

## Lecture 29 (12/3/21)

### TODAY

- Reading: Ch7; 220-235
- Problems: Ch7; 1,2,3,5,9

### NEXT

- Reading: Ch7; 236-241, 251-254, 258-260  
Ch7; 241-250
- Problems: Ch7; 4,6,7,8,13,14,15,18  
Ch7; 16,17,25,27

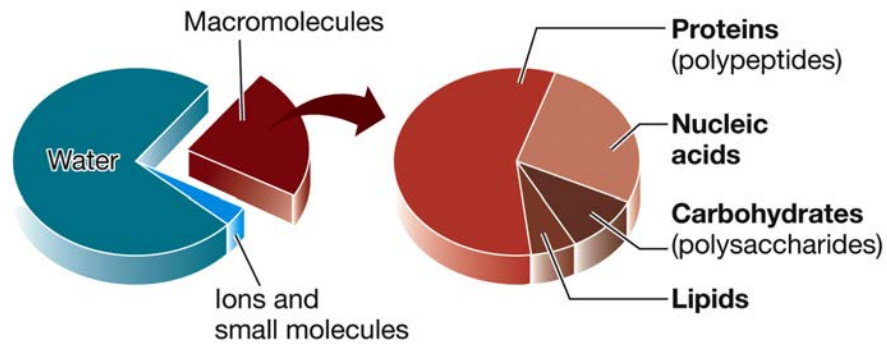
## Carbohydrates

- A. Definition
- B. Roles
- C. Monosaccharides-Chemistry
  - 1. Chirality
    - a. One or more asymmetric carbons
    - b. Linear and ring forms
  - 2. Derivatives: the chemistry of carbohydrates
    - a. Oxidation
      - i. C1
      - ii. C6
    - b. Reduction
      - i. C1/C2
      - ii. Other carbons
    - c. Ester formation
    - d. Amino sugars
  - 3. Polymerization
    - a. The Glycosidic Bond
    - b. Non-covalent bonds in macro-molecular structure
- D. Oligosaccharides
  - 1. Glycoproteins & glycolipids
  - 2. O-linked
  - 3. N-linked
  - 4. Sequence determination-ABO
- E. Polysaccharides
  - 1. Polymers of glucose
  - 2. Polymers of disaccharides

# Carbohydrates

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# Carbohydrates



# Carbohydrates

## Definition

- Carbo-Hydrate: have formula  $C_n(H_2O)_n$  (for  $n \geq 3$ )
- The precursor-macromolecule relationship is:
  - Monosaccharide–polysaccharide (or oligosaccharide)
- Carbohydrates are everywhere (ubiquitous) and versatile in function; fulfill a variety of functions.
  - Can be covalently linked with proteins and lipids; are intimately involved in nucleic acids

ROLES	Monosaccharide	Polysaccharide
1. Energy source/storage	glucose, fructose, etc.	Starch, glycogen
2. Structure	glucose, <i>glycerol</i>	Cellulose, chitin, lipids & membranes
3. Information	ribose (nucleotides)	Nucleic acids
4. Recognition	many	Glycolipids & glycoproteins

# Carbohydrates

## The 4 S's

### Size

### Shape

### Solubility

### Stability

Range from as small as glyceraldehyde ( $M_w = 90$  g/mol) to as large as amylopectin ( $M_w > 200,000,000$  g/mol)

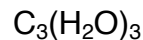
Depends on size and glycosidic bond

Very polar, very soluble, until large polymers

Stable due to glycosidic bond

# Carbohydrates

## Monosaccharides

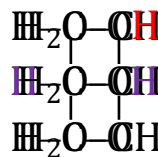


- Basic nomenclature:

- Use the suffix “-ose”

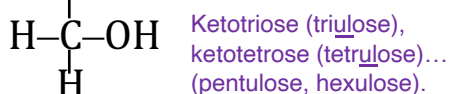
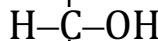
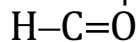
triose, tetrose, pentose, hexose

- Aldehyde & ketone functions solve problem of a “carbo-hydrate”



Make C1 an aldehyde

Make C2 a ketone



OK, we know enough

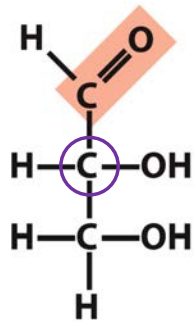
chemistry to draw a  
carbon-hydrate!

What is wrong with this structure?

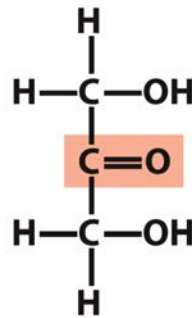
# Carbohydrates

## Monosaccharides

- An **aldose** is a carbohydrate with **aldehyde** functionality.
- A **ketose** is a carbohydrate with **ketone** functionality.



**Glyceraldehyde,  
an aldotriose**



**Dihydroxyacetone,  
a ketotriose**

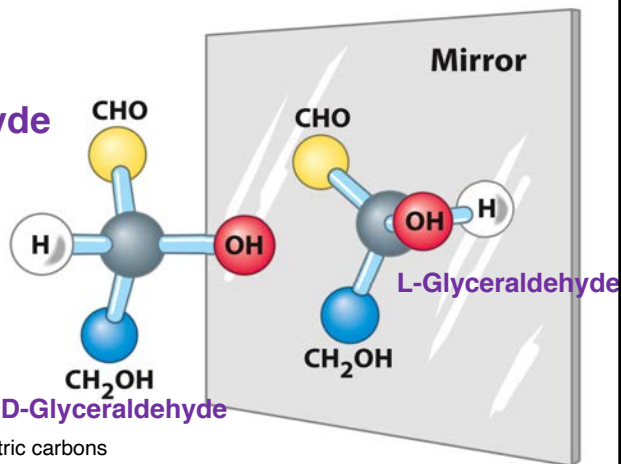
Are there any  
chiral carbons?

Figure 7-1a  
Lehninger Principles of Biochemistry, Seventh Edition  
© 2017 W.H. Freeman and Company

# Carbohydrates

## Monosaccharides

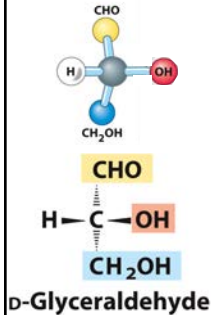
### Glyceraldehyde



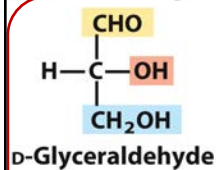
- Chemical Features:
  - Chirality
    - One or more asymmetric carbons
    - Linear and ring forms
  - Derivatives: the chemistry of carbohydrates
  - Polymerization
    - The Glycosidic Bond
    - Non-covalent bonds in macro-molecular structure

# Carbohydrates

## Monosaccharides



### Perspective formulas



### Fischer projection formulas

### Fischer projections

- Vertical bonds are between carbons, with highest oxidation state at the top, AND project away from you.
- Horizontal bonds are pointing toward you.
- If hydroxyl is on the left; its **L**
- If hydroxyl is on the right; its **D**
- Here D=R & L=S

It turns out that the L form of glyceraldehyde is called L because it is "levorotary," meaning it will rotate plane-polarized light to the left, or counter-clockwise. D rotates "dextrorotary."

