

Computer-assisted design for paracetamol masking bitter taste prodrugs

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Abstract It is believed that the bitter taste of paracetamol, a pain killer drug, is due to its hydroxyl group. Hence, it is expected that blocking the hydroxy group with a suitable linker could inhibit the interaction of paracetamol with its bitter taste receptor/s and hence masking its bitterness. Using DFT theoretical calculations we calculated proton transfers in ten different Kirby's enzyme models, 1–10. The calculation results revealed that the reaction rate is linearly correlated with the distance between the two reactive centers (r_{GM}) and the angle of the hydrogen bonding (α) formed along the reaction pathway. Based on these results three novel tasteless paracetamol prodrugs were designed and the thermodynamic and kinetic parameters for their proton transfers were calculated. Based on the experimental $t_{1/2}$ (the time needed for the conversion of 50% of the reactants to products) and EM (effective molarity) values for processes 1–10 we have calculated the $t_{1/2}$ values for the conversion of the three prodrugs to the parental drug, paracetamol. The calculated $t_{1/2}$ values for ProD 1–3 were found to be 21.3 hours, 4.7 hours and 8 minutes, respectively. Thus, the rate by which the paracetamol prodrug undergoes cleavage to release paracetamol can be determined according to the nature of the linker of the

prodrug (Kirby's enzyme model 1–10). Further, blocking the phenolic hydroxyl group by a linker moiety is believed to hinder the paracetamol bitterness.

Keywords DFT calculations · Kirby's enzyme models · Masking bitter taste · Paracetamol prodrugs · Proton transfer reaction

Introduction

Bitter or unpleasant taste is a major problem in the food and medicine industries. As several oral pharmaceuticals and bulking agents have unpleasant, bitter-tasting components, Pediatric patients resist taking medicine due to their bitterness or unpleasant taste. The bitterness of these preparations leads to lack of patient compliance. The problem of bitterness of drugs in pediatric and geriatric formulations is creating a serious challenge to pharmacists [1].

The desire of improved palatability in bitter taste products has prompted the development of numerous formulations with improved performance and acceptability [2]. In order to satisfy the patient compliance for taking medicines bitterness masking becomes essential. Different approaches are commonly utilized to overcome bitter and unpleasant taste of drugs. This includes reduction of drug solubility in saliva, where a balance between reduced solubility and bioavailability must be achieved, but these approaches were found to be limited and could not overcome the problem of bitterness [3]. Thus, different strategies should be developed in order to overcome this serious problem.

Drugs or molecules interact with taste receptors on the tongue to give bitter, sweet or other taste sensations. Altering the ability of the drug to interact with taste

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receptors could reduce or eliminate their bitterness. This could be achieved by an appropriate modification of the structure and the size of a bitter compound.

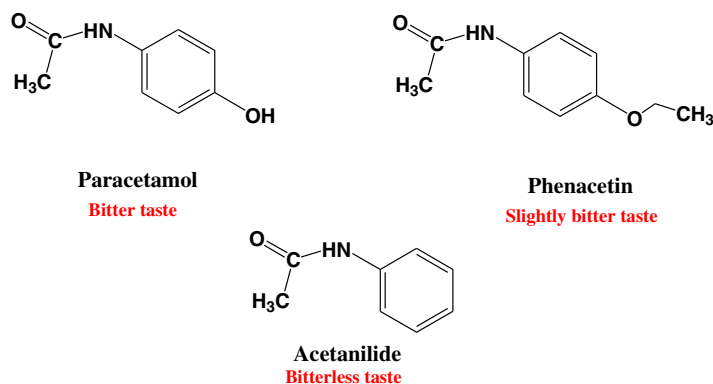
During the last ten years, tremendous progress in the elucidation of bitter taste reception and transduction on the cellular level was made and many new molecules and compounds to reduce off-taste were reported, but none of those were found to eliminate the bitterness fully [4].

Since the discovery and identification of the receptor proteins responsible for bitter taste reception, the mechanism of bitter reception by taste receptor cells seems to be generally known nowadays. Bitter molecules bind to G-protein coupled receptor-type T2R on the apical membrane of the taste receptor cells located in the taste buds. In humans, about 25 different T2R are described. Additionally, several alleles are known and about 1000 different bitter phenotypes exist in human beings [4, 5].

Due to the wide variation of the structure basis of bitter tasting molecules, it is difficult to generalize the molecular requirements for bitterness. Nevertheless, it was noted that a bitter molecule needs a polar group and a hydrophobic moiety (mono polar-hydrophobic concept). A quantitative structure

activity relationship (QSAR) model was developed and could be established for the prediction of bitterness of several analogues. For example, it was reported that an addition of pyridinium moiety to an amino acid chain of a variety of bitter amino acids compounds decreases the bitterness such as in the case of glycine (e.g., pyridinium glycyl betain). Other structural modifications such as an increase in the number of amino groups/residues to more than three and a reduction in the poly-hydroxyl group/COOH has been proven to decrease the bitterness in a significant manner. Furthermore, changing the configuration of bitter compounds by preparing isomer analogues was found to be important for binding affinity to enhance bitterness agonist activity (e.g., L-tryptophan is bitter while D-tryptophan is sweet, and there are many other examples) [4, 6].

