



Summer semester 2023-2024

ریان بنی اسلمه

What are they?



the functional group is carbonyl ($C=O$) which give the properties of sugar

- Carbohydrates are polyhydroxy aldehydes or ketones.
- Saccharide is another name for a carbohydrate

order of naming:
(main)
 $-COOH > C(=O) > -OH$
↓
acid

- Functions:
 - Source of energy (glycogen and starch)
 - Structure (cellulose and chitin)
 - Building blocks (glycosaminoglycans) → make larger molecules
 - Cellular recognition (glycoproteins)

↳ surface of cells

Carbohydrates – natural forms

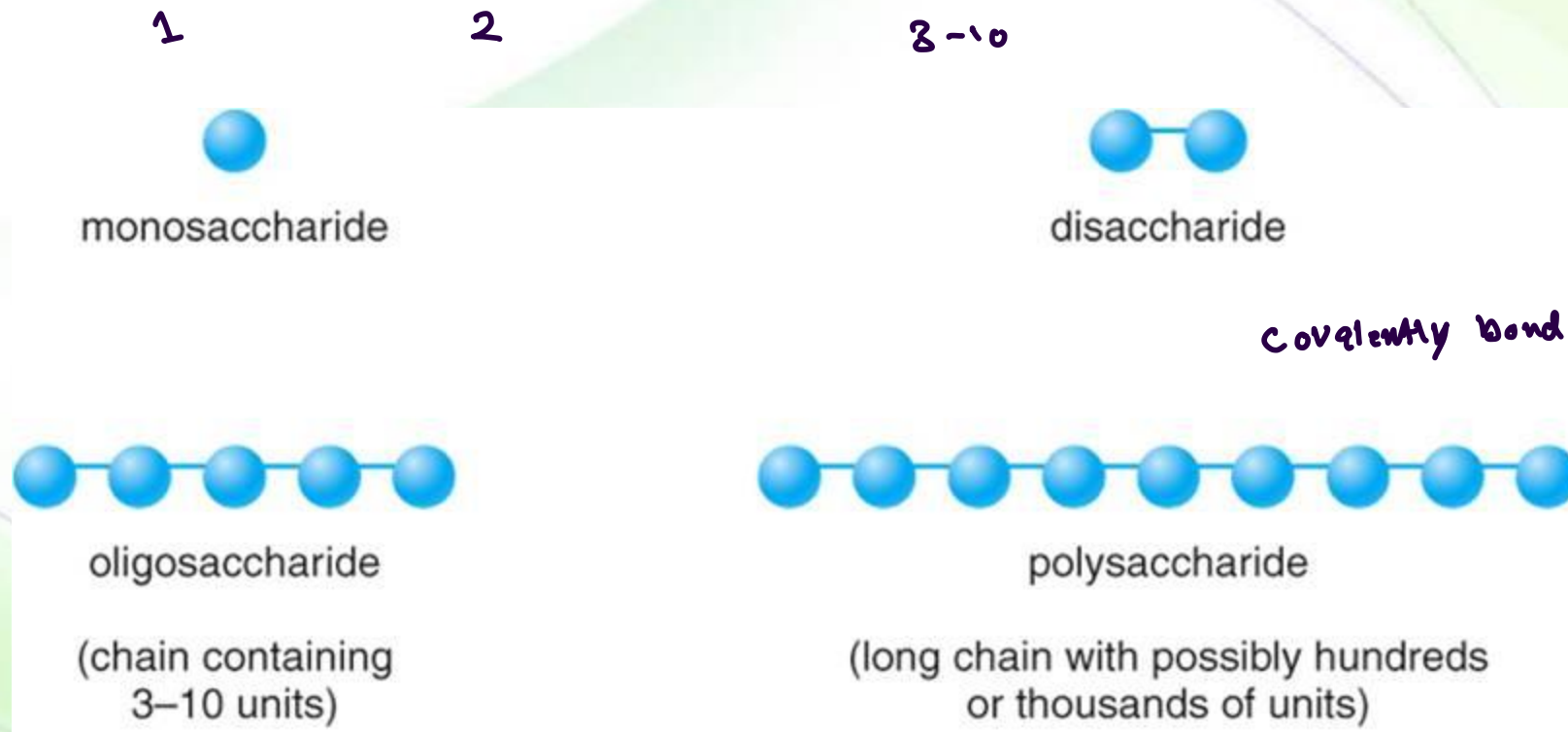


- Most carbohydrates are found naturally in bound form rather than as simple sugars.
- Polysaccharides (starch, cellulose, inulin, gums)
- Glycoproteins^{proteins + some sugar} and proteoglycans^{proteins + some sugar} (hormones, blood group substances, antibodies)
- Glycolipids^{lipids that have some sugar} (cerebrosides, gangliosides)
- Glycosides^{sugar that fast with alcohol}
- Mucopolysaccharides (hyaluronic acid) → ECM
- Nucleic acids (DNA, RNA)

Classification I



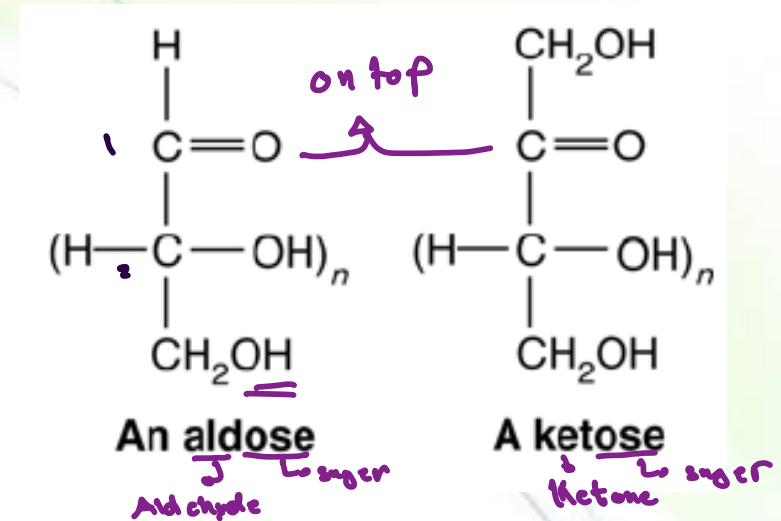
- By the number of sugars that constitute the molecule
 - Monosaccharides, Disaccharides, Oligosaccharides, Polysaccharides



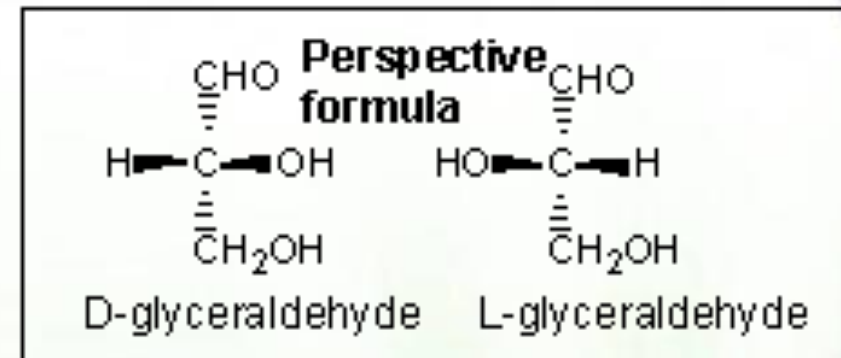
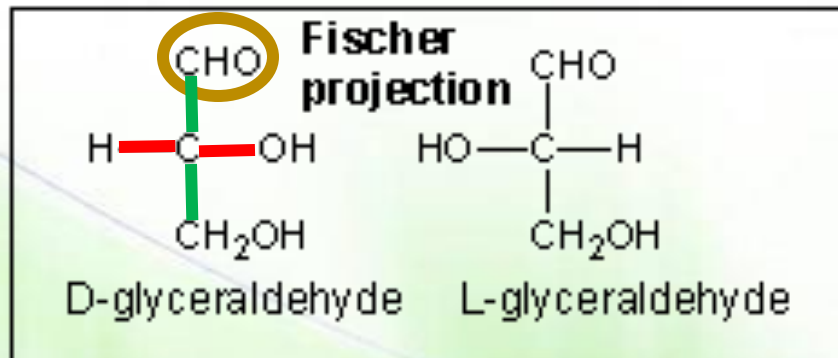
Monosaccharides



- Basic chemical formula: $(CH_2O)_n$
- They contain two or more hydroxyl groups.



Fisher projections or perspective structural formulas.



— Forward

█ Backward

○ Top (C1): Most highly oxidized C

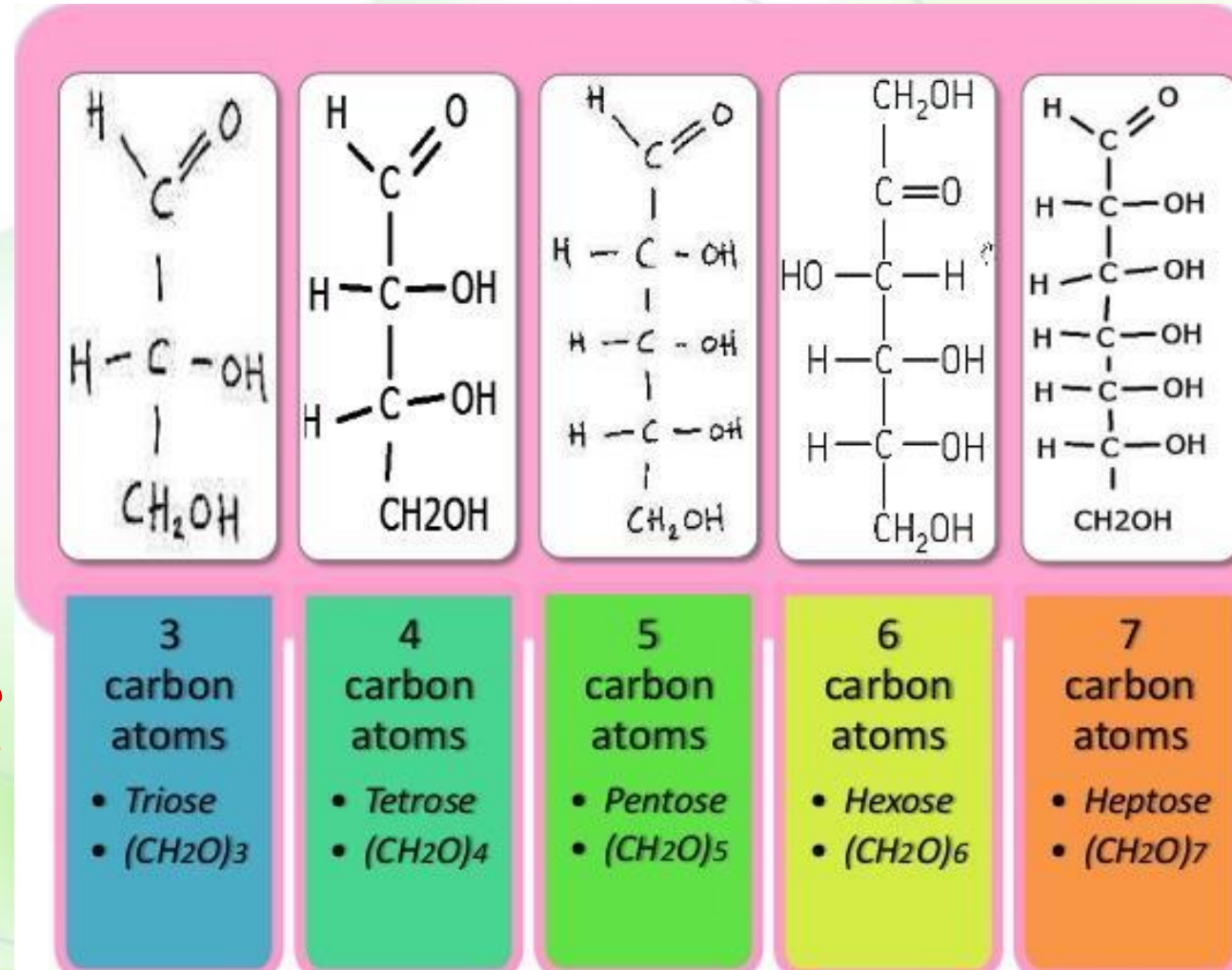
Classification 2



- By the number of carbon atoms they contain.

- Triose (smallest)
- Tetrose
- Pentose
- Hexose
- Heptose
- ...

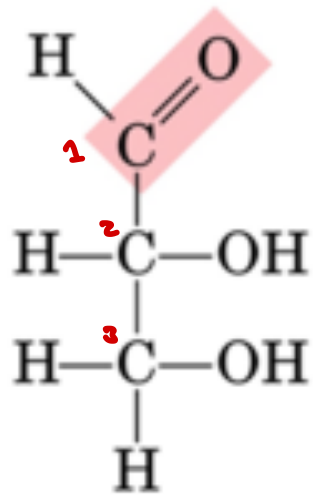
* every C should have OH group
except the one with functional group



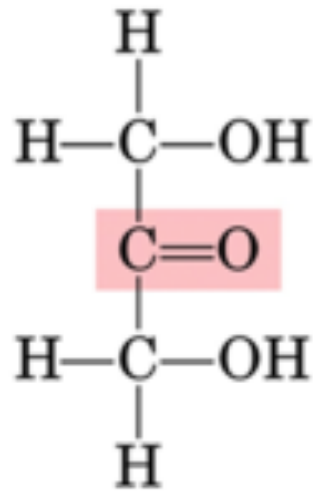
Classification III



- By the functional group



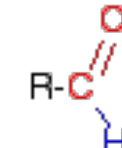
Aldose



Ketose

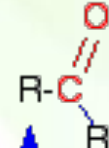
an aldehyde

This can be
hydrogen or a
hydrocarbon group.



All aldehydes have a
hydrogen attached to
the C=O

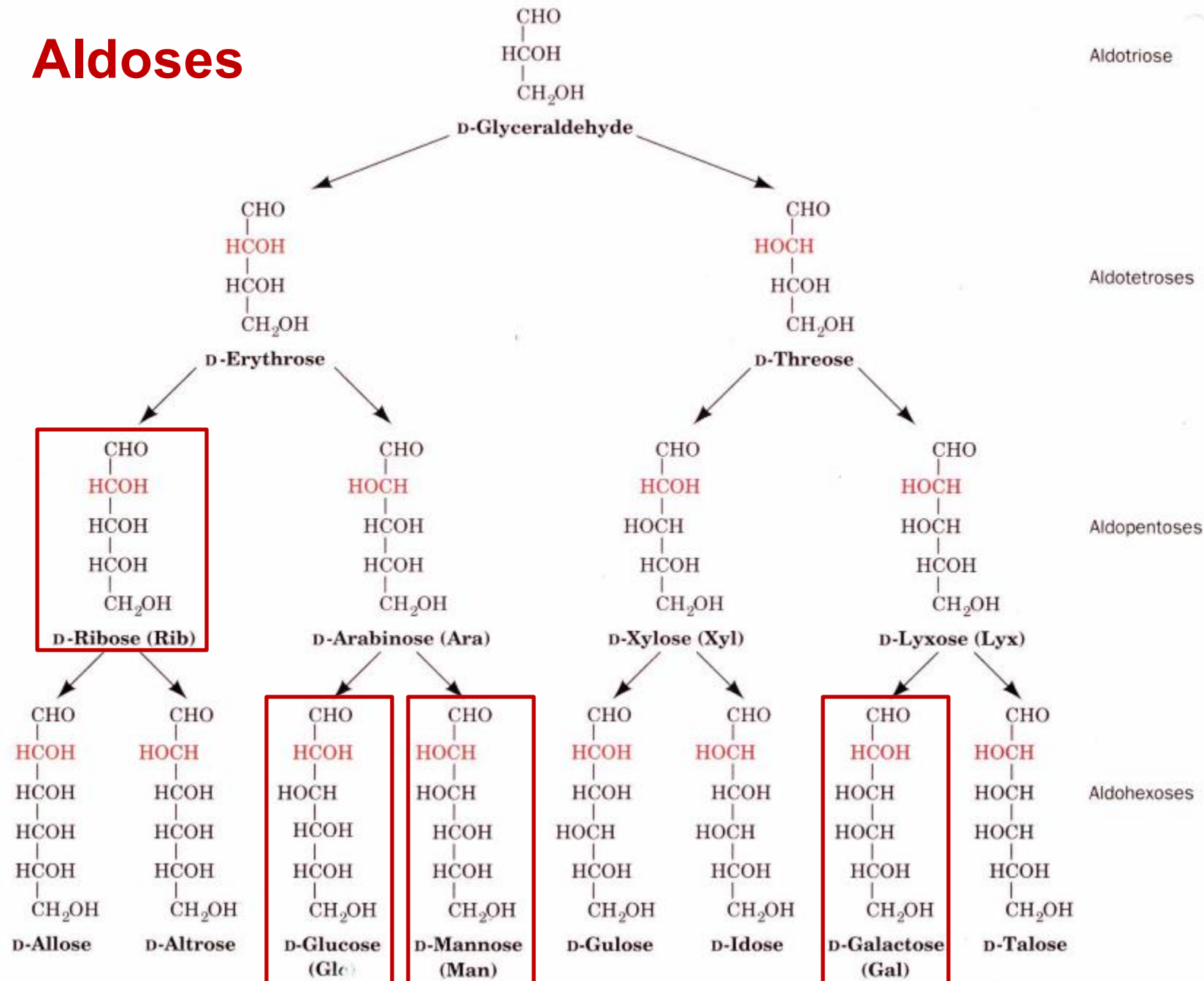
a ketone



These must both be
hydrocarbon groups - for
example, alkyl groups.



Aldoses



Memorize the ones in boxes.

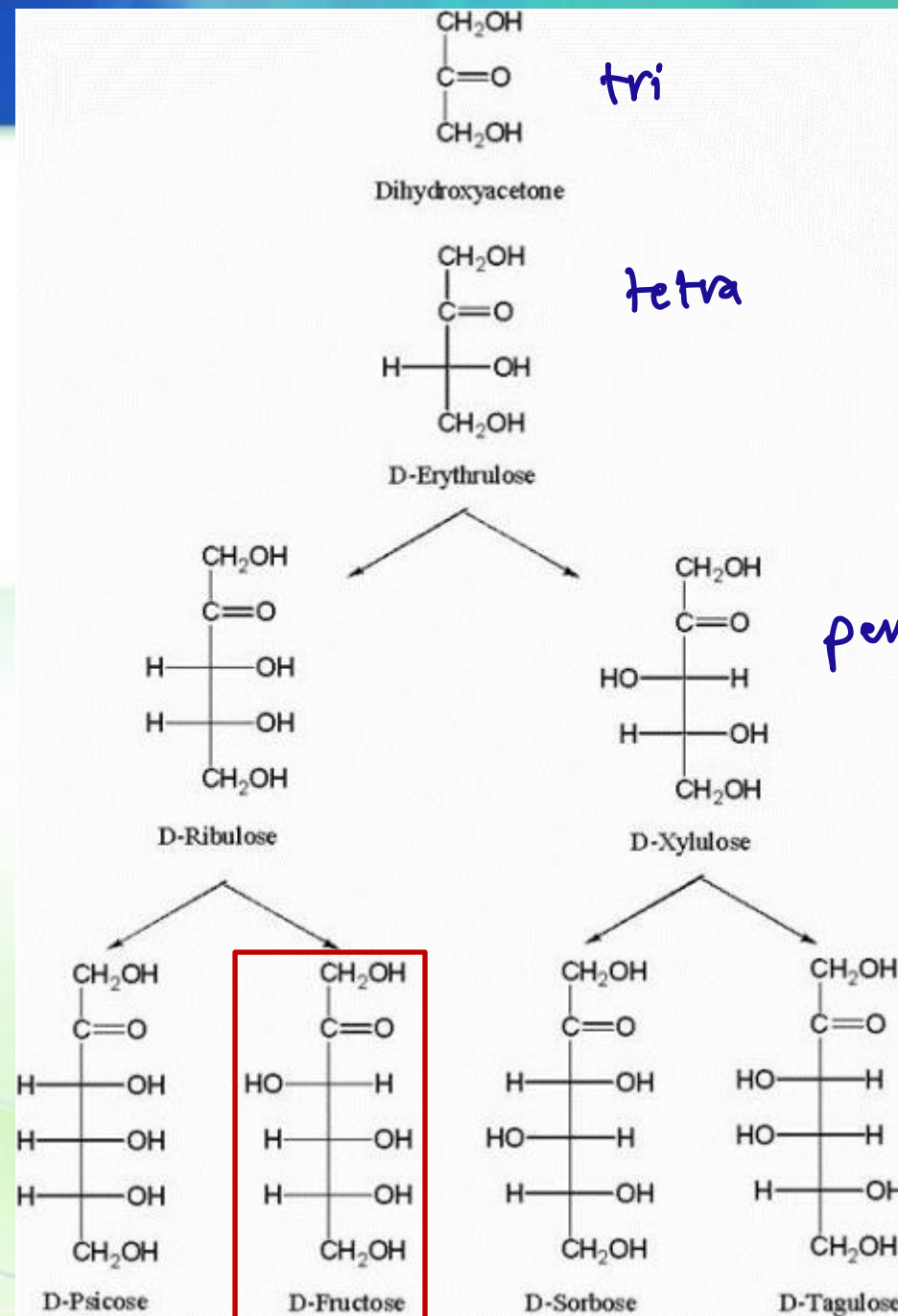
اعرف الاسم والتركيب
ومكان OH مدقة الكربون

of chiral centers
: # of C - 2



Ketoses

of chiral Centers,
of C - 3



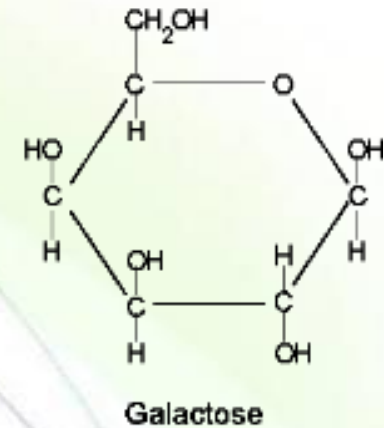
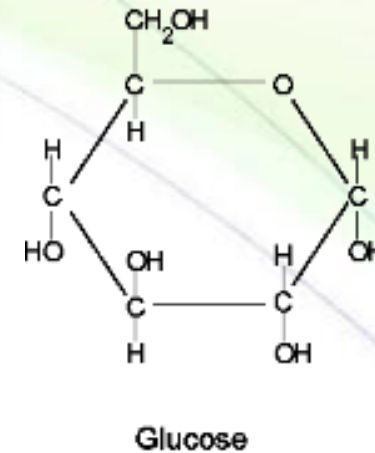
Memorize the
ones in boxes.

