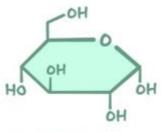
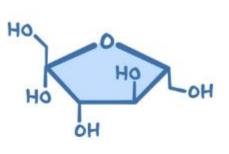




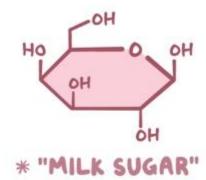
* MOST IMPORTANT *





FRUCTOSE

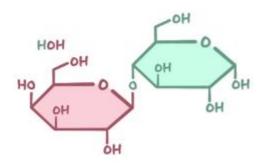
GALACTOSE

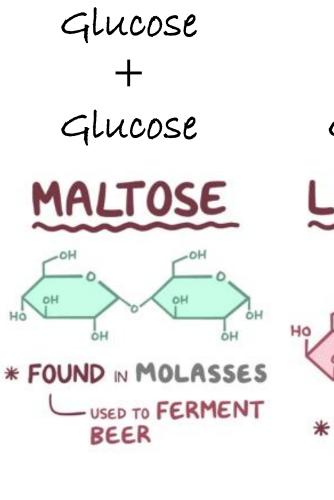


* ONE OF THE MAIN SOURCES OF CALORIES

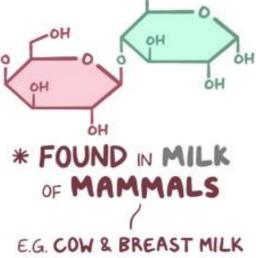
* CAN CROSS BLOOD-BRAIN BARRIER * COMMONY FOUND IN HONEY, FRUITS, & ROOT VEGETABLES

NOURISHES THE BRAIN



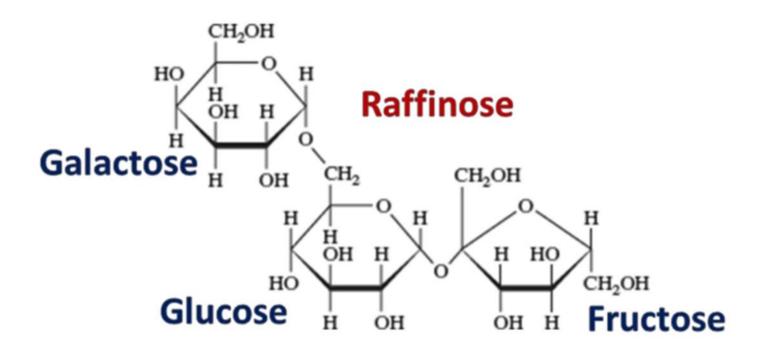


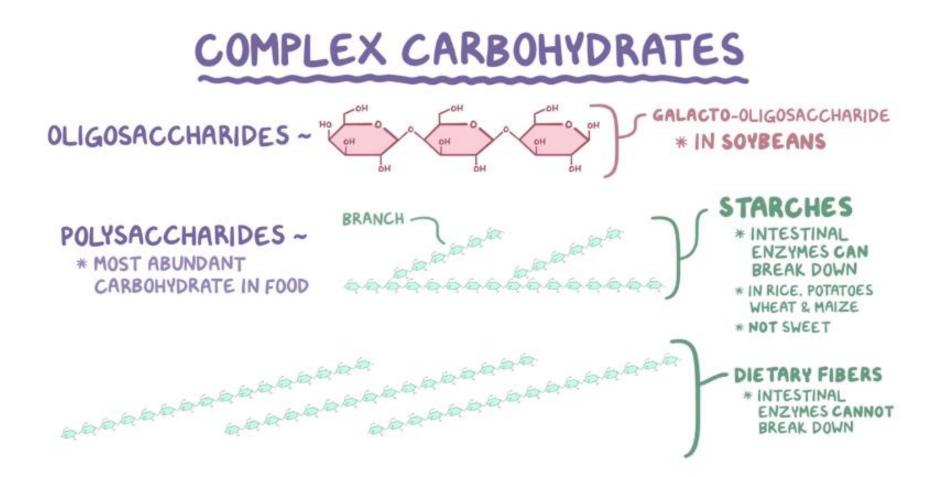
Glucose + Galactose LACTOSE

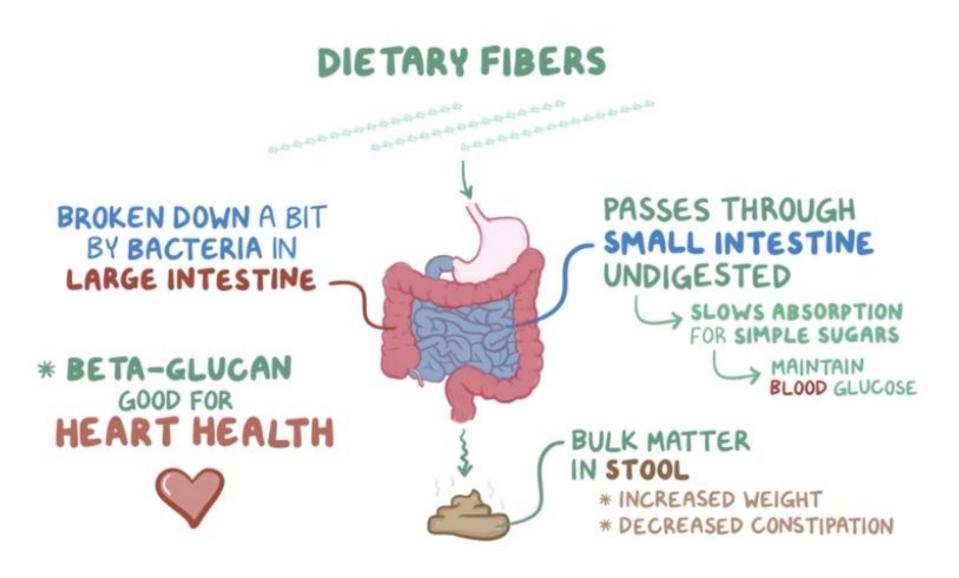


Glucose Fructose SUCROSE ~ "TABLE SUGAR" ~ OH HO Hó òН òн * FOUND IN FRUITS & VEGETABLES E.G. SUGAR CANE & SUGAR BEETS

Trisaccharide







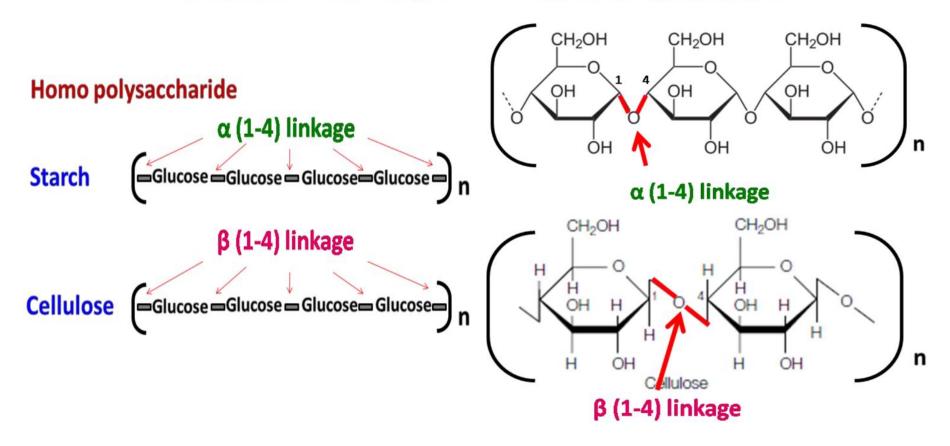
Polysaccharides

Homo polysaccharide

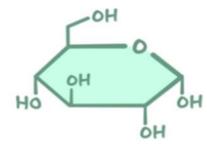
Hetero polysaccharide

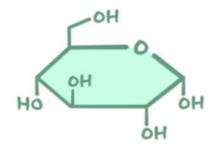
Polymer of same monosaccharide units

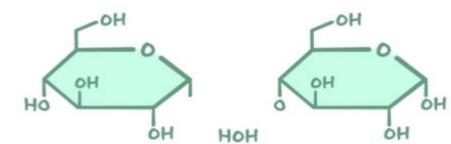
Polymer of different monosaccharide units



