

CARBOHYDRATES: STRUCTURE AND FUNCTION

By

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Objectives



- To understand the structure of carbohydrates of physiological significance
- To understand the main role of carbohydrates in providing and storing of energy
- To understand the structure and function of glycosaminoglycans

OVERVIEW

Carbohydrates:

The most abundant organic molecules in nature

The empiric formula is $(\text{CH}_2\text{O})_n$, “hydrates of carbon”

Carbohydrates:

- provide important part of energy in diet

- Act as the storage form of energy in the body

- are structural component of cell membrane

OVERVIEW

CONT'D

- Many diseases associated with disorders of carbohydrate metabolism including:

Diabetes mellitus

Galactosemia

Glycogen storage diseases

Lactose intolerance

CLASSIFICATION

- **Monosaccharides:** Simple sugar
- **Disaccharides:** 2 monosaccharide units
- **Oligosaccharides:** 3-10 monosaccharide units
- **Polysaccharides:** more than 10 sugar units
Homopolysaccharides and heteropolysaccharides

Monosaccharides

Further classified based on:

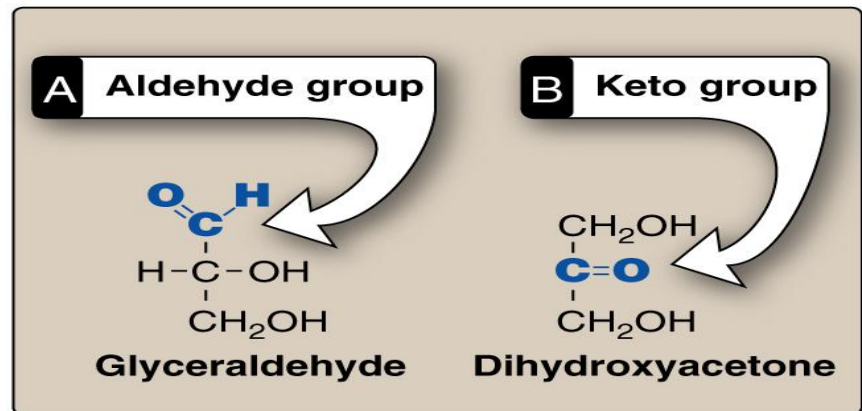
1. No. of carbon atoms

| <u>Generic names</u> | <u>Examples</u> |
|----------------------|-----------------|
| 3 carbons: trioses | Glyceraldehyde |
| 4 carbons: tetroses | Erythrose |
| 5 carbons: pentoses | Ribose |
| 6 carbons: hexoses | Glucose |
| 7 carbons: heptoses | Sedoheptulose |
| 9 carbons: nonoses | Neuraminic acid |

2. Functional sugar group:

Aldehyde group – aldoses

Keto group – ketoses



Monosaccharides

CONT'D

| | Aldose | Ketose |
|---------|----------------|------------------|
| Triose | Glyceraldehyde | Dihydroxyacetone |
| Pentose | Ribose | Ribulose |
| Hexose | Glucose | Fructose |

Disaccharides

- **Joining of 2 monosaccharides by O-glycosidic bond:**

Maltose (α -1, 4) = glucose + glucose

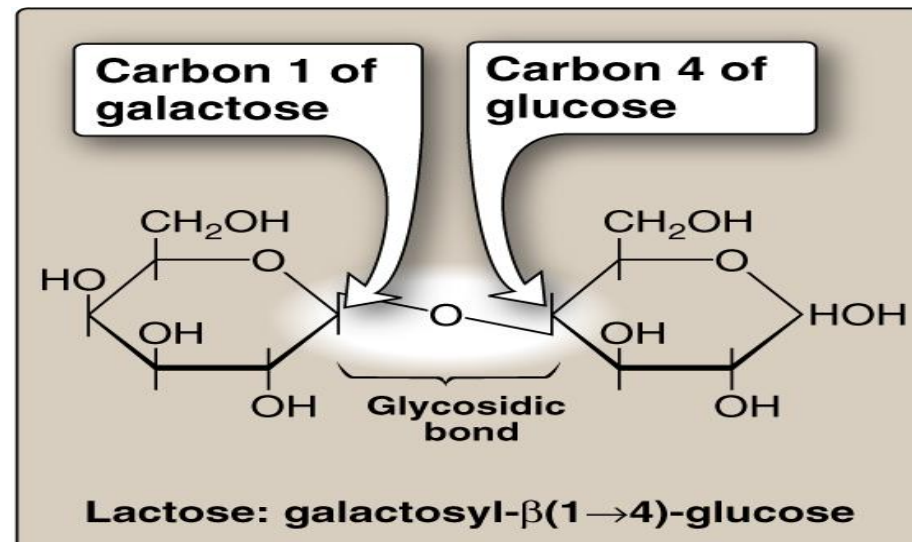
Sucrose (α -1,2) = glucose + fructose

Lactose (β -1,4) = glucose + galactose

Disaccharides

CONT'D

Lactose



Polysaccharides

- **Homopolysaccharides:**

Branched: glycogen and starch (α -glycosidic polymer)

