Mechanism of one-electron oxidation of metformin in aqueous solution.

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Mechanism of one-electron oxidation of metformin in aqueous solution†

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Hydroxyl free radical-induced oxidation of metformin was studied in aqueous solution as a function of the pH. Hydroxyl free radicals were generated by gamma radiolysis of water and the oxidation end-products were quantified by high-performance liquid chromatography coupled to mass spectrometry (HPLC/MS), as a function of the radiation dose. This work is a joint experimental and theoretical (DFT) approach that has paved the way towards a comprehensive rationalization of the one-electron mechanisms of MTF oxidation, as a function of the pH.

Introduction

Metformin (MTF), or N,N-dimethylbiguanide (Fig. 1), is the most widely prescribed drug for the treatment of type 2 diabetes. It mainly acts by activation of AMP-activated protein kinase (AMPK), a master regulator of cell metabolism.1 This AMPK activation may also play a role in preventing the formation and progression of cancer, and MTF has recently demonstrated its activity in reducing tobacco carcinogen-induced lung tumour genesis in mice.2 Besides these properties, MTF has been shown to exhibit antioxidant properties, either directly or indirectly.3–9 However, the mechanism of action by which MTF displays its direct antioxidant effect, i.e., scavenging of oxygen-derived radical species, has not been totally unravelled. We previously investigated the capacity of one-electron oxidation of MTF by HO* free radicals, generated by gamma radiolysis; oxidation end-products were clearly identified.10 At low radiation dose, four primary products, resulting from the direct attack of HO* radicals on MTF, were identified i.e., (i) hydroperoxide of MTF (MTFOOH), methylbiguanide (MBG), 2-amino-4-methylamino-1,3,5-triazine (2,4-AMT), and 4-amino-2-imino-1-methyl-1,2-dihydro-1,3,5-triazine (4,2,1-AIMT).

![Chemical structures of metformin (MTF) and its radio-induced oxidation end-products: hydroperoxide of metformin (MTFOOH), methylbiguanide (MBG), 2-amino-4-methylamino-1,3,5-triazine (2,4-AMT), and 4-amino-2-imino-1-methyl-1,2-dihydro-1,3,5-triazine (4,2,1-AIMT).](image)

† Electronic supplementary information (ESI) available: Detailed information on MTF consumption and oxidation product generation as a function of the radiation dose, at pH 2.8, 7.15 and 11.6 (Fig. S1–S3). See DOI: 10.1039/c3cp50602a
2-dihydro-1,3,5-triazine (4,2,1-AIMT) (Fig. 1). Under similar experimental conditions, the superoxide radicals appeared to be poor initiators of MTF oxidation, thereby suggesting that MTF is not a powerful antioxidant, being mainly oxidized by HO• radicals.11 Even for these very reactive free radicals, the reaction with MTF exhibited a relatively low rate constant (≠ 107 L mol⁻¹ s⁻¹), showing a non-diffusion-controlled process (k-values = 10⁵–10¹⁰ mol⁻¹ L s⁻¹).¹¹

In order to fully rationalize the HO•/O₂•⁻-induced oxidation mechanism of MTF, the present manuscript describes the radiation dose effect (from 5 to 50 Gy). The radiolytic yields related to the concomitant MTF consumption and formation of oxidation products are determined and allow dealing with the balance between MTF disappearance and the sum of product formation.

Importantly in this work, the radiolytic process is experimentally demonstrated not only at neutral pH (7.15), but also at pH 2.8 and 11.6 corresponding to the pH melting capacity of MTF and the Gibbs energies of formation for the different oxidation products, and the antioxidative capacity of MTF and the Gibbs energies of formation for the different oxidation products.

Methods

Chemicals and preparation of aqueous solutions

MTF hydrochloride and 2,4-diamino-6-methyl-1,3,5-triazine (DMT) were purchased from Sigma Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA). Buformin (BUF) was purchased from LGC Calbiochem and methylbiguanide (MBG) from Labotest (Niederschönau, Germany). Ultra-pure water (Maxima Ultra Pure Water, ELGA, resistivity 18 MΩ) was used throughout the study. Stock solutions of 200 μmol L⁻¹ MTF were prepared and pH was adjusted by adding HClO₄ (Sigma Aldrich [St. Louis, MO, USA]) or NaOH (Mercer, Germany) to reach the required pH 2.8, 7.15 or 11.6. The pH was measured using a PHM210 pH meter (Radiometer Analytical, France). Two of these pH-values, i.e., 2.8 and 11.6, corresponded to the pKₐ's of MTF.¹² The MTF concentration was chosen between 200 μmol L⁻¹ was at the plateau of the dilution curve,¹¹ which implies that all HO• radicals reacted with MTF, without any competition with H₂O₂ produced during gamma irradiation. The same concentration was also used for the previous HPLC/MS identification of oxidation products of MTF.¹⁰