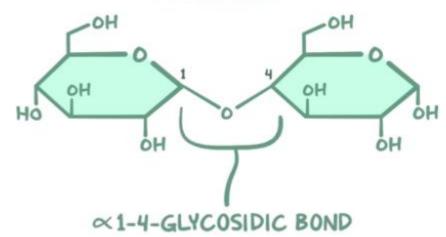
GLYCOSIDIC BONDING



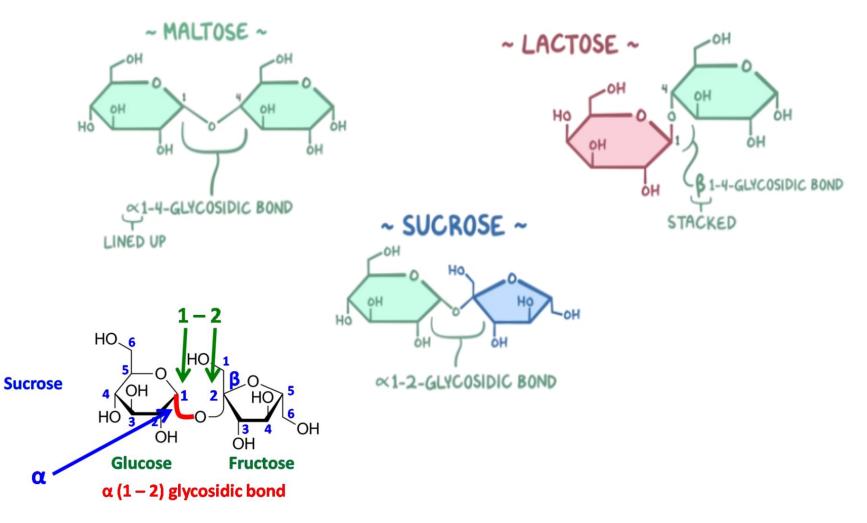


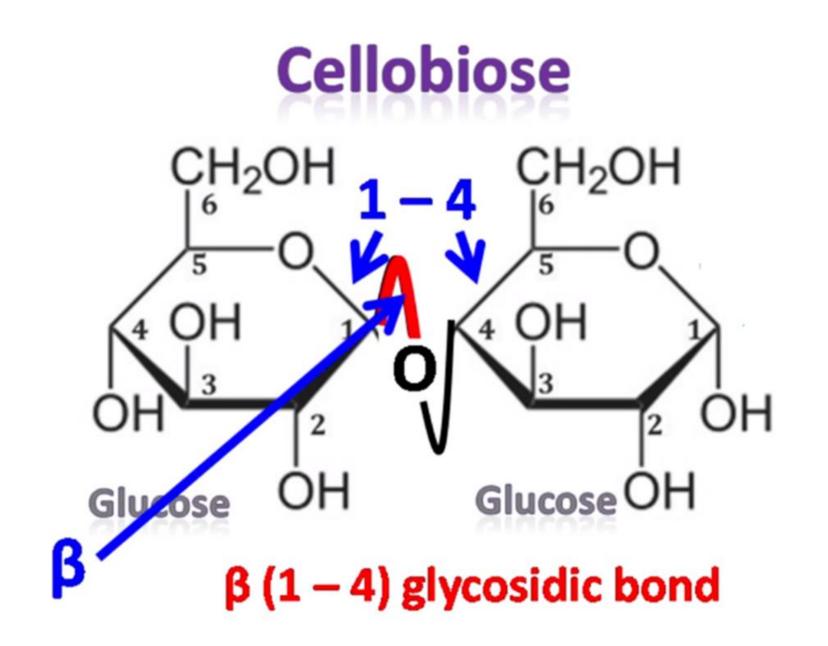


~ MALTOSE ~

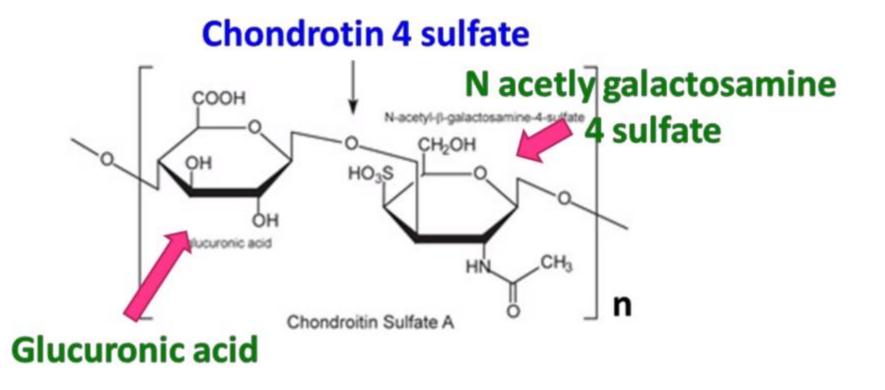


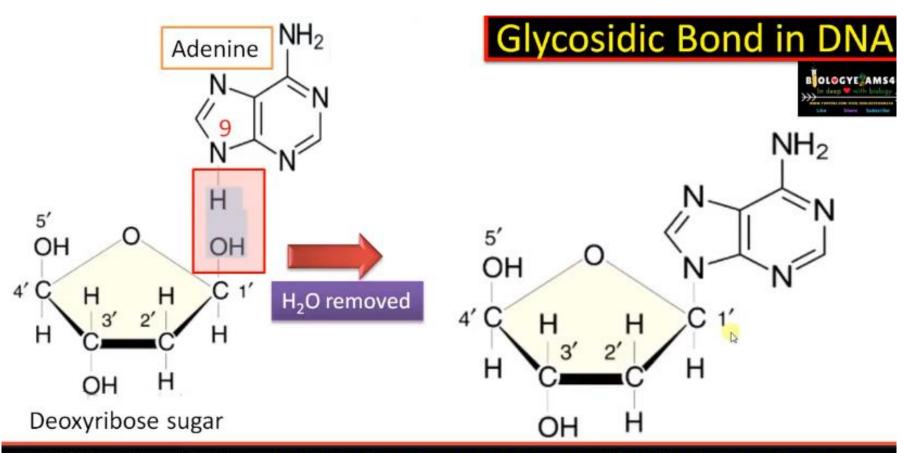




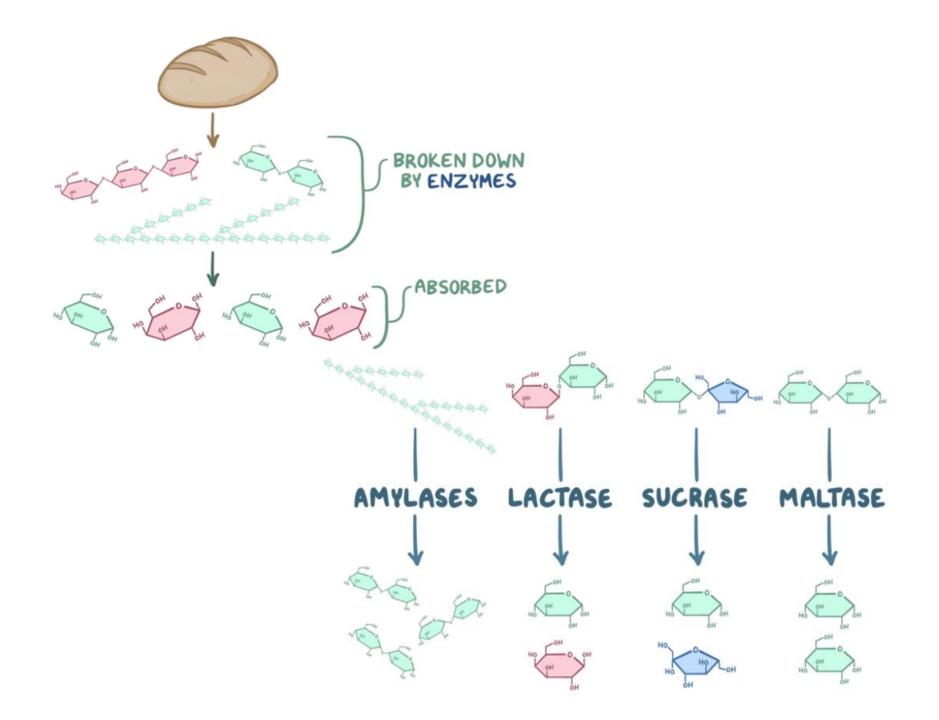


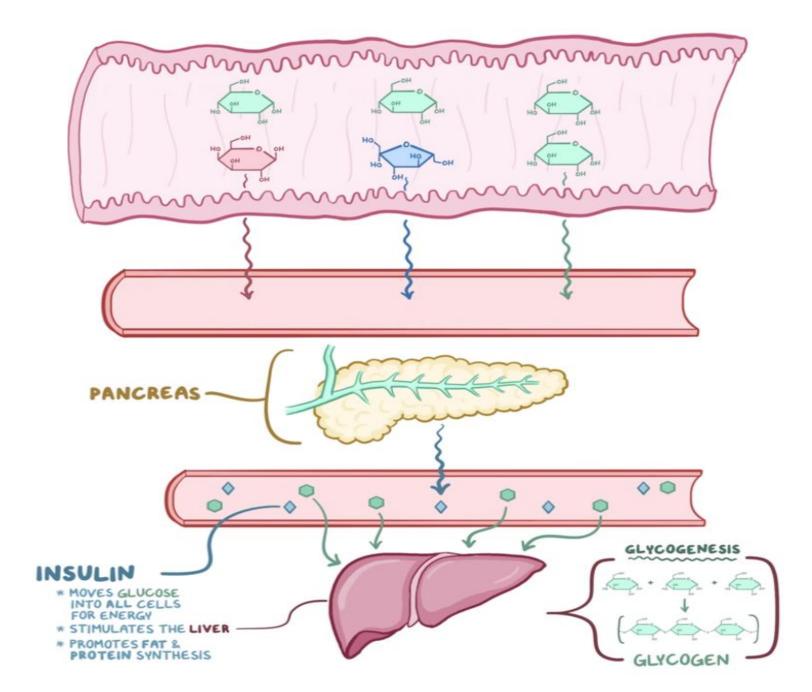
Hetero polysaccharide



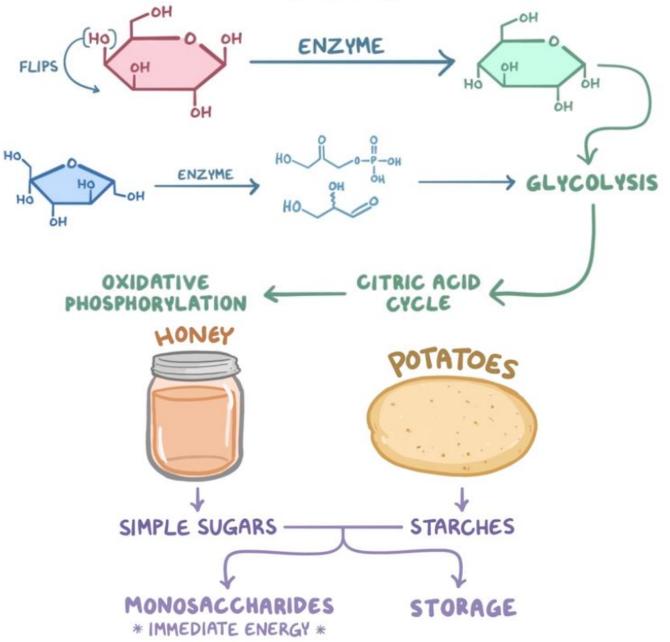


In DNA, Glycosidic Bond, N-C linkage connects Sugar with Nitrogenous base. The C1 of deoxyribose forms β-N-Glycosidic bond



