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1 2	Photochemical depolymerisation of dermatan sulfate and analysis of the generated oligosaccharides.				
3	Charalampos G. Panagos, <sup>a,b</sup> David P. August, <sup>a</sup> Christine Jesson, <sup>b</sup> Dušan Uhrín <sup>a,*</sup>				
4 5 6 7	<sup>a</sup> EastChem School of Chemistry, The University of Edinburgh, King´s Buildings, David Brewster Road , Edinburgh EH9 3FJ, United Kingdom. <sup>b</sup> GlycoMar Ltd, European Centre for Marine Biotechnology, Oban, Scotland, PA37 1QA, United Kingdom.				
8 9 10 11	*To whom correspondence should be addressed: EaStCHEM School of Chemistry, Joseph Black Bldg., The King's Buildings, University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh, EH9 3FJ, United Kingdom. Tel.: 44-131-650- 4742; Fax: 44-131-650-7155; E-mail: dusan.uhrin@ed.ac.uk.				
12	Abstract				
13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 23	Radical depolymerisation is the method of choice for the depolymerisation of glycosaminoglycans (GAGs), especially when enzymatic depolymerisation cannot be performed due to the lack of suitable enzymes. The established Fenton type free radical depolymerisation generates radicals from a solution of $H_2O_2$ in the presence of $Cu^{2+}$ or $Fe^{2+}$ . When applied to dermatan sulfate (DS), the Fenton type depolymerisation of DS (Panagos, Thomson, Bavington & Uhrin, 2012)produced exclusively oligosaccharides with reducing end GalNAc , which was partially oxidized to acetylgalactosaminic acid. We report here the results of the TiO <sub>2</sub> catalyzed photochemical depolymerisation of DS. NMR analysis of these DS oligosaccharides revealed the presence of reducing end IdoA, observed for the first time. The reducing end acetylgalactosaminic acid was also detected. The photochemical depolymerisation method thus enables preparation of new types of GAG oligosaccharides suitable for further biochemical and biological investigation.				
25	Highlights				
26 27 28 29 30 31	<ul> <li>Free radical photochemical depolymerisation generates GAG oligosaccharides.</li> <li>The structures of DS oligosaccharides were studied by NMR.</li> <li>Oligosaccharides with uronic acid as the reducing end monosaccharides were found.</li> <li>Acetylgalactosaminic reducing end monosaccharides were also generated.</li> <li>No desulfation of the generated oligosaccharides was found.</li> </ul>				
32	Keywords				
33	NMR; glycosaminoglycans; dermatan sulfate; photochemical depolymerisation.				

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#### 36 Chemical compounds studied in this article

Phosphate-buffered saline (PubChem CID: 24978514); Titanium dioxide (PubChem CID: 26042),
Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (PubChem CID: 6049), Trimethylsilyl propionate (PubChem CID: 519321), Dermatan sulfate (Pubchem CID:32756).

#### 40 Abbreviations

41 GAGs, glycosaminoglycans; LMWH, low molecular weight heparin; DS, dermatan sulfate; GalNAc, N-

42 acetylgalactosamine; IdoA, iduronic Acid; HSQC, Heteronuclear single quantum coherence; TOCSY, Total

43 correlation spectroscopy; HMBC, Heteronuclear multiple bond coherence;

44

#### 1. Introduction

45 46

Glycosaminoglycans (GAGs) are a biologically important class of carbohydrates usually found on cell
 surfaces in the form of proteoglycans (Dietrich, Sampaio, Montesdeoca & Nader, 1980; Mathews, 1975;

49 Medeiros, Mendes, Castro, Baú, Nader & Dietrich, 2000). They are essential for a variety of cell-cell

50 signaling events, such as cell growth and cell adhesion (Singer, 1992). As long unbranched

51 polysaccharides, GAGs also participate in the construction of connective tissues (Comper & Laurent,

52 1978; Mathews, 1975), such as cartilage. The ability of GAGs to be involved in such a variety of

53 biochemical processes is underpinned by their inherent structural heterogeneity.

54 GAGs are built from repeating disaccharide units, which typically consist of an uronic acid (iduronic 55 acid or glucuronic acid) and a hexosamine (galactosamine or glucosamine). Furthermore, these

56 disaccharide units can be sulfated at different sites and the position and type of the glycosidic linkage

57 also varies between GAG types. These attributes lead to structural variety within the GAG family.