Gamma irradiation

Gamma irradiation was carried out using an IBL 637 irradiator (CIS Bio International, Gif-sur-Yvette, France) with a γ-ray source of ¹³⁷Cs whose activity was ≈ 222 TBq (6000 Ci). The dosimetry was performed using the Fricke method,¹³ namely radio-oxidation of 10⁻³ mol L⁻¹ ferrous sulphate solution in 0.4 mol L⁻¹ sulphuric acid (under aerated atmosphere) taking λₘₐₓ(Fe⁴⁺) = 304 nm, e_{304 nm} = 2204 L mol⁻¹ cm⁻¹ at 25 °C, and a radiolytic yield of G(Fe⁴⁺) = 16.2 × 10⁻⁷ mol J⁻¹. The dose-rate was 7.5 Gy min⁻¹.

Different radiation doses, ranging from 5 to 50 Gy, were delivered to 5 mL aqueous solution of MTF, depending on the time the sample was exposed to the γ-ray source: the longer the exposure, the higher the radiation dose. For each experimental set, 5 mL of non-irradiated solution was taken as a control.

Gamma radiolysis of water generates the eaq•⁻, HO• and H• free radical species, and the H₂ and H₂O₂ molecular species. At pH 7 in the presence of dioxygen (aerated solution), two radical species were quantitatively formed: HO• and O₂•⁻ (resulting from the scavenging of eaq•⁻ and H• by O₂), with the respective radiolytic yields (G-value) of 2.8 × 10⁻⁷ and 3.4 × 10⁻⁷ mol J⁻¹.¹⁴ At pH 7.15 and 11.6, the acidic form HO•⁺ (pK₂ HO•⁺/O₂•⁻) = 4.8⁻¹⁵ is negligible compared to O₂•⁻ species. By contrast, at pH 2.8, O₂•⁻ is negligible compared to HO•⁺.

Analyses

MTF and its oxidation products were separated and quantified by high-pressure liquid chromatography coupled to ion trap mass spectrometry (HPLC/MS, LCQ Advantage, ThermoScientific, Les Ulis, France), equipped with an electrospray ionization source (ESI). The capillary temperature was held at 250 °C and the relative sheath and auxiliary gas flow-rates were set at 20 and 5 respectively (sheath gas, 0–100 units, corresponds to 0–1.5 L min⁻¹; auxiliary gas, 0–60 units, corresponds to 0–18 L min⁻¹, according to the manufacturer’s specifications). All experiments were performed in the positive-ion mode. Calibration solutions containing MTF, DMT and MBG at final concentrations ranging from 1 to 10 μmol L⁻¹ were prepared and pH was adjusted to 2.8, 7.15 or 11.6. BUF (500 μL), used as an internal standard, was added to every sample and standard solutions (volume 5 mL) to reach a final BUF concentration of 10 μmol L⁻¹. A volume of 20 μL of sample was injected on a reversed-phase column, 250 × 2.1 mm Atlantis dC18 5 μm (Waters, St Quentin en Yvelines, France). Elution was performed at room temperature in isocratic mode with 50/50 (v/v) acetonitrile/ammonium acetate (10 mM, pH 5), at a flow-rate of 200 μL min⁻¹. Calibration curves were used to quantify the oxidation products of MTF.

Remaining non-oxidized MTF was quantified by HPLC coupled to a dual wavelength UV-visible spectrophotometer (Waters 2487, Guyancourt, France), running at 232 nm (wavelength of maximal absorption for MTF). An external calibration curve was built with solutions of MTF from 185 to 200 μmol L⁻¹, for which pH was adjusted to 2.8, 7.15 or 11.6. A volume of 10 μL of solution was injected on the same column as used for HPLC/MS quantifications. Results were expressed as mean ± SD of at least 5 independent experiments.