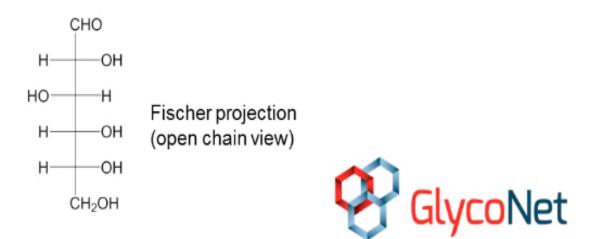


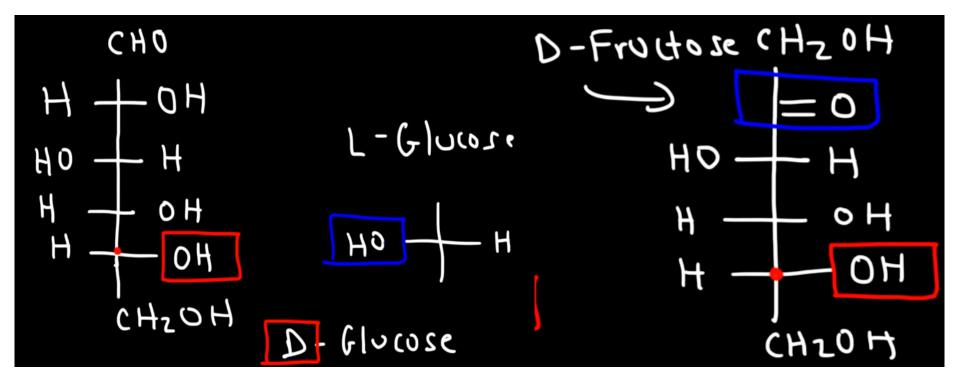


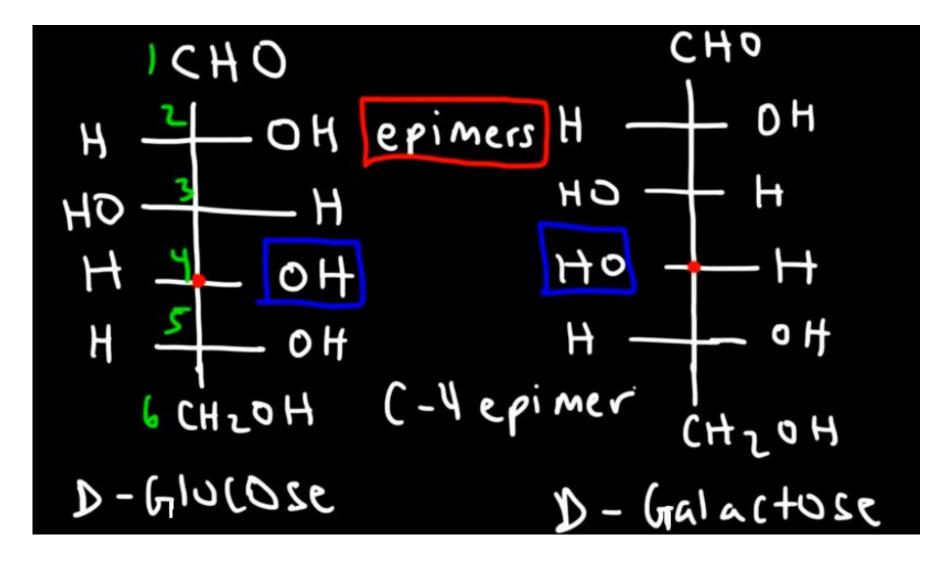


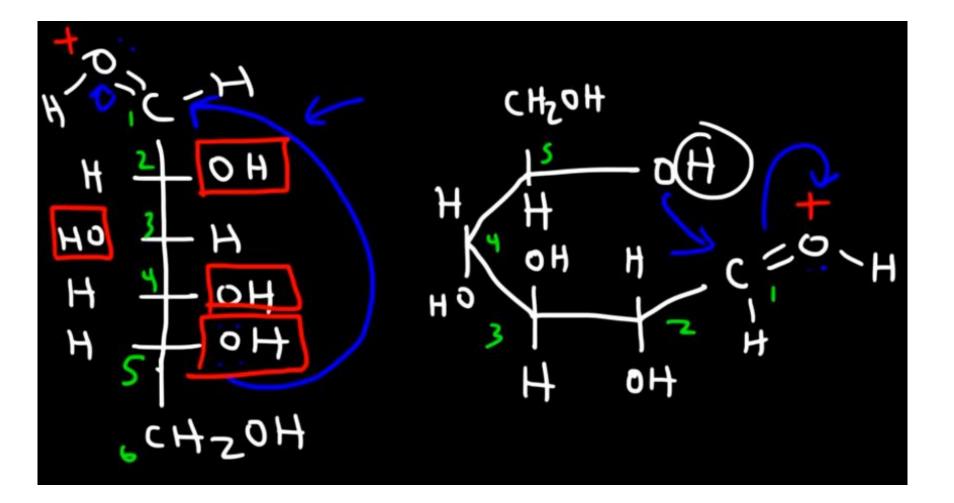
Carbohydrate Structure

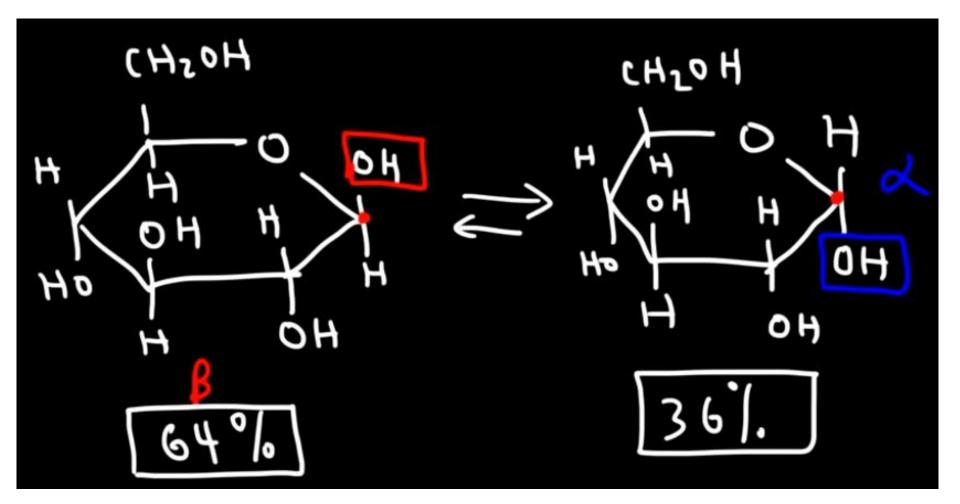
- Polyhydroxylated carbonyl compounds (usually aldehydes or ketones)
- General formula: C_n(H₂O)_n (one unsaturation)









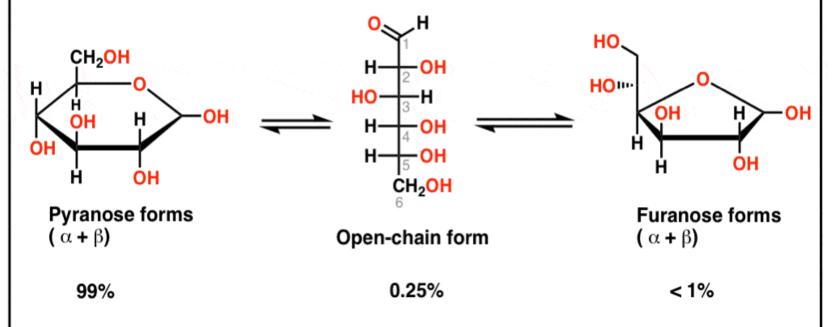


Summary: Pyranoses, Furanoses, and Ring-Chain Tautomerism

Sugars exist in equilibrium between their open-chain and various closed-chain forms. (This is called "ring-chain tautomerism")