58 Although not random, the epimerization and sulfation events are not regular, creating large

59 heterogeneity within a single GAG type. For example, during the processing of heparan, the precursor of

60 heparan sulfate (HS), various enzymes including N-deacetylases/N-sulfotransferases, as well as 6-O- and

61 3-O sulfotransferases and C-5 epimerases, modify its structure, though these modifications are neither

62 random or complete (Vreys & David, 2007). The resulting macroscopic organization of HS shows a typical

63 'block structure' containing extensive structural heterogeneity (Gallagher, 2006).

64 In order to study the biology and pharmacology of these heterogeneous polysaccharides it is

65 necessary to identify specific structures within their chains, which are responsible for their distinct

66 biological properties (Toida, Sato, Sakamoto, Sakai, Hosoyama & Linhardt, 2009). For example, the study

67 of heparin oligosaccharides revealed the existence of a specific pentasaccharide sequence responsible

68 for the binding of heparin to antithrombin (Munoz & Linhardt, 2004). GAG oligosaccharides are also

69 important in their own right, e.g. low molecular weight heparin (LMWH) (Choay, Lormeau, Petitou, Sinaÿ

70 & Fareed, 1981), has almost completely replaced unfractionated heparin as a pharmaceutical (Hileman,

71 Smith, Toida & Linhardt, 1997). Low molecular weight dermatan sulfates (DS) also show increased

bioavailability without the loss of bioactivity (Dol et al., 1990; Legnani et al., 1994).

73 Smaller GAG oligosaccharides can lead to a reduction in the adverse effects sometimes associated 74 with full-length polysaccharides. For example, LMWH decreases the occurrence of heparin induced 75 thrombocytopenia due to less efficient interaction with platelet factor 4 (Gray, Mulloy & Barrowcliffel, 76 2008). LMWH also reduces the risk of osteoporosis, another side effect of heparin (Matzsch, Bergqvist, 77 Hedner, Nilsson & Ostergaard, 1990; Monreal, Vinas, Monreal, Lavin, Lafoz & Angles, 1990). Another 78 example is the depolymerisation of fucosylated chondroitin sulfate, fCS, from sea cucumber (Panagos et 79 al., 2014; Suzuki, Kitazato, Takamatsu & Saito, 1991; Wu, Xua, Zhao, Kang & Ding, 2010; Wu et al., 2013; 80 Yang, Wang, Jiang, Lv, Zhang & Lv, 2015), which is critical for antithrombotic applications, due to an 81 undesired platelet aggregation associated with long polysaccharide chains (Wu, Xu, Zhao, Kang & Ding, 82 2010b).

83 Depolymerisation of GAGs and the production of fully characterised oligosaccharides is therefore 84 an essential process in evaluation of the biological potential of these molecules. A variety of different 85 depolymerisation methods, characterized by specific advantages and limitations, have therefore been developed to date. The most widely used is enzymatic depolymerisation, although this method also has 86 87 its limitations. For example, highly sulfated GAGs, which are typical for marine species, are resistant to 88 enzymatic depolymerisation (Vieira, Mulloy & Mourao, 1991). Moreover, oligosaccharides generated by 89 heparanases and chondroitinases contain an unsaturated uronate residue as the non-reducing end 90 monosaccharide and a hexosamine as the reducing end monosaccharide (Pervin, Gallo, Jandik, Han & 91 Linhardt, 1995). Finally, depolymerisation enzymes can be very expensive, e.g. one mg of chondroitinase 92 ABC lyase, which can deliver between 50 to 250 units, can cost much more than £ 1000.