Trace chromatograms for the detected ions related to MTF (m/z 130) and its radical-induced oxidation products MTOOH (m/z 162), 2,4-AMT and 4,2,1-AIMT (m/z 126), MBG (m/z 116) are shown as ESI, together with that of BUF used as an internal standard (m/z 158).

Methods for calculation

R–H bond dissociation enthalpies (BDEs) were calculated as the difference, in total enthalpy, at 298 K, between the primary
radical ([MTF - H]+) formed after H-atom abstraction (HAT) and metformin (MTF), according to:

\[
\text{MTF} \rightarrow [\text{MTF} - \text{H}^+] + \text{H}^+ \tag{1}
\]

DFT appeared to be particularly adapted to evaluate antioxidant properties, mainly by the calculation of bond dissociation enthalpies of H-atom donor groups, hybrid functionals being particularly adapted e.g., B3LYP.\textsuperscript{16,17} The use of polarizable functions in the basis sets, especially for the hydrogen atom, has been demonstrated to be of importance to provide accuracy in the estimation of BDE. The use of diffuse function could also improve the description of these systems for which \(\pi\)-conjugation is crucial. The calculation was thus performed at the B3LYP/6-31+G(d,p) level.

All [MTF - H]^+ radicals, obtained after HAT from MTF, were evaluated by using an unrestricted scheme (U) in order to properly account for spin polarization. Geometry optimization for each radical was performed starting from the optimized structure of the parent molecule (MTF), after the H atom was removed from the different positions. The solvent effect was taken into account implicitly using a polarizable continuum model (PCM) approach, in which the solute is embedded in a shape-adapted cavity surrounded by a polarizable dielectric representing the solvent. The dielectric medium is described by its dielectric constant (\(\varepsilon = 78.39\) for water).

To study thermodynamics and kinetics of reactions the enthalpies (\(H\)) and Gibbs energies (\(G\)) were obtained at 298 K. All transition states (TS) were confirmed by the presence of one imaginary frequency for the mode of vibration corresponding to the reaction coordinate of the reaction under study (e.g., bond formation and bond breaking). The transition states were also confirmed using the IRC (Integrated Reaction Coordinates) procedure, confirming the formation of the expected products.

All results reported in this work are based on (U)B3LYP/6-31+G(d,p) calculations of enthalpy differences at 298 K, with or without influence of the PCM solvent. All calculations were carried out using Gaussian03 software.\textsuperscript{18}

## Results and discussion

### Kinetics of MTF radio-induced oxidation

As previously shown, the radical-induced oxidation of MTF was found to lead to hydroperoxide of MTF (MTFOOH), methylbiguanide (MBG) and 2-amino-4-methylamino-1,3,5-triazine (2,4-AMT), which is able to further evolve into the isomeric form 4-amino-2-imino-1-methyl-1,2-dihydro-1,3,5-triazine (4,2,1-AIMT).\textsuperscript{19} These products were detected in the present study, at pH 2.8, 7.15 and 11.6 (Fig. 2), when MTF in aqueous solution was irradiated at 50 Gy. Among the two cyclic oxidation products, the formation of 2,4-AMT appears as being pH-dependent since the latter is only detected at pH 11.6. At this pH, the consumption of MTF as a function of the radiation dose (ESI,† Fig. S1) shows a quasi-linear decrease of MTF concentration that provides a \(G\)(MTF) radiolytic yield equal to \((2.70 \pm 0.60) \times 10^{-7}\) mol J\(^{-1}\) (reported in Table 1), determined as the slope of the initial tangent of the curve. Such a value was almost equal to the radiolytic yield known for the

![Fig. 2](image)

**Fig. 2** Detection of MTF and its radio-induced oxidation end-products at pH 2.8, 7.15 and 11.6. Trace chromatograms for each detected ion, for aqueous solutions of MTF (200 \(\mu\)mol L\(^{-1}\)), at pH 2.8, 7.15 and 11.6, non-irradiated (a, c, e) or irradiated at 50 Gy (b, d, f). Abscissa, retention time; ordinate, relative intensity.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>pH</th>
<th>MTFOOH</th>
<th>MBG</th>
<th>2,4-AMT</th>
<th>4,2,1-AIMT</th>
<th>(P_{ox})</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>1.80 (0.30)</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>3.10 (0.40)</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>2.70 (0.60)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.15</td>
<td>0.19 (0.02)</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0.12 (0.01)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.31 (0.04)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.6</td>
<td>2.4-AMT</td>
<td>2.08 (0.03)</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>0.90 (0.09)</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4,2,1-AIMT</td>
<td>0.83 (0.05)</td>
<td>1.70 (0.20)</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>1.40 (0.20)</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total \(P_{ox}\) 1.64 100 3.30 100 2.48 100