Unbranched: cellulose (β -glycosidic polymer)

- **Heteropolysaccharides:**

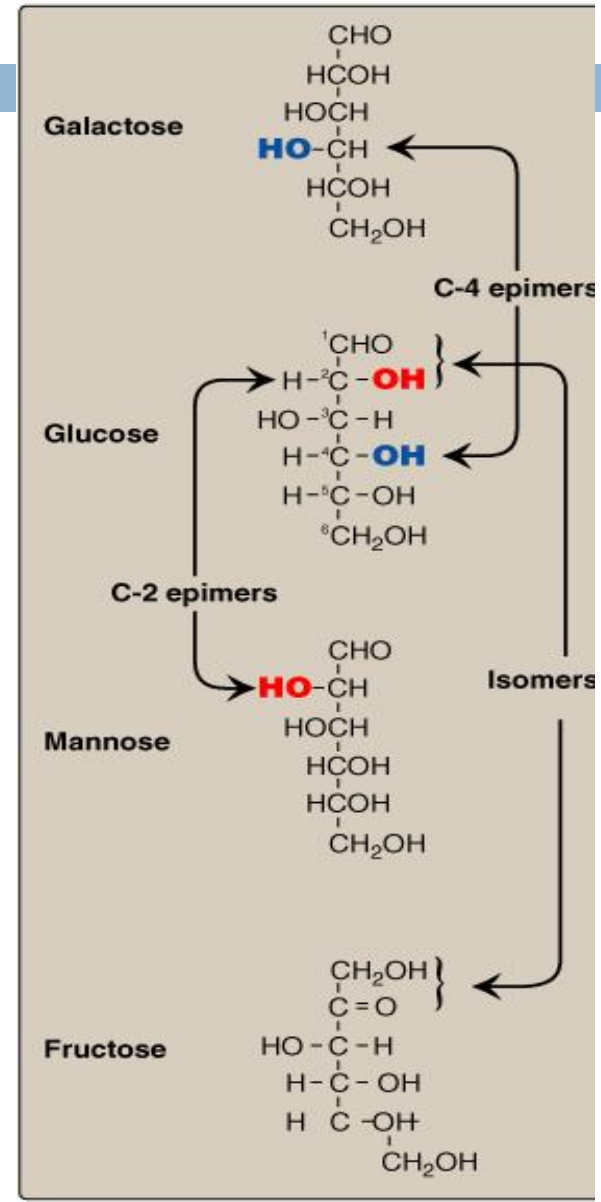
e.g., glycosaminoglycans (GAGs)

Isomerism

□ Isomers

Compounds having same chemical formula but different structural formula

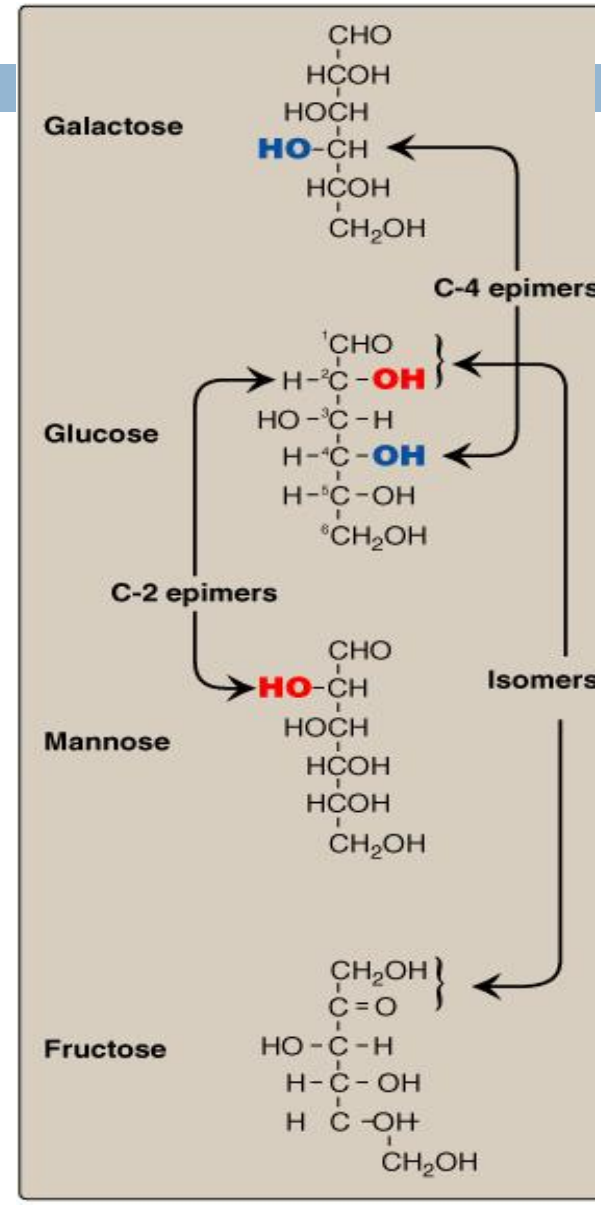
The No. of isomers depends on the No. of asymmetric C