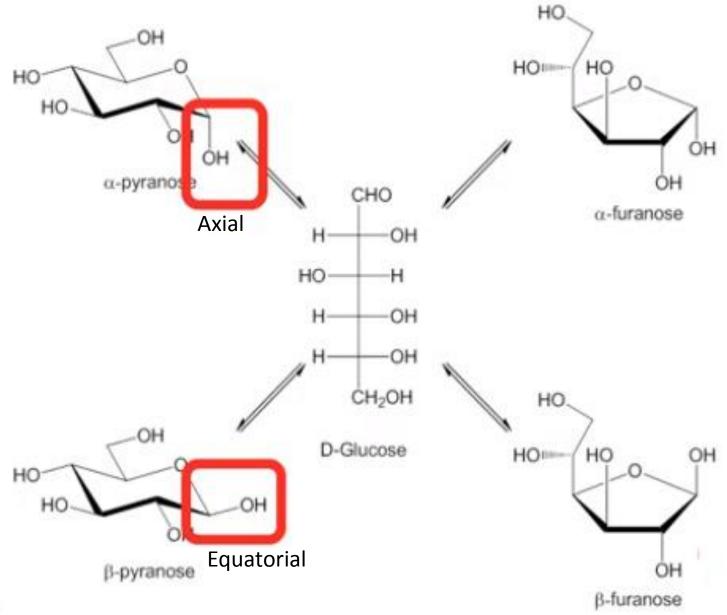
Particularly important for hexoses (e.g. glucose) and pentoses (e.g. ribose)

e.g. D-glucose (below)

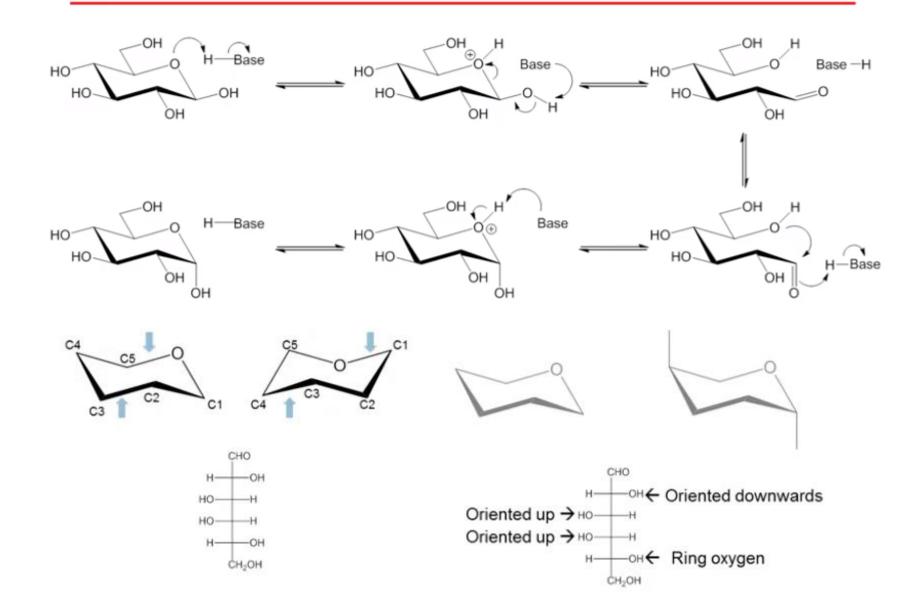


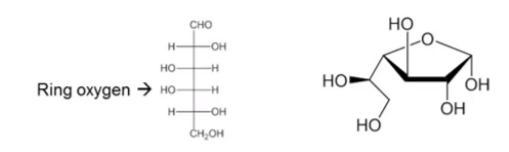
The six-membered cyclic form is generally referred to as the "pyranose" form, and the five-membered cyclic form is called the "furanose" form

Closure of the ring creates a chiral center at C-1, resulting in two diastereomers (sometimes called "anomers") - the alpha (α) and beta (β) forms