Table 1 Radiolytic yields \(G\) (10\(^{-7}\) mol J\(^{-1}\), mean (SD)) of MTF disappearance and radiolytic yields of formation of the corresponding oxidation products (along with their \(\sum P_{ox}\)), for solutions of MTF 200 \(\mu\)mol L\(^{-1}\) at pH 2.8, 7.15 and 11.6 irradiated at doses ranging from 5 to 50 Gy (\(l = 7.5\) Gy min\(^{-1}\)). Radiolytic yields are obtained by the slope of the initial tangent of the curves reported in Fig. S1–S3 (ESI). The relative amount (%) of each product is given by the ratio between its production yield and the sum of \(G\)-values for all products. MTF = metformin; MTFOOH = hydroperoxide of metformin; 2,4-AMT = 2-amino-4-methylamino-1,3,5-triazine; 4,2,1-AIMT = 4-amino-2-imino-1-methyl-1,2-dihydro-1,3,5-triazine; MBG = methylbiguanide.
(2.48 × 10⁻⁷ vs. 2.70 × 10⁻⁷ mol J⁻¹, respectively). The main oxidation product formed at pH 11.6 was MBG (56%), whereas MTFOOH, 2,4-AMT and 4,2,1-AIMT represented only 12, 15 and 17%, respectively.

At pH 7.15, similar conclusions could be drawn (ESI† Fig. S2), except that none of the oxidation products pre-existed before irradiation, showing a better stability of MTF aqueous solutions under neutral conditions with respect to the basic environment. The yield-value of MTF consumption was (3.10 ± 0.40) × 10⁻⁷ mol J⁻¹ (Table 1), similar to that obtained at pH 11.6. The sum of the G-values for the oxidation products was 3.30 × 10⁻⁷ mol J⁻¹, showing a total recovery. As observed at pH 11.6, MBG was the main oxidation product (51%), whereas MTFOOH, 2,4-AMT and 4,2,1-AIMT only accounted for 4, 18 and 27%, respectively.

At pH 2.8 (ESI† Fig. S3), MTF was consumed with a G-value lower than those at the other two pH values, since it was (1.80 ± 0.30) × 10⁻⁷ mol J⁻¹, thus approximately equal to G(HO*)/2. This suggests a dismutation process i.e., a part of MTF was regenerated during radical reactions. Contrary to what was observed at pH 7.15 and 11.6, at this very acidic pH, the radiolytically-generated O₂⁻ quasi-exclusively exists in its acidic form HO₂⁻. The latter radical could react with the MTF formed after the HO* attack and HAT from MTF, according to the following reaction:

\[ [\text{MTF} - \text{H}]^* + \text{HO}_2^- \rightarrow \text{MTF} + \text{O}_2 \]  (2)

Reaction (2) most probably competes with the other reactions that lead to the formation of the oxidation products of MTF. Thus, the radiolytic yield of MTF consumption was lower than G(HO*). At this acidic pH, 4,2,1-AIMT was the main oxidation product formed (51%), the second being MBG (38%) whereas MTFOOH only accounted for 11% and no 2,4-AMT was formed. The sum of the G-values for the oxidation products was 1.64 × 10⁻⁷ mol J⁻¹ (Table 1), which was again very close to G(-MTF) at this pH.

Conformational features of MTF

To the best of our knowledge, no quantum-chemical studies have been performed for metformin and a detailed analysis of the conformational feature is instructive for the sake of the present work. Several studies reported on crystallographic structure of MTF derivatives, namely metformin hydrochloride,¹⁹ N,N-dimethylbiguanidium nitrate,²⁰ and metal complexes with MTF or similar derivatives.²¹-²⁴ For the complexes, the metal form bonds with the nitrogen atoms N6 and N7 of MTF (Fig. 1), constraining a specific conformation. These studies highlighted the importance of π-conjugation and inter-molecular H-bonding. Quantum chemistry allows an accurate description of the conformational characteristics of MTF (for the non-, mono- and di-protonated forms) and the influence of π-conjugation. Being related to planarity, the latter property is known to be highly correlated to the antioxidant capacity; the higher the π-conjugation, the better the [MTF – H]^* stability and the easier the HAT from MTF for an efficient free radical scavenging.