# Carbohydrates

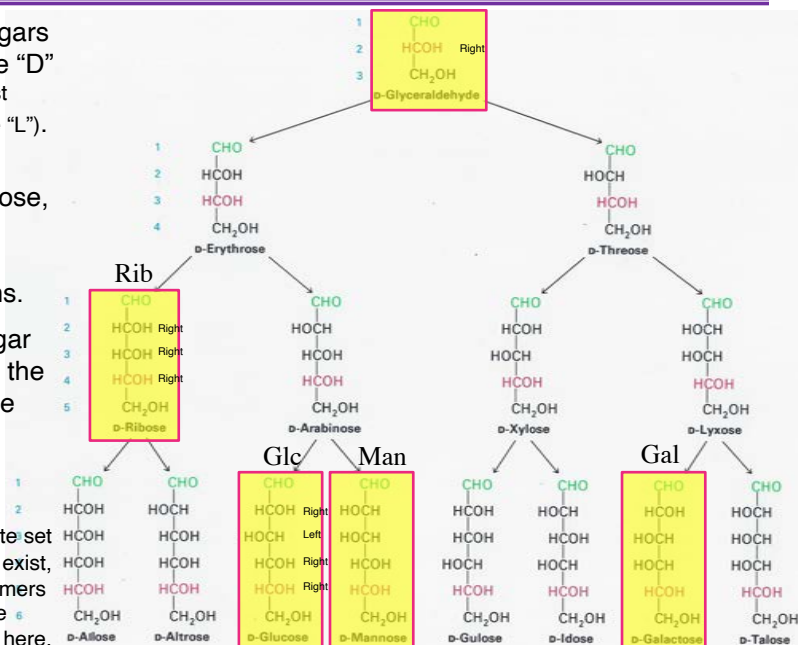
GREEN = functional group  
RED = highest numbered chiral carbon

Nearly all sugars in biology are "D" (sort of like most amino acids are "L").

As you go to tetrose, pentose, etc., you are adding more chiral carbons.

A D- or L-sugar is defined by the chirality of the highest numbered carbon.

Another complete set of 15 L-aldoses exist, and are enantiomers of their D-aldose relatives shown here.



## Carbohydrates

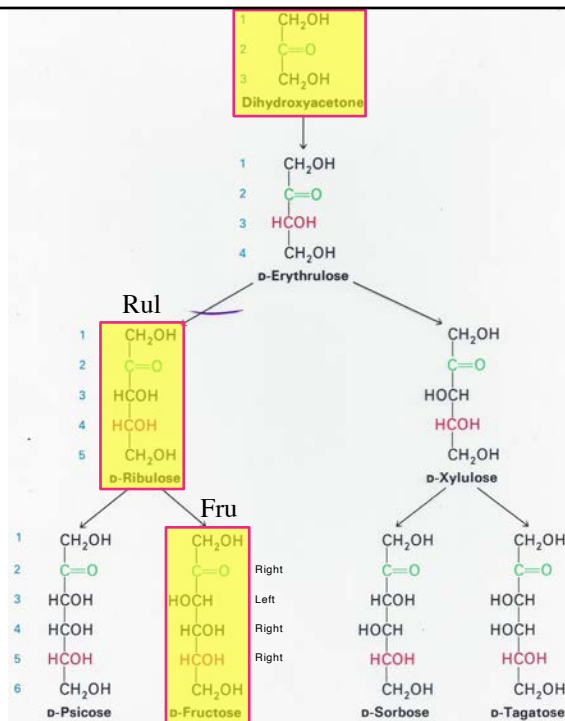
### D-ketoses

The first chiral sugar is a tetrose.

There is also another complete set of 7 L-ketoses exist, and are **enantiomers** of their D-ketose relatives shown here.

Fructose is the ketose form of glucose

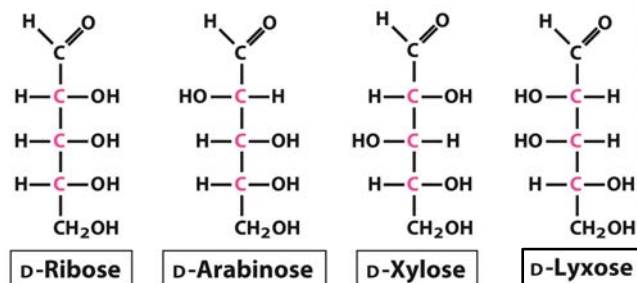
Ribulose is the ketose form of ribose



## Carbohydrates

### Monosaccharides: Stereoisomer Nomenclature

- Enantiomers
  - stereoisomers that are nonsuperimposable **complete** mirror images
  - Example: D-sugars & L-sugars
- Diastereomers
  - stereoisomers that are not complete mirror images
  - Diastereomers have different physical properties (e.g., water solubility)
  - Example:

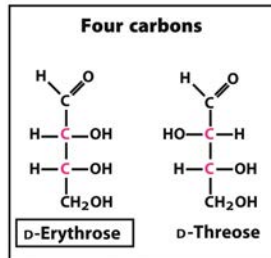


# Carbohydrates

## Monosaccharides: Stereoisomer Nomenclature

- Epimers

- Epimers are stereoisomers that differ at only **one** chiral center
- Epimers are diastereomers; diastereomers have different physical properties (i.e., water solubility, melting temp)
- Example:



- Glc & Man (2 epimer); Glc & Gal (4 epimer); Rib & Ara; Rib & Xyl

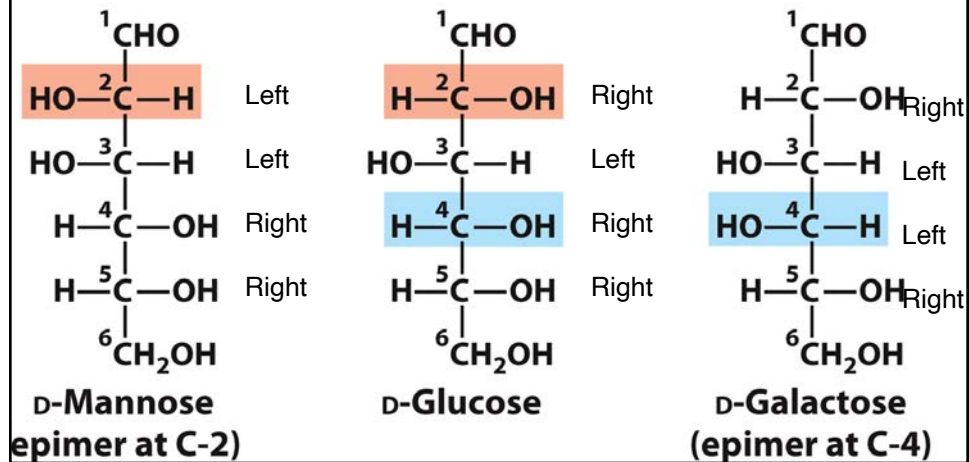
- Anomers

- Anomers have different chirality at carbon involved in ring formation

# Carbohydrates

## Monosaccharides: Stereoisomer Nomenclature

- D-Mannose and D-galactose are both epimers of D-glucose.
- D-Mannose and D-galactose vary at more than one chiral center and are diastereomers, but not epimers.



# Carbohydrates

## Monosaccharides: The most important sugars

- Glyceraldehyde and dihydroxyacetone are the simplest (3 carbon) aldose and ketose, respectively.
- Ribose (Rib) is the standard five-carbon sugar.
- Glucose (Glc) is the standard six-carbon sugar.
- Galactose (Gal) is an C4-epimer of glucose.
- Mannose (Man) is an C2-epimer of glucose.
- Fructose (Fru) is the ketose form of glucose.
- Ribulose (Rul) is the ketose form of ribose.