Common Monosaccharides



- Glucose:

- Mild sweet flavor
- Known as blood sugar
- Essential energy source (*main one*)
- Found in every disaccharide and polysaccharide



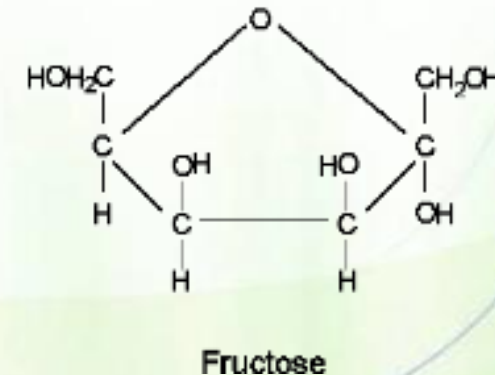
All may be modified

- Galactose:

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

- Fructose:

- Sweetest sugar, found in fruits and honey
- Added to soft drinks, cereals, desserts

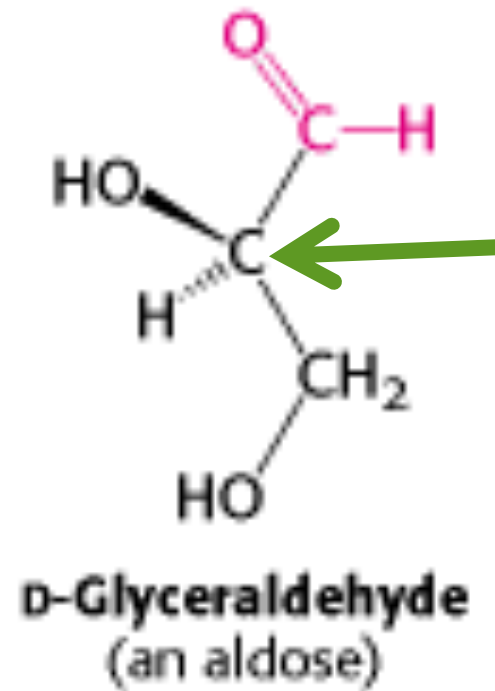
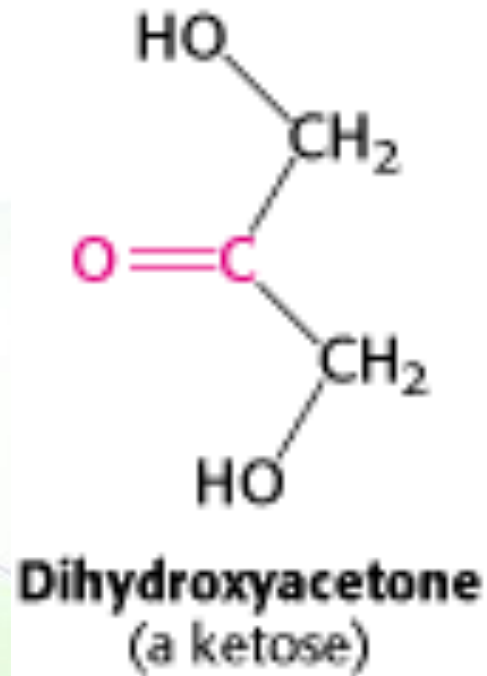


Trioses



What is a chiral carbon? ; since enantiomers are not superimposable they can be totally diff

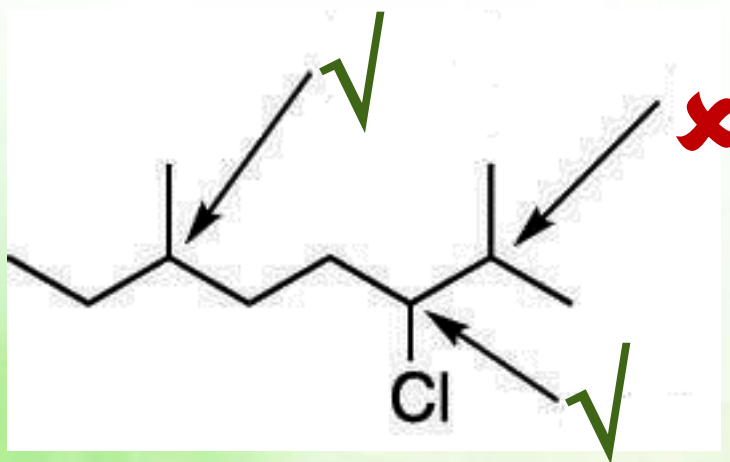
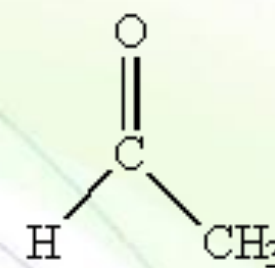
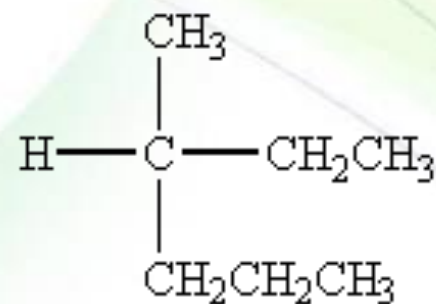
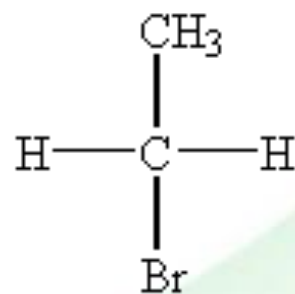
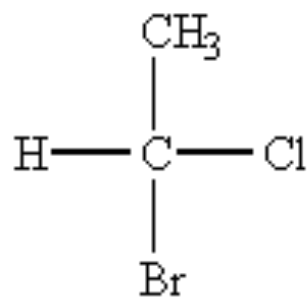
EX: some molecules taste sweet how ever their mirror image tastes bitter!



**Chiral
carbon**

we only have two trioses
(the simplest)

Note what a chiral carbon is...



Isomerism

→ same molecular formula
but diff structural one



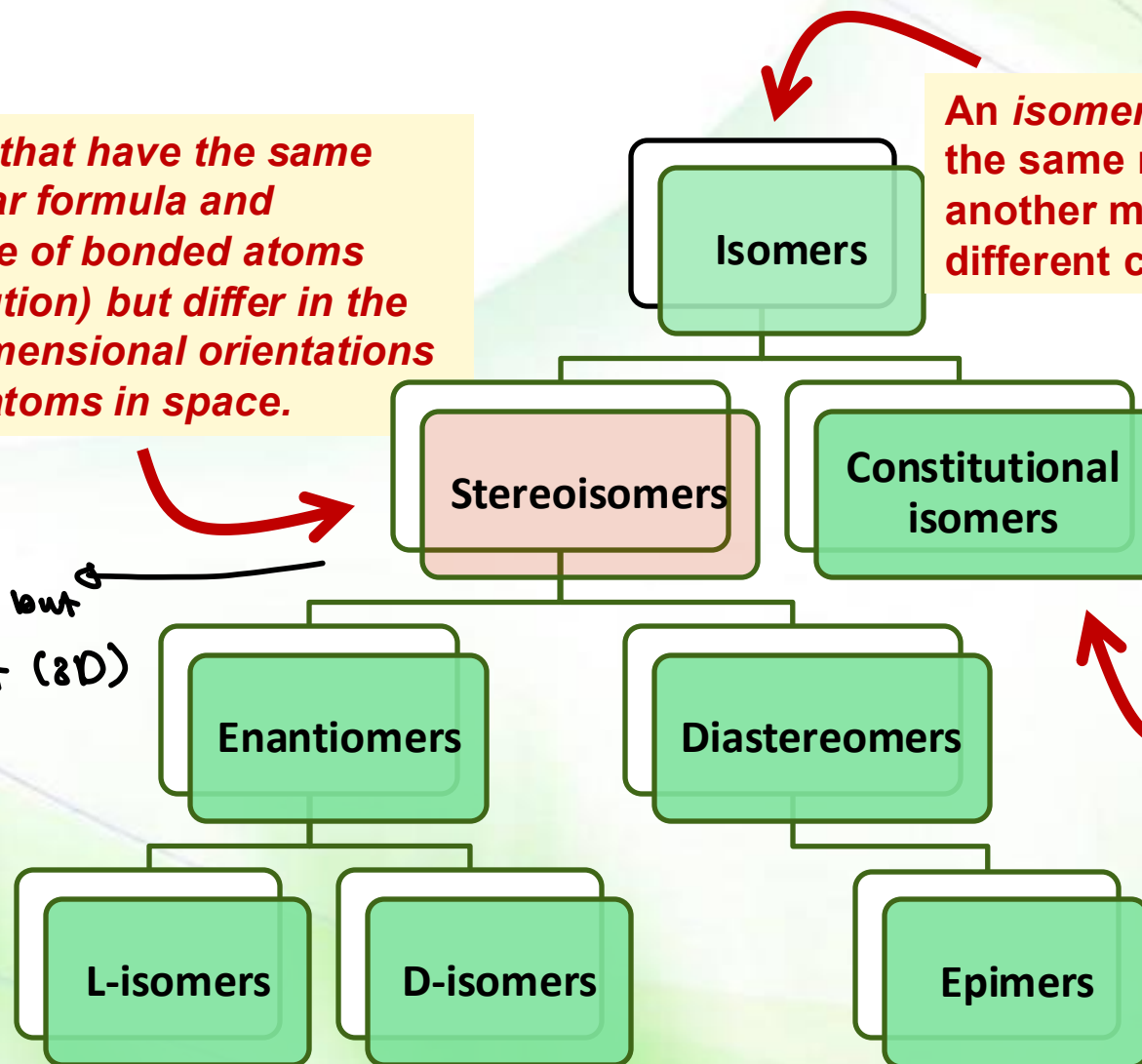
Isomers that have the same molecular formula and sequence of bonded atoms (constitution) but differ in the three-dimensional orientations of their atoms in space.

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

Same attachments but
diff in arrangement (3D)

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

diff attachments
(connected differently)



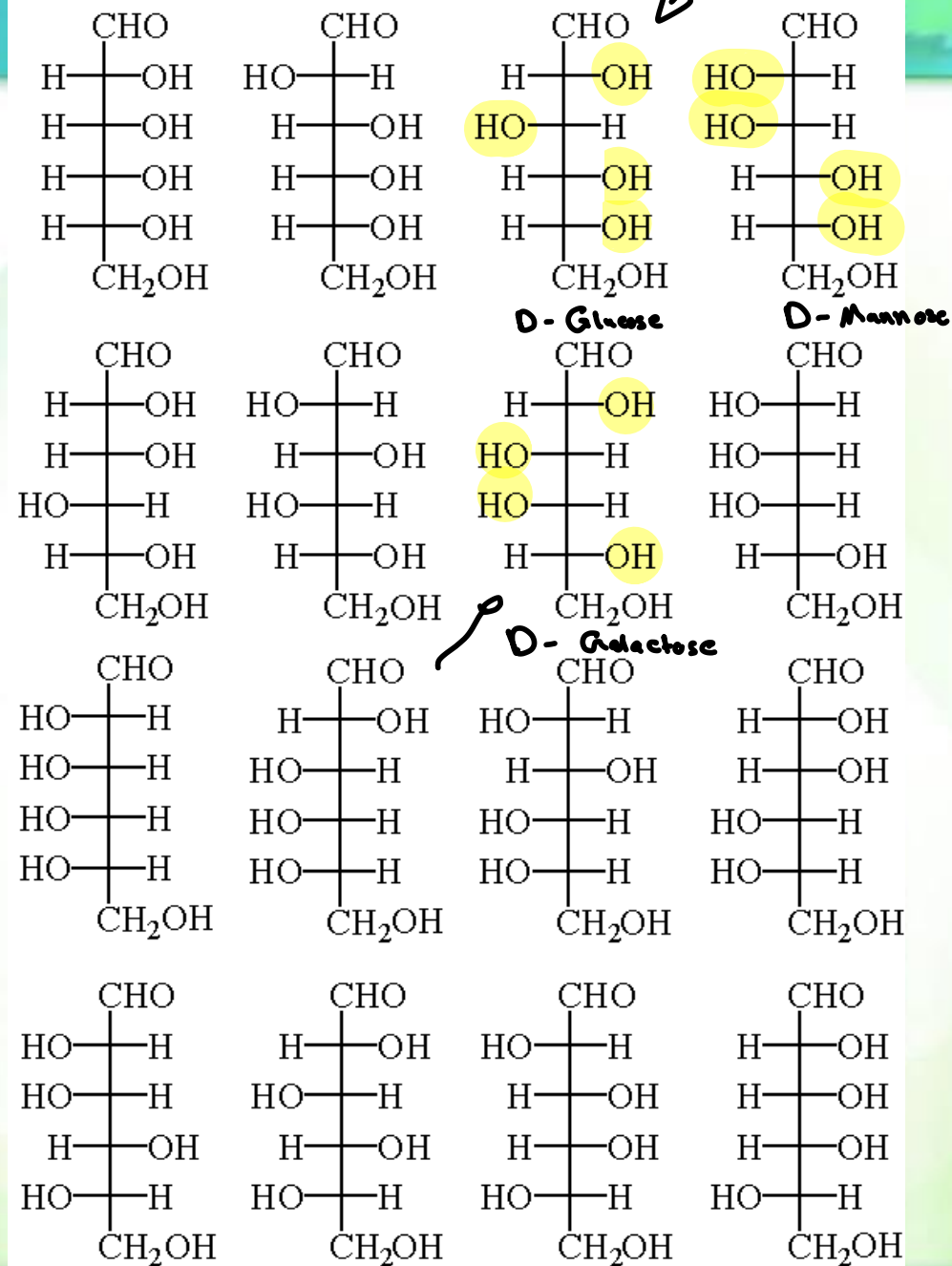
→ diff in attachment of
only one chiral center



eg: Glucose have 4 $\Rightarrow 2^4 = \underline{\underline{16}}$

✓

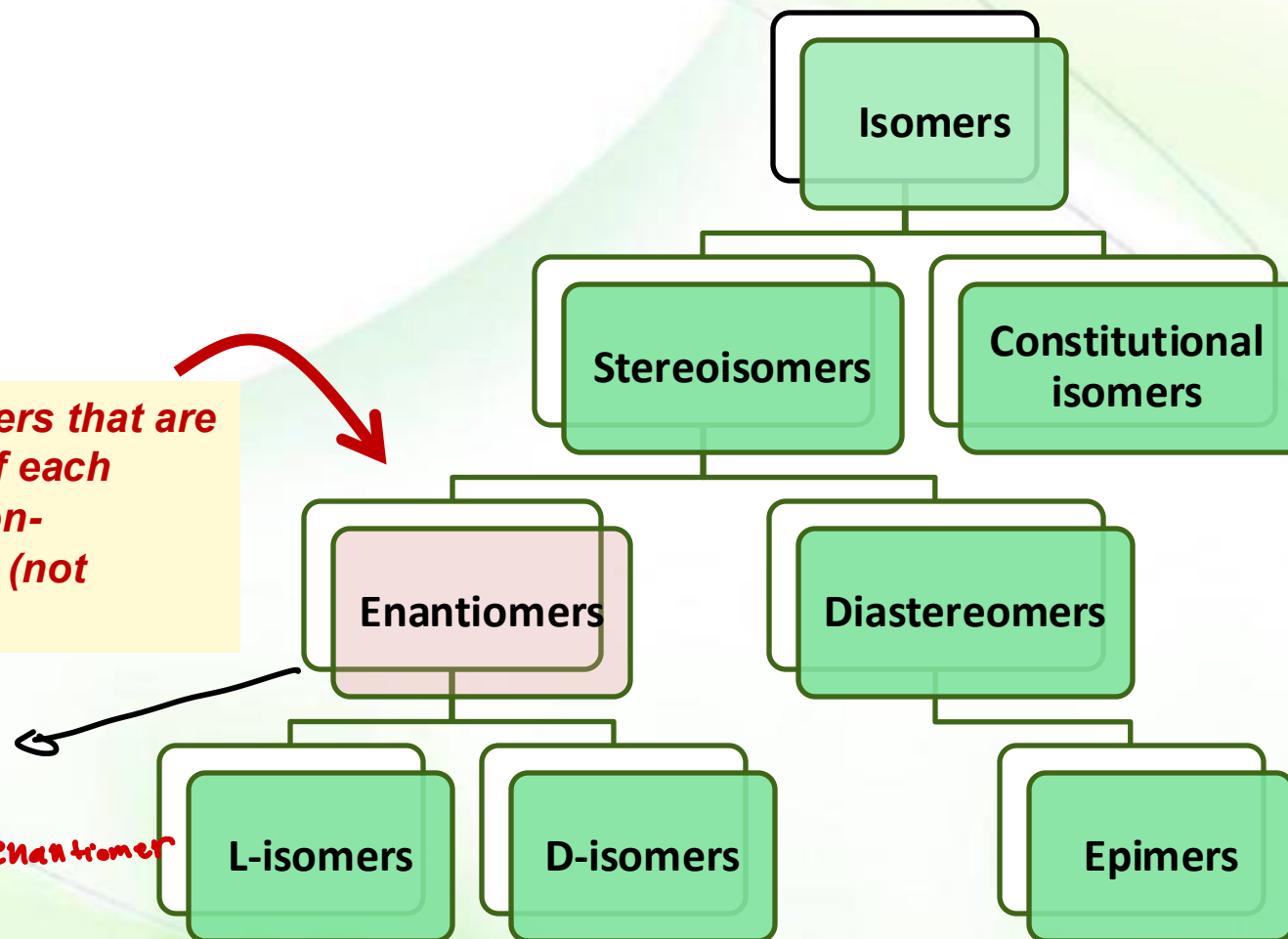
15



Enantiomers



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



Glucose has only 1 enantiomer which is its mirror image

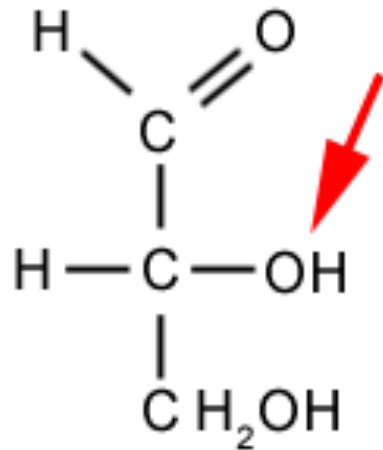
Sugar enantiomers (D- vs. L-)



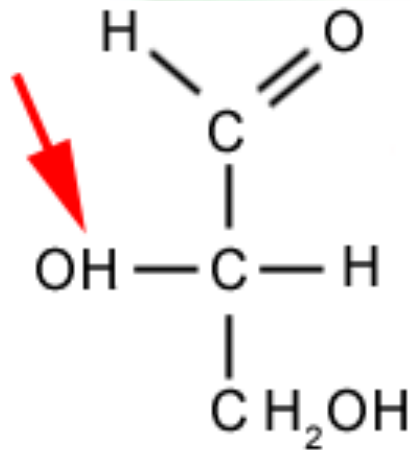
Look at the
furthest chiral center
from the functional
group if it is:

Right → D

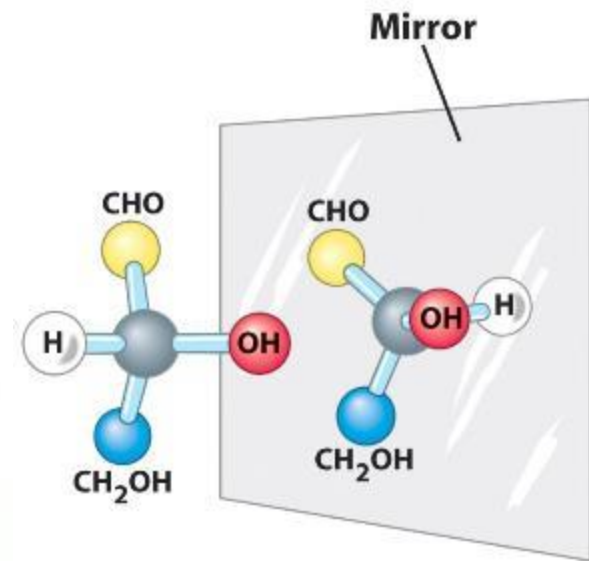
Left → L



D-Glyceraldehyde



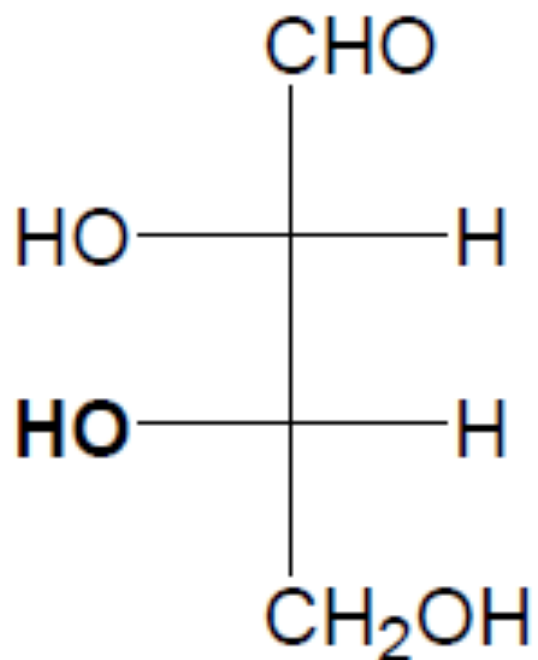
L-Glyceraldehyde



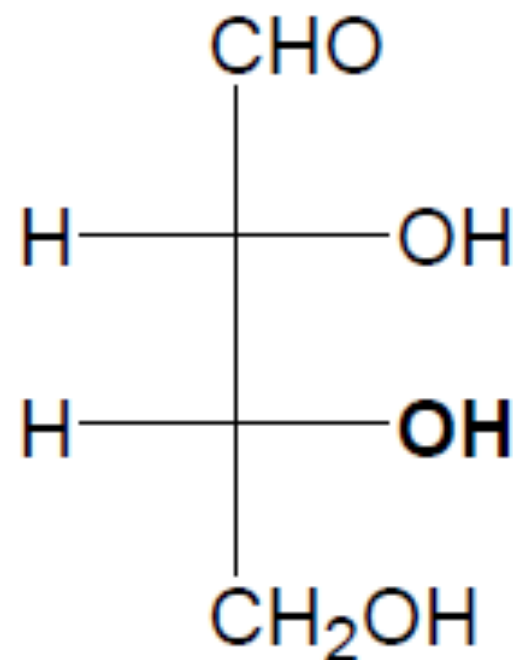
Ball-and-stick models

↓
it has only 1 enantiomer

Which one(s) is a chiral carbon?



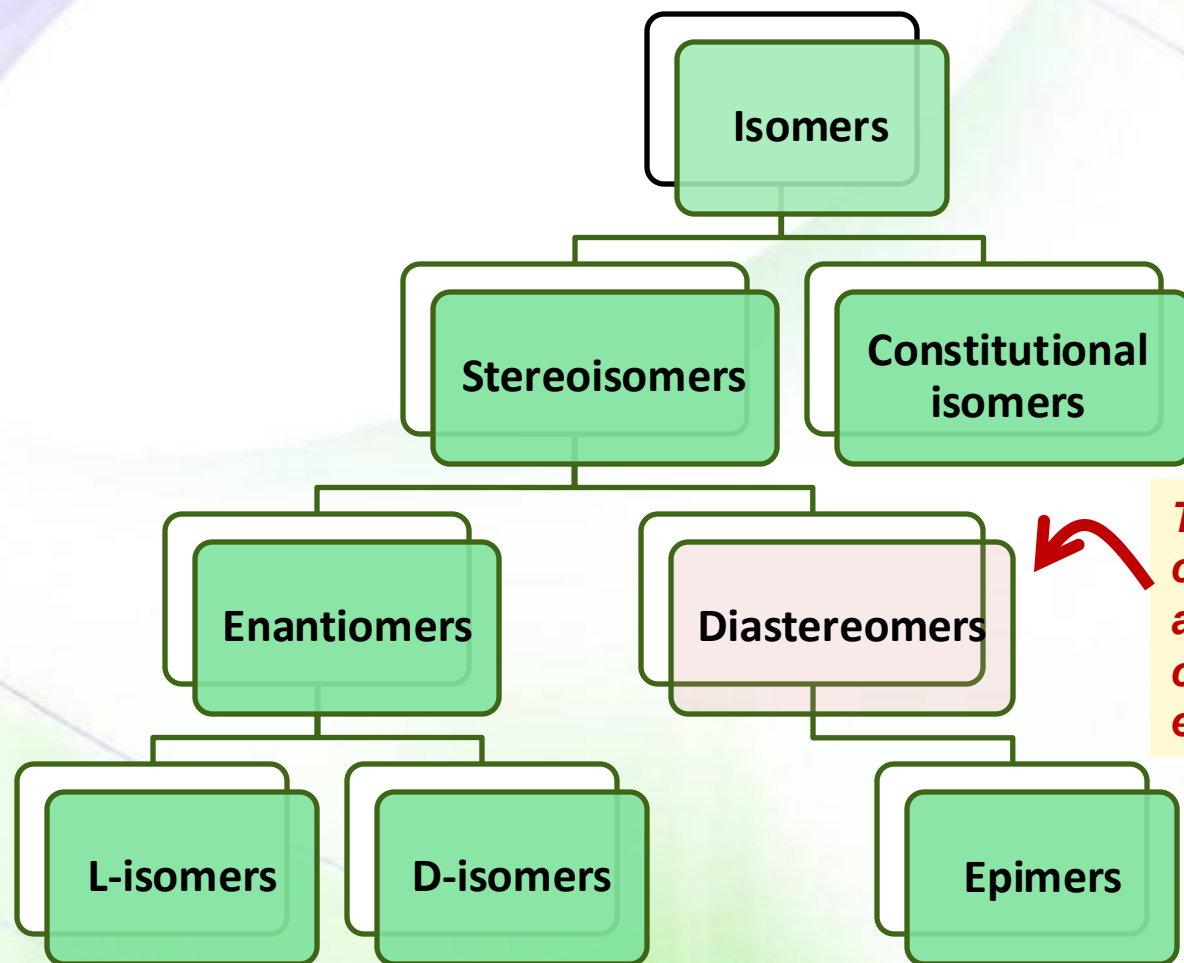
L-erythrose



D-erythrose

Do not memorize
but study them.