The conformational analysis was performed taking the protonation state of MTF (i.e., non-, mono- and di-protonated) into account. For non-protonated MTF, six conformers were obtained, the most stable involving one hydrogen bond between N6 and H(N5) of the primary amine group (Fig. 3). This conformer exhibits a strong planar character associated with a strong sp² character of N5. Two other conformers of interest involve the H bond between the two imine groups (N6/H(N7) or N7/H(N6)). They are less stable by 3.5 kcal mol⁻¹ due to a weaker H bonding interaction, as exemplified by a H-bond distance higher by 0.2 Å, with respect to the most stable conformer.

As a consequence, the planarity is lost for such conformers and N5 exhibits a stronger sp³ character. The other three conformers exhibit strong steric interaction avoiding planarity.

The most stable conformer of the mono-protonated MTF is the most planar, with a hydrogen bond between H(N6) and N7, and a strong sp² character for N5. The other conformers are much less stable by at least 7 kcal mol⁻¹, because of steric hindrance between H atoms (imine groups) and of subsequent loss of planarity.

The same steric hindrance between H atoms of imine groups becomes critical and must be avoided for the di-protonated MTF, as similarly observed in the crystal structure of N,N-dimethylbiguanidium nitrate.²⁰ Two symmetrically stable conformers have been isolated, with the torsion angle (N6-C2-N3-C4) equal to −36° or +36°. Even if this structure cannot be planar, nitrogen atoms were found to be almost purely sp², except for N6 that exhibited a low sp³ character.

For each protonation state of MTF, one of the nitrogen atoms thus exhibits a mixed sp²–sp³ character. Consequently, a second conformer has to be taken into account, because of an inversion that could occur for the atom involved. The energy of each of these conformers (i.e., with or without inversion) was

Fig. 3 Three dimensional structures of the most stable conformers obtained for the (a) non-, (b) mono- and (c) di-protonated MTF.
calculated, and was found to be the same. In addition, both conformers exhibited the same electronic properties.

H-atom abstraction or electron transfer to generate the MTF primary radicals

The primary attack of HO· radicals towards MTF occurs according to three possible pathways, namely the pure HAT which is often related to a proton-coupled-electron transfer (PCET), electron transfer (ET) and HO· addition, corresponding to reactions (3)–(5), respectively:

\[ \text{MTF} + \text{HO}^\cdot \rightarrow [\text{MTF} - \text{H}]^+ + \text{H}_2\text{O} \]  \hspace{1cm} (3)
\[ \text{MTF} + \text{HO}^\cdot \rightarrow \text{MTF}^\cdot + \text{HO}^- \]  \hspace{1cm} (4)
\[ \text{MTF} + \text{HO}^\cdot \rightarrow [\text{HO} \cdots \text{MTF}]^\cdot \]  \hspace{1cm} (5)

Reaction (4) could evolve through heterolytic dissociation (proton transfer, PT) that finally leads to MTF· + H_2O and the whole process is often quoted ET–PT. On the basis of previous results obtained at neutral pH, 10 reaction (5) is not favoured since hydroxymetformin is not detected. The HAT mechanism (reaction (3)) is governed by the bond dissociation enthalpy (BDE) of the N–H or C–H bonds. If the entropic effect is negligible, which is usually the case for one-at-one transfer reaction, \( \Delta G_{\text{HAT}} \) (i.e., \( \Delta G_{\text{HAT}} = [G^o([\text{MTF} - \text{H}]^+)] + G^o([\text{HO}^\cdot])] - [G^o([\text{MTF}]) + G^o([\text{HO}^-])] \)) is negative if BDE(MTF) is lower than BDE(HO•). Whatever the protonation state of MTF, the lowest BDE is obtained for the methyl at C8 (Table 2), the one in anti as compared to N6. However, BDE at C9 being close to that at C8, both methyl groups are equivalent targets for HO• attack. HAT from the imine and amine groups is less effective, with BDEs higher by about 7 to 14 kcal mol\(^{-1}\) in solution. This result is in good agreement with the chemical structure of the identified oxidation end-products of MTF, in particular MBG and MTFOOH (Fig. 1), which suggests the N-dimethyl moiety of MTF as the reactive site. The above-calculated BDEs are relatively high if compared to O–H BDEs of phenol groups of well-known natural antioxidants (e.g., quercetin, dehydrosylibin), usually ranging from 75 to 85 kcal mol\(^{-1}\).