93 Other depolymerisation methods include acid hydrolysis, solvolysis and ultrasonication. Acid 94 hydrolysis is a chemically based approach which involves both the depolymerisation and the desulfation 95 of the polysaccharide (Mourao et al., 1996) and for that reason it is not widely used on sulfated GAGs. 96 Solvolytic depolymerisation has also been shown to be effective on GAGs but it also involves 97 desulfonation of the polysaccharide chains and is also known to structurally modify the oligosaccharide 98 products (Toida, Sato, Sakamoto, Sakai, Hosoyama & Linhardt, 2009). Ultrasonic depolymerisation is 99 unique among the depolymerisation methods, as it is a mechanical method, which has been employed 100 for the depolymerisation of hyaluronic acid (Miyazaki, Yomota & Okada, 2001). Although this technique 101 generates lower molecular weight GAGs with unmodified chains, its application is limited because of the 102 size of produced species (MW>10<sup>5</sup> Da), which are much bigger than those generated by other methods. One of the more widely used chemical depolymerisation methods suitable for GAGs is the free 103 104 radical Fenton-type depolymerisation. It has been used not only to generate oligosaccharides from 105 heparin (Nagasawa, Uchiyama, Sato & Hatano, 1992), chondroitin and dermatan sulfate (Ofman, Slim, 106 Watt & Yorke, 1997), and hyaluronate (Uchiyama, Dobashi, Ohkouchi & Nagasawa, 1990), but also 107 marine GAGs (Wu, Xu, Zhao, Kang & Ding, 2010a). However, Fenton-type depolymerisation reaction is 108 known to preferentially degrade unsulfated IdoA in heparin (Nagasawa, Uchiyama, Sato & Hatano, 1992) 109 and DS (Ofman, Slim, Watt & Yorke, 1997; Panagos, Thomson, Bavington & Uhrin, 2012), thus creating 110 oligosaccharides that have hexosamine at the reducing end, similar to enzymatic depolymerisation. In addition, this reducing end hexosamine can sometimes be oxidized, as seen in heparin and DS, forming 111 112 acetylglucosaminic acid and acetylgalactosaminic acid, respectively (Panagos, Thomson, Bavington & 113 Uhrin, 2012; Vismara, Pierini, Guglieri, Liverani, Mascellani & Torri, 2007; Vismara et al., 2010).

114 115 116 117 118 119 120 121 122 123 124 125 126	In this work we present a structural analysis of oligosaccharides obtained by a photochemical depolymerisation of a model GAG, DS, and compare them with DS oligosaccharides obtained previously by the Fenton-type depolymerisation (Panagos, Thomson, Bavington & Uhrin, 2012), as both methods use free radicals to cleave the glycosidic bonds. The photochemical depolymerisation has been used recently to depolymerise alginate (Burana-osot, Hosoyama, Nagamoto, Suzuki, Linhardt & Toida, 2009), pectin (Burana-osot, Soonthornchareonnon, Hosoyama, Linhardt & Toida, 2010), K5 heparosan (Higashi et al., 2011) and heparin (Higashi et al., 2012). While the Fenton type depolymerisation generates free radicals from hydrogen peroxide using an iron or copper catalyst, photochemical depolymerisation uses UV light and titanium dioxide to generate radicals in an aqueous environment, making it a very inexpensive technique.
120	2 Materials and methods
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120	2.1 Materials
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131	Titanium(IV) oxide (TiO <sub>2</sub> ) anatase powder was purchased from Acros Organics. Porcine DS.
132	containing more than 95% of the repeating disaccharide $[-\beta$ -D-GalNAc4S- $(1 \rightarrow 4)$ - $\alpha$ -L-IdoA- $(1 \rightarrow 3)$ ] <sub>n</sub> was
133	obtained from Celsus Laboratories. Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA) and trimethylsilyl
134	propionate (TSP) were purchased from Goss Scientific Instruments Ltd. and Aldrich, respectively.
135	
136	2.2 Depolymerisation of polysaccharides by photochemical reaction
137	Samples (300 mg) were dissolved in 30 ml of deionised water in a shallow open crystallising dish to
138	a final concentration of 10 mg/ml. 30 mg (1:10) of titanium(IV) oxide (TiO <sub>2</sub> ) anatase powder (Acros
139	Organics) was added. A magnetic stirrer was added to the sample to ensure the dissolution of
140	atmospheric oxygen in the solution and to prevent settling of $TiO_2$ . The receptacle was placed under a
141	UV light source (125 W low pressure mercury lamp from Photochemical Reactors Ltd). In order to
142	maximise UV absorbance by the $TiO_2$ the lamp was placed 10 cm from the receptacle at approximately a
143	70° angle. The reaction was carried out at room temperature and was stopped after 34 h, when the
144	reaction progress was deemed to be satisfactory. 100 $\mu$ l samples were taken at regular intervals (8-10
145	hours) and the progress of the reaction was monitored by HPLC, following the method described below.
146	The samples were centrifuged at 16,100 × g for 5 minutes at room temperature. The supernatant was
147	passed through a 0.22 $\mu$ m membrane filter for complete removal of the TiO <sub>2</sub> particles. The samples were
148	separated by size exclusion chromatography (SEC) at room temperature for 45 minutes at a flow rate of
149	0.5 ml/min. A Superdex Peptide 10/300 GL size exclusion column attached to a Waters 600 LCD HPLC
150	equipped with a 486 Tunable Absorbance Detector was deployed. PBS (Phosphate Buffered Saline
151	tablets, Fisher Scientific) was used as mobile phase and the UV absorbance was recorded at 218 nm, as
152	the absence of a double bond generated from enzymatic depolymerisation, prevents the use of the
153	absorbance at 232nm. The total reaction mixture after the end of the reaction was centrifuged for 30
154	min at 2,742 × g and the supernatant was passed through a 0.22 $\mu$ m membrane and freeze-dried.