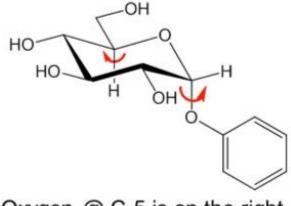


Mutarotation

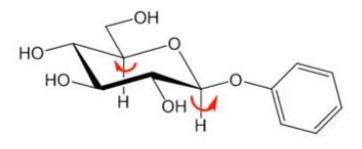




Glycosides

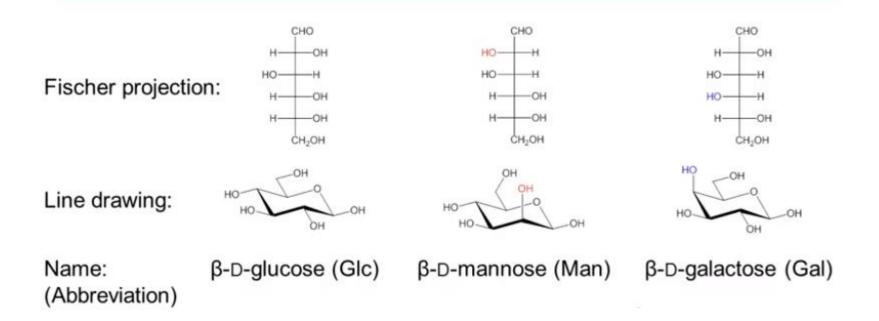


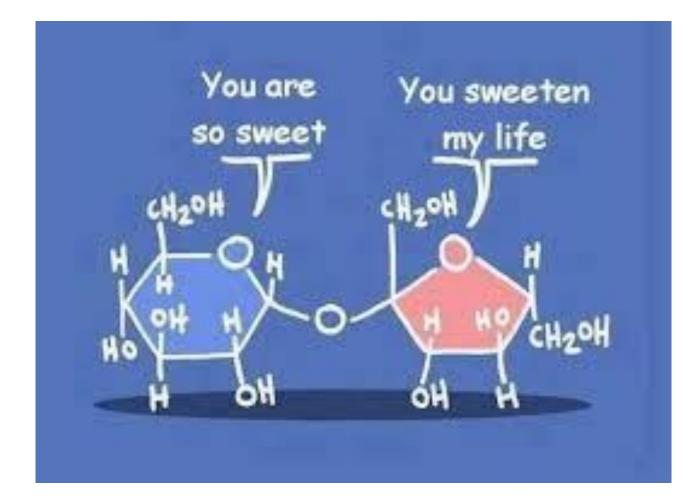
Oxygen @ C-5 is on the right Oxygen @ C-1 is on the right Configuration is α



Oxygen @ C-5 is on the right Oxygen @ C-1 is on the left Configuration is β

Common Sugars



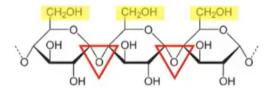


- 1. Which polysaccharide makes up plant cell walls?
- 2. Which monosaccharide makes up this polysaccharide?
- 3. Is this polysaccharide branched or unbranched?

Alpha (α) vs. Beta (β) glycosidic linkages

- Alpha (α)
 - Create HELICAL shaped polysaccharide
 - Humans CAN digest/break them apart
 - Our guts (digestive systems) make enzymes that hydrolyze α linkages
- Beta (β)
 - Create straight chain shaped polysaccharides
 - Humans CANNOT digest/break them apart
 - Our guts do NOT make any enzymes that can hydrolyze β

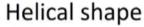


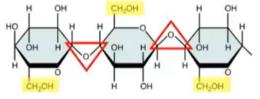


https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/t humb/e/ec/Amylose3.svg/800px-Amylose3.svg.png

> https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Han d-drawn helix ribbons at various angles.jpg







https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia /commons/b/ba/Figure 03 02 07.jpg



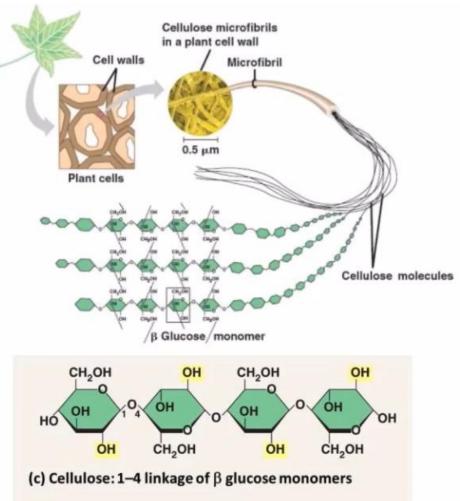
Straight chain shape

Cellulose - structure

Cellulose is made up of β -glucose monomers linked by β 1-4 glycosidic bonds.

Cellulose does not branch.

The monomers are packed tightly as extended long chains held adjacent to each other by hydrogen bonding. This gives cellulose its rigidity and strength.



In cellulose, every β -glucose monomer is "upside down" with respect to its neighbors.

Cellulose - *function*

The cell wall of plants is mostly made of cellulose; this provides structural support to the cell.

Fun fact: wood and paper are mostly cellulose!





Cellulose - function (just read)

The β 1-4 linkage found in cellulose cannot be broken down by human digestive enzymes.

The cellulose we eat is called "fiber" in every day lingo.

Fiber moves through the digestive tract undigested and then is egested from the body (poop).

Fiber has an important function of maintaining health of the digestive tract.



FIBERS



Why can't humans digest <u>cellulose?</u>

• We don't produce *Cellulase*

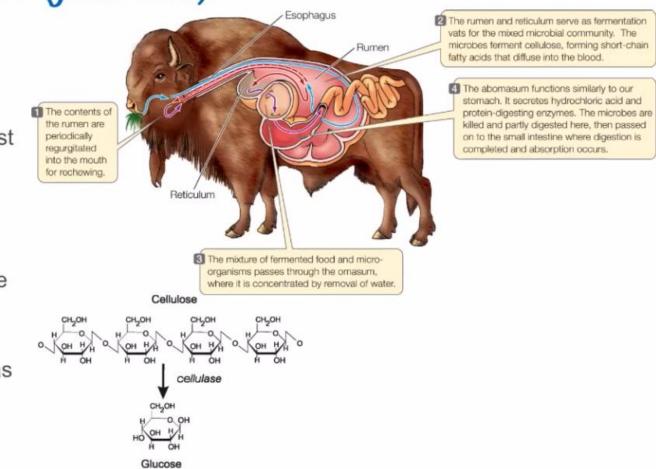
Ruminants, like
 cows, have
 symbiotic bacteria in
 their stomachs



Cellulose - function (just read)

Herbivores (such as cows, koalas, buffalos, and horses) have specialized bacteria in their digestive tracts that digest cellulose and use it as a food source.

In these animals, bacteria in the rumen secrete the enzyme cellulase. Cellulase breaks down cellulose into glucose monomers that can be used as an energy source by the animal.



Starch - structure

Starch is made up of α -glucose monomers.

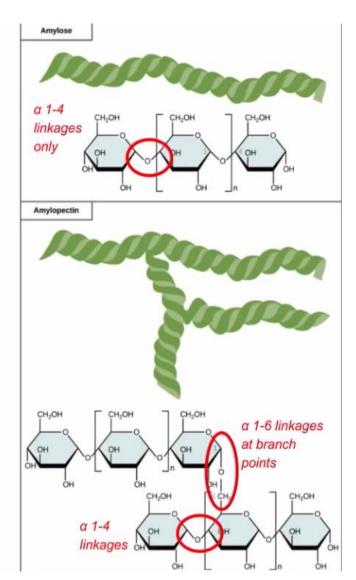
There are two types of starch: amylose and amylopectin (both polymers of α -glucose).

Amylose is starch formed by **unbranched** chains of glucose monomers (only α **1-4*** linkages)

Amylopectin is a **branched** polysaccharide (α **1-4**^{*} linkages and α **1-6** linkages at the branch points).

*The numbers 1-4 and 1-6 refer to the carbon number of the two monosaccharides that have joined to form the bond.

 α-glucose molecules joined by α1-4 glycosidic bonds with α1-6 branches every 20-30 monomers

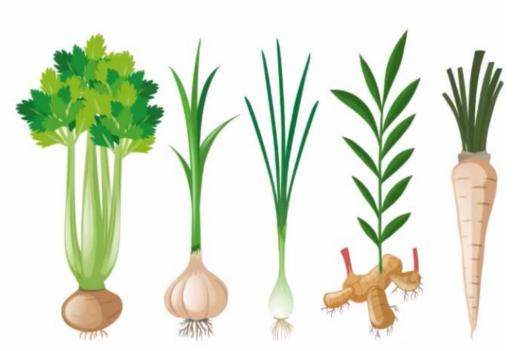


Starch - function

Starch* is the storage form of carbohydrates in plants.

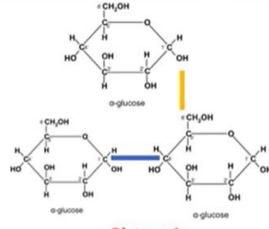
Plants are able to synthesize glucose in photosynthesis, and the excess glucose, beyond the plant's immediate energy needs, is stored as starch in different plant parts, including roots and seeds.