Need to know, recognize, draw Fisher Projection, name, abbreviate

## Carbohydrates Monosaccharides: Stereoisomer Nomenclature

- Enantiomers
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  - Example: D-sugars & L-sugars
- Diastereomers
  - stereoisomers that are not complete mirror images
  - Diastereomers have different physical properties (e.g., water solubility)
  - Example: ribose & lyxose
- Epimers
  - Epimers are stereoisomers that differ at only **one** chiral center
  - Epimers are diastereomers; diastereomers have different physical properties (i.e., water solubility, melting temp)
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  - Anomers have different chirality at carbon involved in ring formation

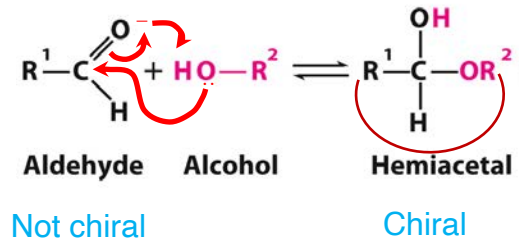


# Carbohydrates

## Monosaccharides: What are these “ring” forms?

- SUGARS WITH  $\geq 5$  CARBONS RAPIDLY AND STABLY FORM **RINGS** THROUGH HEMIACETAL (ALDOSES) AND HEMIKETAL (KETOSES) BONDS.

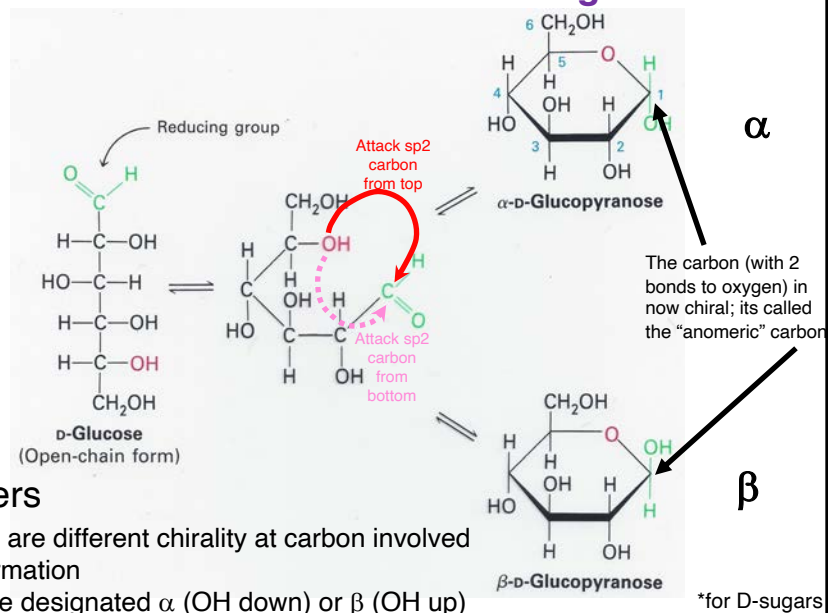
### Hemiacetals



- If the aldehyde ( $\text{R}^1$ ) and the alcohol ( $\text{R}^2$ ) are on the same molecule, you have a RING!
- Due to the oxygen, the ring is heterocyclic

# Carbohydrates

## Monosaccharides: What are these “ring” forms?



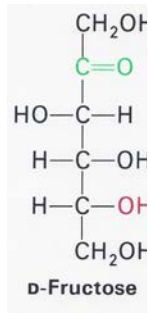
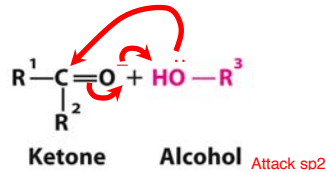
### •Anomers

- Anomers are different chirality at carbon involved in ring formation
- These are designated  $\alpha$  (OH down) or  $\beta$  (OH up)

# Carbohydrates

## Monosaccharides: What are these “ring” forms?

### Hemiketals



$\alpha$  (OH down) or  $\beta$  (OH up)

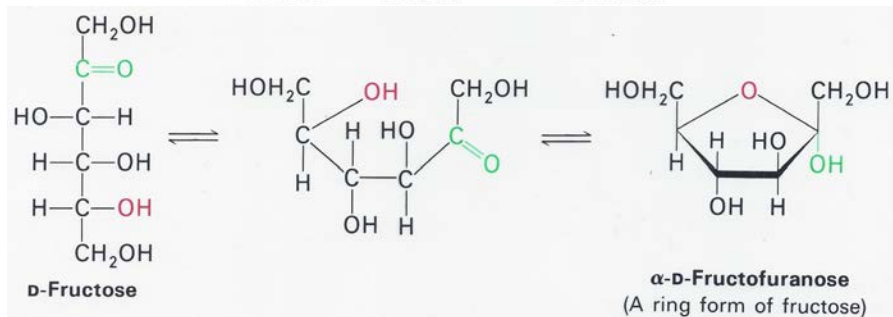
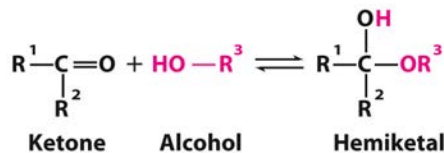
Besides the  $\alpha$  &  $\beta$ , what is this pyran and furan?

Its all about which alcohols are used in these reactions.

# Carbohydrates

## Monosaccharides: What are these “ring” forms?

### Hemiketals



$\alpha$  (OH down) or  $\beta$  (OH up)

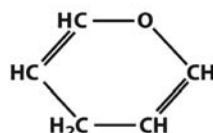
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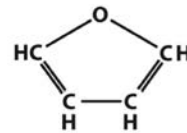
# Carbohydrates

## Monosaccharides: What are these “ring” forms?

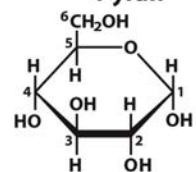
- Six-membered oxygen-containing rings are called **pyranoses** after the **pyran** ring structure.
- Five-membered oxygen-containing rings are called **furanoses** after the **furan** ring structure.



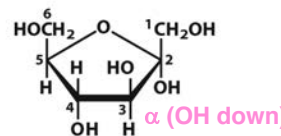
Pyran



Furan

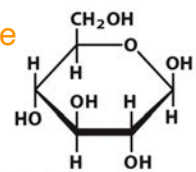


$\alpha$ -D-Glucopyranose

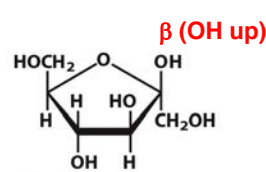


$\alpha$ -D-Fructofuranose

The way we are drawing these sugars is called a Haworth projection.....



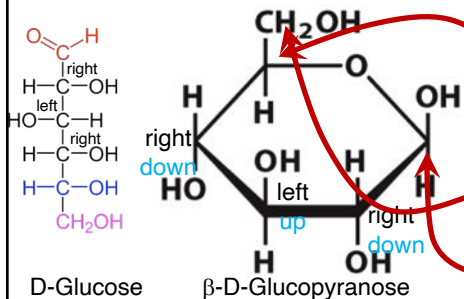
$\beta$ -D-Glucopyranose



$\beta$ -D-Fructofuranose

# Carbohydrates

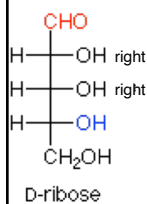
## Haworth projections



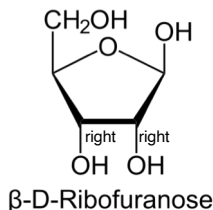
D-Glucose

$\beta$ -D-Glucopyranose

- Highest carbon with hemiacetal/hemiketal alcohol in back; oxygen to right.
- If chiral (as for D-sugars), next highest carbon up if D, or down if L.
- The **anomeric** carbon is usually drawn on the **right side**.
- Other chiral carbons are **down** if **right** in Fisher projection and **up** if **left** in Fisher
- $\beta$ -D-Glc pyranose goes **up**, **down**, **up**, **down**, **up** as you go from C5 to C1
- $\beta$ -D-Rib furanose goes **up**, **down**, **down**, **up** as you go from C4 to C1



D-ribose



$\beta$ -D-Ribofuranose

# Carbohydrates

- Pentoses and hexoses readily undergo intramolecular cyclization.
- The former carbonyl carbon becomes a new chiral center, called the **anomeric carbon**.