### 155 2.3 Fractionation and isolation of the oligosaccharides

The freeze-dried material obtained from the depolymerisation reaction was redissolved in 2.5 ml deionised water and fractionated by SECon a BioCAD 700E Workstation FPLC system equipped with a Waters Fraction Collector. Two XK26/100 columns preceded by a XK26/20 guard column (GE healthcare) were packed with Bio-Gel P-10 Fine resin (Bio-Rad Laboratories) and connected in series. Enzymatically cleaved DS tetrasaccharides and hexasaccharides were used as standards. The sample was loaded on a 5 ml loop and was run at a flow rate of 0.4 ml/min for a total of 62.5 h, with PBS as the mobile phase. The UV absorbance was recorded at 218 nm and the fractions containing oligosaccharides were collected,

163 pooled and freeze dried.

164 Prior to NMR experiments, the lyophilized samples were desalted using the BioCad 700E system

165 equipped with a XK16/40 column packed with Sephadex G25 superfine (Sigma-Aldrich). Each run was

166 carried out with an injection volume of 5 ml and  $dH_2O$  as mobile phase. For each run, the injection loop

167 was first flushed for 6 minutes at 2.5 ml/min and then the flow rate was increased to 4 ml/min for 21

168 minutes and 3 ml fractions were collected. The UV absorbance was recorded at 218 nm. Four to five

169 fractions were pooled together, yielding desalted oligosaccharides in 12-15 ml of solution. The samples

170 were subsequently freeze-dried.

171 2.4 Structural analysis of the fractions by NMR

172 After lyophilisation the samples were dissolved in 99.9%  $D_2O_2$ , (Aldrich, 540  $\mu$ I) containing deuterated

173 NaH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> + HNa<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub> buffer (10 mM, pH 7.2). A stock solution (20 μl) of EDTA and TSP was added. The

174 stock solution was prepared by dissolving EDTA (4 mg) and TSP (9 mg) in the phosphate buffer (200  $\mu$ l).

175 The pH was adjusted to 7.2 by adding few drops of a concentrated solution of NaOH in D<sub>2</sub>O. All spectra

176 were acquired at 50 °C on an 800 MHz Avance I Bruker NMR spectrometer equipped with a z-gradient

177 triple-resonance TCI cryoprobe. The spectra were referenced (0 ppm) using the <sup>1</sup>H and <sup>13</sup>C signals of TSP.

- 178 1D<sup>1</sup>H NMR spectra were acquired using relaxation and acquisition times of 1.5 and 0.4999 s,
- 179 respectively; 32 scans per spectrum were accumulated. 1D <sup>13</sup>C NMR spectra with <sup>1</sup>H GARP decoupling
- 180 were acquired using relaxation and acquisition times of 4 and 0.6816 s, respectively; 31504 scans per
- 181 spectrum were accumulated in 41 h. The FIDs were zero filled once and a 2 Hz exponential line
- 182 broadening was applied prior to Fourier transformation. 2D <sup>1</sup>H, <sup>13</sup>C HSQC spectra were acquired using a
- 183 modified HSQC sequence. This pulse sequence employs DEPT editing sequence, which ensured that the
- 184 CH<sub>2</sub> signals appear as negative peaks. This was invaluable for the identification of C6 atoms of GAGs. The
- polarization transfer was optimised for  ${}^{1}J_{CH}$  = 150 Hz for all the experiments and  ${}^{13}C$  adiabatic decoupling
- 186 was used to decouple the carbon-proton couplings. Spectra were acquired using  $t_1$  and  $t_2$  acquisition
- 187 times of 0.011 and 0.1069 s, respectively; 4 scans were acquired into each of 512 *F*<sub>1</sub> complex data points
- 188 resulting in the total experimental times of 1.5 h per sample.
- 189 2.5 Fractionation of fucosylated chondroitin sulfate.
- 190 The samples of fCS was depolymerized and purified as described previously (Panagos et al., 2014).

