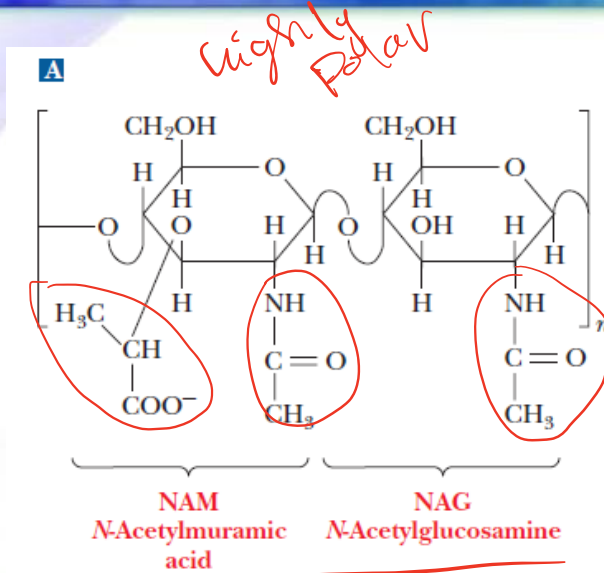
**Mediate adhesion of cells to the  
extracellular matrix**

**Bind factors that stimulate cell  
proliferation**

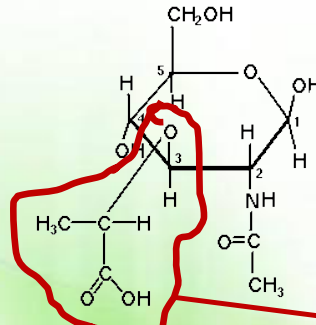
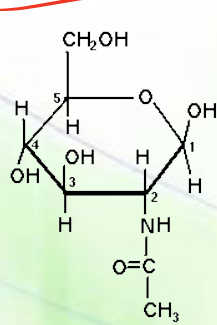
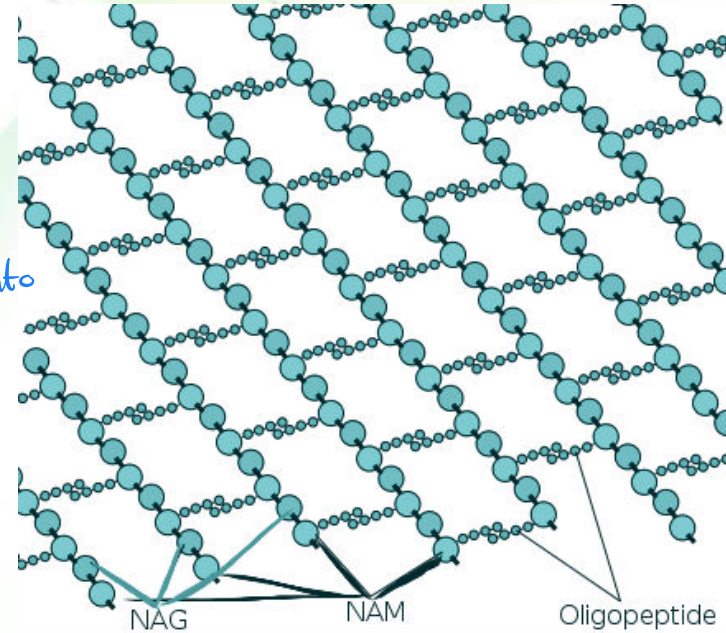