Aldo-Keto Isomers

Example:

Glucose and fructose



Epimers

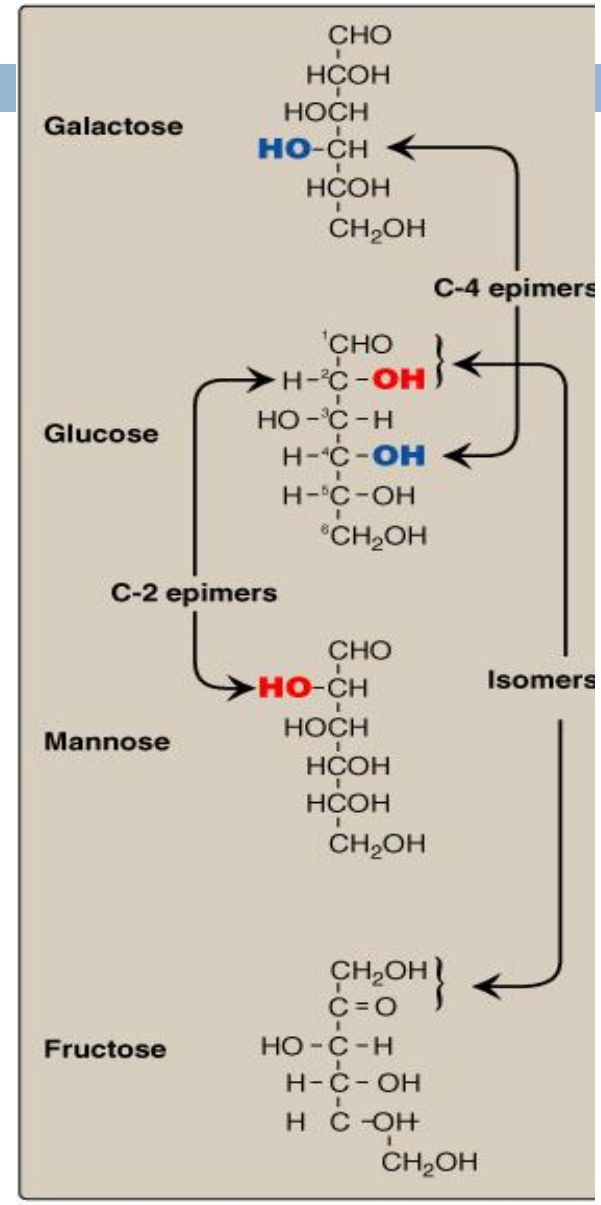
□ Epimers

CHO dimers that differ in configuration around only one specific carbon atom

-Glucose and galactose, C4

-Glucose and Mannose, C2

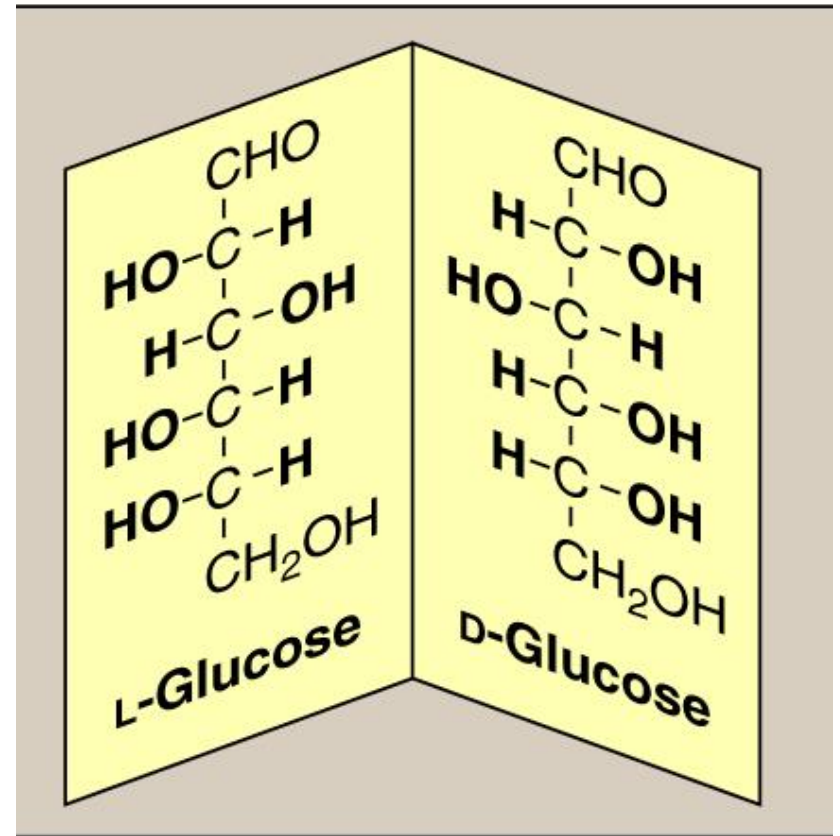
Galactose and mannose **are not** epimers



Enantiomers (D- and L-Forms)