Reaction (3) is usually the case for one-atom transfer reaction, with a spin density strongly localized on the carbon atom from where the H atom has been removed (data not shown).

### Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>H-positions</th>
<th>Non-protonated</th>
<th>Mono-protonated</th>
<th>Di-protonated</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>94.9</td>
<td>99.5</td>
<td>96.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>104.5</td>
<td>104.3</td>
<td>101.8</td>
</tr>
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<td>6</td>
<td>95.5</td>
<td>97.8</td>
<td>110.9</td>
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<td>101.4</td>
<td>104.1</td>
</tr>
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<td>90.4</td>
<td>93.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>89.6</td>
<td>91.3</td>
<td>94.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Scheme 1

Proposed reaction mechanism of MTF primary radical formation, via H-atom and electron transfer.

The electron transfer mechanism (ET, reaction (4)) is kinetically controlled by the ionization potential and the Gibbs energy of the reaction i.e., \( \Delta G_{\text{ET}} = [G^o([\text{MTF}^\cdot])] + G^o([\text{HO}^-]) - [G^o([\text{MTF}]) + G^o([\text{HO}])] \). For this mechanism, \( \Delta G_{\text{ET}} \) and \( \Delta G_{\text{ET}}^{\text{solvent}} \) have been calculated and are reported in Table 3. As expected, \( \Delta G_{\text{ET}}^{\text{gas}} \) increases as MTF becomes more protonated i.e., ET is somehow activated in the deprotonated forms. If solvent is not included in calculation, this mechanism is thermodynamically not possible as \( \Delta G_{\text{ET}}^{\text{gas}} \) values are too high, even at basic pH (+136.8 kcal mol\(^{-1}\)). When including the solvent, \( \Delta G_{\text{ET}}^{\text{solvent}} \) dramatically decreases whatever the protonation state of MTF, to reach 16.1, 32.8 and 66.2 kcal mol\(^{-1}\) for the non-, mono- and di-protonated MTF, respectively. Such an influence of the solvent was previously observed for flavonoid compounds and was attributed the X-atom stabilizing effect of the solvent towards the radical cation formed after ET. As a consequence, the ET mechanism cannot be viewed as minor, mainly for the non-protonated MTF.

The reaction mechanisms for MTF primary radical generation are summarized in Scheme 1. Whatever the protonation state of MTF, the HAT mechanism leads to a carbon-centered radical located on the carbon atom from where the H atom has been removed (data not shown).

### Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MTF</th>
<th>( \Delta H_{\text{ET}} ) (kcal mol(^{-1}))</th>
<th>( \Delta G_{\text{ET}} ) (kcal mol(^{-1}))</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Non-protonated</td>
<td>136.3</td>
<td>16.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mono-protonated</td>
<td>252.8</td>
<td>31.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Di-protonated</td>
<td>371.2</td>
<td>64.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The [MTF – H]^• primary radical is likely to occur only for the non- and mono-protonated MTF.

**[MTF − H]^• evolution**

Based on the above joint experimental and theoretical results, a comprehensive reaction mechanism of the MTF one-electron oxidation is proposed. At pH 7.15 and 11.6, the \( G/(\text{MTF}) \) radiolytic yield of MTF disappearance is close to that of HO• production (\( G/(\text{HO}^-) \)). Thus, the reaction between one molecule of MTF and one HO• radical leads to several oxidation end-products without any regeneration of MTF (dismutation process).