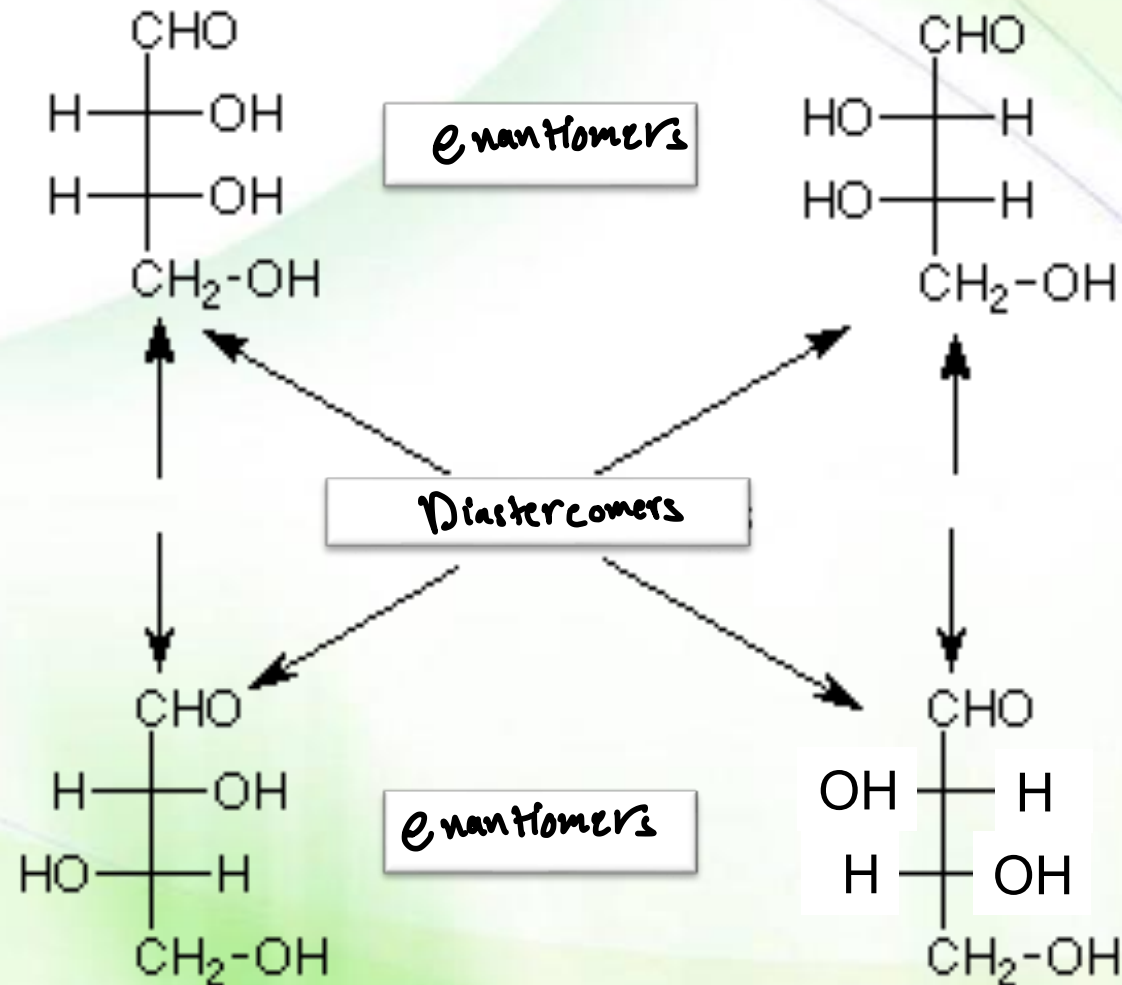
Isomerism



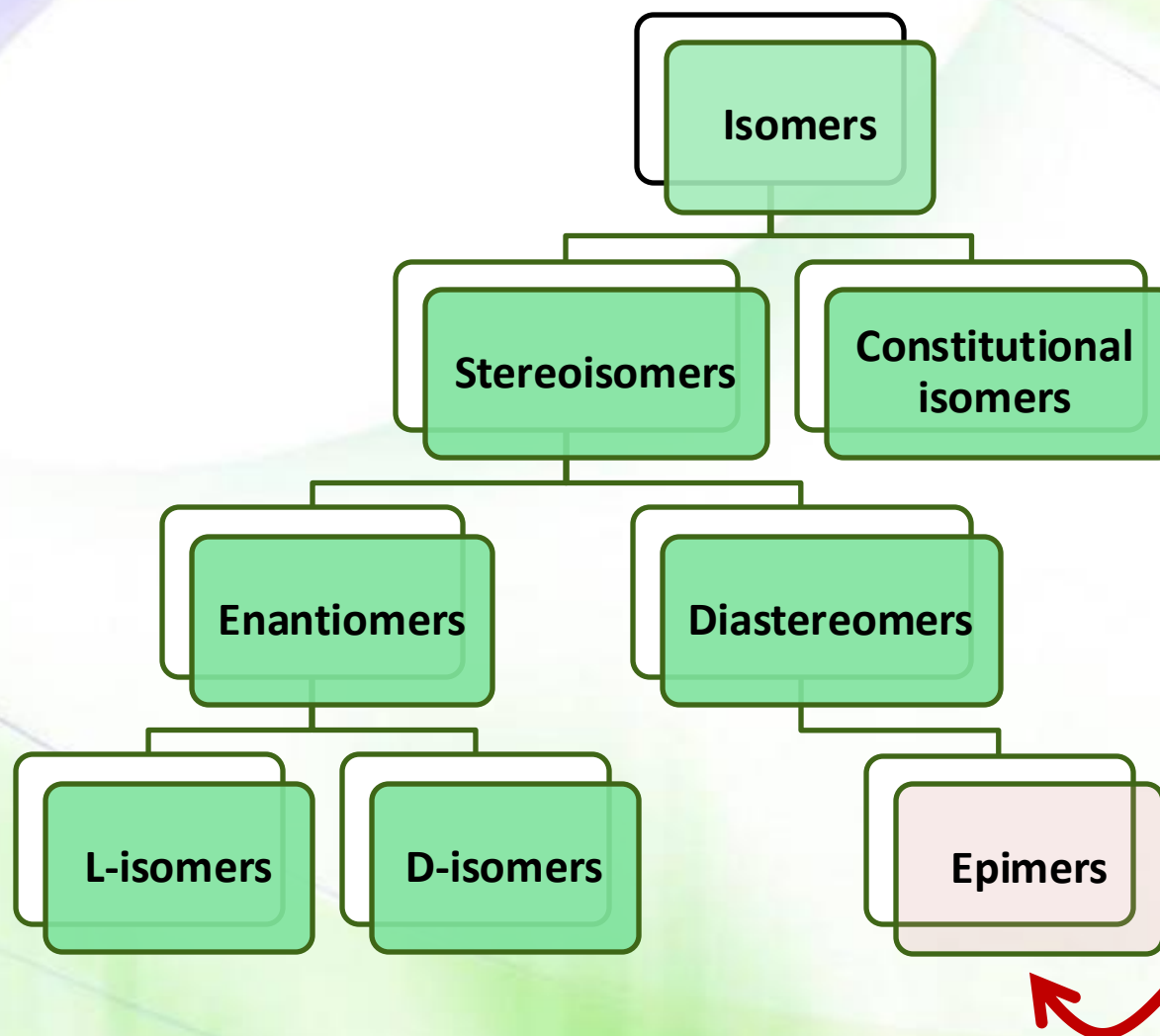
Two or more stereoisomers of a (L,D) compound having different configurations at one or more (but not all) of the chiral carbons and are not mirror images of each other.

Glucose has 14 diastereomers

Stereoisomers, but non-mirror images and non-superimposable,
then...*diastereomers*



Isomerism

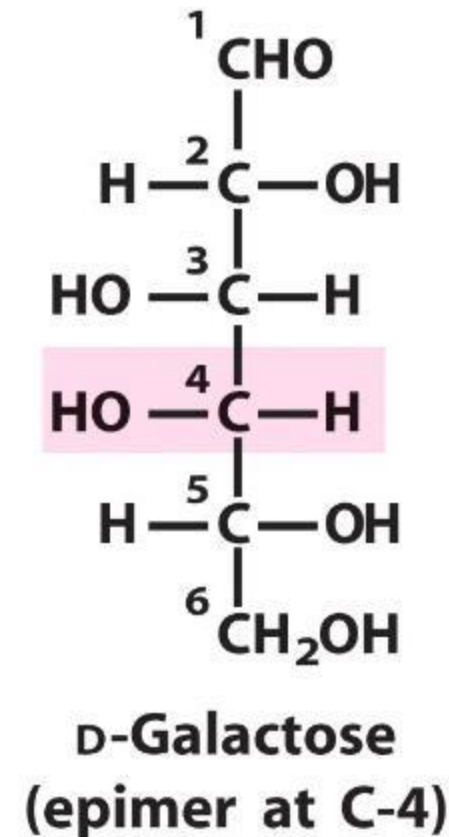
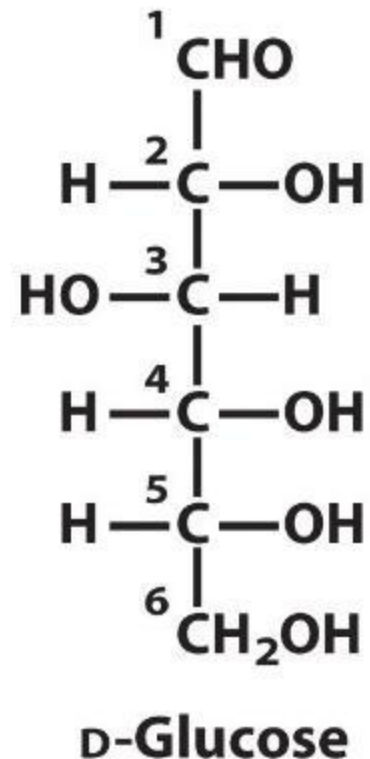
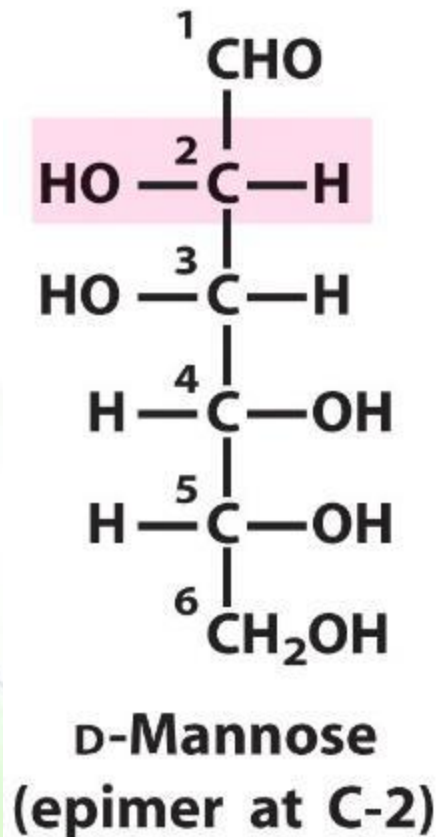


Epimer refers to one of a pair of stereoisomers whereby two isomers differ in configuration at only one chiral carbons.



Diastereomers with different orientation of one chiral carbonm then... *epimers*

Memorize and
study them.



Is L-glucose an epimer with D-mannose and D-galactose? *NO, they are diastereomers*

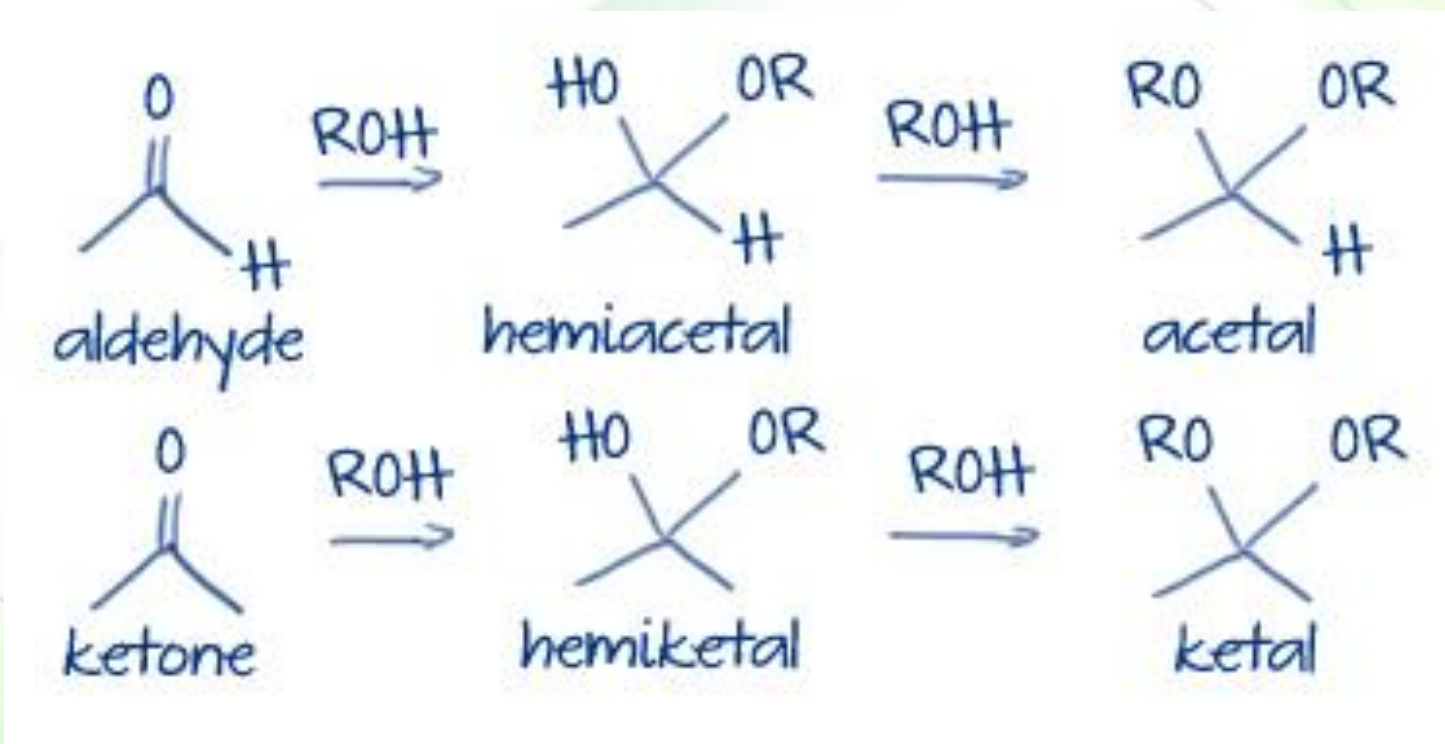
Acetal/ketal vs. hemiacetal/hemiketal



⚡ C=O & OH are reactive

Hemiacetal and hemiketal: ether and alcohol on same carbon

Acetal and ketal: two ethers on same carbon



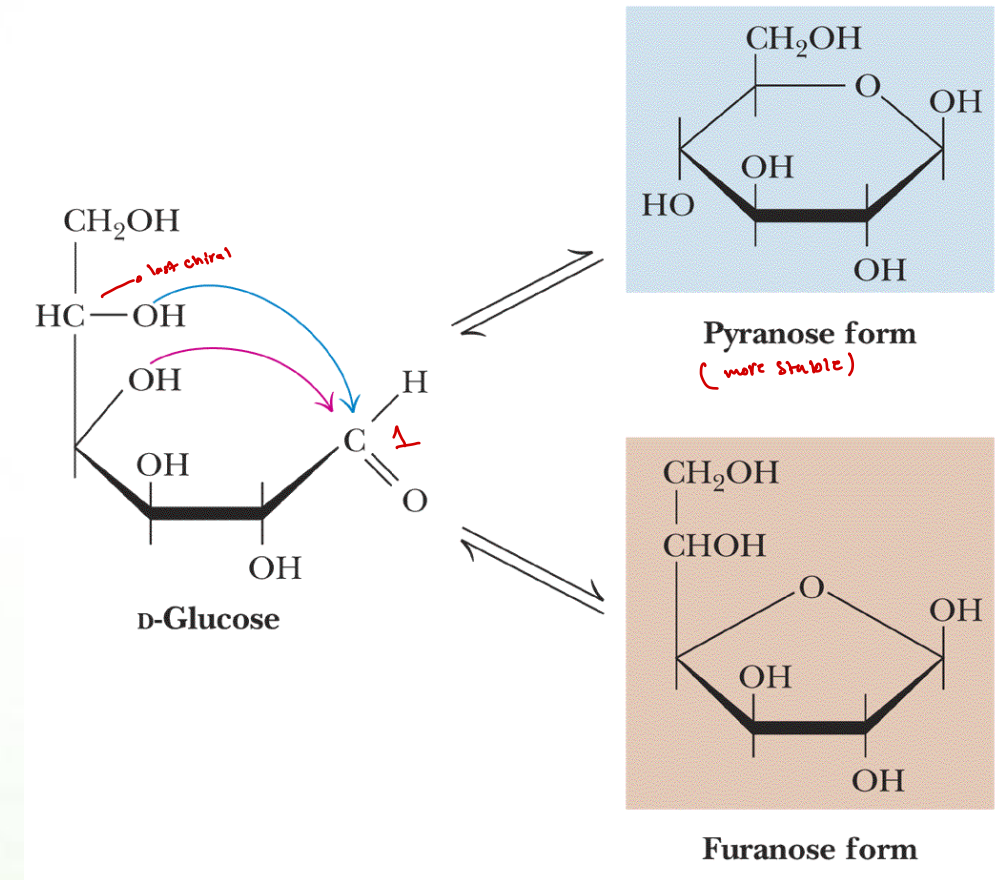
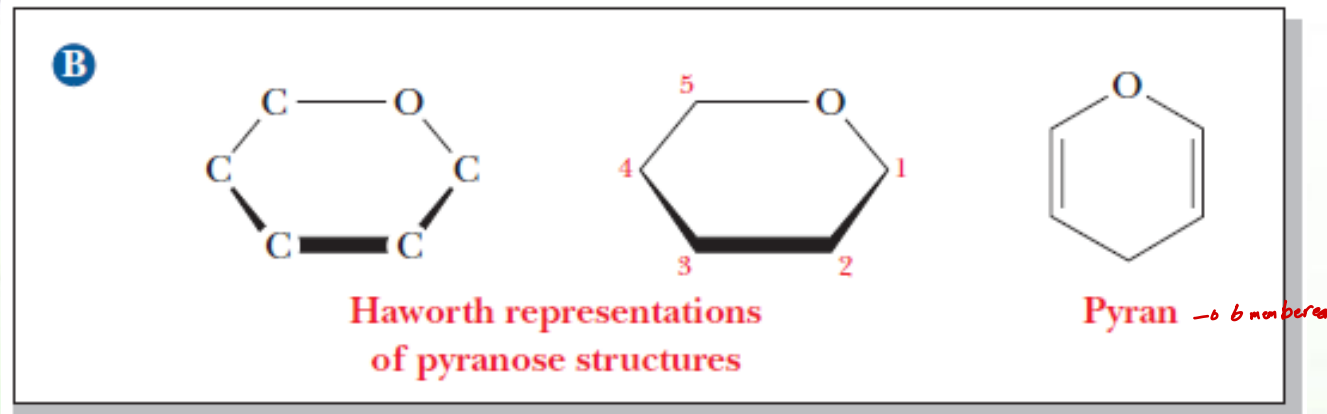
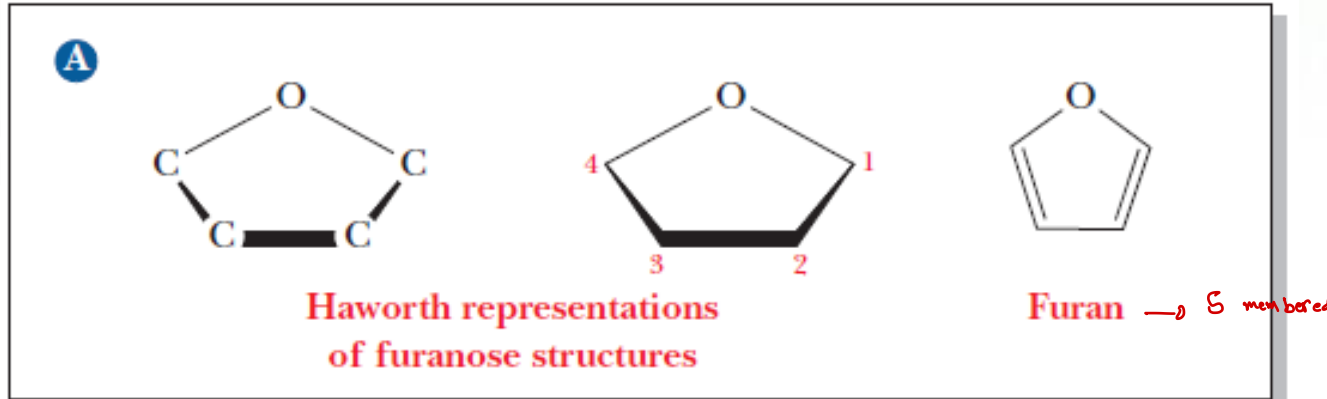
What is the difference between hemiacetal and hemiketal and the difference between acetal and ketal?