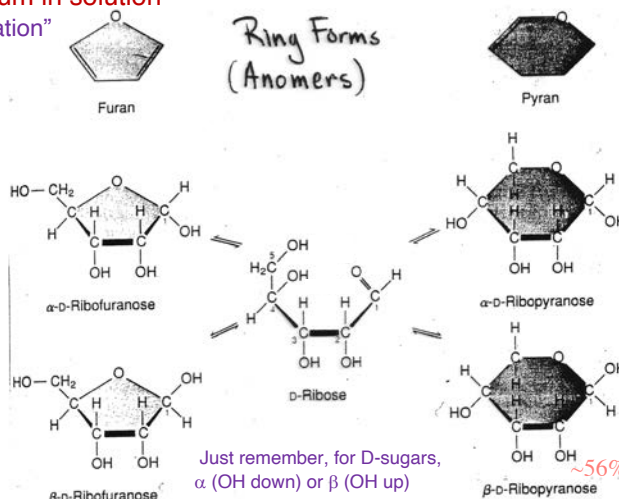
- ALL forms are in equilibrium in solution**

Process is called "mutarotation"

When the former carbonyl oxygen becomes a hydroxyl group, the position of this group determines if the anomer is  $\alpha$  or  $\beta$ .

If the hydroxyl group is on the opposite side (**trans**) of the ring as the  $\text{CH}_2\text{OH}$  moiety, the configuration is  $\alpha$ .

If the hydroxyl group is on the same side (**cis**) of the ring as the  $\text{CH}_2\text{OH}$  moiety, the configuration is  $\beta$ .



# Carbohydrates

Relative amounts of tautomeric forms for some monosaccharide sugars at equilibrium in water at 40°C<sup>a</sup>

Mono-saccharide	Relative Amount (%)				Total Furanose
	$\alpha$ -Pyranose	$\beta$ -Pyranose	$\alpha$ -Furanose	$\beta$ -Furanose	
→ Ribose	20	56	6	18	24
Lyxose	71	29	<sup>b</sup>	<sup>b</sup>	<1
Altrose	27	40	20	13	33
→ Glucose	36	64	<sup>b</sup>	<sup>b</sup>	<1
→ Mannose	67	33	<sup>b</sup>	<sup>b</sup>	<1
→ Fructose	3	57	9	31	40

<sup>a</sup>In all cases, the open-chain form is much less than 1%. For data on other sugars, see S. J. Angyal, The composition and conformation of sugars in solution, *Angew. Chem.* 8:157-226(1969).

<sup>b</sup>Much less than 1%.

Why is the  $\beta$ -Glc more stable than  $\alpha$ -Glc, and *visa versa* for Man?

to answer this, we need to look at **ACTUAL** structures.

These Haworth Projections are not the actual conformation.... What is?

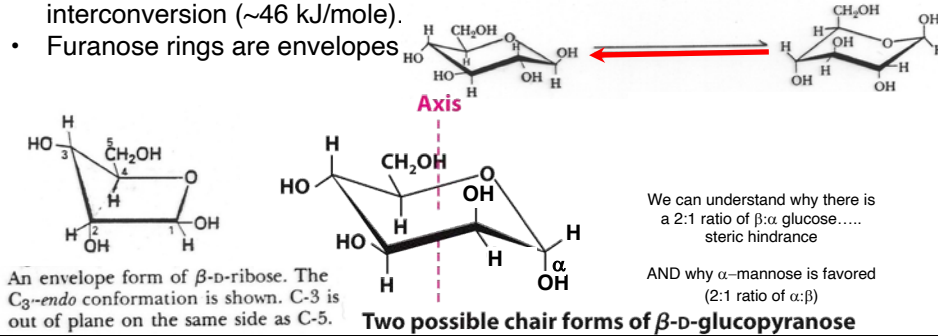
# Carbohydrates

## Actual Conformations of Cyclized Monosaccharides

- Cyclohexane rings have “chair” or “boat” conformations.



- Pyranose rings favor “chair” conformations.
- Multiple “chair” conformations are possible but require energy for interconversion ( $\sim 46$  kJ/mole).
- Furanose rings are envelopes



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Ch7; 241-250
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Ch7; 16,17,25,27

### NEXT

- Reading: Ch4; 188-199  
**Ch6; 178**  
Ch8; 295  
Ch10; 356-359  
Ch14; 530-531,534-535  
Ch16; 576, 590  
Ch17; 613-615  
Ch18; 629, 641-643

## Carbohydrates

### A. Definition

### B. Roles

### C. Monosaccharides-Chemistry

#### 1. Chirality

- a. One or more asymmetric carbons
- b. Linear and ring forms

#### 2. Derivatives: the chemistry of carbohydrates

- a. Oxidation
  - i. C1
  - ii. C6
- b. Reduction
  - i. C1/C2
  - ii. Other carbons
- c. Ester formation
- d. Amino sugars

#### 3. Polymerization

- a. The Glycosidic Bond
- b. Non-covalent bonds in macro-molecular structure

### D. Oligosaccharides

- 1. Glycoproteins & glycolipids
- 2. O-linked
- 3. N-linked
- 4. Sequence determination-ABO

### E. Polysaccharides

- 1. Polymers of glucose
- 2. Polymers of disaccharides

## Carbohydrates

### Monosaccharides: Chemistry

#### • Chemical Features:

##### – Chirality

- One or more asymmetric carbons
- Linear and ring forms

##### – Derivatives: the chemistry of carbohydrates

- ① • Oxidation
  - C1
  - C6
- ② • Reduction
  - C1/C2
  - Other carbons
- ③ • Ester formation
- ④ • Amino sugars

##### – Polymerization

- The Glycosidic Bond
- Non-covalent bonds in macro-molecular structure

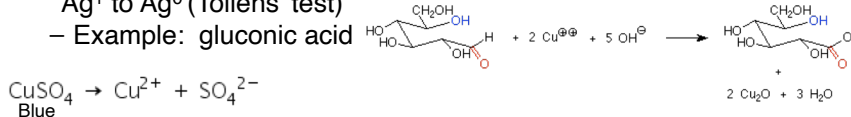
# Carbohydrates

①

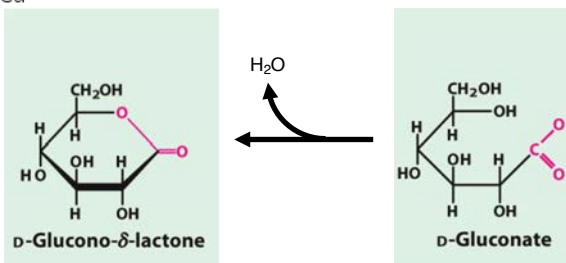
## Monosaccharides: Derivatives

**Oxidation:** These make “sugar acids” or “acid sugars”

- Oxidation of aldehyde/ketone to acid ( $2e^-$  loss); reaction from the C1 of aldoses
  - named as “onic” acids (“onate” for conjugate base)
  - these sugars can reduce  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  to  $\text{Cu}^+$  (Fehling’s/Benedict’s test) or  $\text{Ag}^+$  to  $\text{Ag}^0$  (Tollens’ test)
  - Example: gluconic acid



The copper is reduced and the sugar is oxidized. So, the sugar is called a **Reducing Sugar**. Reducing sugars have a free anomeric carbon.