*Complicated  
Structure*

# Bacterial cell wall



*runs into chains*

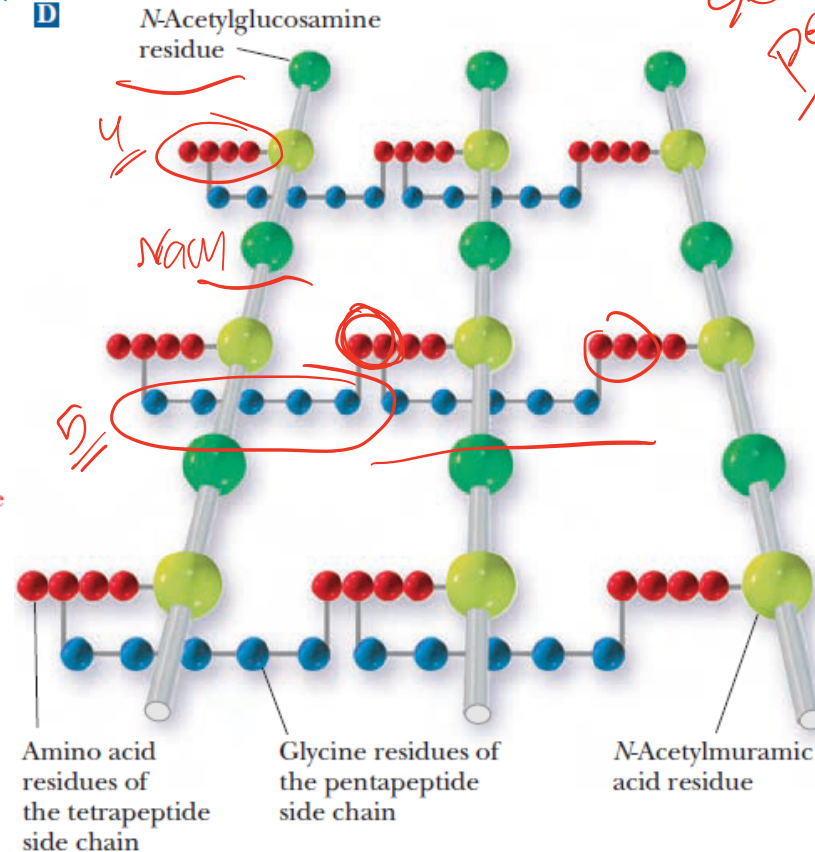
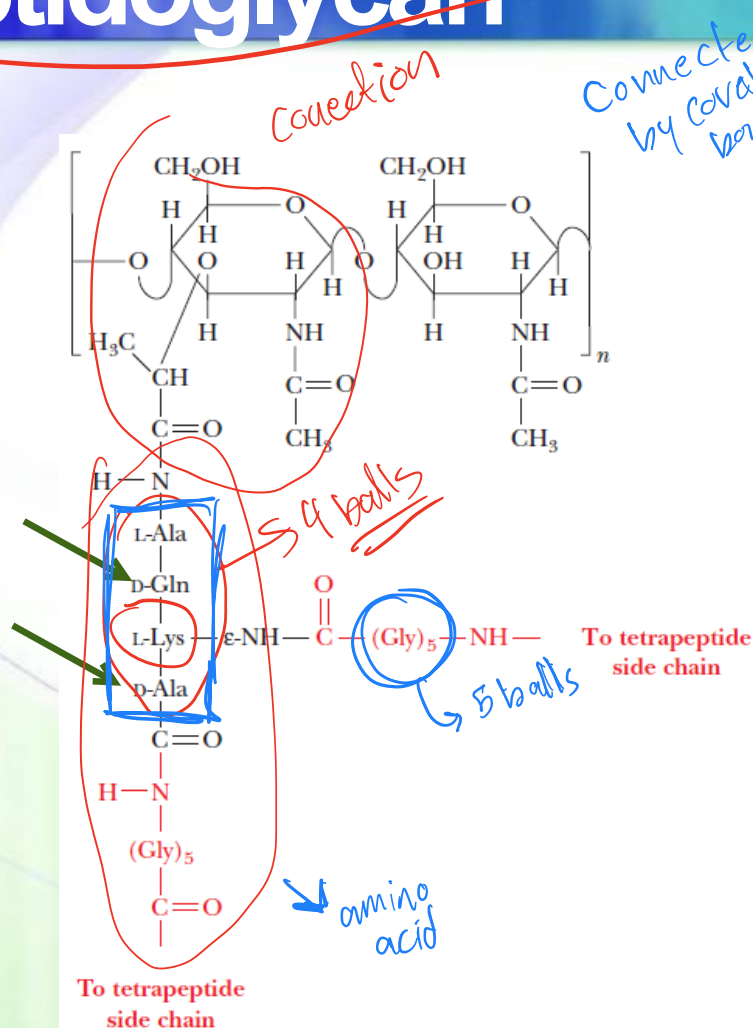


**Lactic acid**

**Do not memorize or study the structures.**

*hetero  
modide  
sugars*

# Peptidoglycan



# Glycoproteins



The carbohydrates of glycoproteins are linked to the protein component through either O-glycosidic or N-glycosidic bonds

The N-glycosidic linkage is through the amide group of asparagine (Asn, N)

The O-glycosidic linkage is to the hydroxyl group of serine (Ser, S), threonine (Thr, T) or hydroxylysine (hLvs)

Do not memorize or study the structures.