Aldehyde + ROH
Ketone + ROH

Formation of a ring structure



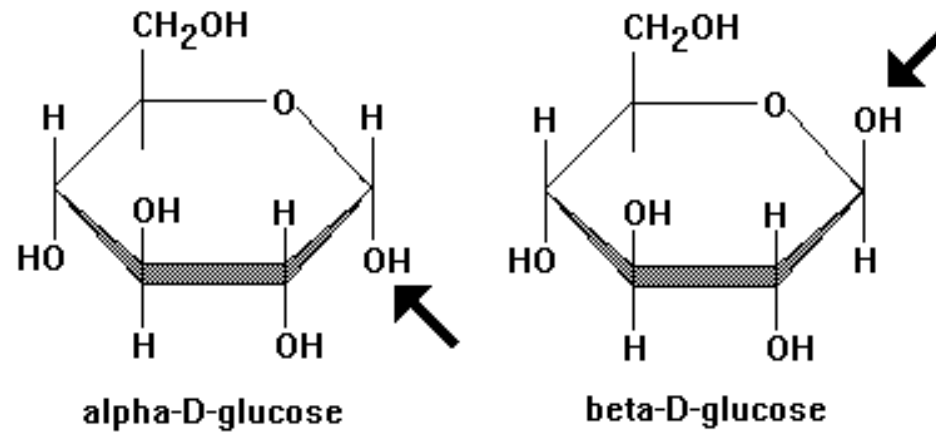
→ due to $C=O$ & OH → it can become a ring which is more stable



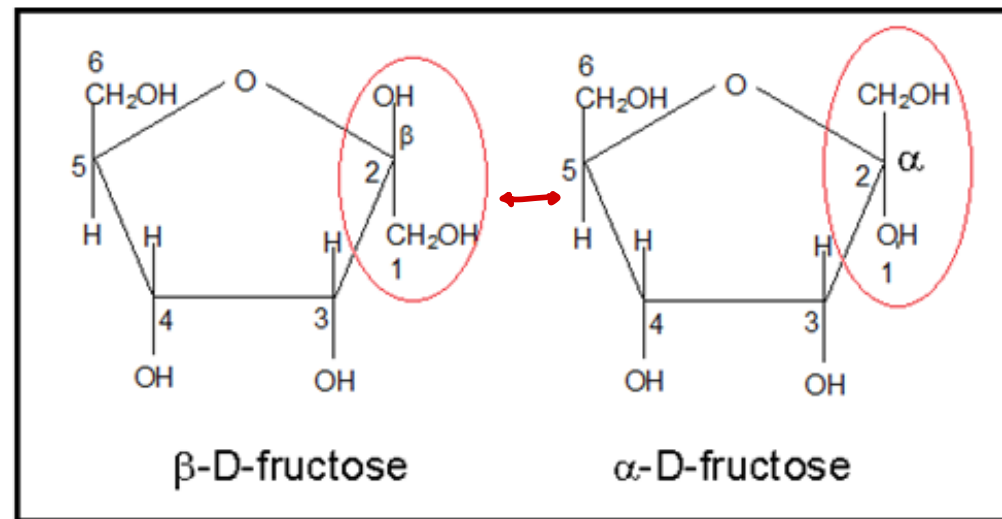
Anomers



↳ isomers that differ in position of OH on the anomeric carbon



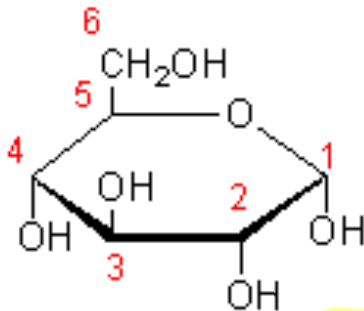
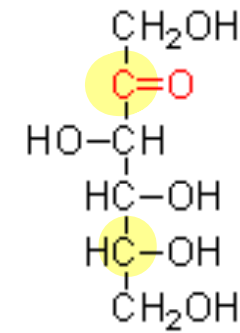
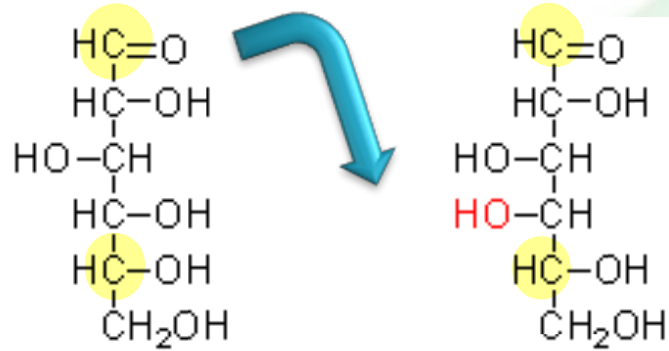
β is more stable $\Rightarrow$ more rings are in β form



Chain to ring

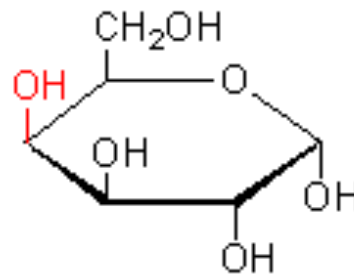
Left-up, right-down

Face the
sugar and go
down to
YOUR right

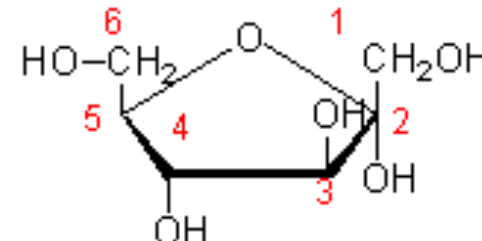


glucose

epimers



galactose

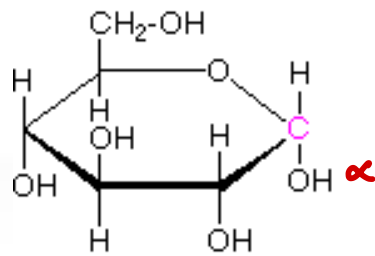


fructose

Cyclic aldohexoses

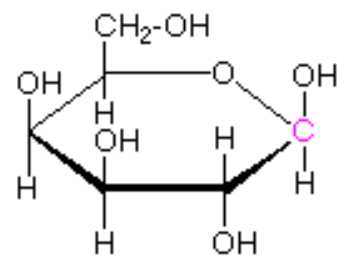


Examples of Some Pyranose Forms of Hexoses

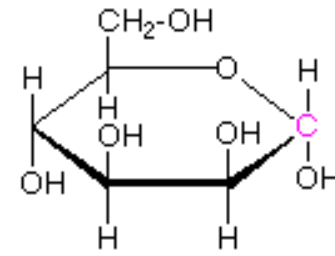


α -D-glucopyranose

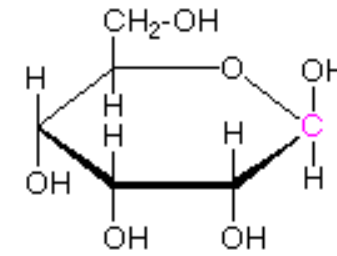
↓
last chiral center (C5)
OH is down



β -D-galactopyranose

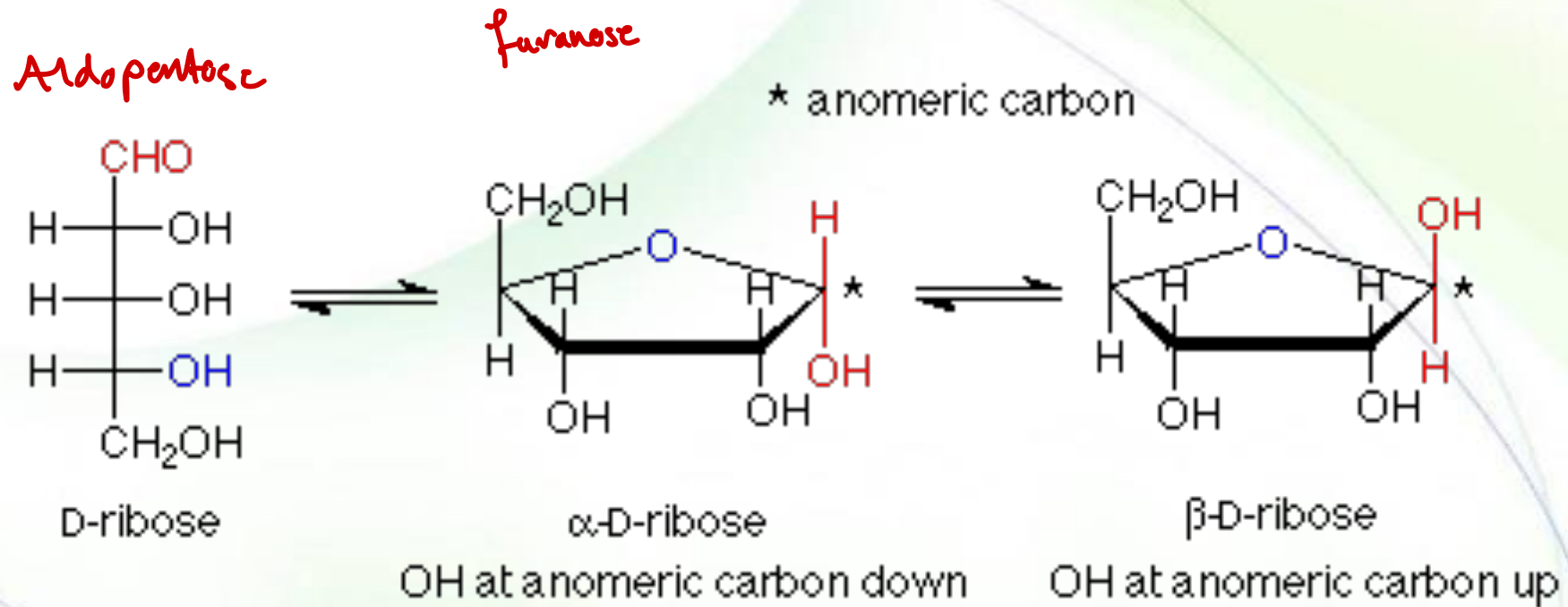


α -D-mannopyranose



β -D-allopyranose

Cyclic ribofuranose



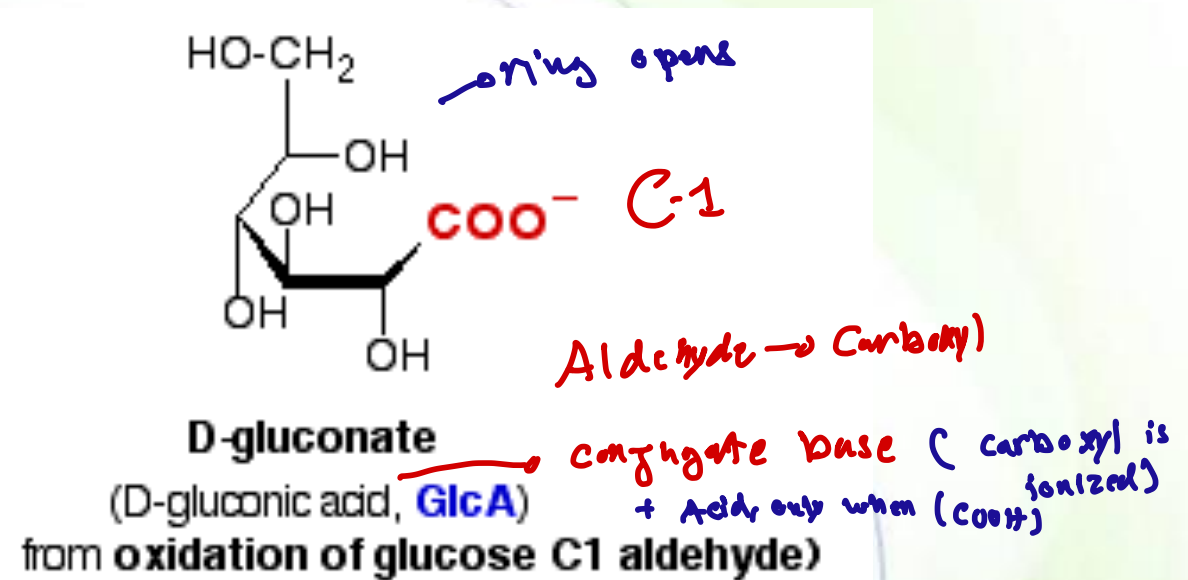
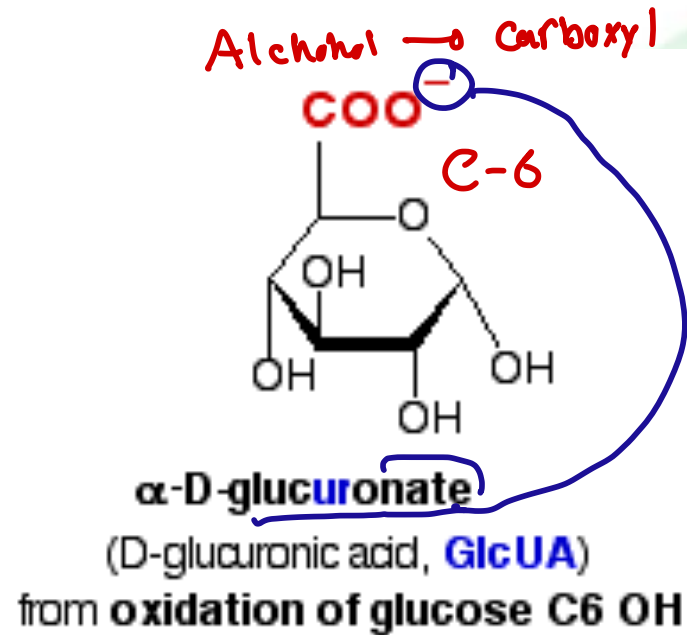
Modified sugars

Sugar acids (oxidation)



- Where is it oxidized? What does it form?

@ C-1, C-6

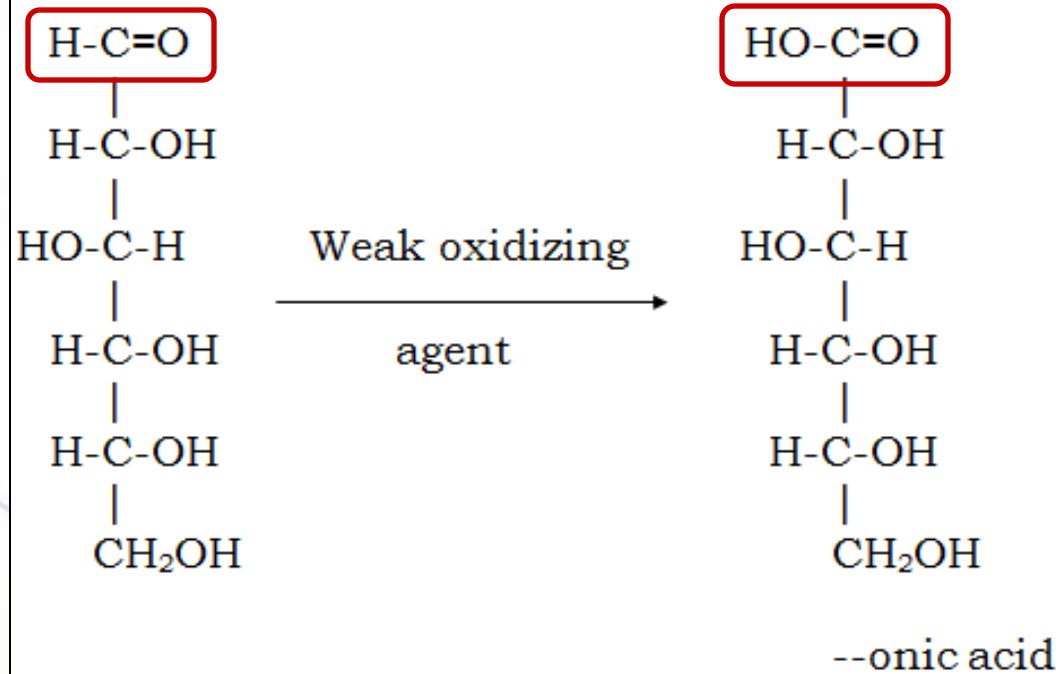


Do not memorize the structure but study it.

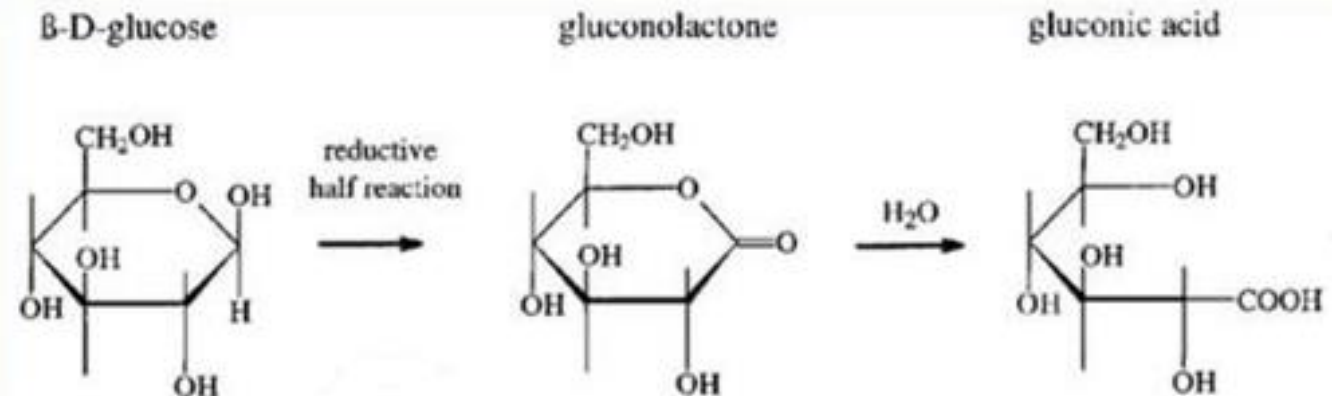
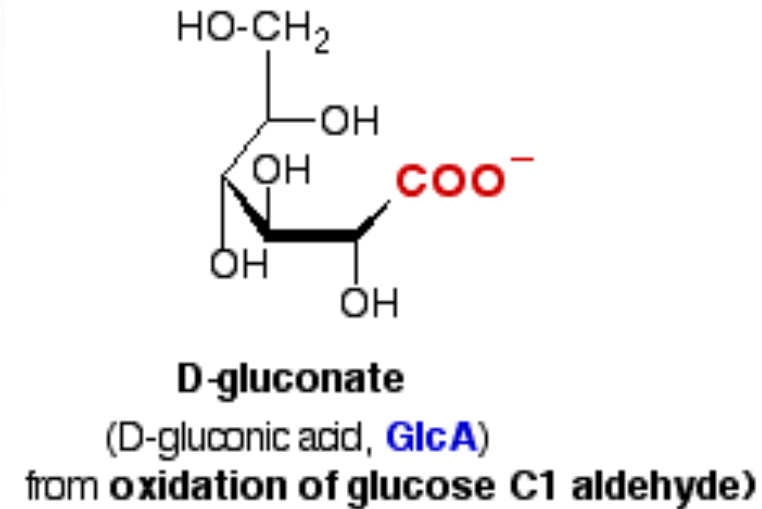
Gluconate



a. Weak oxidizing agent



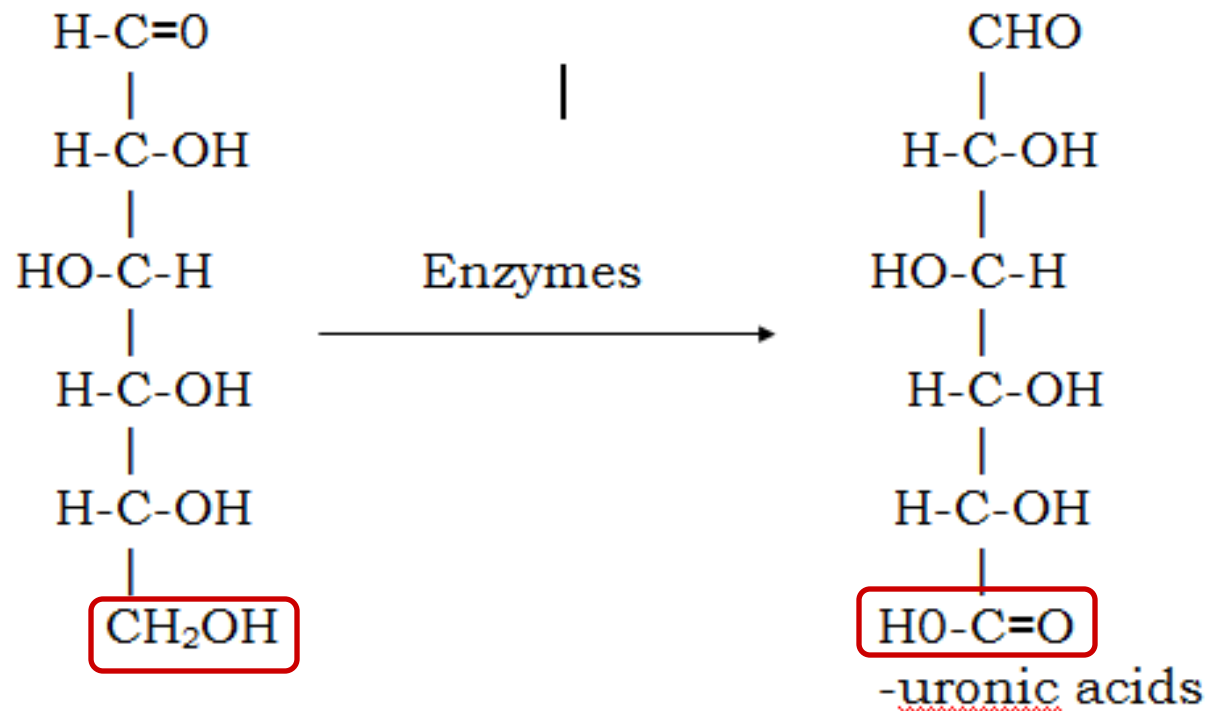
Do not memorize the structure but study it.



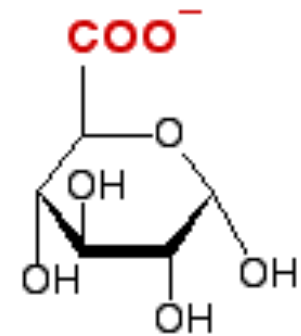
Glucoronate



c. Oxidation of primary alcohol end in biological systems



Do not memorize the structure but study it.

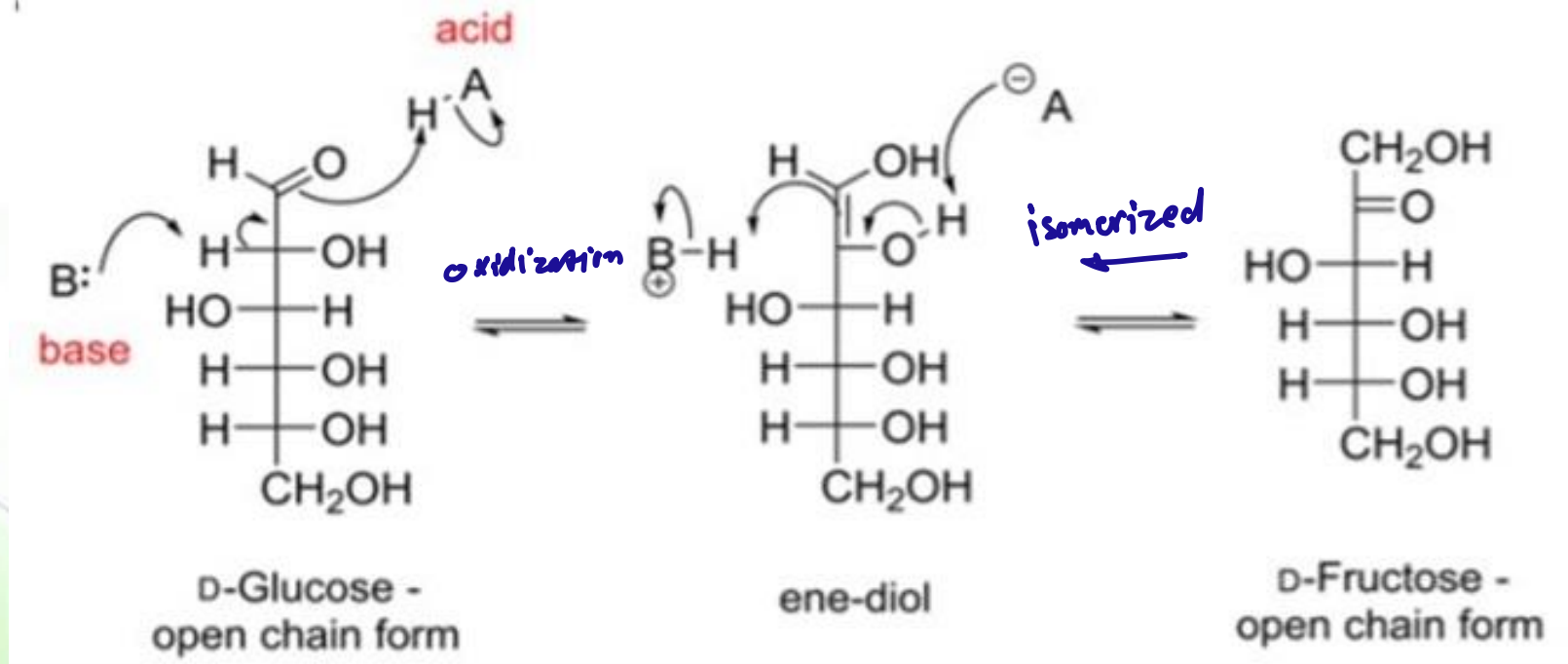


α -D-glucuronate
(D-glucuronic acid, **GlcUA**)
from **oxidation of glucose C6 OH**

Note



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

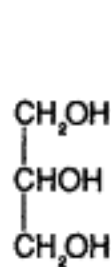


Do not memorize the ene-diol structure but study it.

Sugar alcohols (reduction)

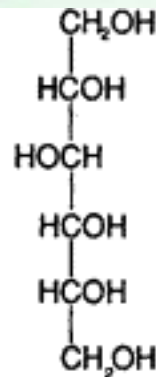


- What does it form? *Alcohol*
- Examples include sorbitol, mannitol, and xylitol, which are used to sweeten food products *+ glycerol*



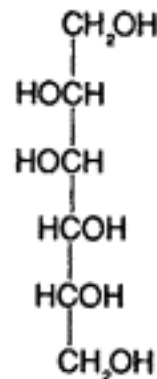
Glycerol

Obtained from the reduction of either D-glyceraldehyde or dihydroxyacetone.