Structures that are **mirror images** of each other and are designated as D- and L- sugars based on the position of -OH grp on the **asymmetric carbon farthest from the carbonyl carbon**

Majority of sugars in humans are **D-sugars**



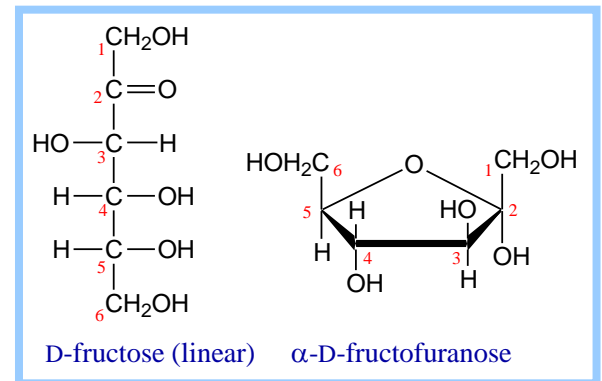
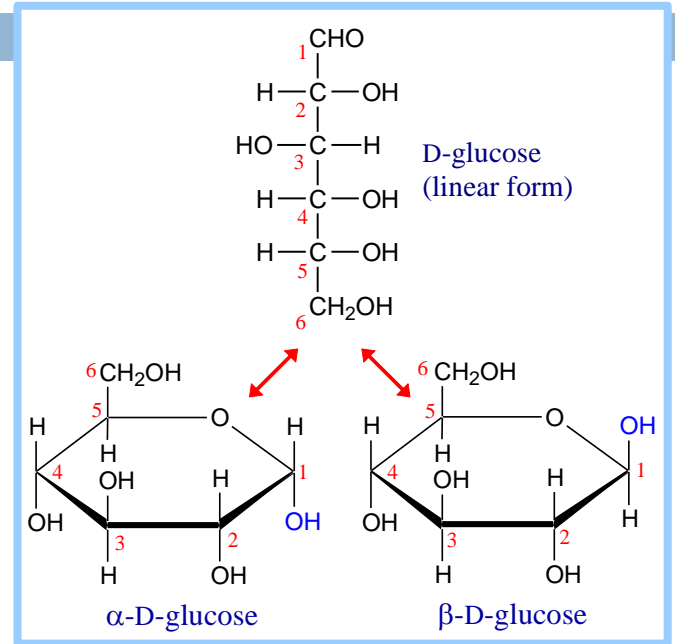
α - and β -Forms