The plants form the basis of the food chain. Animals eat the plants as a source of carbohydrates.

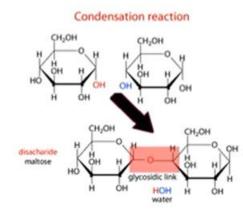


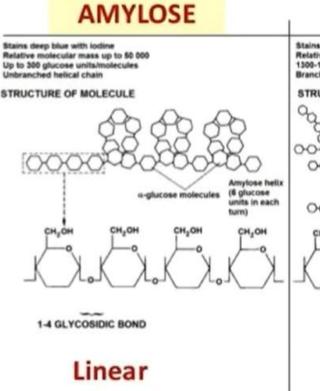
*Both amylose and amylopectin forms of starch have the same function

Starch: Amylose and Amylopectin



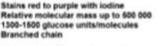
Picture 1

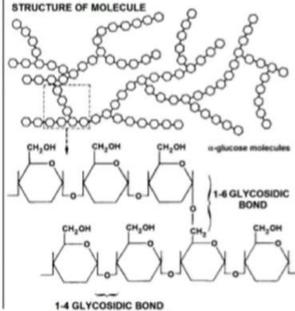




molecule

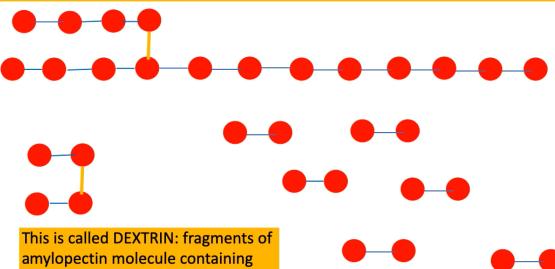
AMYLOPECTIN



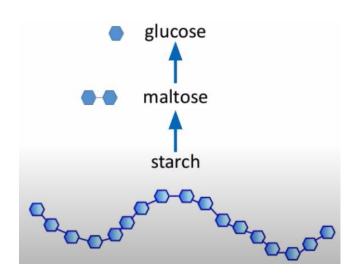


Branched molecule

Therefore, amylase cannot fully digest amylopectin



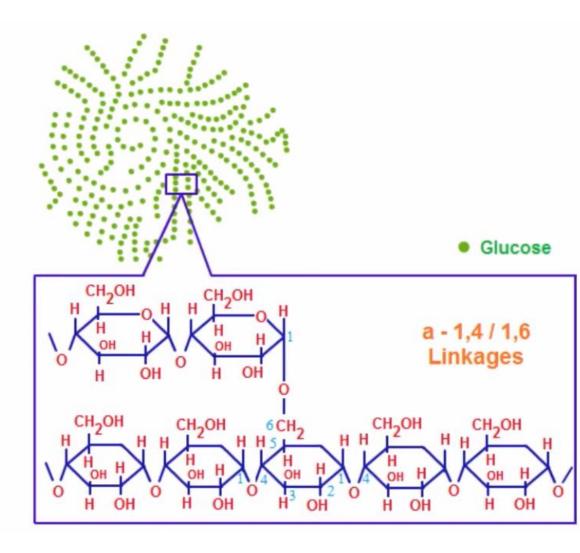
1,6 bond



Glycogen - structure

Glycogen is made up of α -glucose monomers.

Glycogen is a **highly branched** molecule, with α **1-4** linkages and α **1-6** linkage at the branch points.

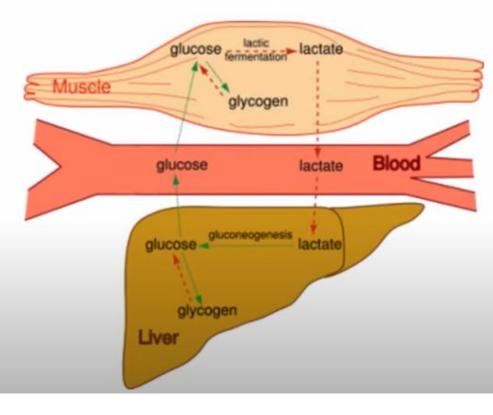


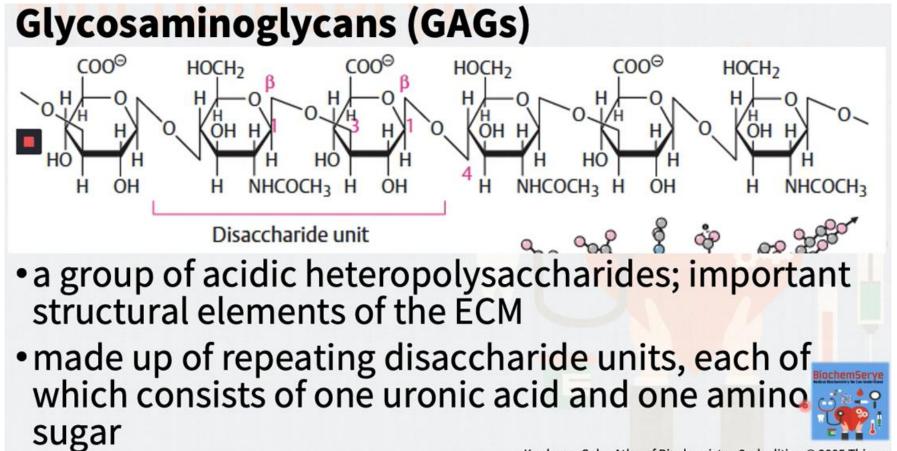
Glycogen - function

Glycogen is the storage form of carbohydrates in humans and other vertebrates.

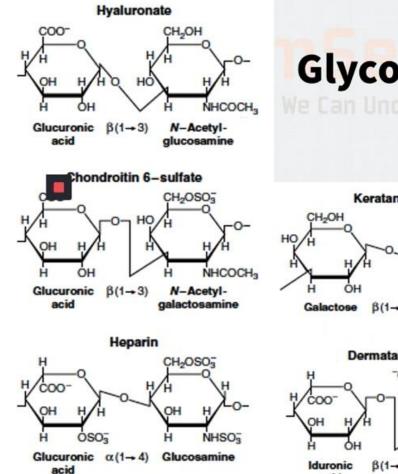
When blood glucose levels *increase* (i.e. after eating), glucose is stored as glycogen in liver and muscle cells.

When blood glucose levels *decrease*, glycogen is broken down to release glucose into the blood so the cells can continue doing cellular respiration.



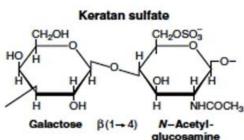


Koolman, Color Atlas of Biochemistry, 2nd edition © 2005 Thieme

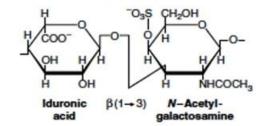


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Glycosaminoglycans (GAGs)

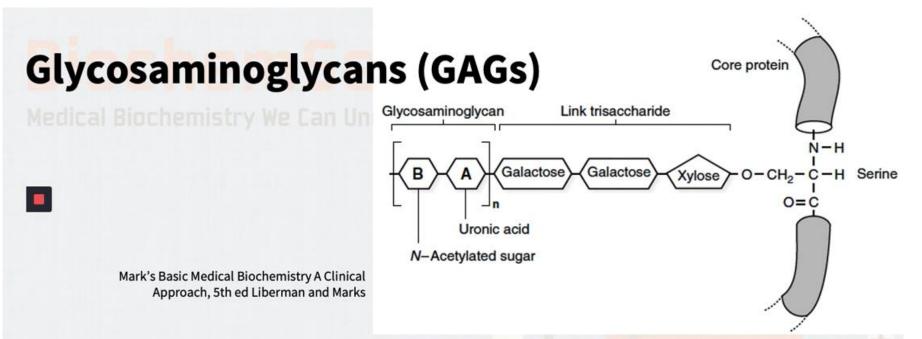


Dermatan sulfate



has repeating disaccharide units

- uronic acid (glucuronic acid or iduronic acid)
- amino sugar (Nacetylglucosamine or Nacetylgalactosamine)
- hyaluronic acid, chondroitin sulfate, heparin, keratan sulfate and dermatan sulfate



- least 6 types of GAGs
- except for hyaluronic acid, the GAGs are linked to proteins, usually attached covalently to serine or threonine residues
- keratan sulfate I is attached to asparagine
- attachment of GAGs to core proteins give rise to proteoglycans

Glycosaminoglycans and Proteoglycans

Medical Biochemistry We Can Understand!