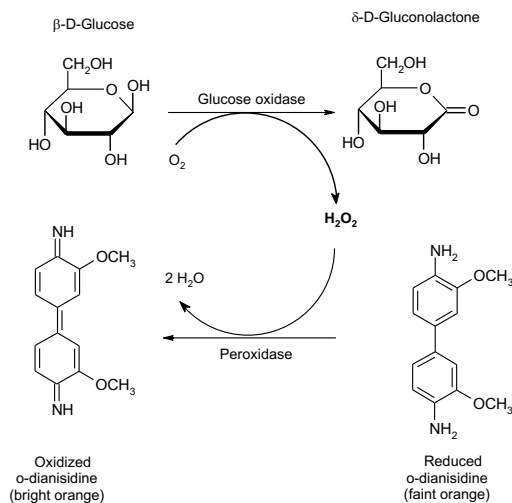
# Carbohydrates

①

## Monosaccharides: Derivatives

**Oxidation:** These make “sugar acids” or “acid sugars”

### Colorimetric Glucose Analysis



- Enzymatic methods are used to quantify reducing sugars such as glucose.
  - The enzyme **glucose oxidase** catalyzes the conversion of glucose to glucono- $\delta$ -lactone and hydrogen peroxide.
  - Hydrogen peroxide oxidizes organic molecules into highly colored compounds.
  - Concentrations of such compounds is measured colorimetrically.
- Electrochemical detection is used in portable glucose sensors.

# Carbohydrates

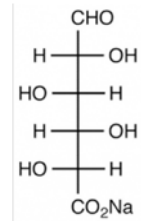
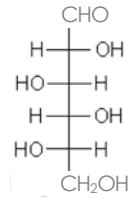
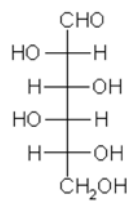
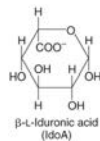
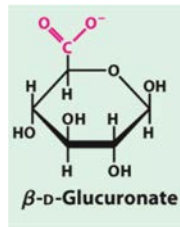
①

## Monosaccharides: Derivatives

**Oxidation:** These make “sugar acids” or “acid sugars”

Oxidation of alcohol to acid ( $4e^-$  loss)

- Reaction for C6 groups; like C1 oxidation, normally on aldoses
- Named as **uronic acids** (“uronate” for conjugate base)
- Many L-sugars are Uronic acids
- Examples: D-glucuronic acid, L-iduronic acid



# Carbohydrates

②

## Monosaccharides: Derivatives

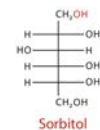
**Reduction:** These make “sugar alcohols” or “deoxysugars”

Reduction of aldehyde/ketone to alcohol ( $2e^-$  gain)

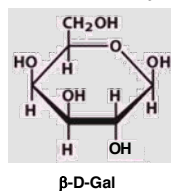
- Only carbon not already an alcohol is the anomeric carbon (C1/C2)
- Named as sugar “**ol**” or “**itol**”
- Examples: glycerol, mannitol, glucitol (**sorbitol**)

Reduction of alcohol carbon to methyl/methylene ( $2e^-$  gain)

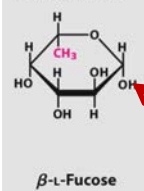
- Can react at any except the anomeric carbon
- Named as “**x-deoxy**” sugar with x being the reduced carbon
- Many are L-sugars, and have specific trivial names
- Examples: 2-deoxyribose, L-Fucose (Fuc) and L-Rhamnose (Rha)



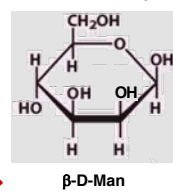
Fuc is also 6-deoxy L-Gal



**Deoxy sugars**



Rha is also 6-deoxy L-Man



Notice that for L-sugars the  $\beta$ -anomer is **down** and  $\alpha$ -anomer is **up**



# Carbohydrates

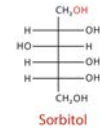
②

## Monosaccharides: Derivatives

**Reduction:** These make “sugar alcohols” or “deoxysugars”

Reduction of aldehyde/ketone to alcohol ( $2e^-$  gain)

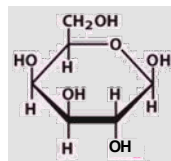
- Only carbon not already an alcohol is the anomeric carbon (C1/C2)
- Named as sugar “ol” or “itol”
- Examples: glycerol, mannitol, glucitol (**sorbitol**)



Reduction of alcohol carbon to methyl/methylene ( $2e^-$  gain)

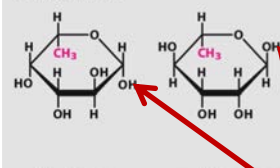
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- Named as “x-deoxy” sugar with x being the reduced carbon
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Fuc is also 6-deoxy L-Gal



$\beta$ -D-Gal

### Deoxy sugars

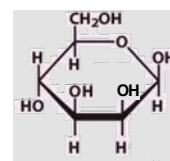


$\beta$ -L-Fucose

$\alpha$ -L-Rhamnose

Notice that for L-sugars the  $\beta$ -anomer is **down** and  $\alpha$ -anomer is **up**

Rha is also 6-deoxy L-Man



$\beta$ -D-Man

# Carbohydrates

## Monosaccharides: Chemistry

### • Chemical Features:

#### – Chirality

- One or more asymmetric carbons
- Linear and ring forms

#### – Derivatives: the chemistry of carbohydrates

##### ① • Oxidation

- C1 **-onic**
- C6 **-uronic**

##### ② • Reduction

- C1/C2 **-tol**
- Other carbons **deoxy-**

##### ③ • Ester formation

##### ④ • Amino sugars

#### – Polymerization

- The Glycosidic Bond
- Non-covalent bonds in macro-molecular structure

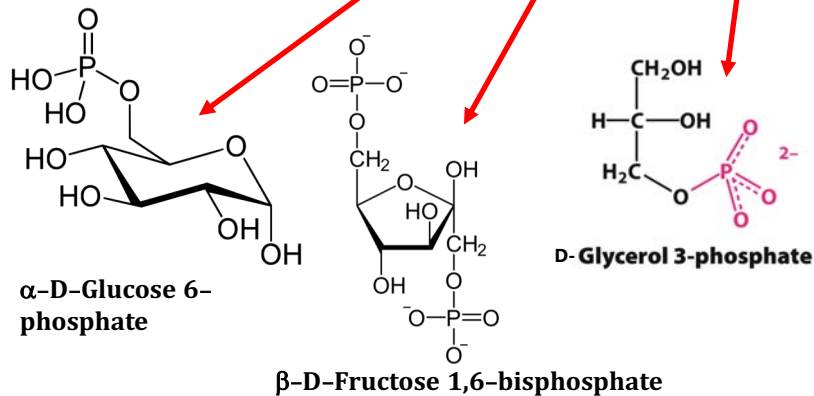
# Carbohydrates

③

## Monosaccharides: Derivatives

**Esters:** condensation of alcohol (sugar) and an acid

- Most important sugar esters use a phosphoric acid
  - These are called phospho-sugars or sugar phosphates
  - Examples: nucleotides, Glc 6-P, Fru 1,6-P<sub>2</sub>, glycerol 3-phosphate