□ Cyclization of Monosaccharides

Monosaccharides with 5 or more carbon are predominantly found in the ring form

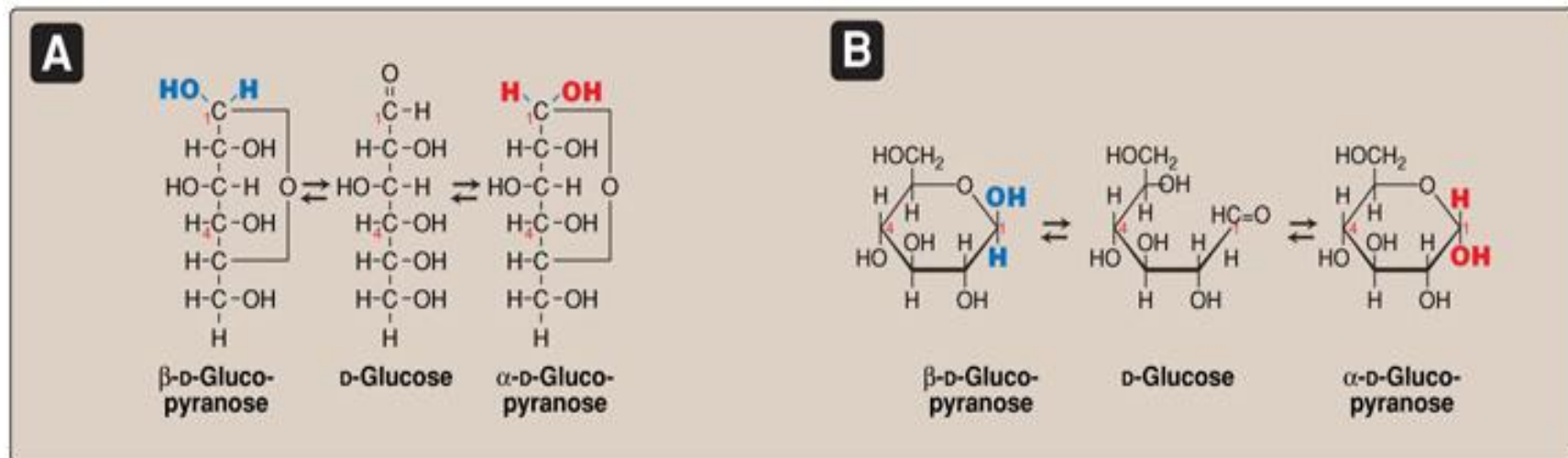
-The aldehyde or ketone grp reacts with the -OH grp on the same sugar

-Cyclization creates an **anomeric carbon** (former carbonyl carbon) generating the α and β configurations



Mutarotation

In solution, the cyclic α and β anomers of a sugar are in equilibrium with each other, and can be interconverted spontaneously



Fischer Projection

Haworth Projection

Sugar Isomers

1. Aldo-keto
2. Epimers
3. D- and L-Forms
4. α - and β -anomers

Reducing Sugars

- If the O on the anomeric C of a sugar is not attached to any other structure, that sugar can act as a reducing agent
- Reducing sugars reduce chromogenic agents like Benedict's reagent or Fehling's solution to give a colored precipitate
- Urine is tested for the presence of reducing sugars using these colorimetric tests

Reducing Sugars

CONT'D

□ Examples:

Monosaccharides

Maltose and Lactose

Sucrose is non-reducing, Why?

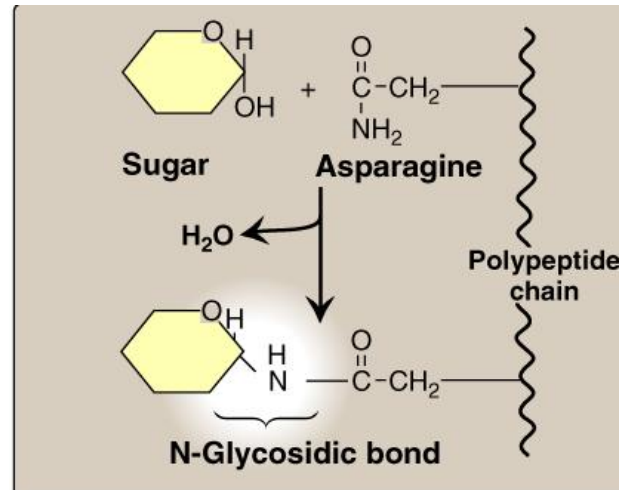
Complex Carbohydrates

- Carbohydrates attached to non-carbohydrate structures by glycosidic bonds (O- or N-type)
e.g.,