Glycosaminoglycan	Function
Hyaluronic acid	Cell migration in:
	Embryogenesis
	Morphogenesis
	Wound healing
Chondroitin sulfate proteoglycans	Formation of bone, cartilage, cornea
Keratan sulfate proteoglycans	Transparency of cornea
Dermatan sulfate proteoglycans	Transparency of cornea
	Binds LDL to plasma walls
Heparin	Anticoagulant (binds antithrombin III)
	Causes release of lipoprotein lipase from capillary walls
Heparan sulfate (syndecan)	Component of skin fibroblasts and aortic
	wall; commonly found on cell surfaces

Glycoproteins and Proteoglycans

Medical Biochemistry We Can Understand!

Glycoproteins

- compounds containing carbohydrate, or glycan, covalently linked to protein
 - carbohydrate may be in the form of a monosaccharide, disaccharides, oligosaccharides, polysaccharides, or their derivatives

Proteoglycans

 subclass of glycoproteins in which the carbohydrate units are polysaccharides that contain amino sugars (glycosaminoglycans or GAGs)

Hexoses	Mannose (Man) Galactose (Gal)	
Acetyl hexosamines	N-Acetylglucosamine (GlcNAc) N-Acetylgalactosamine (GalNAc)	
Pentoses	Arabinose (Ara) Xylose (Xyl)	
M y pentose	L-Fucose (Fuc; see Figure 13–15)	
Sialic acids	N-Acyl derivatives of neuraminic acid, eg, N-acetylneuraminic acid (NeuAc; see Figure 13–16), the predominant sialic acid.	

Glycoproteins (mucoproteins)

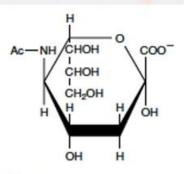


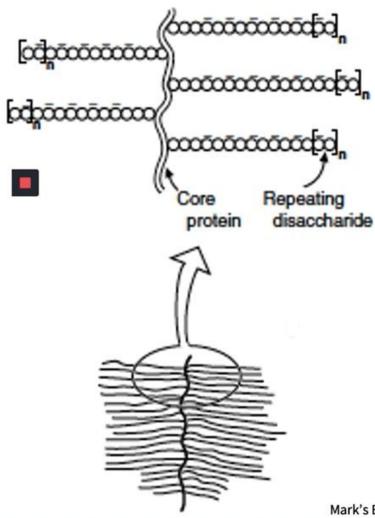
Figure 13–16. Structure of N-acetylneuraminic acid, a sialic acid (Ac = CH_3 —CO—).

- in fluids and tissues, including the cell membranes
- proteins containing branched or unbranched oligosaccharide chains

sialic acids

- N- or O-acyl derivatives of neuraminic acid, a nine-carbon sugar derived from mannosamine (an epimer of glucosamine) and pyruvate
- constituents of both glycoproteins and gangliosides



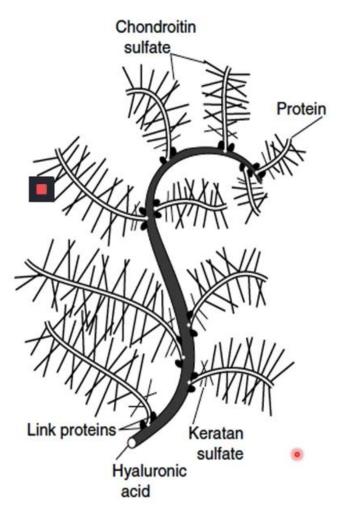


Proteoglycans

- contain many long unbranched GAGs attached to a core protein
- essential parts of the extracellular matrix, the aqueous humor of the eye, secretions of mucus-producing cells, and cartilage
- most GAGs have sulfated sugars contributing to negative charges → GAGs chains radiate out from the protein leading to overall "bottlebrush" structure
- may contain more than 100 GAG chains
- up to 95% oligosaccharide by weight



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Proteoglycans

- possess negatively charged groups on the proteoglycan bind positively charged ions and form hydrogen bonds with trapped water molecules -> hydrated gel
- provide the ground or packing substance of connective tissues; cushioning or lubricating functions

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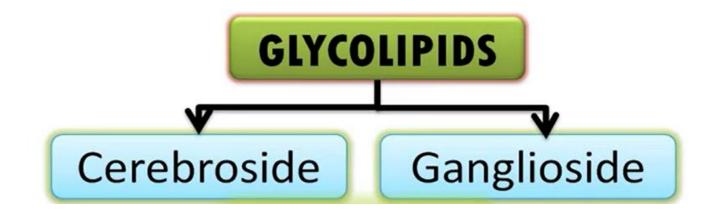
Hyaluronic acid, also called hyaluronan, is an anionic, nonsulfated glycosaminoglycan distributed widely throughout connective, epithelial, and neural tissues.

Mucopolysaccharidoses

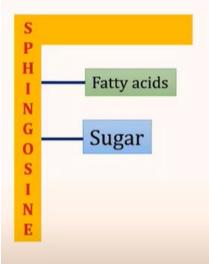
Disease	Enzyme Deficiency	Accumulated Products
Hunter	Iduronate sulfatase	Heparan sulfate, Dermatan sulfate
Hurler + Scheie roteaux-Lamy	α-L-Iduronidase N-Acetylgalactosamine sulfatase	Heparan sulfate, Dermatan sulfate Dermatan sulfate
Mucolipidosis VII	β-Glucuronidase	Heparan sulfate, Dermatan sulfate
Sanfilippo A	Heparan sulfamidase	Heparan sulfate
Sanfilippo B	N-Acetylglucosaminidase	Heparan sulfate
Sanfilippo D	N-Acetylglucosamine 6-sulfatase	Heparin sulfate

- caused by deficiencies of lysosomal glycosidases → partially degraded carbohydrates from proteoglycans, glycoproteins, glycolipids to accumulate within membrane-enclosed vesicles inside cells
- residual bodies can cause marked enlargement of the organ with impairment of its function
- affect multiple organ systems, with bone and cartilage being a primary target; significant neuronal involvement, leading to mental retardation

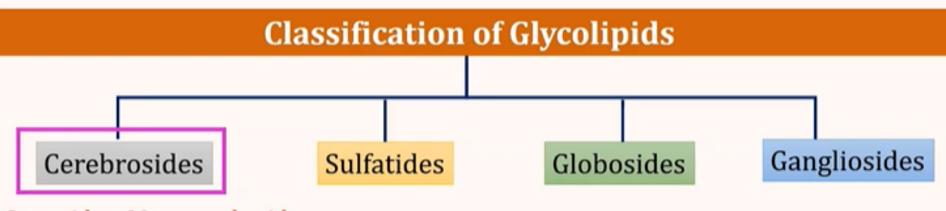
What are Glycolipids? Cerebroside vs Ganglioside