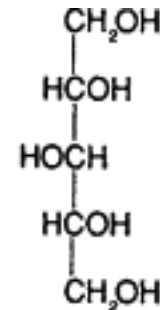
D-Sorbitol *in food*

Obtained from the reduction of either the C₁ carbonyl group of glucose or the C₂ carbonyl group of fructose.



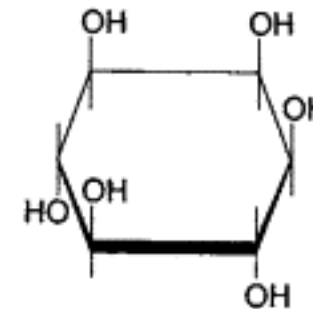
D-Mannitol

Obtained from the reduction of either the C₂ carbonyl group of D-fructose or the C₁ carbonyl group of D-mannose.



Xylitol

Obtained from the reduction of either the C₁ carbonyl group of D-xylose or the C₂ carbonyl group of D-xylulose.



Myo-inositol

We will get to this sugar in the lipids lecture

JUST READ

-ol: alcohol

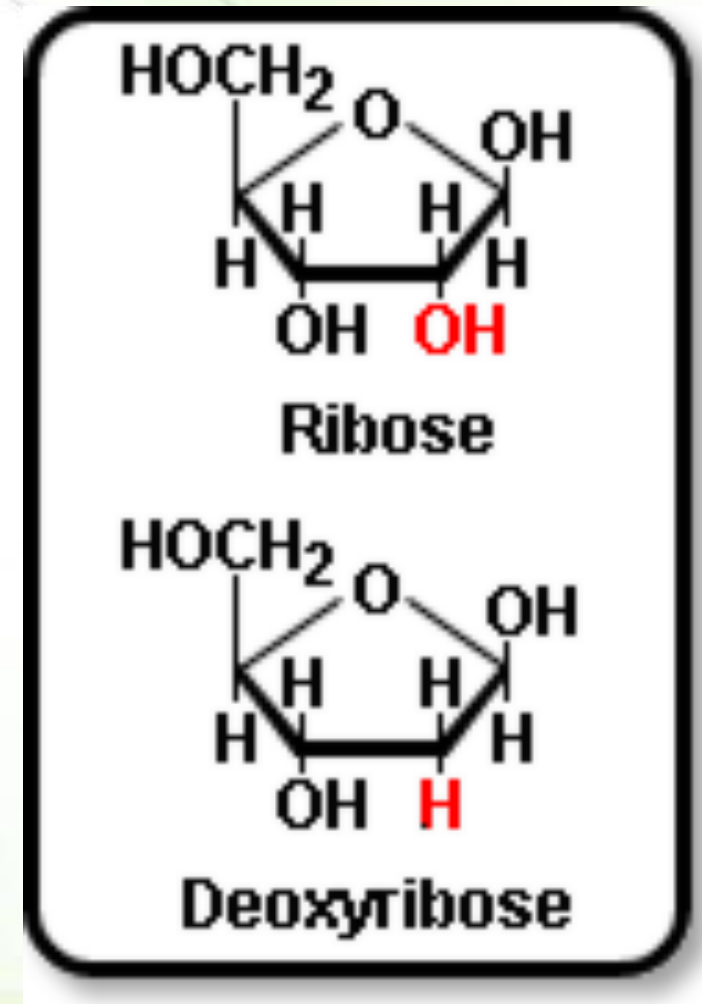
⇒ they are made from alcohol

Deoxy sugars (reduced sugars)



- One or more hydroxyl groups are replaced by hydrogens.
- An example is 2-deoxyribose, which is a constituent of DNA.

C-2 OH will be removed



sugar



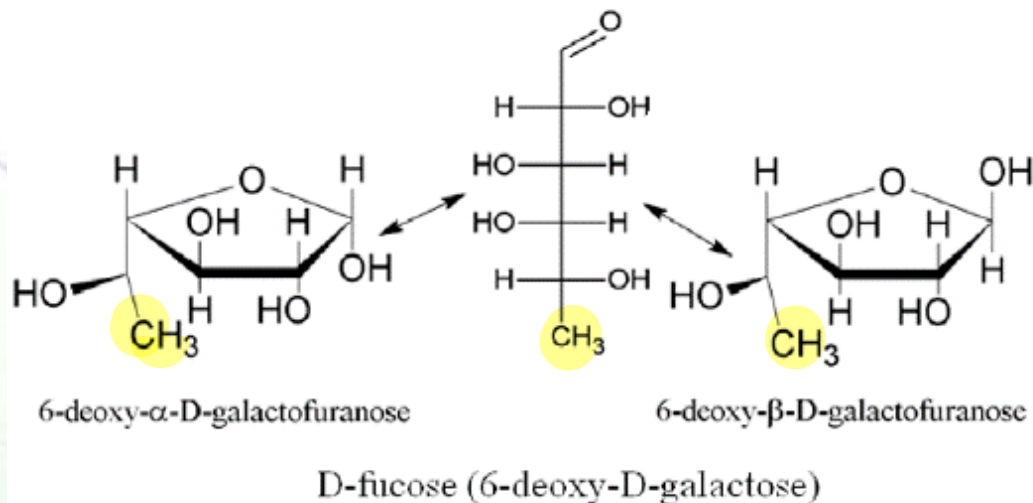
reduced
sugar

Another deoxy sugar

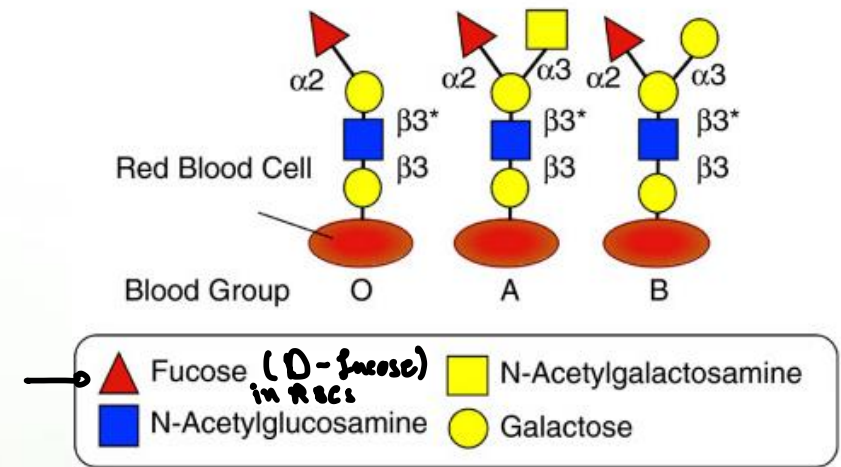
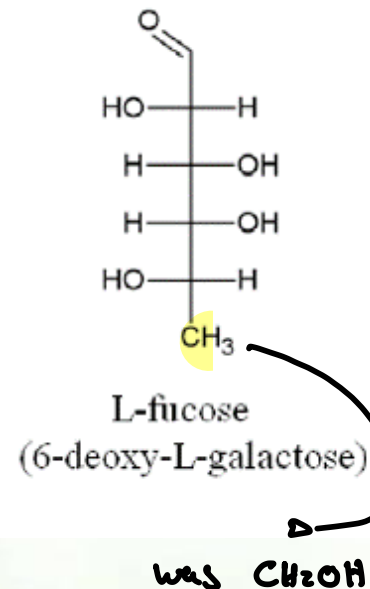


- L-fucose (L-6-deoxygalactose)
 - found in the carbohydrate portions of some glycoproteins

↳ Antigens on RBCs



Do not memorize the structure but study it.



Do not memorize the components except for fucose.

Sugar esters (esterification)

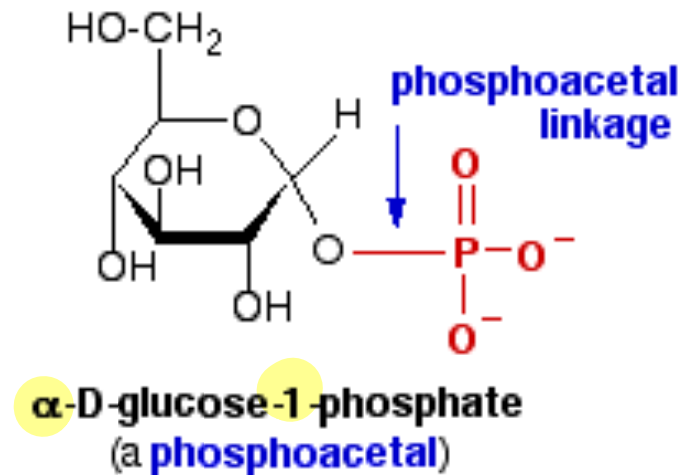
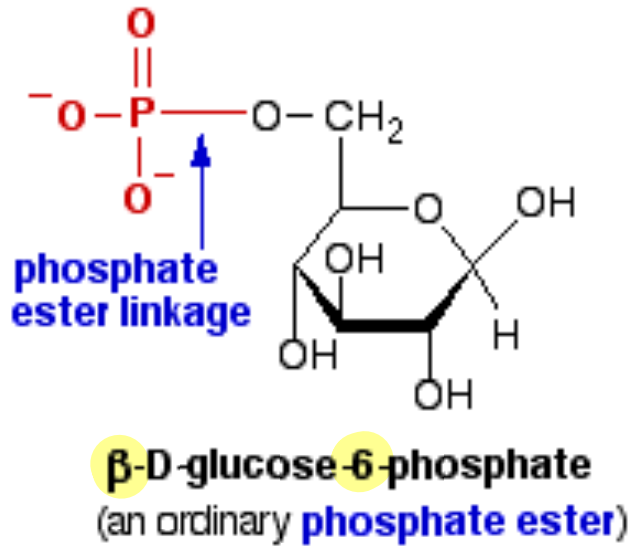


↳ formation of ester

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

phosphorylation either at C-1 or C-6 → phosphate ester

high energy molecule
that helps in
metabolism



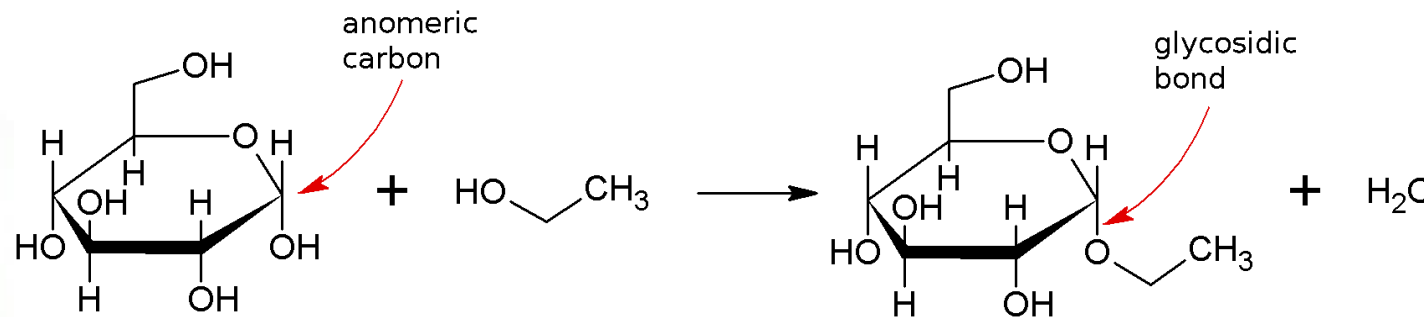
O-Glycosides

Rxn of C-1 + OH

anomeric $\rightarrow$ glycosidic

$\rightarrow$ OH from OH

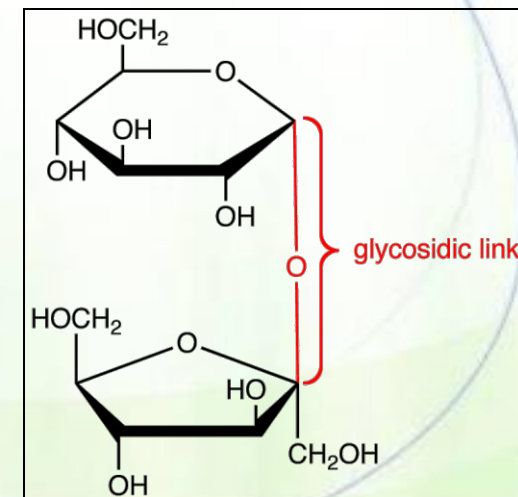
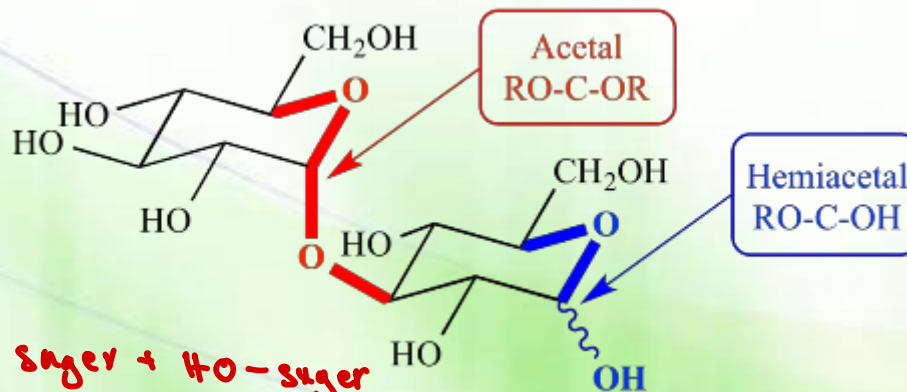
- What is the reacting functional group? Where does it react? What are the end products? Where are they used?



the bond can be α or β

depending on the position of C-1

$\rightarrow$ once the rxn is formed no mutarotation (fixed) (importance)



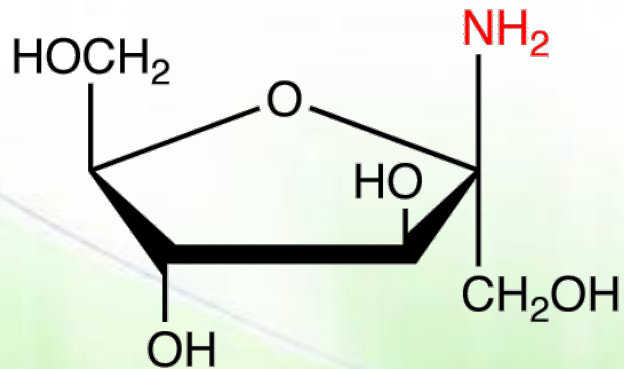
another way: sugar + H-O-sugar

N-Glycosides

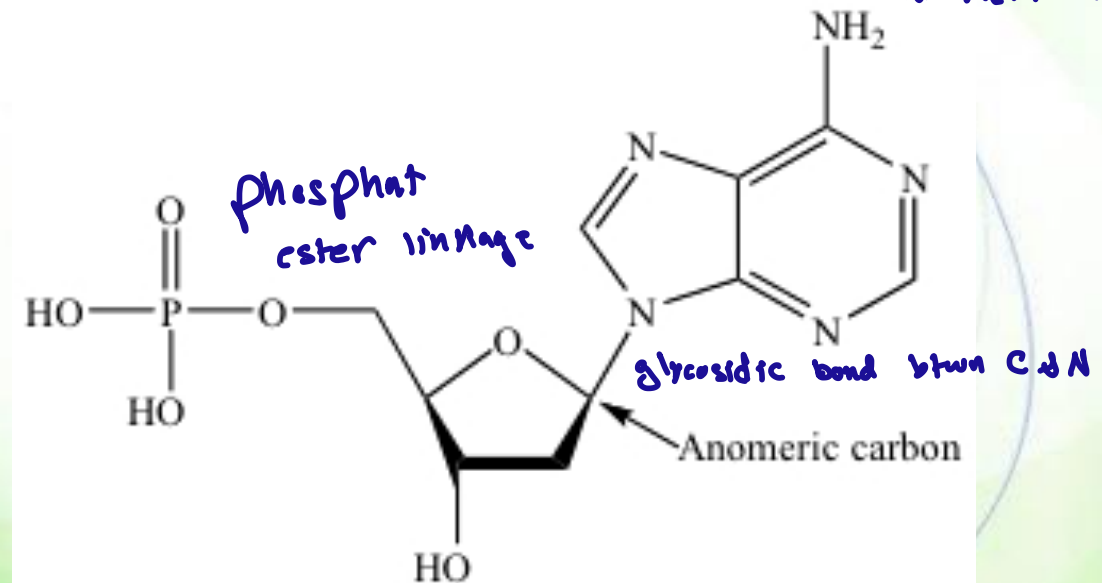


monosach + amine $\longrightarrow$ glycosidic bond

- 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

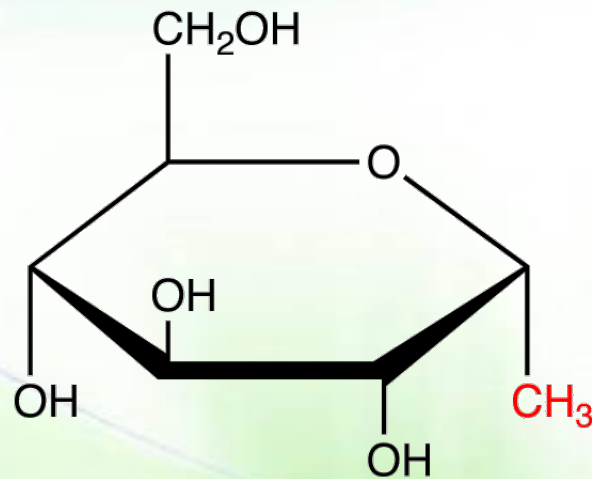


the glycosidic can
be btwn both
anomeric carbons

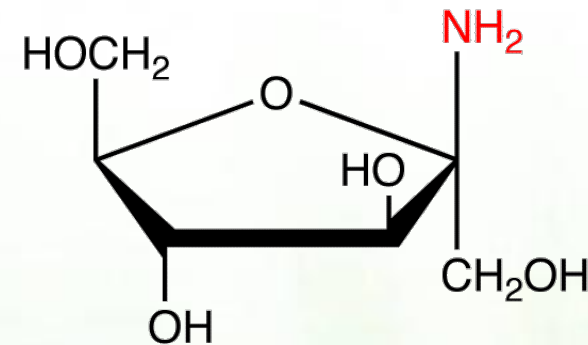
Note



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



C-glycoside
↳ methyl



N-glycoside

Amino sugars



* addition of an amine group

- What is the reacting functional group? Where does it react? What are the end products? Where are they used?
- Further modification by acetylation

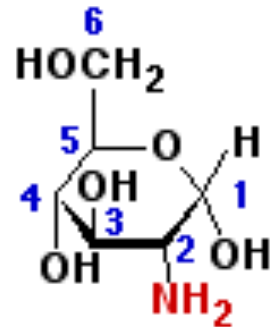
differ from *N*-glycosidic

N replaces OH of C other

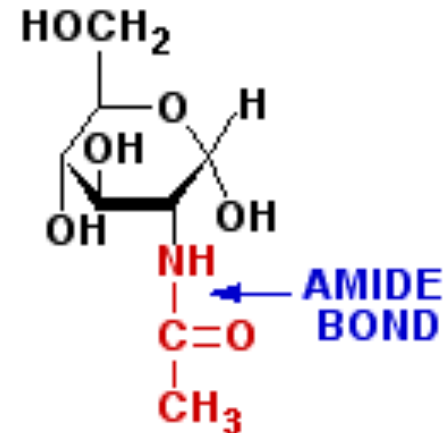
than the anomeric (C)

usually # 2

* the bond is amine bond



α -D-2-glucosamine
(GlcN)

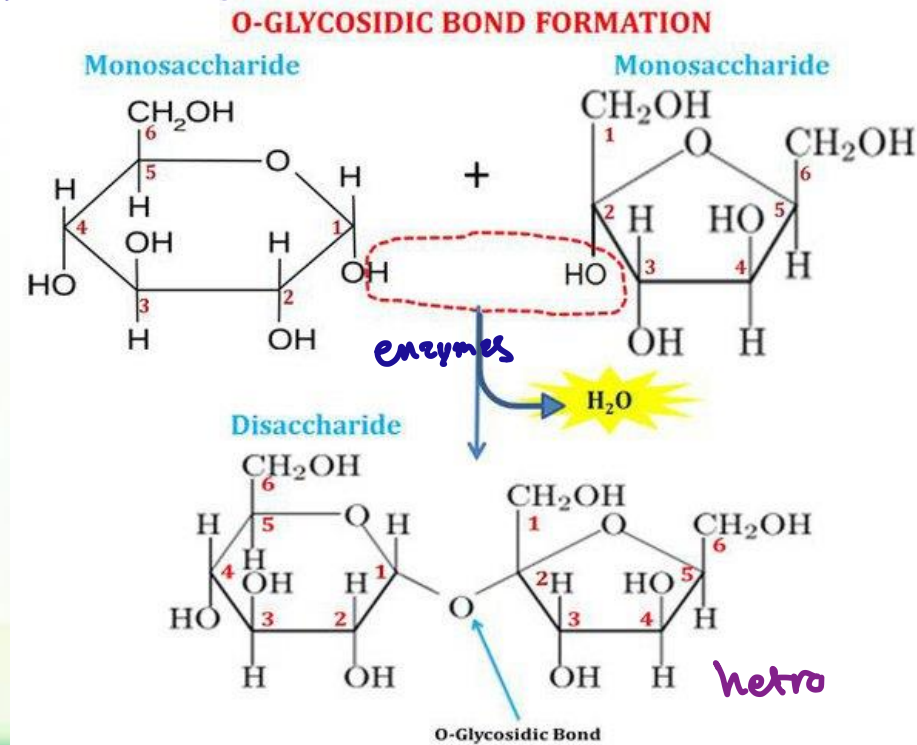


N-acetyl- α -D-2-glucosamine
(GlcNAc)

Disaccharides



- What are disaccharide? ^{2 sugars} Oligosaccharides? ³⁻¹⁰ Hetero- vs. homo-?
- What is the type of reaction? ^{condensation: release of H₂O}
- What is a residue? ^{each subunit} (involves the C-1)
- Synthesizing enzymes are glycosyltransferases. ^(transfer sugar)
- Do they undergo mutarotation? ^{no}
- Are products stable? ^{yes}



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) *Identity of the sugar*
- The anomeric configuration of the OH group on carbon 1 of each residue (α or β)

All sugars in the body are D & for the exam purposes

Abundant disaccharides



- Configuration
- Designation
- Naming (common vs. systematic)
- Reducing vs. non-reducing

* steps to identify the sugar

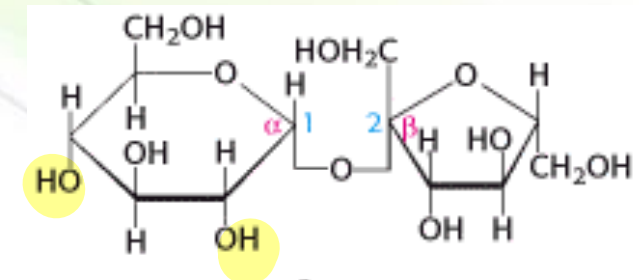
- pyran or furan
- OH on C2
- OH on C4

eg: pyran - OH on C2 - OH on C4 below below $\Rightarrow$ Glucose

* at least one free anomeric carbon (then all monosach - are reducing)

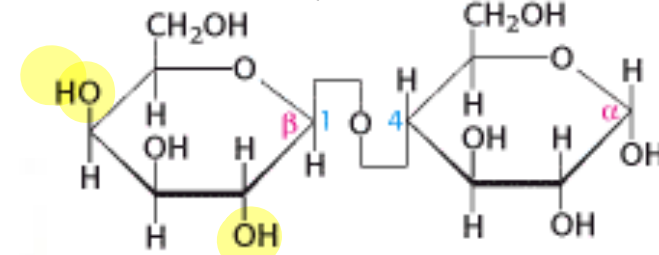
* non-reducing = no - free C-1

non-reducing

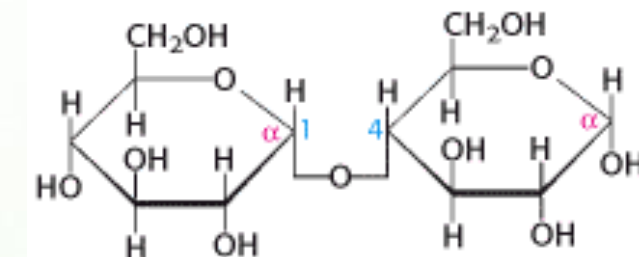


Sucrose
(α -D-Glucopyranosyl-(1 $\rightarrow$ 2)- β -D-fructofuranose)

first residue of the disaccharides



Lactose
(β -D-Galactopyranosyl-(1 $\rightarrow$ 4)- α -D-glucopyranose)