Starting from the [MTF – H]^• primary radical, two main reaction mechanisms are considered i.e., dioxygen addition or cyclization. The former reaction is initiated by the addition of either dioxygen or superoxide radical onto [MTF – H]^•, yielding a peroxyl radical or a peroxyl anion, respectively. The first addition-mechanism (addition of triplet dioxygen on [MTF – H]^•)
is obviously favoured at a position where the spin density is the most important, namely C8 and C9. This addition is very exothermic with $\Delta G^\circ = -19.2$, -16.3 and -12.6 kcal mol$^{-1}$ for the non-, mono- and di-protonated MTF, respectively (Table 4). However, this is a limiting step as the corresponding calculated energy barrier is very high. Such a high-energy barrier is attributed to the strong reorganization of the carbon atom from the sp$^2$ to sp$^3$ hybridization state. This barrier increases while pH decreases, which is rationalized by the spin density distribution in the corresponding transition state (MTFOO$^+$) at C8 and the O atom of dioxygen. For the non-protonated MTF, the calculated spin density is 0.15 and 0.67 for both atoms, respectively, while for the mono-protonated MTF, it is 0.07 and 0.52, respectively. As a consequence, the electron pair that leads to bond formation in MTFOO$^+$ is stronger for the non-protonated than for the mono-protonated form of MTF. The corresponding [C–O] distance is indeed lower in MTFOO$^+$ of the former state (0.172 vs. 0.202 nm for both forms, respectively) and the corresponding energy barrier is higher. The second addition-mechanism (i.e., addition of the superoxide anion to the MTF primary radical [MTF $-$ H$^+$]) appears favourable for two reasons: the process is more exothermic than the dioxygen addition because of lower Gibbs energy (--29.6 and -45.7 kcal mol$^{-1}$ for non- and mono-protonated MTF, respectively) and the corresponding energy barrier is lower. This addition process yields a peroxy anion, evolving into hydroperoxometformin (MTFOOH), as summarized in Scheme 2.

The second reaction mechanism that is considered with [MTF $-$ H$^+$] generates the cyclic 4,2,1-AIMT (and 2,4-AMT, chemically generated from 4,2,1-AIMT as previously suggested). The cyclisation process must occur by the formation of a bond between N7 and C8 (or C9). Nonetheless, regarding the conformation of MTF and [MTF $-$ H$^+$], this mechanism is not trivial because the two atoms are not spatially close to each other (Fig. 3). Thus, 4,2,1-AIMT formation was investigated as a two-stage mechanism, i.e. (1) torsion of the C4–N3–C2–N1 dihedral that leads to a reorganized MTF and (2) N–C bond formation. The energetic schemes are presented in Fig. 4 for the different forms of MTF, namely non- mono- and di-protonated. Solvent effects decreased all energetic barriers and intermediate stabilities, but provided the same trend as with the gas phase calculations (Fig. 4). The second (bond formation) step of 4,2,1-AIMT formation is the limiting step, the first (re-arrangement) step appearing as a faster process (Gibbs energy of activation ranging from 2.1 to 3.4 kcal mol$^{-1}$ from the di- to the non-protonated form). The Gibbs energies of activation of the second step were 18.6 kcal mol$^{-1}$, 9.7 kcal mol$^{-1}$ and 20.2 kcal mol$^{-1}$ (PCM solvent calculations), for the non-, mono- and di-protonated MTF, respectively. The 4,2,1-AIMT formation appears more favourable under neutral and acidic pH conditions as (i) the [MTF $-$ H$^+$] rearrangement is easier for the di-protonated MTF and less favourable for the other two protonation states of MTF, and (ii) the N–C bond formation is favoured at quasi-neutral pH, as suggested by the low energy barrier. At pH 7.15, MTF is exclusively in its mono-protonated form and the two cyclic products, 4,2,1-AIMT and 2,4-AMT, account for 45% of the oxidation end-products formed (Table 1). If the mono-protonated MTF is assumed to be the most favourable protonation state for 4,2,1-AIMT formation (low energy of rearrangement and low transition state energy), the cyclisation at pH 2.8 and pH 11.6 could assume to proceed via acid–base equilibrium between di- and mono-protonated MTF on one hand, and mono- and non-protonated MTF on the other hand. Thus, 4,2,1-AIMT and 2,4-AMT are also formed at both pH 2.8 and 11.6, but to a slightly less extent at the latter pH because in this case the rearrangement step appears to be slightly slower than at lower pH.

Scheme 2 proposes a reaction mechanism for the formation of 4,2,1-AIMT and 2,4-AMT. After conformational reorganization of [MTF $-$ H$^+$] as discussed above, the N7–C8(C9) bond is formed and the cyclic [MTF $-$ H$^+$] radical is generated. A bi-radical reaction involving other radical species present in solution, such as MBG$^*_\text{precursor}$ (the reaction mechanism of MBG formation is discussed below), converts the cyclic [MTF $-$ H$^+$] into a neutral molecule, which is further oxidized by oxygen (or hydrogen peroxide, produced during water radiolysis) leading to 4,2,1-AIMT. Depending on pH, this compound could undergo a methyl transfer from N1 to N6 to isomerize into 2,4-AMT. For the methyl transfer reaction to occur a sufficient spin density on N6 is required, as a classic proton transfer. As N6 is protonated at pH 2.8, the 2,4-AMT isomer is not observed (Table 1).