*diago → most of the time*

*N or O atom  
amino acid*

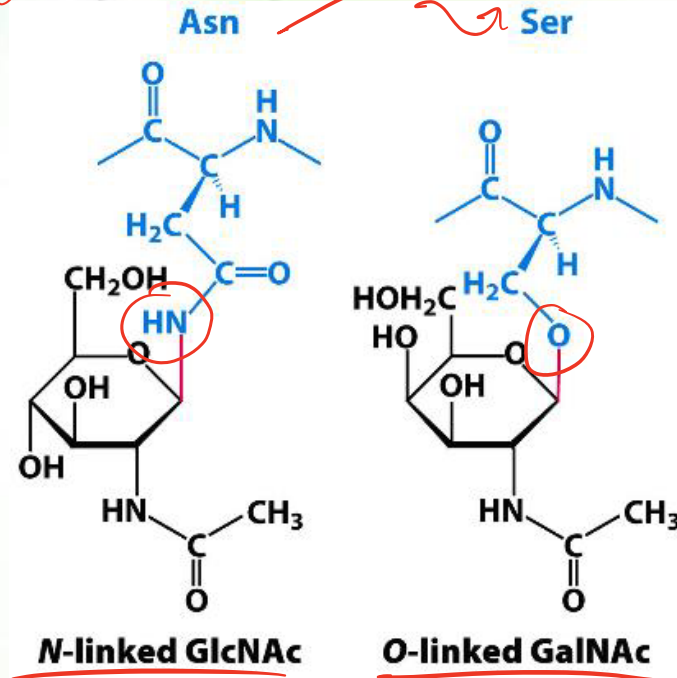


Figure 11.15  
Biochemistry, Seventh Edition  
© 2012 W. H. Freeman and Company

# Significance of protein-linked sugars



Soluble proteins as well as membrane proteins

recognition

↳ but not all of them

Purpose:

- Protein folding ✓
- Protein targeting ✓
- prolonging protein half-life ✓ →  $\delta, \epsilon$  help to avoid degrading
- Cell-cell communication ✓
- Signaling ✓

# Blood typing and glycoproteins



*ABO system*

Three different structures:

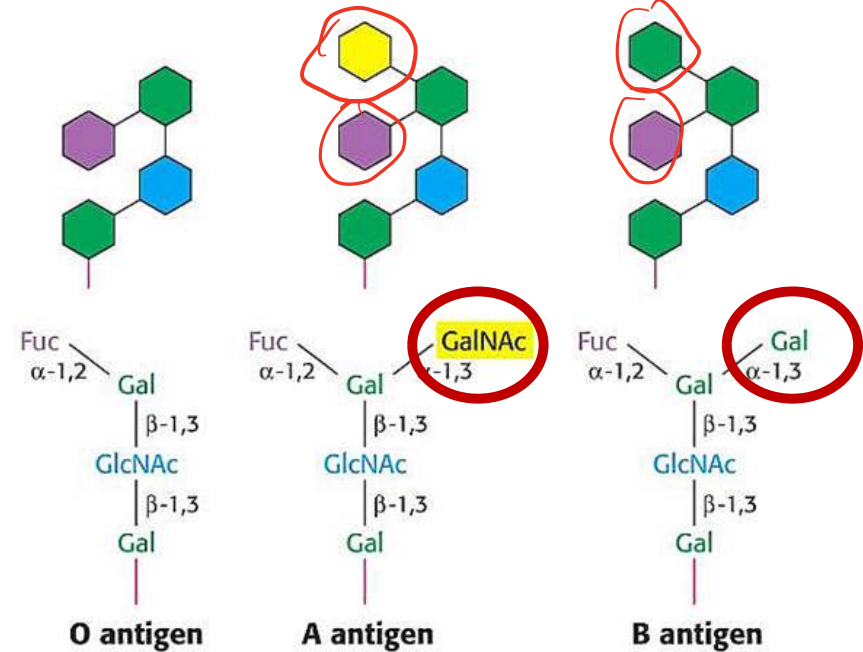
A, B, and O

The difference:

N-acetylgalactosamine (for A)

Galactose (for B)

None (for O)



# Sialic acid



more talk  
in lipids

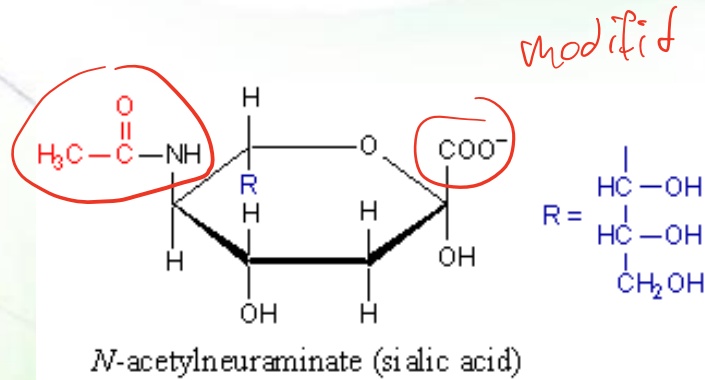
bacterial  
cell wall

amino sugar  $\rightarrow$  glycolipids

## N-acetylneuraminate

Precursor: the amino sugar, neuraminic acid

Location: a terminal residue of oligosaccharide chains of glycoproteins and glycolipids.



Do not memorize or  
study the structures.