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#### 192 **3. Results**

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193 194

3.1 Fractionation of DS and isolation of the DS oligosaccharides

195 Samples taken from the reaction mixture containing DS and  $TiO_2$  in water as described in detail in 2.2, 196 were analysed periodically to monitor the progress of the reaction. Monitoring by HPLC showed that the 197 photochemical depolymerisation of DS does not progress at a constant rate under the conditions used. 198 As indicated by the chromatogram of Figure 1a, the peak eluting with the column void volume, 199 containing oligosaccharides with M<sub>w</sub>>7000 Da is almost intact after the first 24 h. The reaction seems to 200 progressively accelerate and after 34 h the peak eluting with the void volume has decreased 201 significantly. At the same time the presence of smaller oligosaccharides is clearly visible (Figure 1b). The 202 reaction was therefore stopped at this point and the reaction mixture was separated using a SEC 203 column. The SEC chromatogram (Figure 1c) shows separation of fragments; the fraction labelled I, 204 composed from fractions 77-83 (total volume 70 ml) was chosen for structural analysis, since its elution 205 time was similar to that of a DS tetrasaccharide standard, run previously during the column calibration 206 (data not shown). A shoulder visible on the right hand side of peak I is most likely due to co-elution 207 trisaccharide species as discussed later, while the peak eluting at approximately 1500 minutes belongs 208 to the disaccharides fractions The peaks eluting later contained fragments that when analysed by NMR, 209 were identified as smaller than the disaccharide, potentially monosaccharides or even smaller entities.



#### 210

- Figure 1: Chromatograms of the depolymerized DS (a) and (b) show HPLC traces after 24 and 34 hours, respectively. (c)
- Screenshot of the final 1500 minutes of the size exclusion chromatogram of the final reaction mixture obtained after 34 h of depolymerisation. The UV absorbance was monitored at 218 nm and the fraction brought forward for the analysis is
- 214 indicated.
- 215
- 216

#### 217 3.2 NMR analysis of fraction I

- 218 Fraction I was analyzed by 1D and 2D NMR methods and the structures of the constituting
- 219 oligosaccharides were determined. This process was facilitated by a comparison with a previously
- analyzed tetrasaccharide fraction generated by the Fenton type free radical depolymerisation of DS,
- which used  $H_2O_2$  to generate radicals and  $Cu^{2+}$  as the catalyst (Panagos, Thomson, Bavington & Uhrin,
- 222 2012). This also gave us the opportunity to compare the outcomes of the Fenton type and
- 223 photochemical depolymerisation. It became immediately obvious that the spectra of fraction I contain
- some additional strong signals. Although the anomeric region of the <sup>13</sup>C spectrum containing the non-
- reducing rings signals was practically identical for samples generated by both methods, new strong
- signals (95.12 and 97.50 ppm) were found in the anomeric region of the reducing rings for the
- 227 photochemically depolymerized fraction I (Figure 2).
- 228 These new strong signals belong to the reducing end  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ -IdoA and their integral intensities have
- almost the same total intensity as the reducing end GalNAc signals (Figure 2a, b). For comparison, in the
- case of Fenton type depolymerisation the IdoA signals contained less than 10% of the total reducing end
- 231 signals. This means that the photochemical depolymerisation does not proceed to fully oxidise the
- released reducing end IdoA, as was the case with the Fenton type depolymerisation.

233



234

Figure 2: Comparison of the reducing end anomeric regions of NMR spectra. 1D <sup>13</sup>C spectra of tetrasaccharides obtained by (a) photochemical (fraction I) and (b) Fenton type depolymerisation. (c) A partial 2D <sup>1</sup>H, <sup>13</sup>C HSQC spectrum of fraction I tetrasaccharides obtained by photochemical depolymerisation.