### Table 4: Formation of MTFOO$^+$ or MTFOO$^-$ after addition of triplet dioxygen $^{1}O_2$ or the superoxide anion $O_2^-$ onto the MTF primary radical [MTF $-$ H$^+$], as a function of the protonation state of MTF. $\Delta G^\circ$ and $\Delta G^\text{th}$ values correspond to the difference of Gibbs free energy (kcal mol$^{-1}$) between the final and the initial compound, and the corresponding Gibbs energy of activation (kcal mol$^{-1}$), respectively.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MTF</th>
<th>MTFOO$^+$</th>
<th>MTFOO$^-$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Non-protonated</td>
<td>$-19.2$</td>
<td>$-29.6$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mono-protonated</td>
<td>$-16.3$</td>
<td>$-45.7$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Di-protonated</td>
<td>$-12.6$</td>
<td>$-15.3$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

MTF$^*$ evolution

Starting from the ET-induced MTF$^*$ radical cation, Scheme 3 proposes a comprehensive reaction mechanism for MBG formation. In this mechanism, the methyl group at C8 (or C9) of MTF$^*$ is...
attacked by HO⁻ (generated from HO⁺ during the ET mechanism), yielding MBG_{precursor} and CH₃OH. A bi-radical reaction, involving other radical species present in solution including the cyclic [MTF - H]⁺, converts MBG_{precursor} into MBG.

As described above, the ET process is highly unfavourable at low pH, but the Gibbs energy of formation dramatically decreases when pH increases (Table 3). Thus, the formation of MBG appears to be favoured at basic pH, which fully agrees with the experimental results (Table 1), in such a way that MBG is the major oxidation product at pH 11.6. In this case, the ET mechanism is considered as the major mechanism of MTF oxidation.

One of the crucial steps in MBG formation is also the CH₃⁺ abstraction. The most trivial assumption is that CH₃⁺ is scavenged by HO⁻, according to the following reaction:

\[ \text{MTF}^{••} + \text{HO}^- \rightarrow \text{MBG}^{••}_{\text{precursor}} + \text{CH}_3\text{OH} \] (6)

Calculations at the DFT level have shown that reaction (6) is exothermic, with a Gibbs energy of -39.3, -30.8 and -71.0 kcal mol⁻¹ for the non-, mono- and di-protonated MTF, respectively. This mechanism is probably concerted, and involves HO⁻ generated from HO⁺ during ET. The following steps are well-known bi-radical reactions that occur in radiolytic solutions. MBG may exist as two tautomers (MBG₁ and MBG₂, Scheme 3), MBG₂ being preferred by around 5 kcal mol⁻¹ (according to the Boltzmann distribution, 5 kcal mol⁻¹ corresponds to a 0.02/99.98% ratio).

**Conclusions**

A comprehensive reaction mechanism of MTF one-electron oxidation by HO⁻/O₂⁻ radical species has been established as a function of the pH. The HPLC/MS quantification of both MTF consumption and formation of oxidation products was achieved, after radio-induced oxidation at increasing radiation doses. The four oxidation products, i.e., MTFOOH, MBG, 4,2,1-AIMT and 2,4-AMT, and their corresponding radiolytic yields allowed proposing two distinct mechanisms for the reaction of HO⁺ with MTF. At pH 11.6 and 7.15, the sum of all oxidation product yields (\( \sum P_{\text{ox}} \)) was similar to \( G(\text{HO}^+) \), which was related to the absence of the dismutation process. In this case, the oxidation results in the formation of MBG as the major product, MTFOOH, 2,4-AMT and 4,2,1-AIMT being minor products. By contrast, at pH 2.8, \( \sum P_{\text{ox}} \) was close to \( \frac{1}{2} G(\text{HO}^+) \), which suggested a dismutation mechanism allowing reformation of MTF. At this low pH, 4,2,1-AIMT is the major oxidation product, together with MTFOOH and MBG. Quantum calculations fully rationalized the different steps, according to pH i.e., the protonation state. This provides an accurate tool to investigate oxidative reactions of biologically active compounds under various conditions.

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