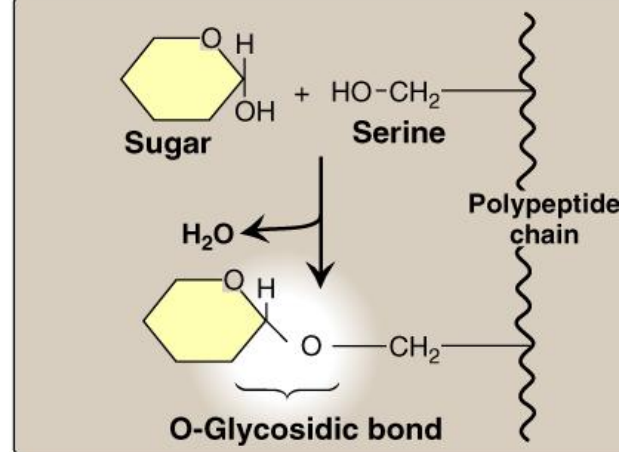
1. Purine and pyrimidine bases in nucleic acids
2. Bilirubin
3. Proteins in glycoproteins and proteoglycans
4. Lipids found in glycolipids

Glycosidic Bonds

□ N-Glycosidic



□ O-Glycosidic



Glycosaminoglycans (GAGs)

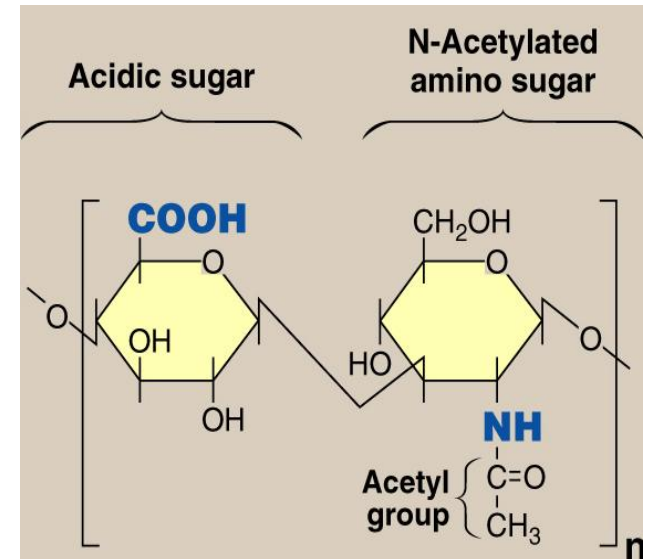
- Glycosaminoglycans (GAGs) are large complexes of **negatively** charged **heteropolysaccharide** chains
- are associated with a small amount of protein, forming **proteoglycans**, which consist of over 95 percent carbohydrate
- bind with large amounts of water, producing the gel-like matrix that forms body's ground substance
- The viscous, lubricating properties of mucous secretions also result from GAGs, which led to the original naming of these compounds as **mucopolysaccharides**

Glycosaminoglycans (GAGs)

- **GAGs** are linear polymers of **repeating disaccharide** units

[acidic sugar-amino sugar] $_n$

- The amino sugar (usually sulfated) is either D-glucosamine or D-galactosamine
- The acidic sugar is either D-glucuronic acid or L-iduronic acid
- GAGs are strongly negatively-charged:
carboxyl groups of acidic sugars
Sulfate groups



Resilience of GAGs

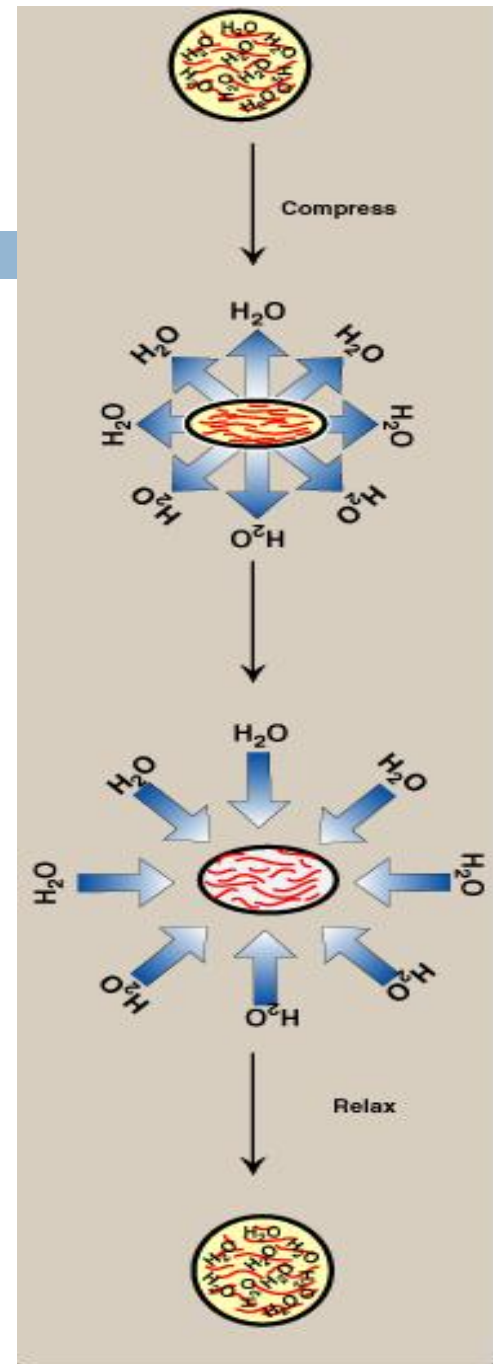
Relationship between glycosaminoglycan structure and function