- 238 It is now well established, that Fenton type depolymerisation proceeds to partially oxidise the released
- 239 reducing end HexNAc as seen in heparin and DS, forming acetylglucosaminic acid and
- 240 acetylgalactosaminic acid, respectively (Panagos, Thomson, Bavington & Uhrin, 2012; Vismara, Pierini,
- 241 Guglieri, Liverani, Mascellani & Torri, 2007; Vismara et al., 2010) Focusing on the most prominent C2
- acetylgalactosaminic acid signal at 58.23 ppm, it is evident (Figure 3) that this signal is stronger in the
- 243 photochemically depolymerized sample. Here the acetylgalactosaminic acid accounts for ~22% of the
- total reducing end GalNAc signals, whereas in case of Fenton type depolymerisation it was less than

13%. It is notable that the analysis of the 2D  $^{1}$ H  $^{13}$ C HSQC spectrum of the sample showed that there

were no signals corresponding to the open chain reducing end IdoA, which indicates that opening of theIdoA monosaccharide leads to its complete degradation.



248 249 250

Figure 3: Comparison of the GalNAc C2 region of the NMR spectra of tetrasaccharides obtained by (a) photochemical and (b) Fenton type depolymerisation. (c) A partial 2D <sup>1</sup>H, <sup>13</sup>C HSQC spectrum of the H2/C2 region of fraction I.

251 252

253 Finally, a comparison of the integrals of the reducing and non-reducing anomeric <sup>13</sup>C signals of fraction I 254 showed ratio of 1:2.7. If this fraction contained purely tetrasaccharides this should be 1:3. Since the anomeric carbon of the terminal acetylgalactosaminic acid is oxidised and does not resonate in the 255 256 integrated anomeric region, this ratio should be even larger, reflecting the presence of 20% of the open 257 chain species in fraction I. This apparent discrepancy can be explained by the presence of trisaccharides 258 in fraction I, as additionally confirmed by the analysis of the MS data (data not shown). At the same time 259 the IdoA and GalNAc reducing-end signals show intensity ratio of 1:1. It is therefore logical to assume 260 that both IdoA-GaINAc-IdoA and GaINAc-IdoA-GaINAc trisaccharides are present in fraction I.

Photochemical depolymerisation was also performed on fucosylated chondroitin sulfate from H. forskali 261 262 (fCS) as described previously (Panagos, Thomson, Bavington & Uhrin, 2012). The repeating trisaccharide 263 unit of this fCS,  $\rightarrow$ 3)GalNAc4,6S(1 $\beta$  $\rightarrow$ 4)[Fuc $\alpha$ X1 $\rightarrow$ 3]GlcA(1 $\beta$  $\rightarrow$ , contains branching fucose. The X in this 264 formula signifies different sulfation patterns of fucose and stands for sulfation at positions 3,4 or 2,4 or 4, which were present at levels of 46%, 39% and 15%, respectively. Other sea cucumber species produce 265 266 similar polysaccharides that differ only in the level of sulfation (Vieira & Mourao, 1988; Wu et al., 2013; 267 Yoshida, Minami, Nemoto, Numata & Yamanaka, 1992). As this polysaccharide is resistant to enzymatic 268 depolymerisation, it is therefore a good candidate for photochemical depolymerisation. The branched 269 structure and heterogeneity of the sulfation predisposes the fCS polysaccharide to yield a more complex 270 mixture of oligosaccharides than the one generated from DS, which prevented their full 271 characterization. Nevertheless, similar features were observed as for the DS. In particular, the amount of 272 the N-acetylgalactosaminic acid was significantly increased in smaller fractions, exceeding 60% of the 273 total reducing end content of GalNAc (data not shown). The oligosaccharides fractions (dp3-dp10) were 274 used in microarray binding assays and were shown to bind to L- and P-selectins (Panagos et al., 2014).