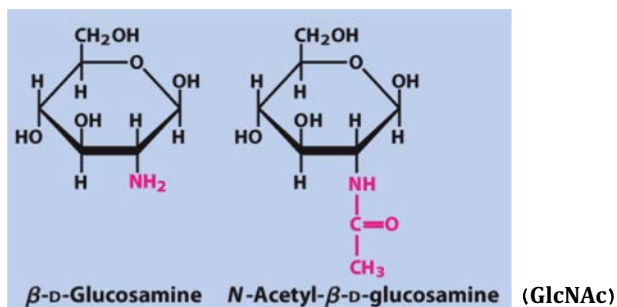
# Carbohydrates

④

## Monosaccharides: Derivatives

**Amines:** condensation of alcohol (sugar) and ammonia

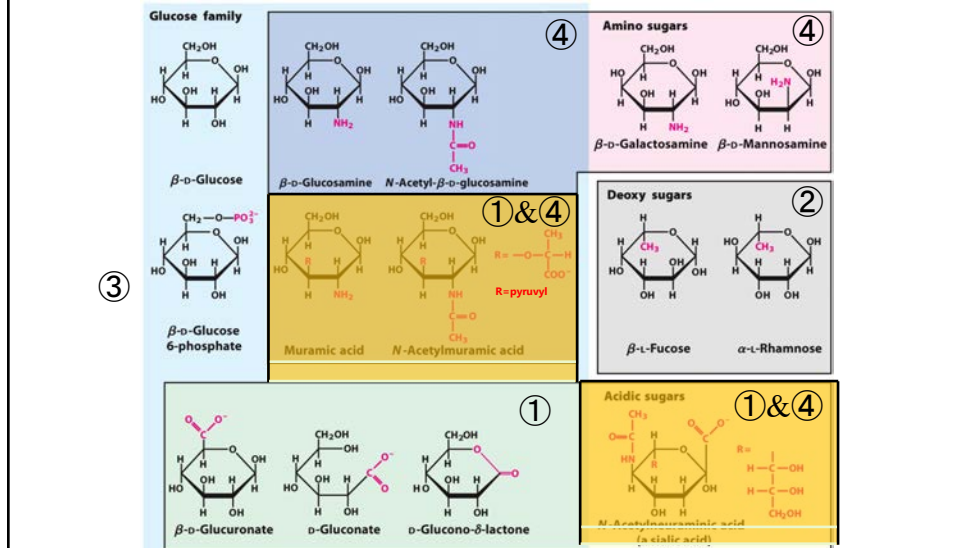
- These are called amino-sugars
- In biology, its ALWAYS at C2
- Often, the amino group will be further modified by an acetyl group (CH<sub>3</sub>CO-) making an amide
- Named as sugar“amine” and when acetylated, the “N-acetyl” comes first. When abbreviation used “NAc” it comes after.
- Examples: glucosamine, N-acetyl-glucosamine (GlcNAc)



# Carbohydrates

## Monosaccharides: Derivatives

### Important Hexose Derivatives



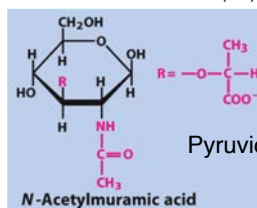
# Carbohydrates

①&④

## Monosaccharides: Derivatives

Muramic acid

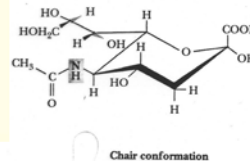
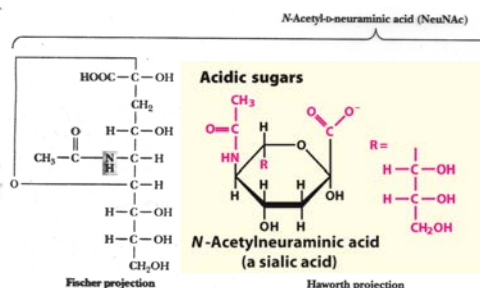
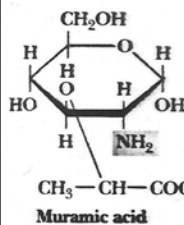
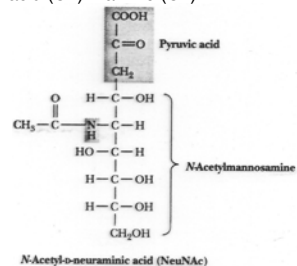
Combined acid (C3) + amine (C2)



Pyruvic acid =  $\text{H}_3\text{C}-\text{C}(=\text{O})-\text{COO}^-$

Sialic Acid (Sia) (aka NeuNAc)

Combined acid (C1) + amine (C2)



## Carbohydrates

---

### Monosaccharides: Chemistry

- **Chemical Features:**

- Chirality

- One or more asymmetric carbons
    - Linear and ring forms

- Derivatives: the chemistry of carbohydrates

- Oxidation
      - C1
      - C6
    - Reduction
      - C1/C2
      - Other carbons
    - Ester formation
    - Amino sugars

- Polymerization

- The Glycosidic Bond
    - Non-covalent bonds in macro-molecular structure

## Carbohydrates

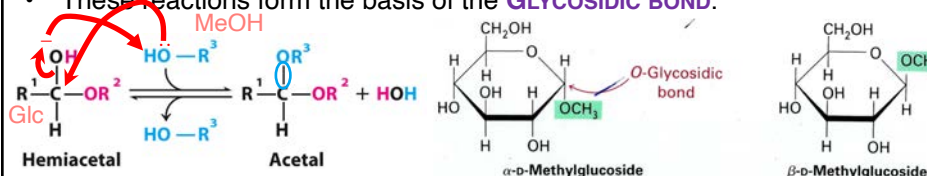
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# The Glycosidic Bond

# Carbohydrates

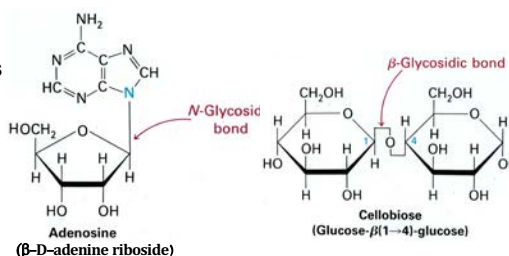
Hemiacetals and Hemiketals are reactive to alcohols in condensation reactions

- Hemiacetals condense with alcohols to form Acetals.
- Hemiketals condense with alcohols to form Ketals.
- These reactions form the basis of the GLYCOSIDIC BOND.



- Two sugar molecules can be joined via a glycosidic bond between an anomeric carbon (the hemiacetal/hemiketal) and a hydroxyl carbon (the other sugar).
- The glycosidic bond between sugars is stable and does not readily hydrolyze.
- The anomeric carbon involved in the glycosidic linkage is fixed in its chirality and is therefore nonreducing.
- The second monomer, with its unreacted hemiacetal, is still reducing.

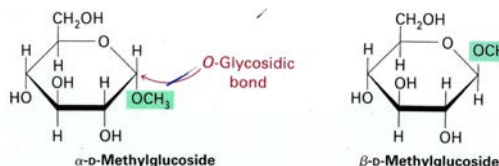
## The Glycosidic Bond



# Carbohydrates

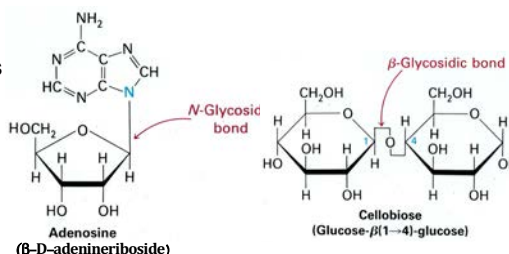
Hemiacetals and Hemiketals are reactive to alcohols in CONDENSATION reactions

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## The Glycosidic Bond



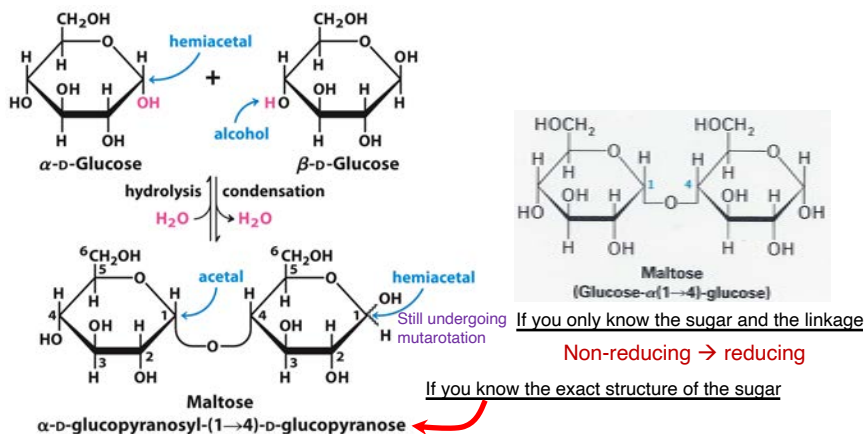
# Carbohydrates

## Disaccharides

# Carbohydrates

## Disaccharides:

- Disaccharides can be named by the organization and linkage or a common name.
  - The disaccharide formed upon condensation of two glucose molecules via a 1 → 4 bond is described as α-D-glucopyranosyl-(1→4)-D-glucopyranose.
  - The common name for this disaccharide is maltose.