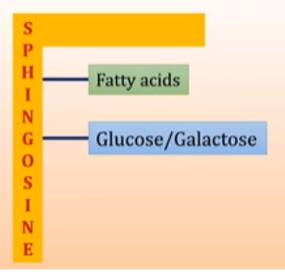
GLYCOLIPIDS



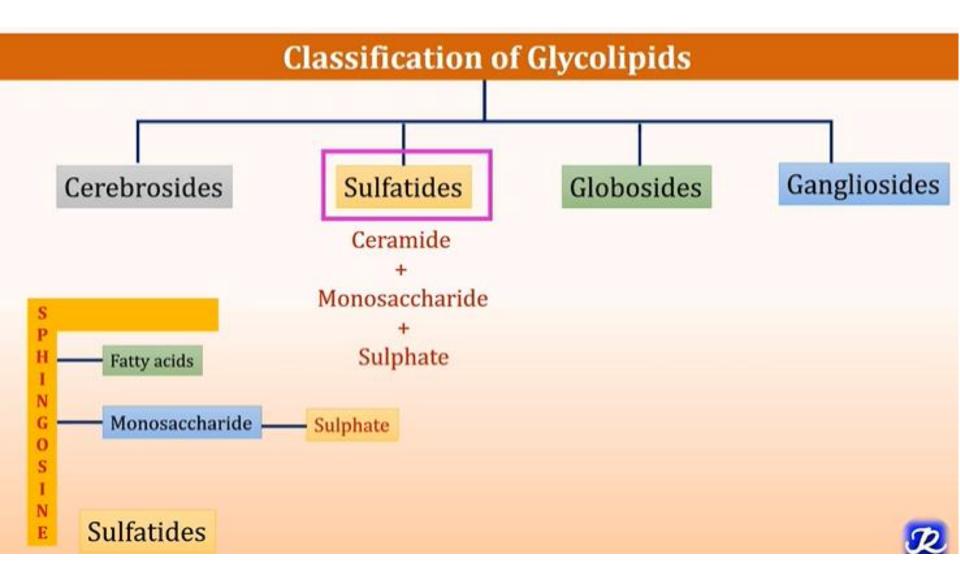
- Glycosphingolipids
- Important constituent of cell membrane and nervous tissues(brain)
 - No glycerol
 - No phosphate

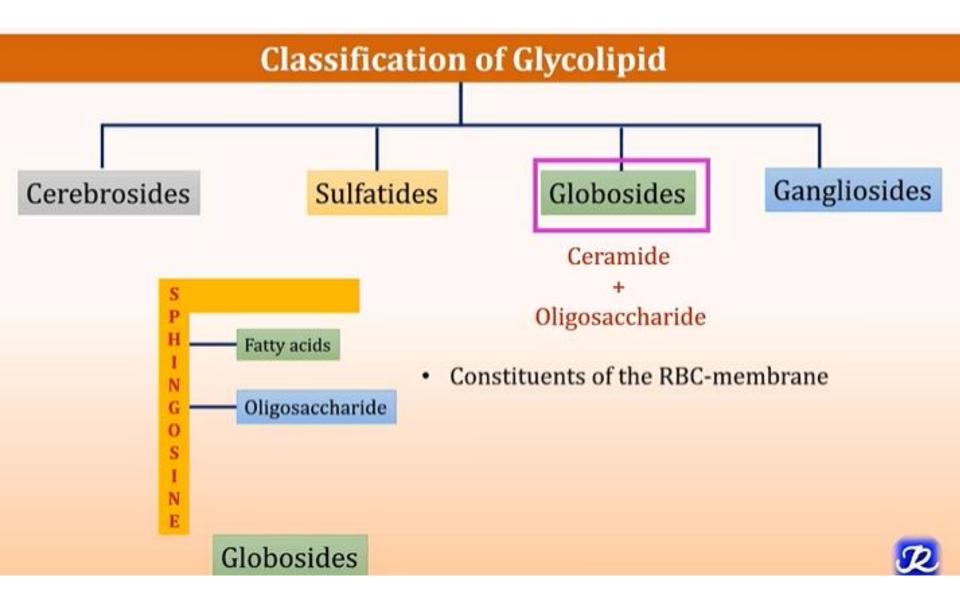


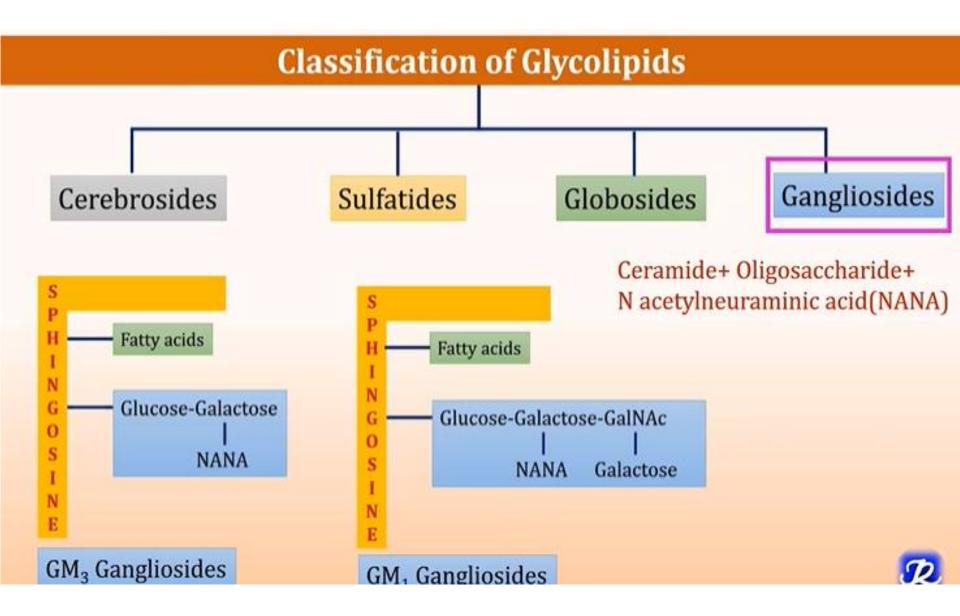
Ceramide + Monosaccharide





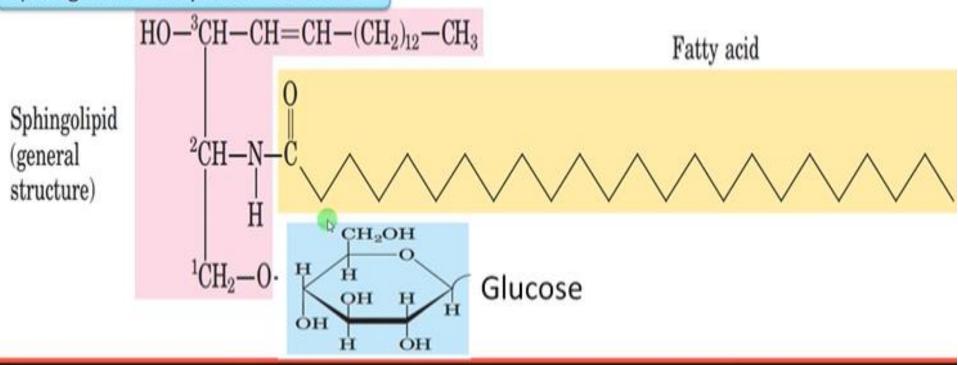






Glycolipid (Glycosphingolipids) 1. Cerebroside

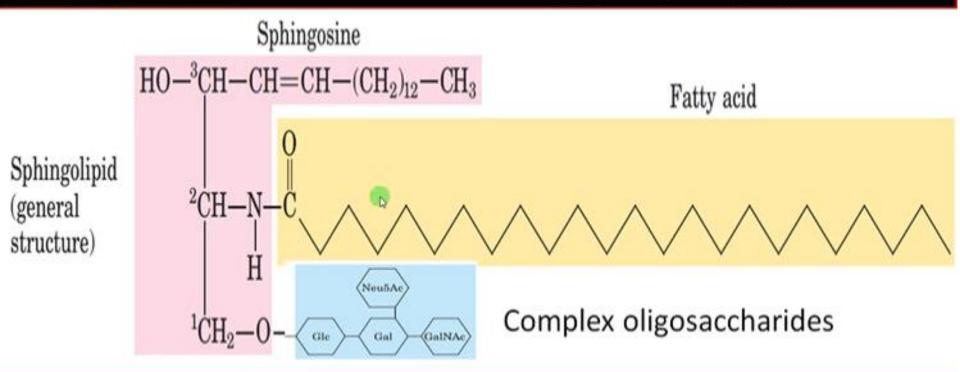
Sphingosine+fatty acid=Ceramide



Glyco: Sugar- lipid complexes

Formed by the joining of 1 or more monosaccharides connected directly to the –OH at C-1 of the ceramide moiety by glycosidic bond

2. Ganglioside- Sialic acid-containing glycosphingolipids



Formed by the joining of complex oligosaccharides at C1 head group, (Dglucose, D-galactose, n-acetyl D galactosamine and N-acetyl neuraminic acid (NANA) (sialic acid) totals, Y. Tel, Y. T. Alga, T. & Yang Jacob Structures, Incompletely, and functions of