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

table

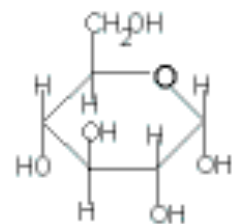
Milk

Malt

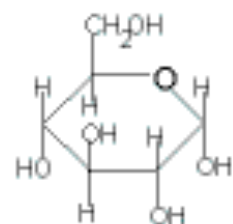
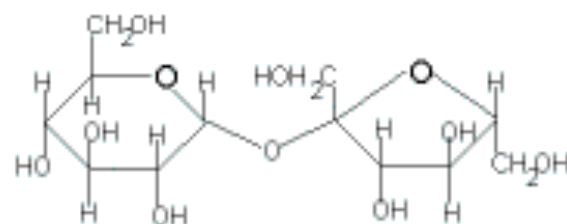
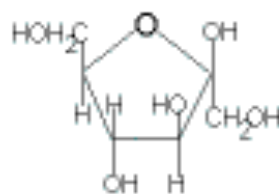
reducing



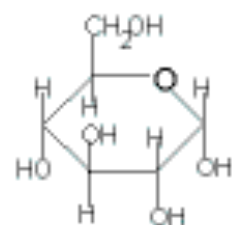
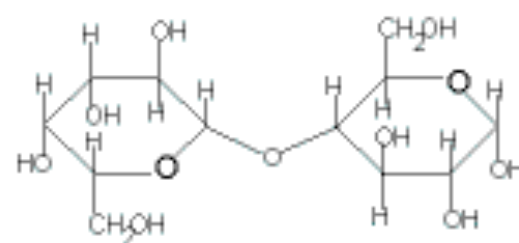
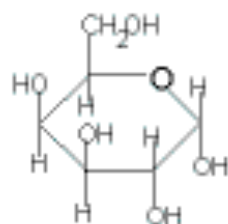
Name	Formula	Formed from	Structure
sucrose	$C_{12}H_{22}O_{11}$	glucose + fructose	$\text{---} > \text{sucrose} + H_2O$
lactose	$C_{12}H_{22}O_{11}$	glucose + galactose	$\text{---} > \text{lactose} + H_2O$
maltose	$C_{12}H_{22}O_{11}$	glucose + glucose	$\text{---} > \text{maltose} + H_2O$



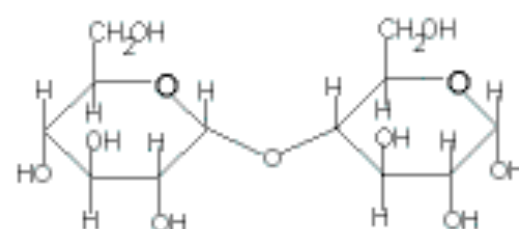
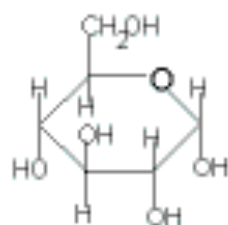
+



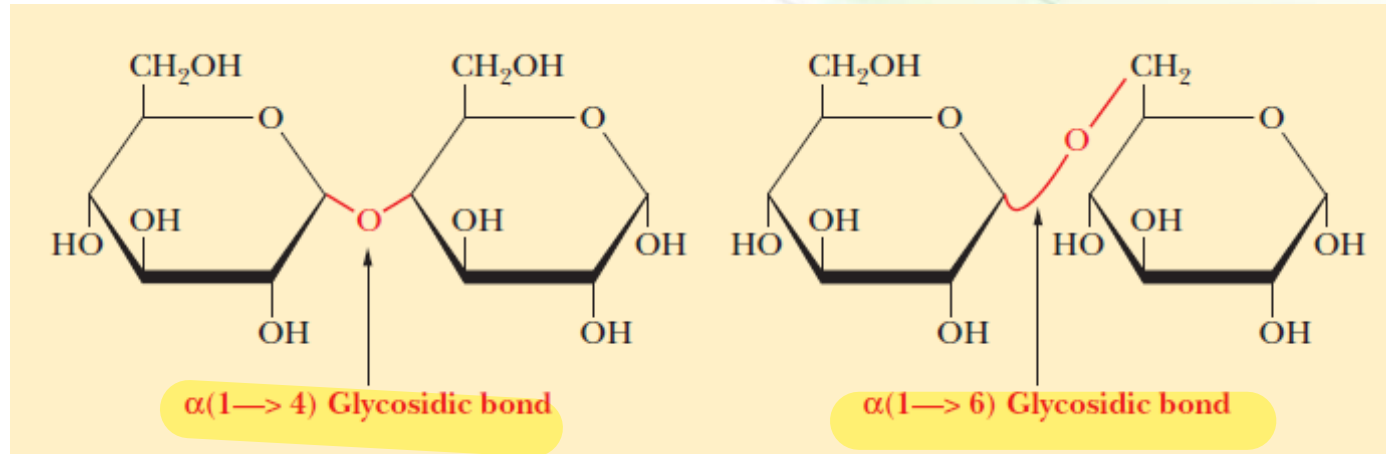
+



+

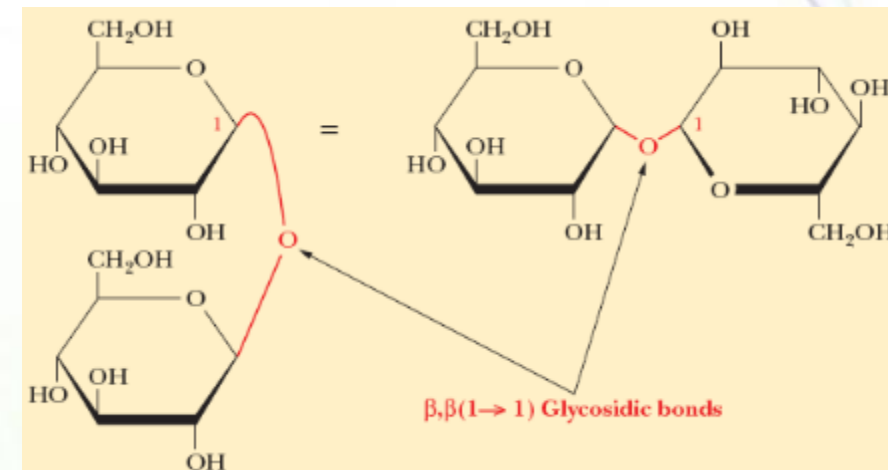
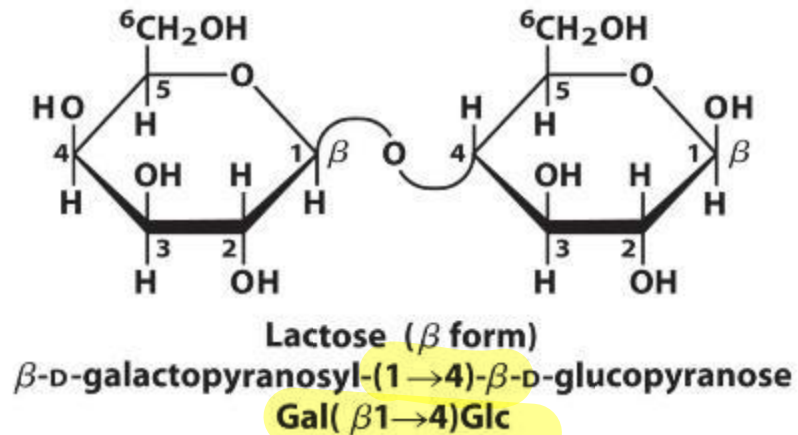


Different forms of disaccharides



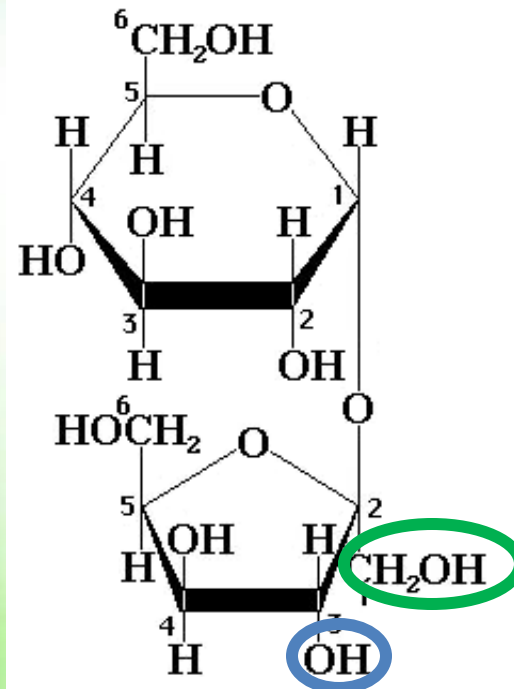
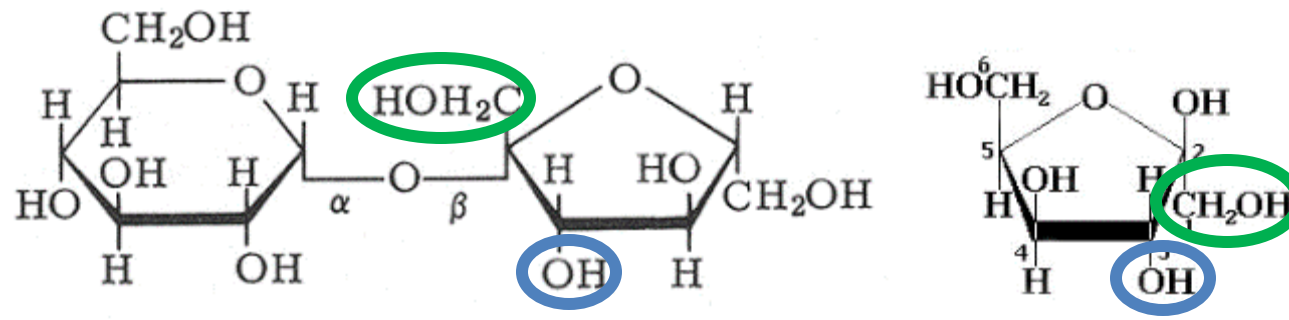
Galactose

Glucose



A disaccharide of β -D-glucose.

Sucrose



This is extra

Lactulose

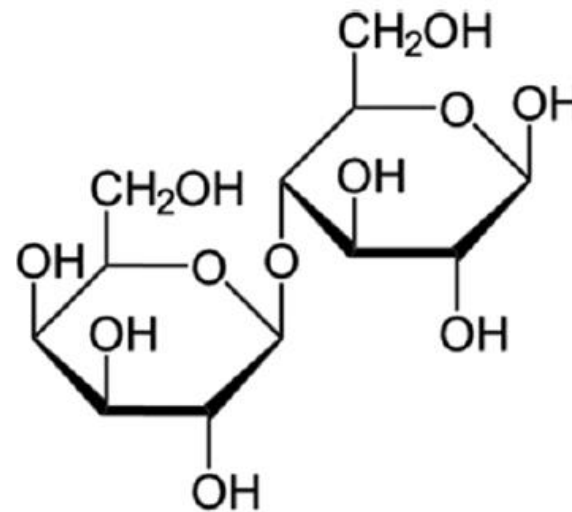


Phy

د. ن. ن. سلامة

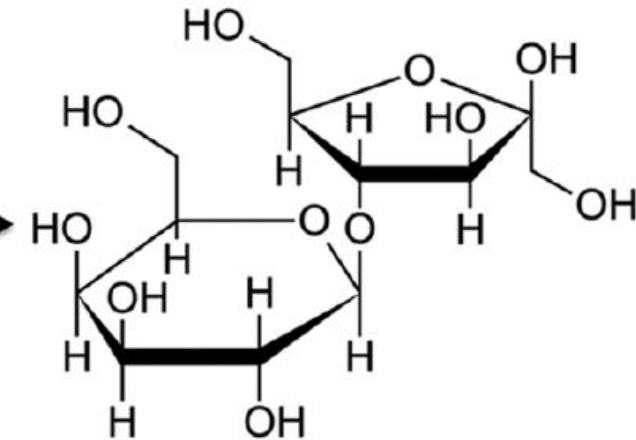
- It is formed by the isomerization of lactose.
- It has health benefits:
 - It is used in treating constipation.
 - It promotes the growth of health-promoting gut bacteria.
 - It modulates the immune system.

Do not memorize the structure but study it.



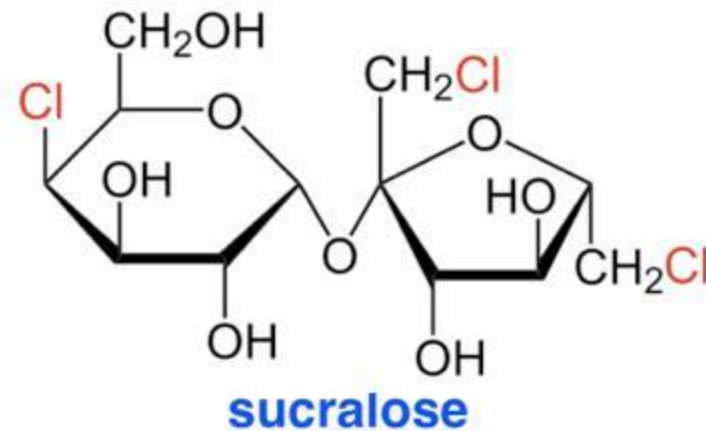
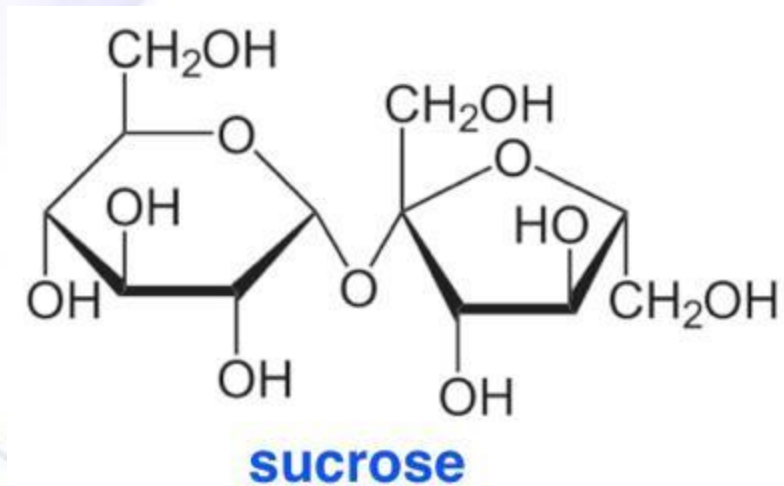
Lactose

Isomerization



Lactulose

Sucralose (artificial sweetener)



can be damaging

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®

Milk problems



^{gases}
pain, sounds → due to bacteria

- **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).



- **Galactosemia**: Missing a galactose-metabolizing 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 in the brain, (nerve damage) resulting in severe and irreversible retardation. It also causes mental retardation cataract. → eventually blindness



Raffinose

بسبب بقعة

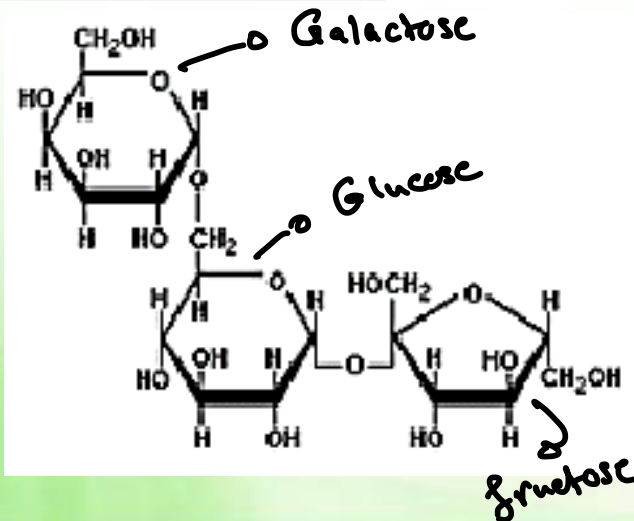
٣-١٥

- What are oligosaccharides?
- Example: raffinose
- It is found in beans and vegetables like cabbage, brussels, sprouts, broccoli, and asparagus.



+ حملي

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.



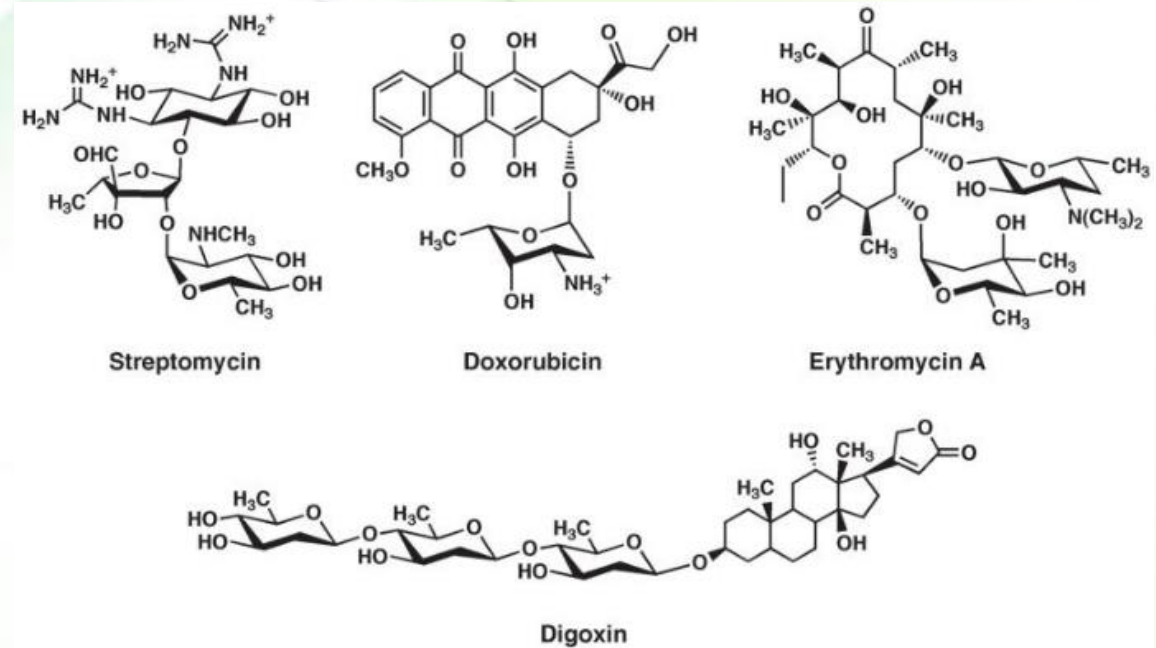
Homework

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

Oligosaccharides as drugs



- Streptomycin and erythromycin (antibiotics)
 - Doxorubicin (cancer chemotherapy)
 - Digoxin (cardiovascular disease)
- they are modified sugars*



Do not memorize or study the structures.

Polysaccharides



↳ large sugars

- What are polysaccharides?
- Homopolysaccharide (homoglycan) vs. heteropolysaccharides (Nature)
- Features of polysaccharides:
 - Monosaccharides
 - Length
 - Branching
 - Purpose:
 - Storage (glycogen, starch, dextran)
 - Structural (cellulose, pectin, chitin)

Glycogen

→ humans
↳ animals

Storage

Glucose stored in cell

20% → liver

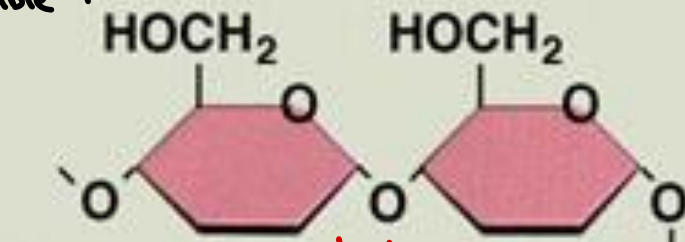
10% → skeletal muscles

homo poly. -

Glycogen

flexible to store
as many as possible in as little as possible

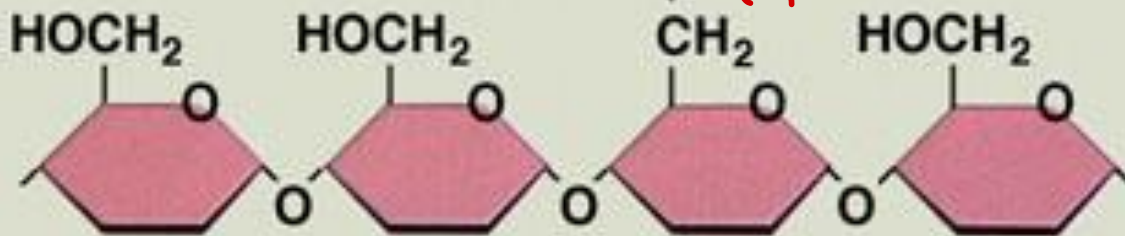
chain (2)



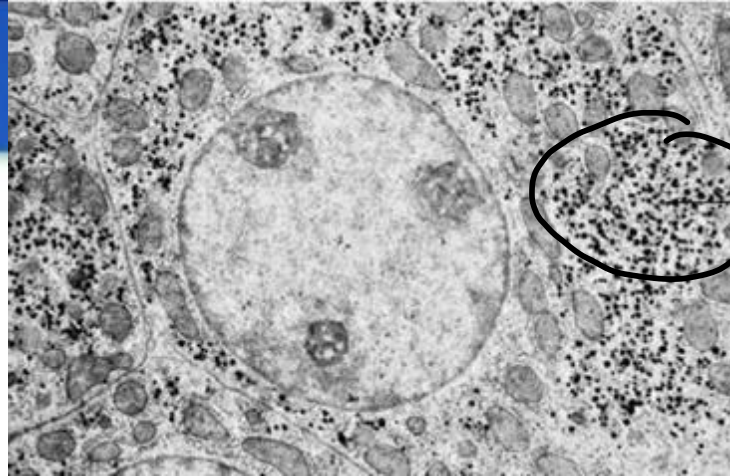
α 1-4

branch
 α 1-6

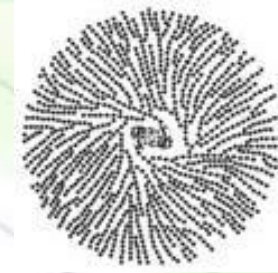
chain (1)



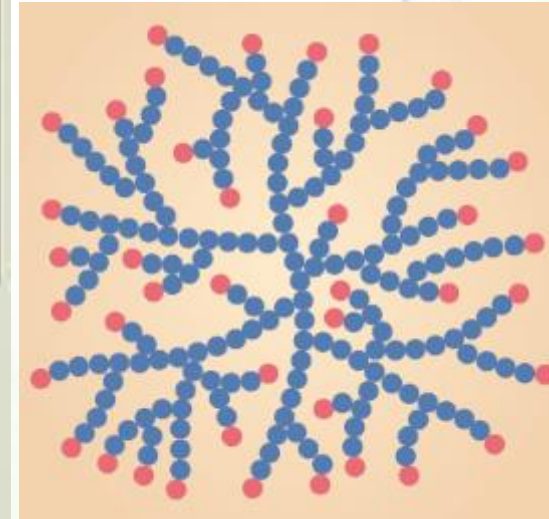
α 1-4 glycosidic bond



every black dot is
a glycogen



Memorize



α glycosidic is flexible so it can rotate



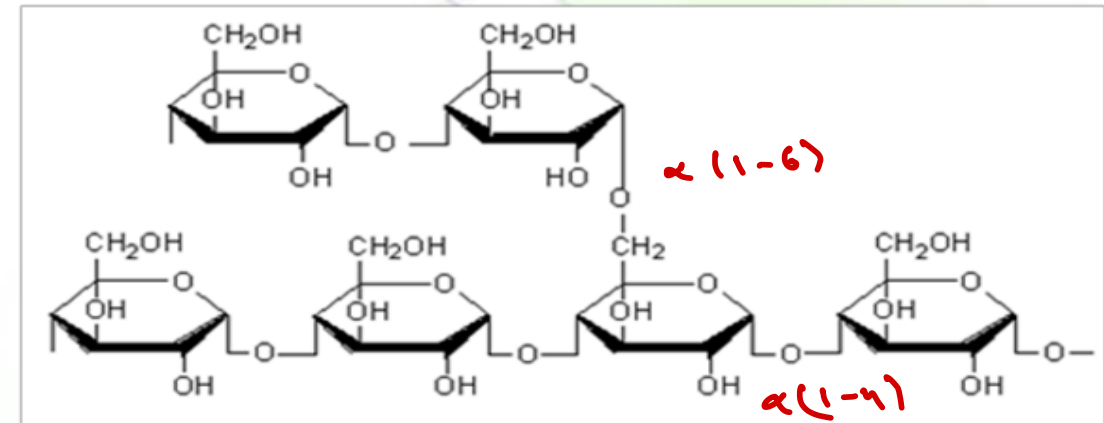
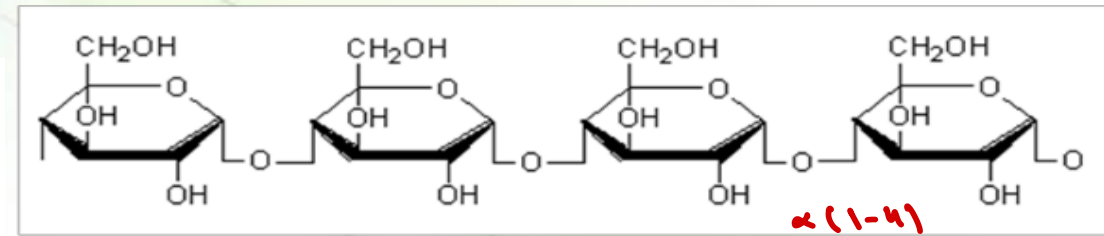
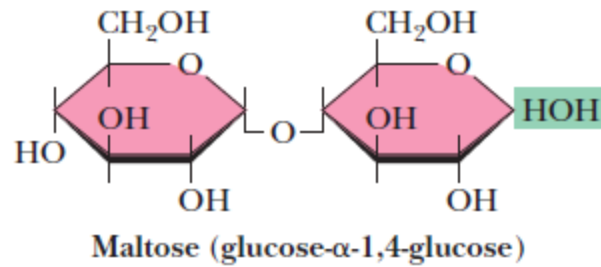
Starch → plants



- homopoly - - -
- storage
- Which organisms?