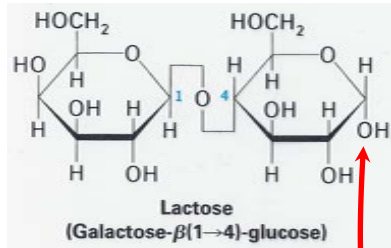
As we make sugar-polymers, the convention is to have the **non-reducing** sugar to the **LEFT** and the **reducing** end at the **RIGHT**.

# Carbohydrates

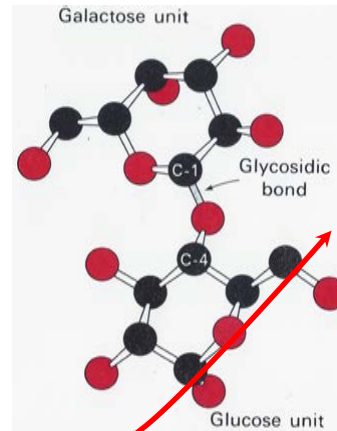
## Disaccharides:

Here is likely the first disaccharide you encountered in your life:

**Lactose.**



Non-reducing → reducing



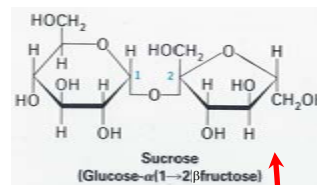
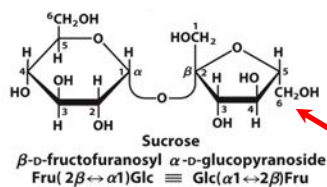
Still undergoing mutarotation

# Carbohydrates

## Disaccharides:

Here is likely the disaccharide you ingest the most:

**Sucrose.**



Notice that these are drawn upside down

Trehalose

Nonreducing Disaccharides

- Two sugar molecules can be also joined in a **glycosidic bond** between two anomeric carbons.
- The product has two acetal groups and no hemiacetals or hemiketals.
- There are **no reducing ends**; this is a nonreducing sugar.

# Carbohydrates

## Polysaccharides

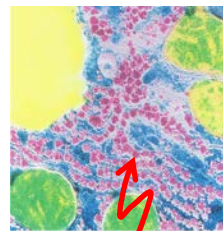
- The majority of natural carbohydrates are usually found as large polymers.
- These polysaccharides can be:
  - homopolysaccharides (one monomer unit)
  - heteropolysaccharides (multiple monomer units)
  - linear (one type of glycosidic bond)
  - branched (multiple types of glycosidic bonds)
- Polysaccharides do not have a defined molecular weight.
  - This is in contrast to proteins because, unlike proteins, no template is used to make polysaccharides.
  - Polysaccharides are often in a state of flux; monomer units are added and removed as needed by the organism.

# Carbohydrates

## Polysaccharides: Polymers of Glucose

### Homopolymers of Glucose:

- Starch
- Glycogen
- Cellulose
- Chitin



- Glycogen and Starch are the main storage polysaccharides for energy.
  - Glycogen and starch are insoluble due to their high molecular weight and often form granules in cells.
  - Molecular weight reaches several millions ( $\sim 200 \times 10^6$ ) (can see in microscope).
- Glycogen is a branched homopolysaccharide of glucose.
  - Glucose monomers form  $\alpha(1 \rightarrow 4)$  linked chains.
  - There are branch points with  $\alpha(1 \rightarrow 6)$  linkers every 8–12 residues.
- Starch is a mixture of two homopolysaccharides of glucose.
  - Amylopectin is like glycogen, but the branch points ( $\alpha(1 \rightarrow 6)$  linkages) occur every 24–30 residues.
  - Amylose is an unbranched polymer of  $\alpha(1 \rightarrow 4)$  linked residues.

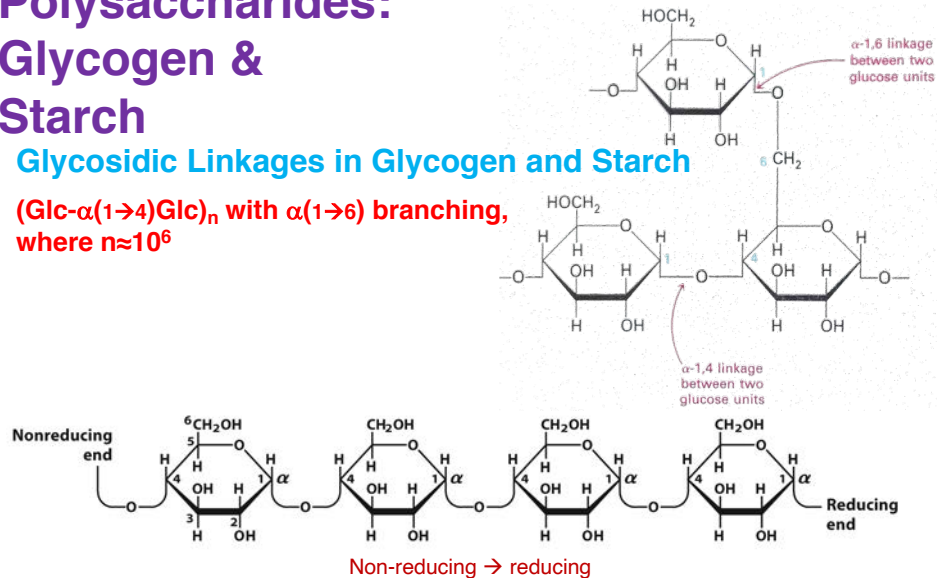


# Carbohydrates

## Polysaccharides: Glycogen & Starch

### Glycosidic Linkages in Glycogen and Starch

(Glc- $\alpha(1\rightarrow4)$ Glc)<sub>n</sub> with  $\alpha(1\rightarrow6)$  branching, where  $n \approx 10^6$

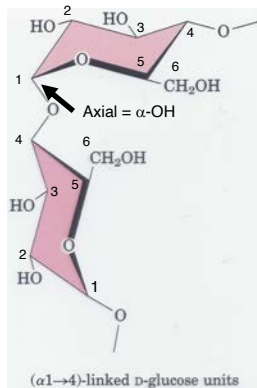


Haworth projections are not good to show the actual shape, which is helical!