- Because of negative charges, the GAG chains tend to be extended in solution and repel each other and when brought together, they "slip" past each other

This produces the **"slippery" consistency of mucous secretions and synovial fluid**

- When a solution of GAGs is compressed, the water is "squeezed out" and the GAGs are forced to occupy a smaller volume. When the compression is released, the GAGs spring back to their original, hydrated volume because of the repulsion of their negative charges

This property contributes to the **resilience of synovial fluid and the vitreous humor of the eye**



Members of GAGs

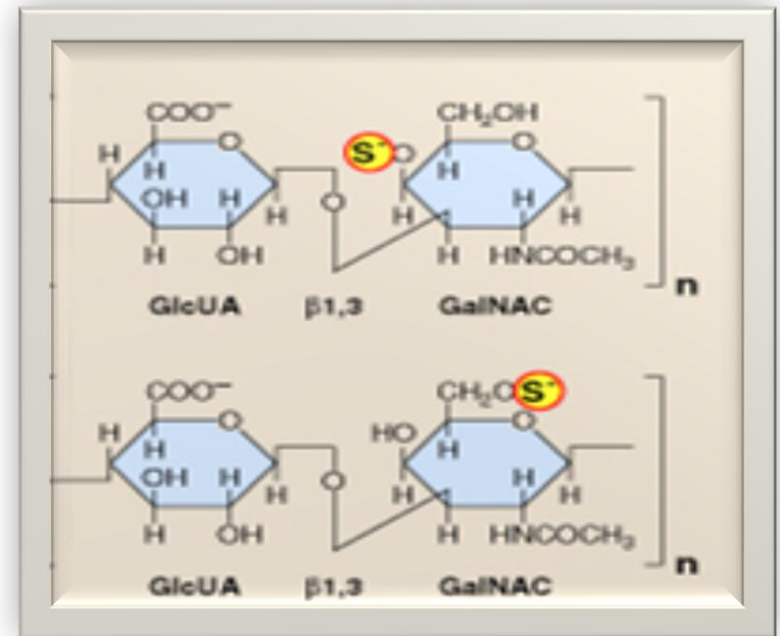
Examples of GAGs are:

- 1. Chondroitin sulfates**
- 2. Keratan sulfates**
- 3. Hyaluronic acid**
- 4. Heparin**

CHONDROITIN SULFATES

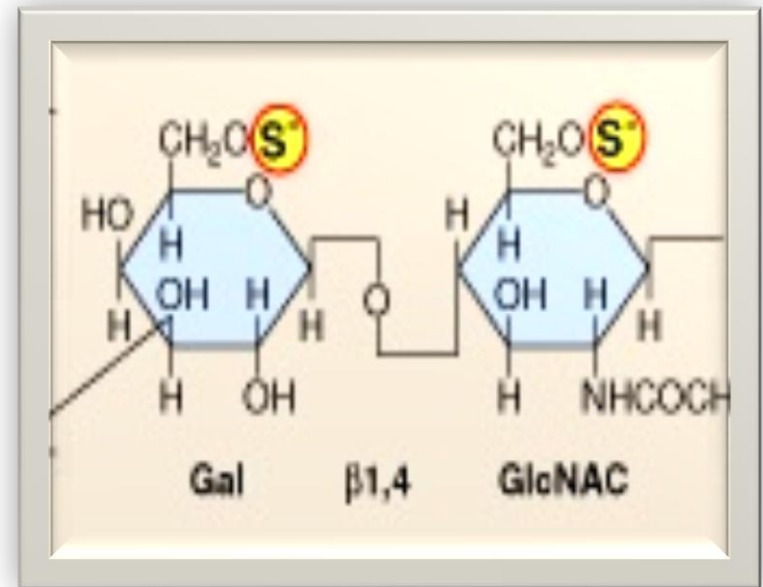
- Disaccharide unit:

Sulfated N-acetylgalactosamine
Glucuronic acid
- Most abundant GAG in the body
- Form proteoglycan aggregates
- Found in cartilage, tendons, ligaments, and aorta
- In cartilage, they bind collagen and hold fibers in a tight, strong network



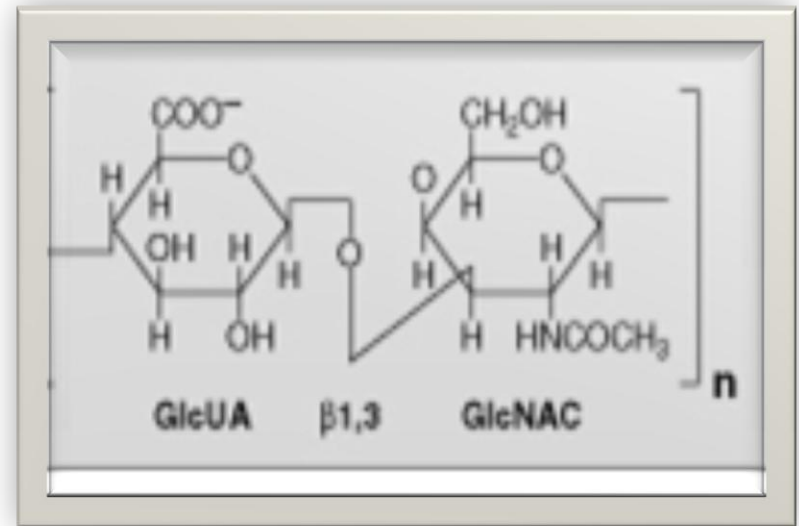
KERATAN SULFATES

- Disaccharide unit:
N-acetylglucosamine
Galactose (no uronic acid)
- Sulfate content is variable and may be present on C-6 of either sugar
- Most heterogeneous GAGs
- Present in loose connective tissue and cornea



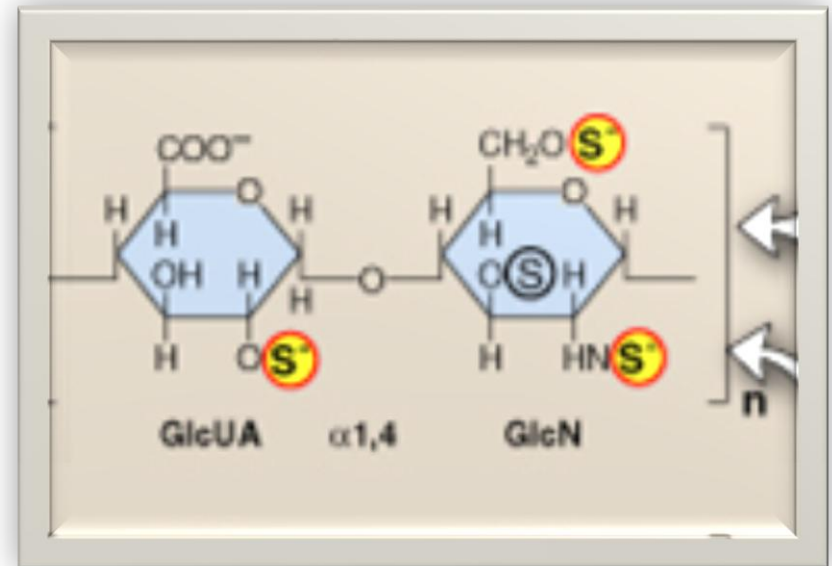
HYALURONIC ACID

- Disaccharide unit:
 - N-acetylglucosamine
 - Glucuronic acid
- Different from other GAGs:
 - Unsulfated
 - Not covalently attached to protein
 - The only GAG found in bacteria
- Serves as a lubricant and shock absorber
- Found in synovial fluid of joints, vitreous humor of the eye, the umbilical cord, and cartilage



HEPARIN

- Disaccharide unit:
Glucosamine and
Glucuronic or iduronic acids
- Sulfate is found on glucosamine and uronic acid
(an average of 2.5 **S** per disaccharide unit)
- Unlike other GAGs that are extracellular, heparin is an **intracellular** component of mast cells that line arteries, especially liver, lungs and skin
- Serves as **anticoagulant**



Take home Message

Structure and function of carbohydrates

- Mono-, Di-, and Poly-saccharides
- Sugar Isomers: Aldo-keto, epimers, D- and L-, α - and β -anomers
- Complex carbohydrates:
e.g., Glycosaminoglycans and proteoglycans
- Structure and function of GAGs
- Examples of GAGs: chondroitin sulfate, keratin sulfate, hyaluronic acid and heparin