275 Since fCS-selectin binding is dependent on the presence of sulfated fucosylated branches, these results

- indicate that photochemical depolymerisation neither cleaved the fucose branches nor causeddesulfation of the polysaccharide.
- 278

#### 279 4. Discussion and conclusions

280 Catalytic photochemical depolymerisation of DS was achieved by titanium dioxide in the presence of UV

281 light. In this study we have modified the controlled depolymerisation reaction reported previously

282 (Burana-osot, Hosoyama, Nagamoto, Suzuki, Linhardt & Toida, 2009; Burana-osot,

Soonthornchareonnon, Hosoyama, Linhardt & Toida, 2010; Higashi et al., 2012; Higashi et al., 2011), in

order to achieve a larger scale (x30 times) and without the use of specialized equipment. A wide range

of oligosaccharides, from dp2 to dp22 as shown by SEC, was obtained for DS. These oligosaccharides

contained both odd and even numbered species with no desulfation observed.

287 The tetrasaccharide fractions generated by the Fenton type and photochemical depolymerisation of DS

were compared (Panagos, Thomson, Bavington & Uhrin, 2012). Despite the fact that both of techniques

are based on oxygen free radicals creating random scissions of mainly glycosidic linkages, important

290 structural differences between the two tetrasaccharides were observed. These differences could be

291 caused by possible differences in the free radicals generated through the two techniques. Fenton-type

reaction depolymerisation generates almost exclusively hydroxyl radicals, which are known as the most

reactive species of the oxygen radical family (Vismara, Pierini, Guglieri, Liverani, Mascellani & Torri,

2007). On the other hand excitement of TiO<sub>2</sub> by UV leads to the generation of superoxide radicals. At the

same time, the more reactive hydroxyl radicals are produced (Xiang, Yu & Wong, 2011).

296 The most notable difference between the two depolymerisation methods was that the photochemical

297 depolymerisation did not degrade unsulfated IdoA as reported for heparin (Nagasawa, Uchiyama, Sato &

Hatano, 1992) and DS (Ofman, Slim, Watt & Yorke, 1997; Panagos, Thomson, Bavington & Uhrin, 2012)

299 depolymerised by Fenton type reaction. Photochemical depolymerisation is, up to now, the only

300 depolymerisation method that preserves reducing end unsulfated IdoA (Figure 4). This opens the

301 possibility of creating a wider range of oligosaccharides that could have novel biological activities.

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Figure 4: Free radical depolymerisation of a DS polysaccharide, produced oligosaccharides with a) reducing end GalNAc, b) reducing end IdoA and c) reducing end acetylgalactosaminic acid. The non-reducing end terminal monosaccharide can be either IdoA or GalNAc 4S, as indicated. NMR analysis showed no evidence of changes in the structure of non-reducing end monosaccharides after photochemical depolymerisation.

307 While the photochemical depolymerisation has a milder effect on the reducing end IdoA than the

308 Fenton type depolymerisation, this is not the case for the reducing end GalNAc. The NMR analysis

309 showed that the percentage of reducing end GalNAc oxidised to N-acetylgalactosaminic acid increased

310 compared to the Fenton type depolymerisation. These differences cannot therefore be fully justified by

311 stating that the photochemical depolymerisation is milder; they rather imply subtle differences in

312 molecular mechanism between the two methods, possibly due to the differences in the radicals

313 produced.

Since photochemical depolymerisation did not degrade reducing end IdoA, and assuming that it also

315 cleaves glycosidic linkages randomly, the existence of a trisaccharide in the DS fractions was to be

expected. This was verified by NMR and MS (Panagos, Thomson, Bavington & Uhrin, 2012) and DS

trisaccharides (M<sub>w</sub> 653.5 or 760.6 g/mol) were shown to be co-eluted with the tetrasaccharide (M<sub>w</sub>

- 318 936.7 g/mol) fraction.
- In summary, this study describes a larger scale photochemical depolymerisation of a simple (DS), which

320 did not require pH monitoring or specialized equipment. This method generated a range of

321 oligosaccharides with both odd and even numbers of sugar residues, as previously reported for heparin

322 (Higashi et al., 2012). Additionally, structural differences were uncovered, by 1D and 2D NMR, between

- 323 the oligosaccharides generated by photochemical depolymerisation and Fenton type depolymerisation.
- 324 These results indicate that photochemical depolymerisation should be classified as a distinct
- 325 depolymerisation technique that enables production of oligosaccharides containing unsulfated reducing-

- 326 end uronic ucid and saturated non-reducing end monosaccharides rings. The photochemical
- 327 depolymerisation method thus enables preparation of new class of GAG derived oligosaccharides that
- 328 now can be investigated for their biochemical/biological properties.

#### 329 Acknowledgements

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332

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