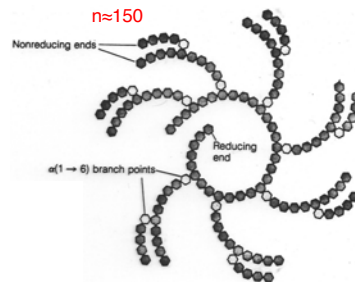
# Carbohydrates

## Polysaccharides: Glycogen & Starch

I<sub>2</sub>



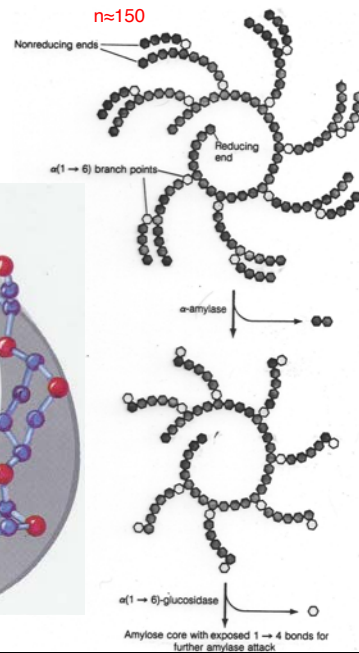
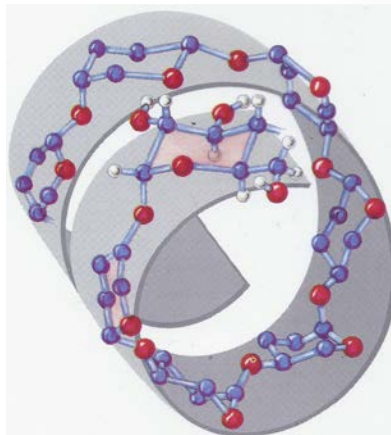
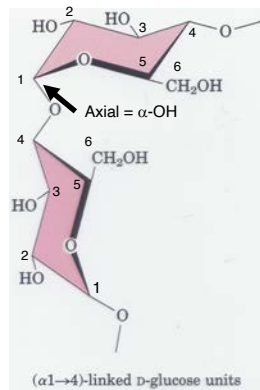
- Granules contain enzymes that synthesize and degrade these polymers.
- Glycogen and amylopectin have **one** reducing end but **many nonreducing ends**.
- Enzymatic processing occurs simultaneously in many nonreducing ends.



# Carbohydrates

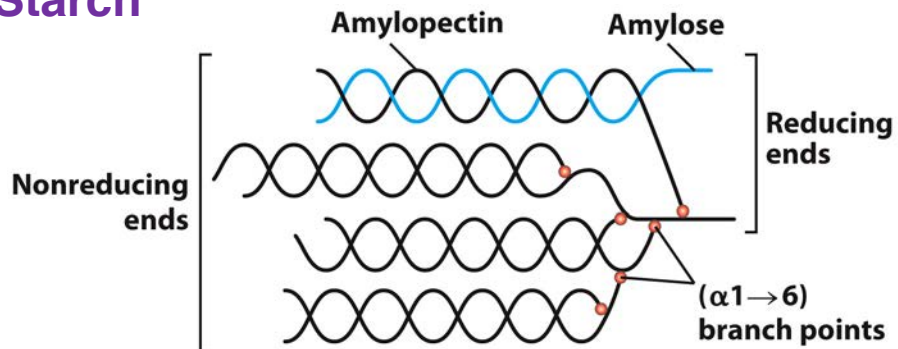
## Polysaccharides: Glycogen & Starch

$I_2$



# Carbohydrates

## Polysaccharides: Glycogen & Starch



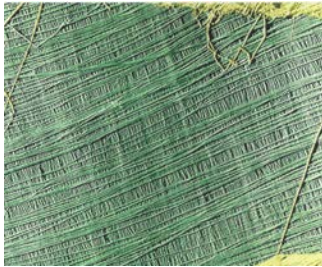
Mixture of Amylose and Amylopectin in Starch

# Carbohydrates

## Polysaccharides:

### Homopolymers of Glucose:

- Starch
- Glycogen
- Cellulose
- Chitin

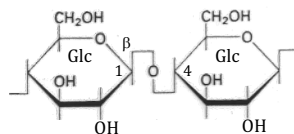


- Cellulose is a **linear** homopolysaccharide of **glucose**.
  - Glucose monomers form  $\beta(1 \rightarrow 4)$  linked chains.
  - **Hydrogen bonds** form between adjacent monomers.
  - There are additional H-bonds between chains.
  - Structure is now tough and water insoluble.
  - It makes up almost 50% of plant mass; in cell walls.
  - Cotton is nearly pure fibrous cellulose.
- Chitin is a linear homopolysaccharide of **N-acetylglucosamine (GlcNAc)**.
  - **N-acetylglucosamine** monomers form  $\beta(1 \rightarrow 4)$ -linked chains.
  - forms **extended fibers that are similar to those of cellulose**
  - hard, insoluble, cannot be digested by vertebrates
  - structure is tough but flexible, and water insoluble
  - found in cell walls in mushrooms and in exoskeletons of insects, spiders, crabs, and other arthropods

# Carbohydrates

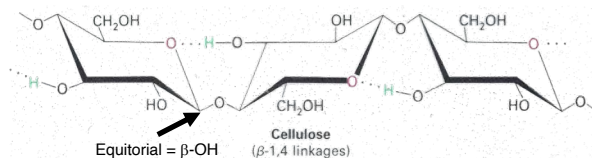
## Polysaccharides:

### Cellulose & Chitin

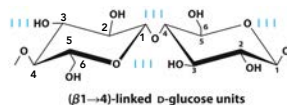


### Glycosidic Linkages in Cellulose & Chitin

(Glc- $\beta(1 \rightarrow 4)$ Glc)<sub>n</sub> with **NO** branching,  
n  $\approx 10^4$



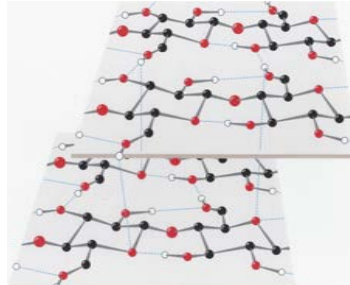
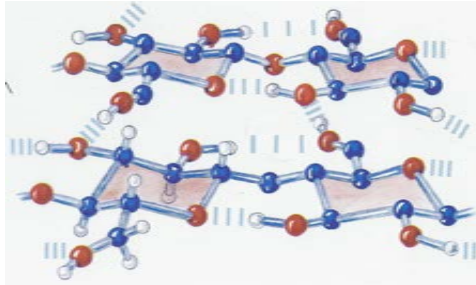
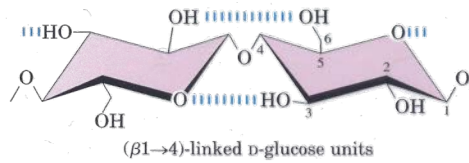
Notice that each chair is alternatively flipped



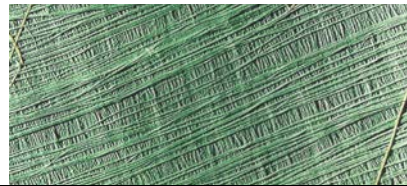
THE most abundant biological molecule in the world: ~300 trillion kg

# Carbohydrates

## Polysaccharides: Cellulose & Chitin



- The fibrous structure and water insolubility make cellulose a difficult substrate to act upon.
- Most animals cannot use cellulose as a fuel source because they lack the enzyme to hydrolyze β(1→4) linkages (β-Amylase or cellulase).
- Fungi, bacteria, and protozoa secrete **cellulase**, which allows them to use wood as source of glucose.
- **Ruminants and termites** live symbiotically with microorganisms that produce cellulase and are able to absorb the freed glucose into their bloodstreams.
- Cellulases hold promise in the fermentation of biomass into biofuels.



# Carbohydrates

## Polysaccharides: Cellulose & Chitin



A Sally lightfoot crab. The exoskeleton of this arthropod is rich in chitin, one of the most abundant biopolymers on earth.