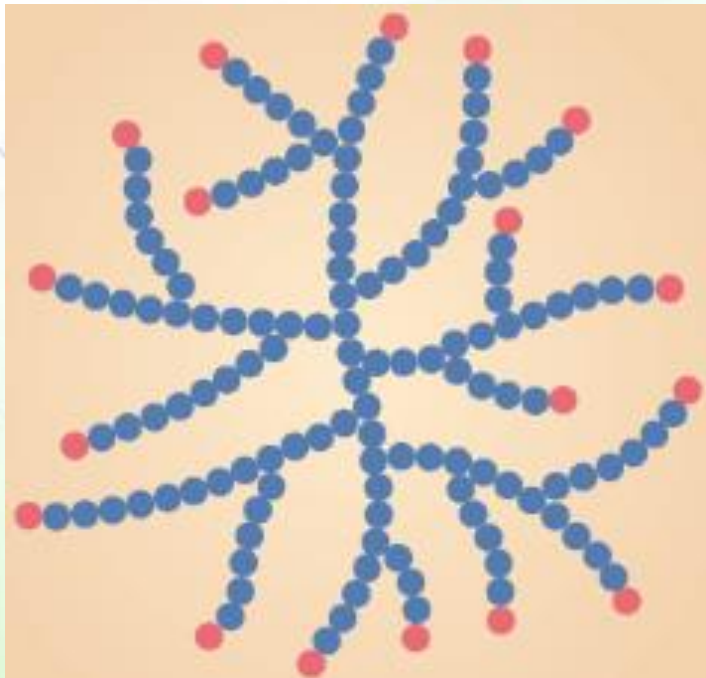
Forms:

- amylose (10-20%)
- amylopectin (80-90%)



(branch) Amylopectin Structure

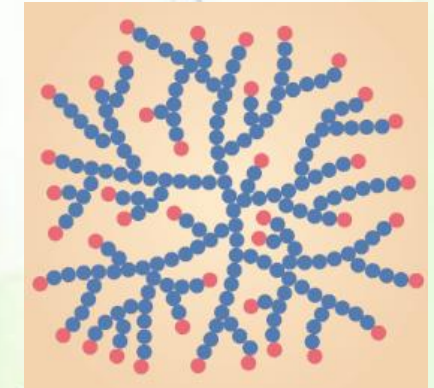
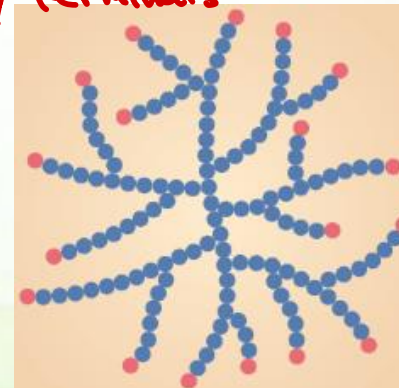
Memorize



Glycogen vs. amylopectin



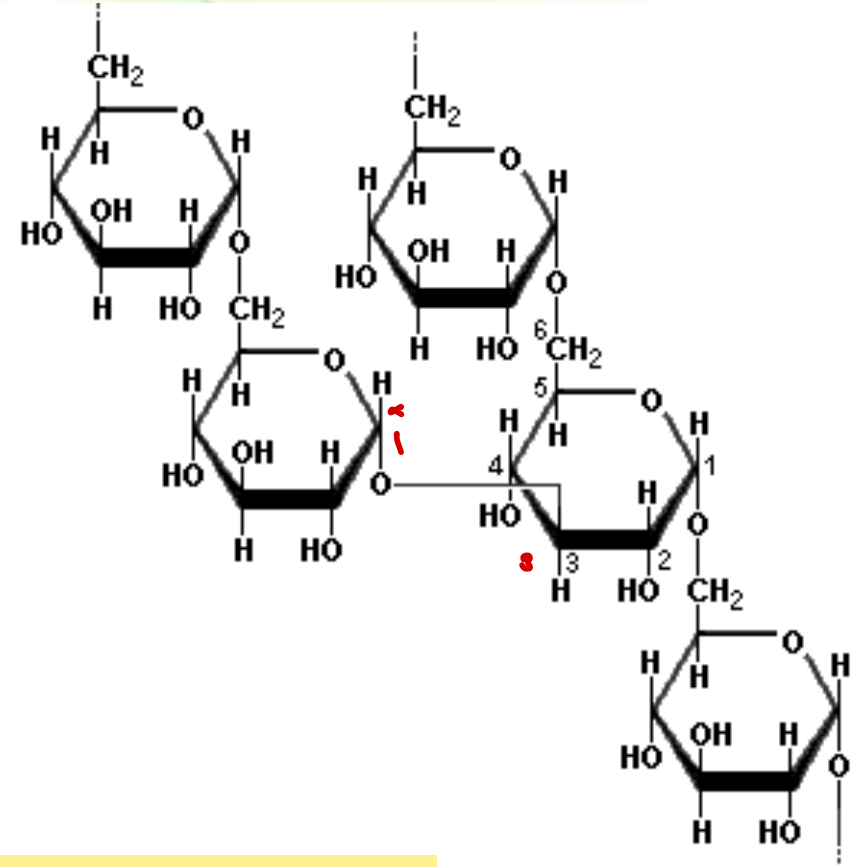
- Both are made from the same monomer and both are branched.
- Glycogen exists in animals and amylopectin in plants.
- Glycogen is more highly branched.
 - Branch points occur about every 10 residues in glycogen and about every 25 residues in amylopectin.
- Why is branching important?
 - It makes it more water-soluble and does not crystallize. —→ cuz in plants they have more water
 - Easy access to glucose residues. —→ due to many terminals
* more glucose can be stored



Dextran (homo poly --)

Lo Storage

- A storage polysaccharide
- Yeast and bacteria
- α -(1-6)-D-glucose with branched chains
- Branches: 1-2, 1-3, or 1-4



Do not memorize or study the structures.



Cellulose

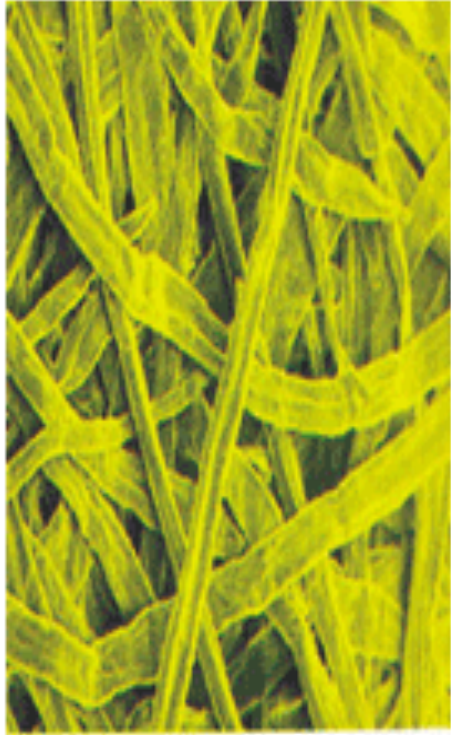


Lo structural homo poly

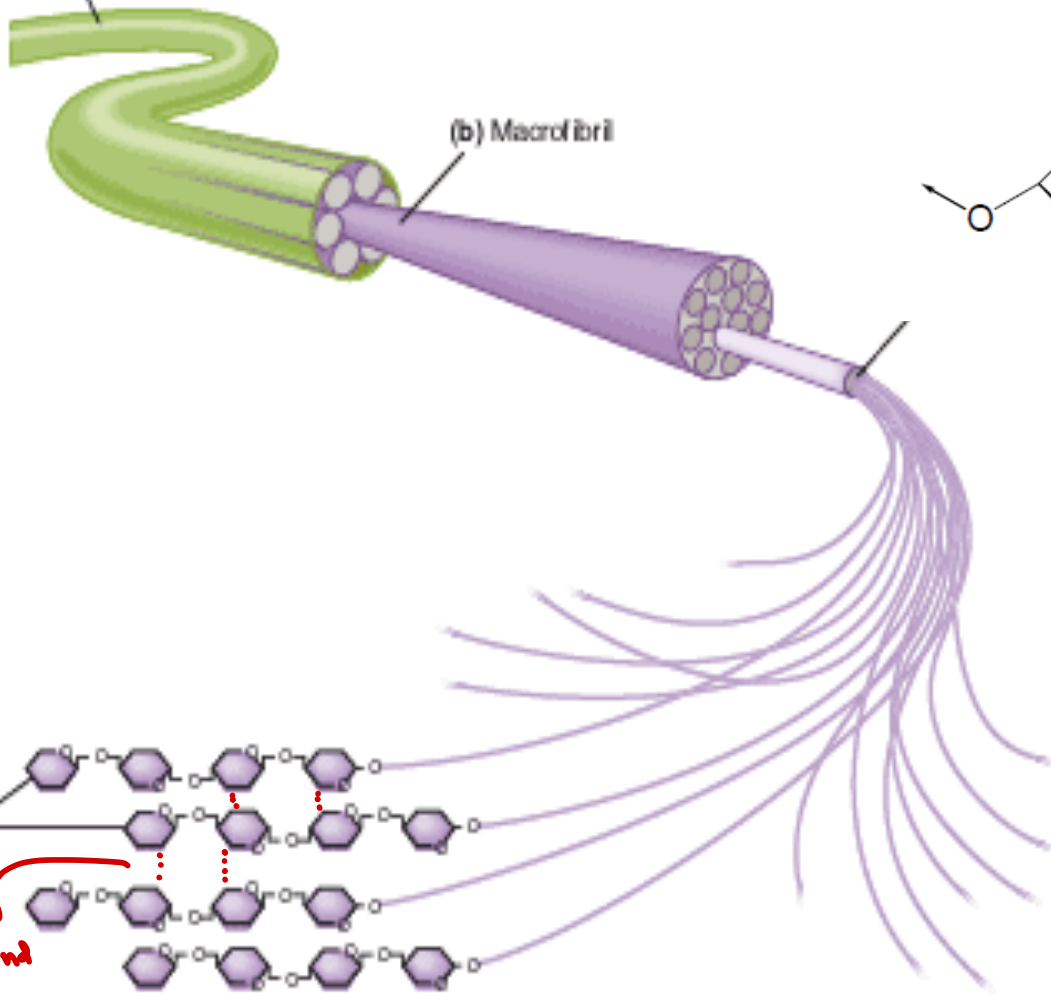
hydrogen bonds $\Rightarrow$ stronger

not branched $\Rightarrow$

Memorize

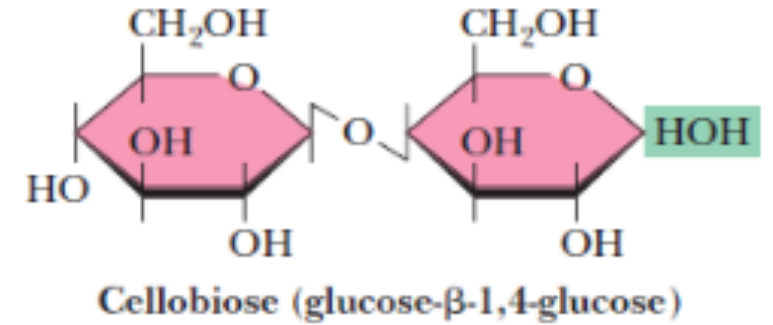
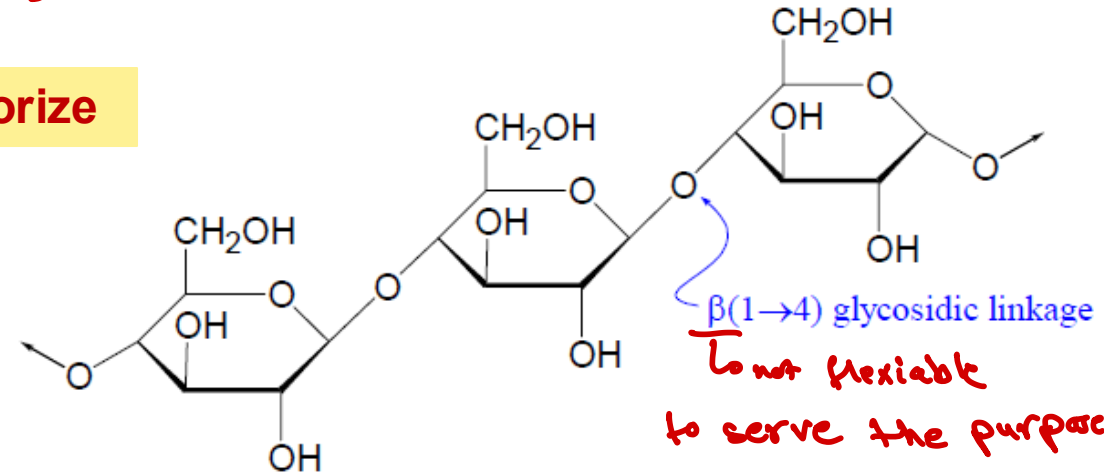


(a) Cellulose fibers



(d) Chains of cellulose molecules

hydrogen bond

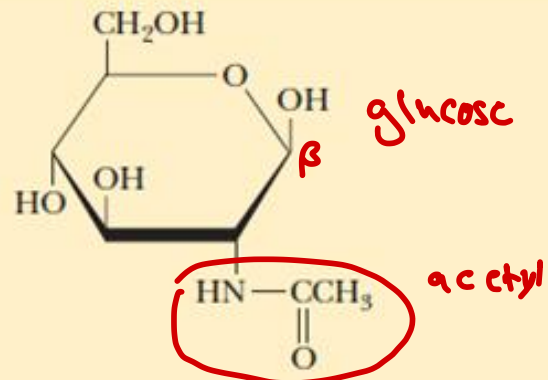


* its healthy $\rightarrow$ bulky $\Rightarrow$ more water
making stool moics
(براز) (رطب)

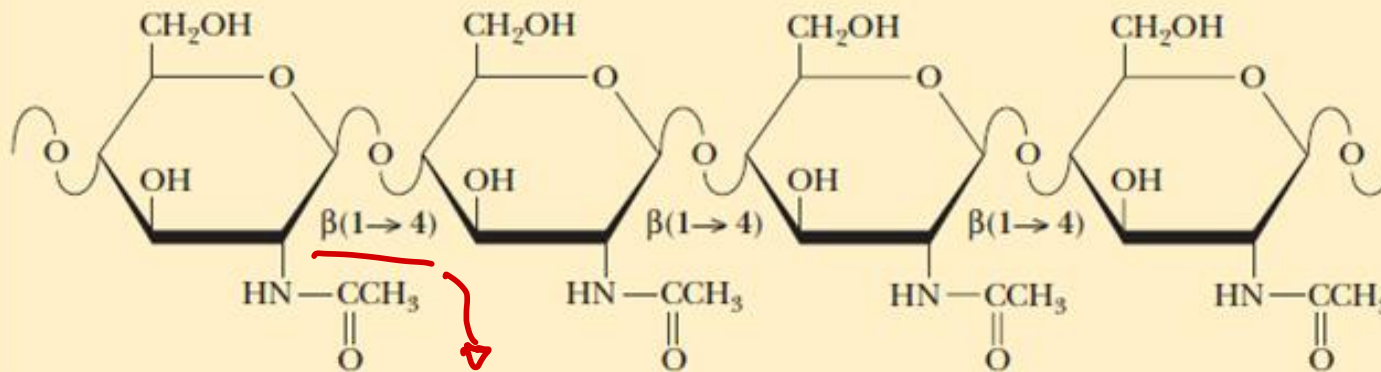
Chitin

↳ homo poly

- What is the precursor?
- Where does it exist? in exoskeleton



N-Acetyl- β -D-glucosamine



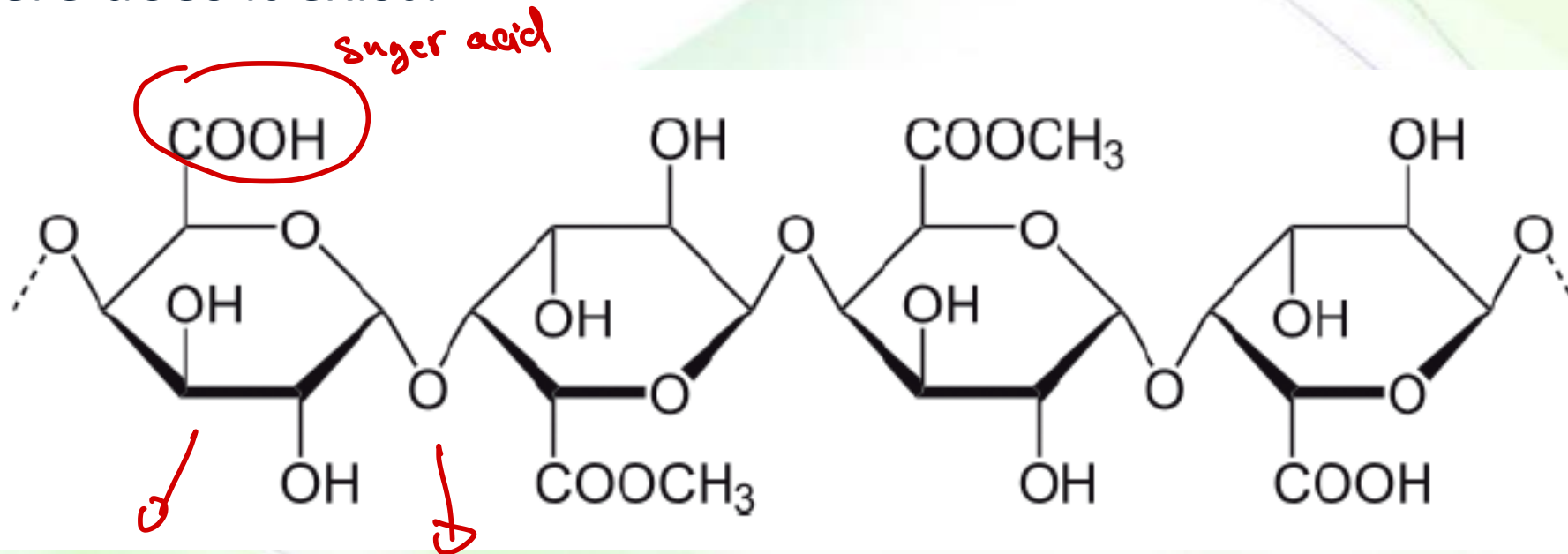
~~Do not memorize or study the structures.~~

memorize & study

Pectin *—o plants*



- What is the precursor?
- Where does it exist?



galactose

$\beta(1-4)$ glycosidic

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

Are polysaccharides reducing?



↳ it exists in termini but overall
they are not

- 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.

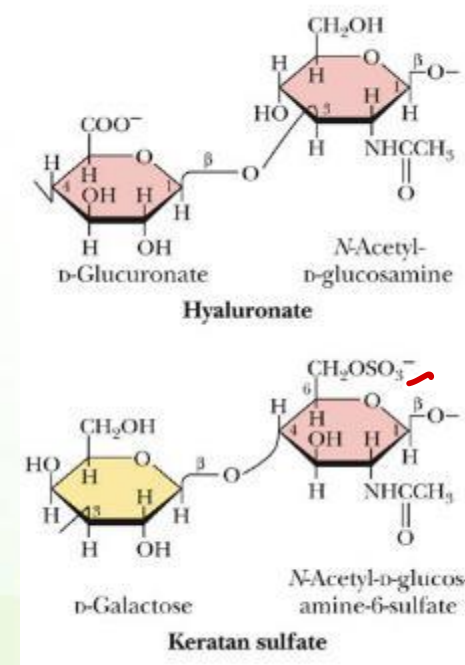
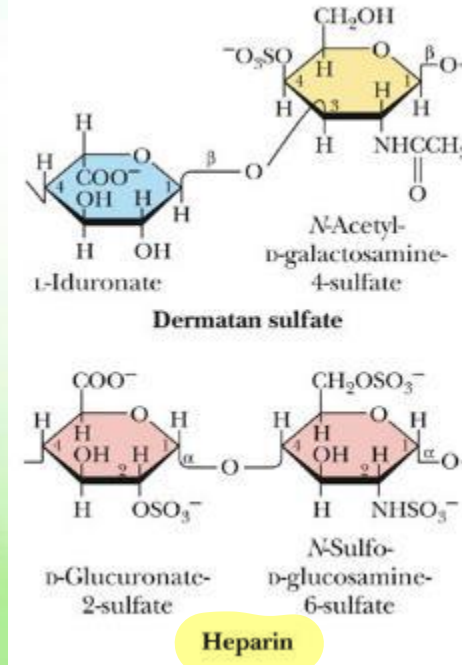
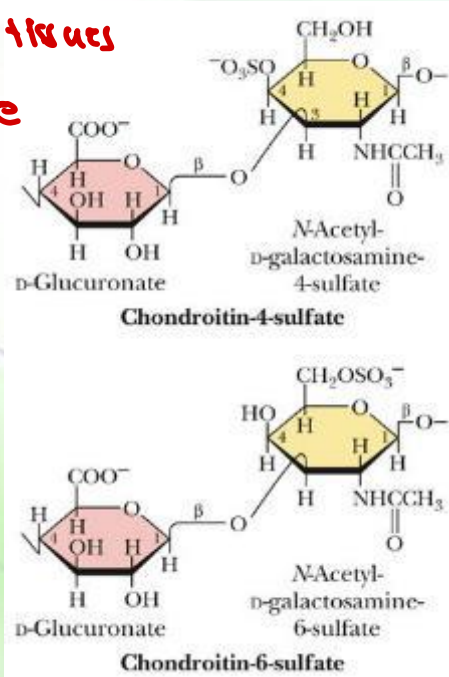
Glycosaminoglycans → hetero poly. ~



↳ repeated disaccharides
at least one is an amino sugar in ECM
makes CT

- 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 carboxylate or sulfate group

* they exist in tissues
like cartilage



makes repulsion
to cushion

Do not memorize or study the structures.

Questions would be identify the structure

Localization and function of GAG



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

Proteoglycans

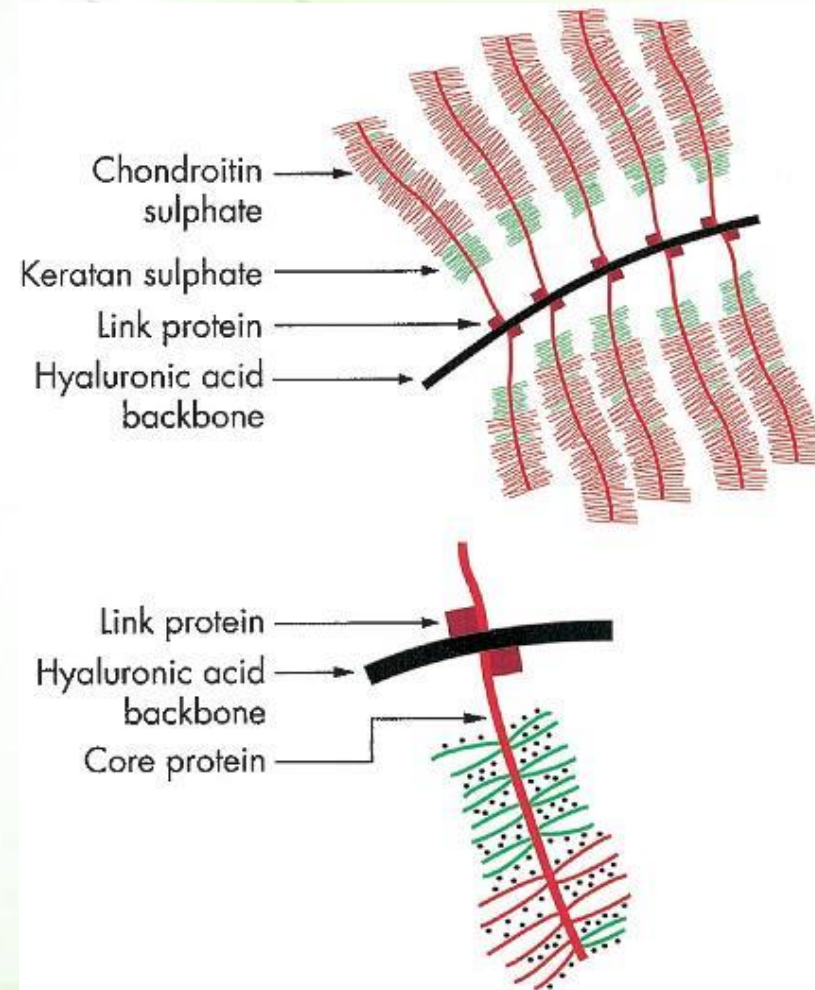


↳ large sugar w/ peptides

- Lubricants
- Structural components in connective tissue
- Mediate adhesion of cells to the extracellular matrix
- Bind factors that stimulate cell proliferation

• they connect cells so they communicate

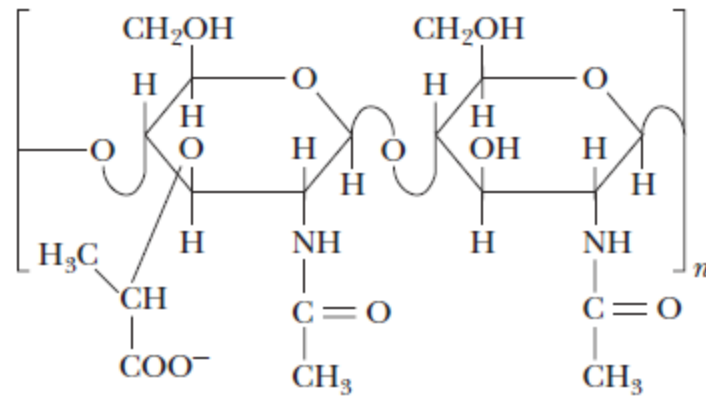
• nutrients are stored in them



Bacterial cell wall

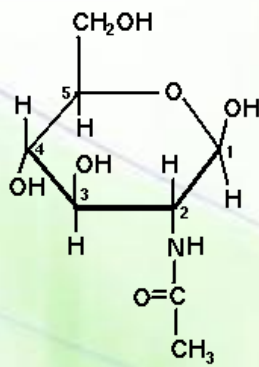


A

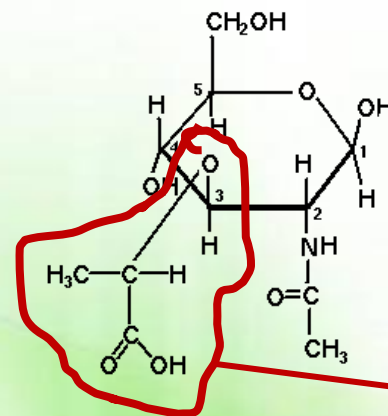


NAM
N-Acetylmuramic
acid

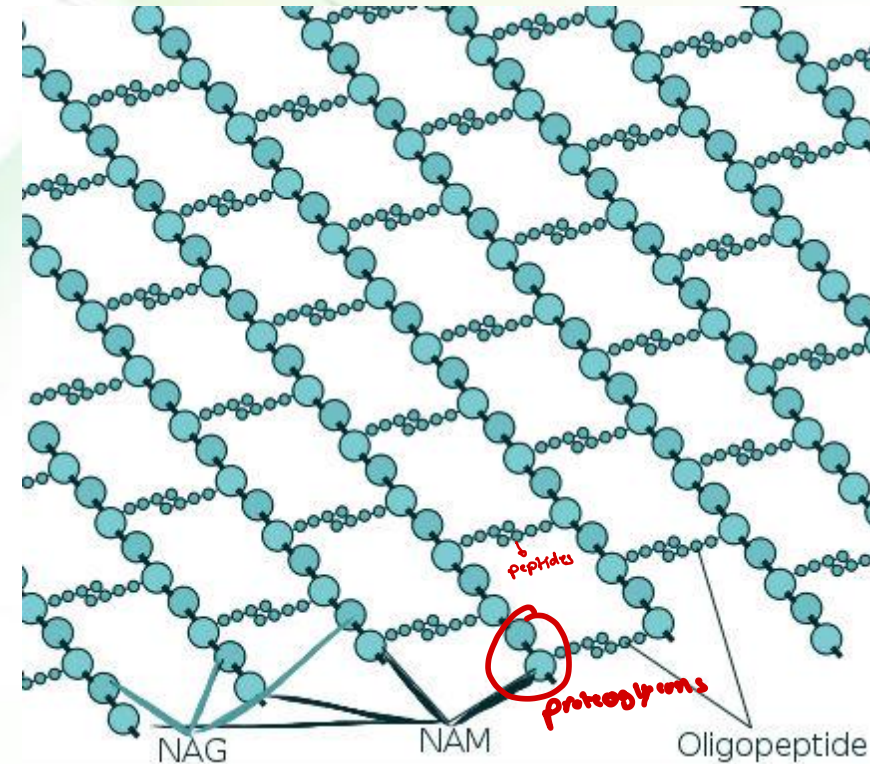
NAG
N-Acetylglucosamine



N-acetylglucosamine (NAG)



N-acetylmuramic acid (NAM)

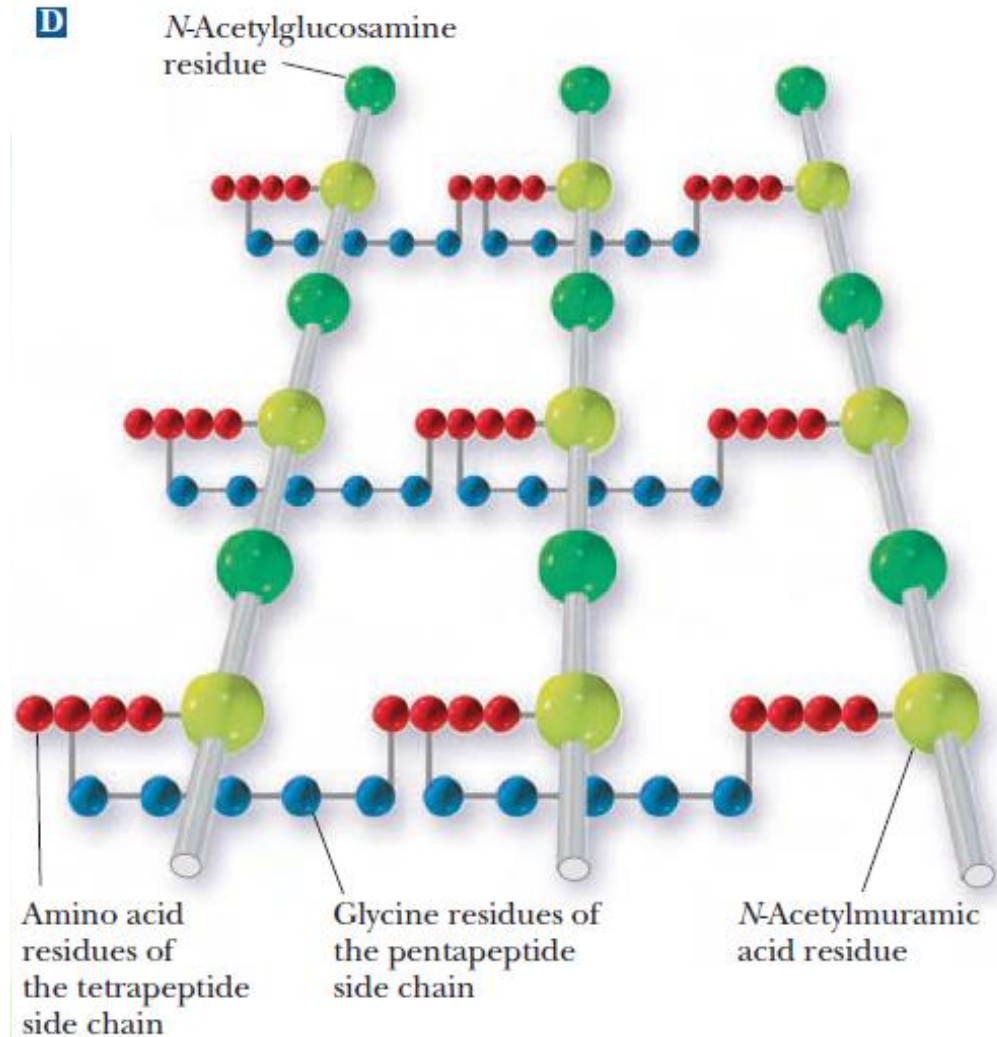
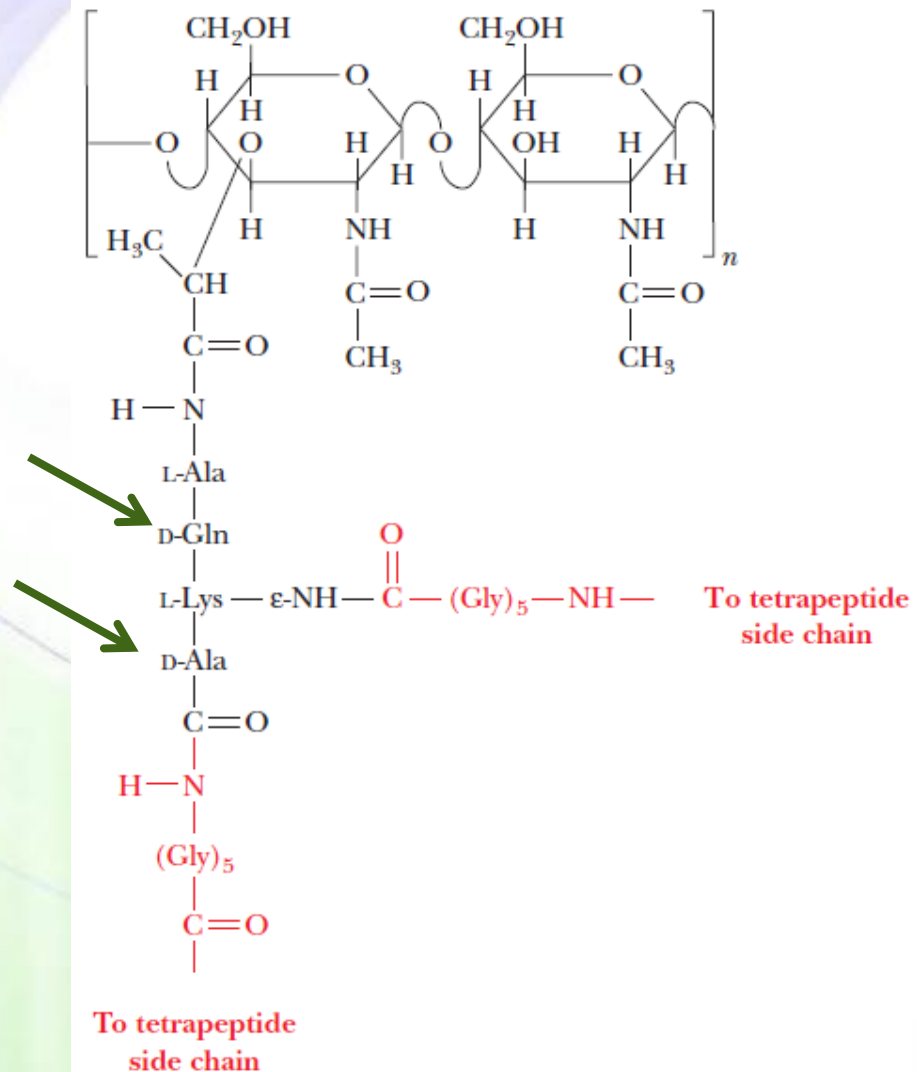


chains that are not branched

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

Lactic acid

Peptidoglycan



Glycoproteins



- The carbohydrates of glycoproteins are linked to the protein component through either O-glycosidic or N-glycosidic bonds → depending on the amino acids

- 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 (hLys)

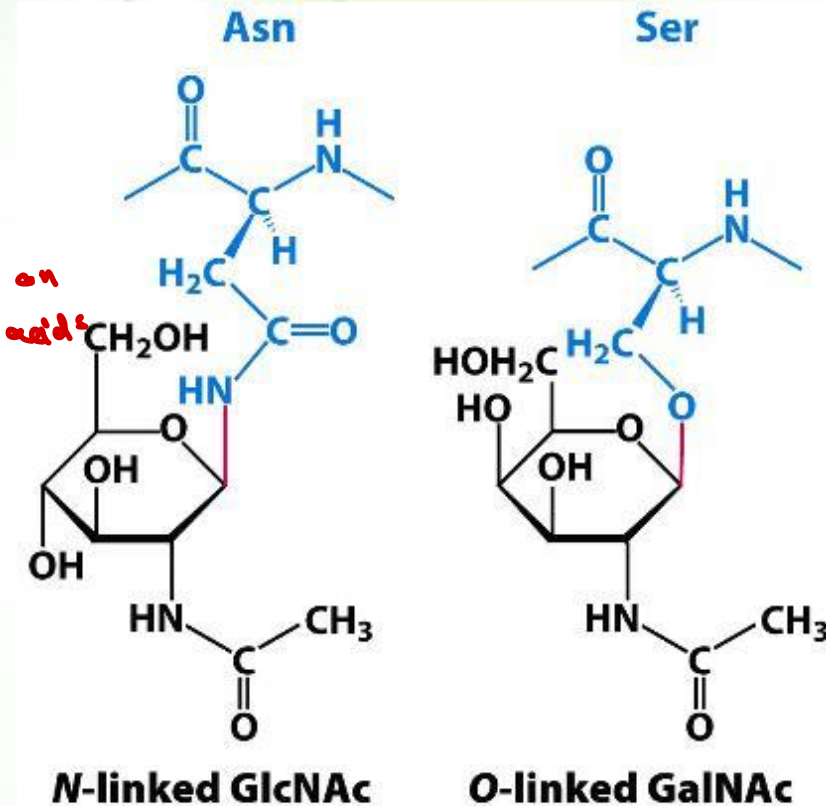


Figure 11.15
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Do not memorize or
study the structures.

Significance of protein-linked sugars



- Soluble proteins as well as membrane proteins
- Purpose:
 - Protein folding
 - Protein targeting → where to send the protein
 - prolonging protein half-life (stability) glycosylated → it has sugars
 - Cell-cell communication
 - Signaling

Blood typing and glycoproteins



- Three different structures:

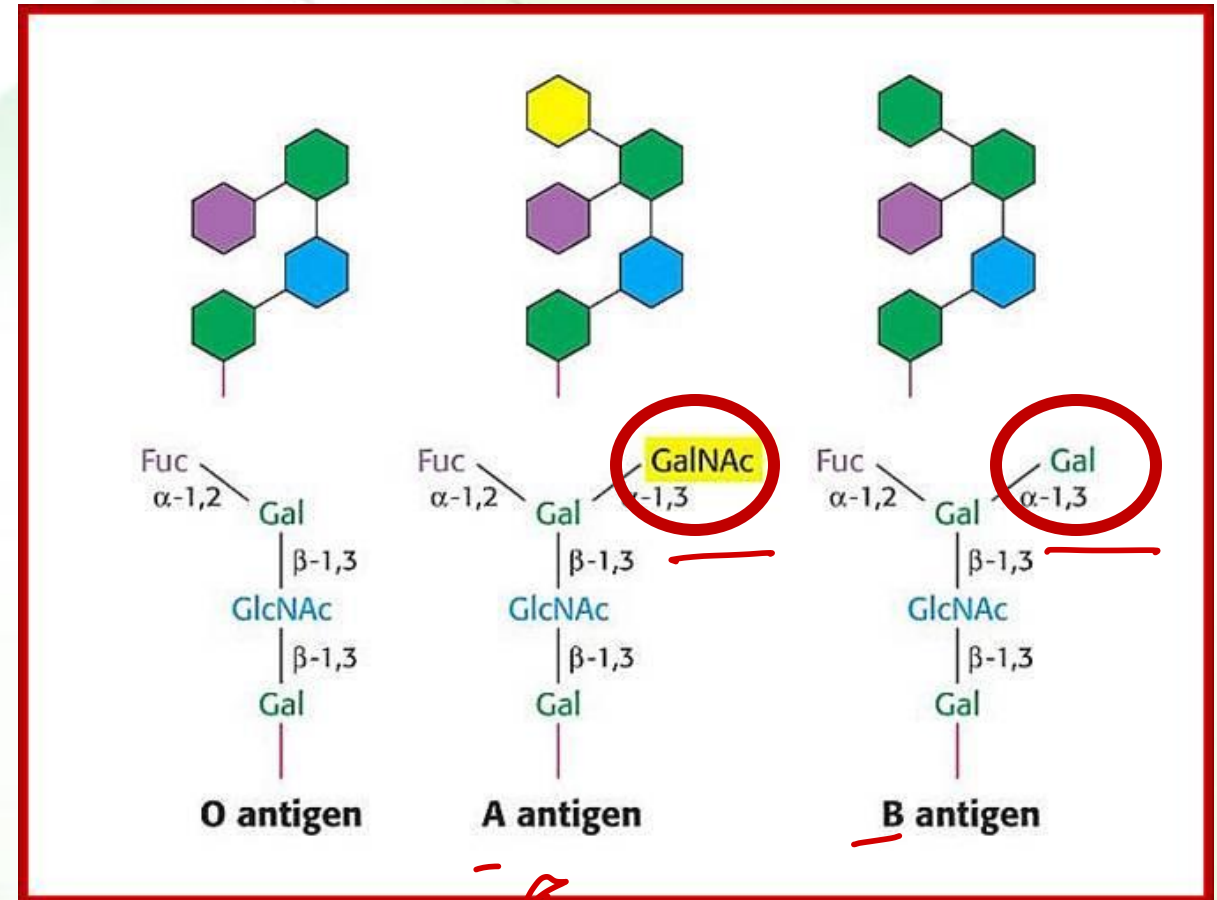
- A, B, and O

- The difference:

- N-acetylgalactosamine (for A)

- Galactose (for B)

- None (for O)

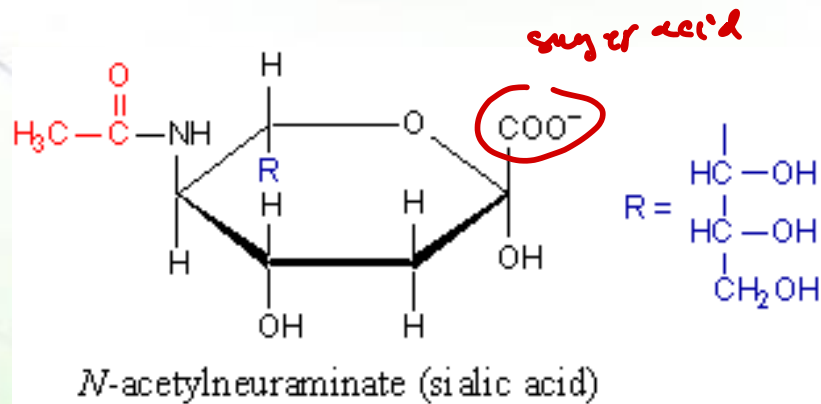


Sialic acid

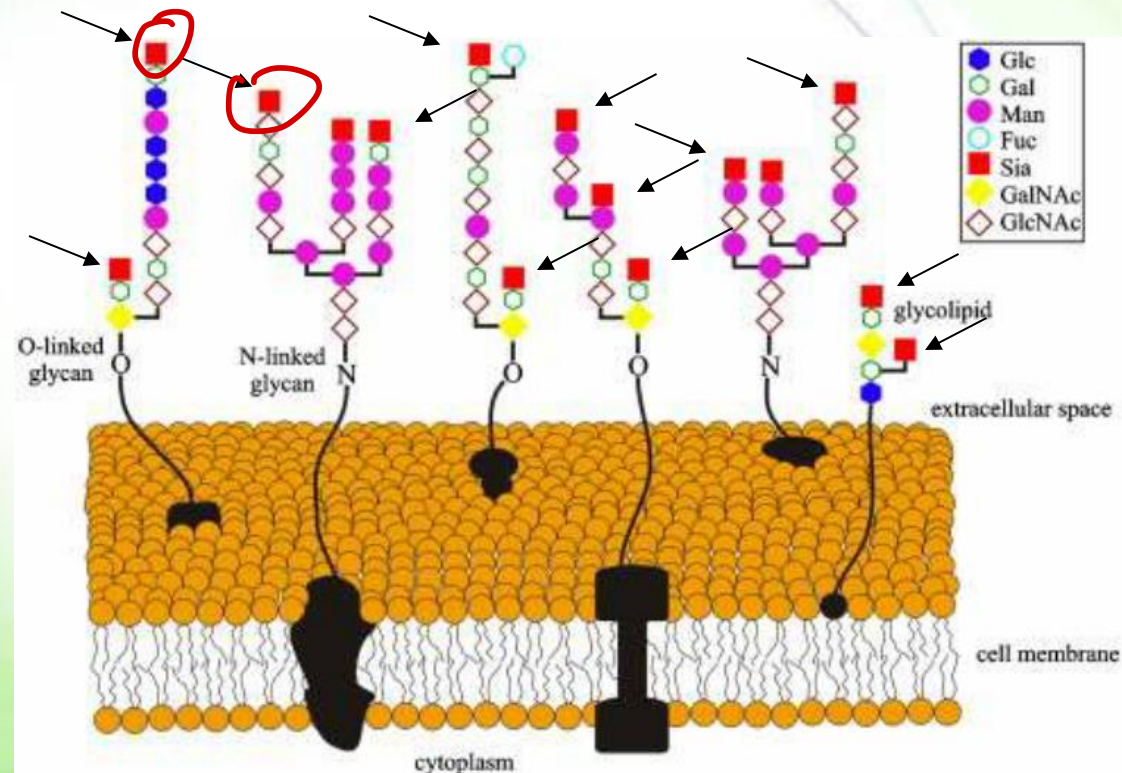


د. ن. في سلامة

- 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.



من يفعل الخير لا يعدم جوازه
لا يذهب العرف بين الله والناس

ريان بن اسلمه