Paracetamol is an odorless crystalline compound with a bitter taste widely used as pain killer and to reduce the temperature of patients with fever. These actions are known respectively as analgesic and antipyretic. Initially, paracetamol was found in the urine of patients who had taken phenacetin and later on it was demonstrated that paracetamol was a urinary metabolite of acetanilide [7].



Phenacetin, on the other hand, lacks or has a very slight bitter taste [8]. Examination of the structures of paracetamol and phenacetin reveals that the only difference in the structural features in both is the nature of the group on the *para* position of the benzene ring. While in the case of paracetamol the group is hydroxy, in phenacetin it is ethoxy. Another related example is acetanilide that has a chemical structure similar to that of paracetamol and phenacetin but it lacks the group in the *para* position of the benzene ring. Acetanilide has a burning taste and lacks the bitter taste characteristic for paracetamol [9]. The combined facts described above suggest that the presence of hydroxy group on the *para* position is the major contributor for the bitter taste of paracetamol. Hence, it is

expected that blocking the hydroxy group in paracetamol with a suitable linker could inhibit the interaction of paracetamol with its bitter taste receptor/s and hence masking its bitterness.

It seems reasonable to assume that the phenolic hydroxyl group in paracetamol is crucial for obtaining the bitter taste characteristic for paracetamol. This might be due to the ability of paracetamol to be engaged in a hydrogen bonding net with the active site of its bitter taste receptor *via* its phenolic hydroxyl group.

Recently we have been researching the mechanistic pathways of some intramolecular processes that have been used as enzyme models and prodrug linkers [10–27]. Utilizing DFT and *ab initio* molecular orbital calculation

methods, we have studied: 1) (a) acid-catalyzed lactonization of hydroxy-acids as investigated by Cohen [28–30] and Menger [31–38], (b) S_N2 -based-cyclization reactions of dicarboxylic semi-esters to yield anhydrides as studied by Bruice [39, 40], (c) intramolecular S_N2 -based ring-closing reactions as researched by Brown's group [41] and Mandolini's group [42], (d) proton transfer between two oxygens in Kirby's acetals [43–52], and proton transfer between nitrogen and oxygen in Kirby's enzyme models [43–52], (e) proton transfer between two oxygens in rigid systems as investigated by Menger [31–38], and (f) proton transfer from oxygen to carbon in some of Kirby's enol ethers [43–52] arriving at the following conclusions. (1) The driving force for enhancements in rate for intramolecular processes are both entropy and enthalpy effects. In the cases by which enthalpic effects were predominant such as ring-cyclization and proton transfer reactions proximity or/and steric effects were the driving force for rate accelerations. (2) The nature of the reaction being intermolecular or intramolecular is determined on the distance between the two reactive centers. (3) In S_N2 -based ring-closing reactions leading to three-, four- and five-membered rings the *gem*-dialkyl effect is more dominant in processes involving the formation of an unstrained five-membered ring, and the need for directional flexibility decreases as the size of the ring being formed increases. (4) Accelerations in the rate for intramolecular reactions are a result of both entropy and enthalpy effects. (5) An efficient proton transfer between two oxygens and between nitrogen and oxygen in Kirby's acetal systems were affordable when a strong hydrogen bonding was developed in the products and the corresponding transition states leading to them.

Our previous studies on enzyme models established the necessity to explore the reaction mechanism in order to assign the driving force affecting the reaction rate for a design of an efficient chemical device (prodrug) capable of releasing the parental drug in a programmable manner [10–27]. The prodrugs are designed such that they undergo cleavage reactions in physiological environments (pH 1.5, 6.5 and 7.4) with rates that are completely dependent on the structural features of the inactive linker. A number of linkers could be used to obtain different prodrugs that release the parental drug in different rates that are dependent on the nature or the structural features of the linker.

Continuing our research for utilizing enzyme models as potential linkers for drugs containing hydroxyl groups, we sought to study the mechanism and driving forces affecting the proton transfer rate in some of Kirby's enzyme models (prodrugs linkers). It is expected that such linkers will have a potential to be good carriers to paracetamol. It is worth noting that linking the paracetamol with such linkers *via* its phenolic hydroxyl group will hinder its bitter taste.

Our proposed paracetamol prodrug systems based on proton transfer reactions are illustrated in Scheme 1.

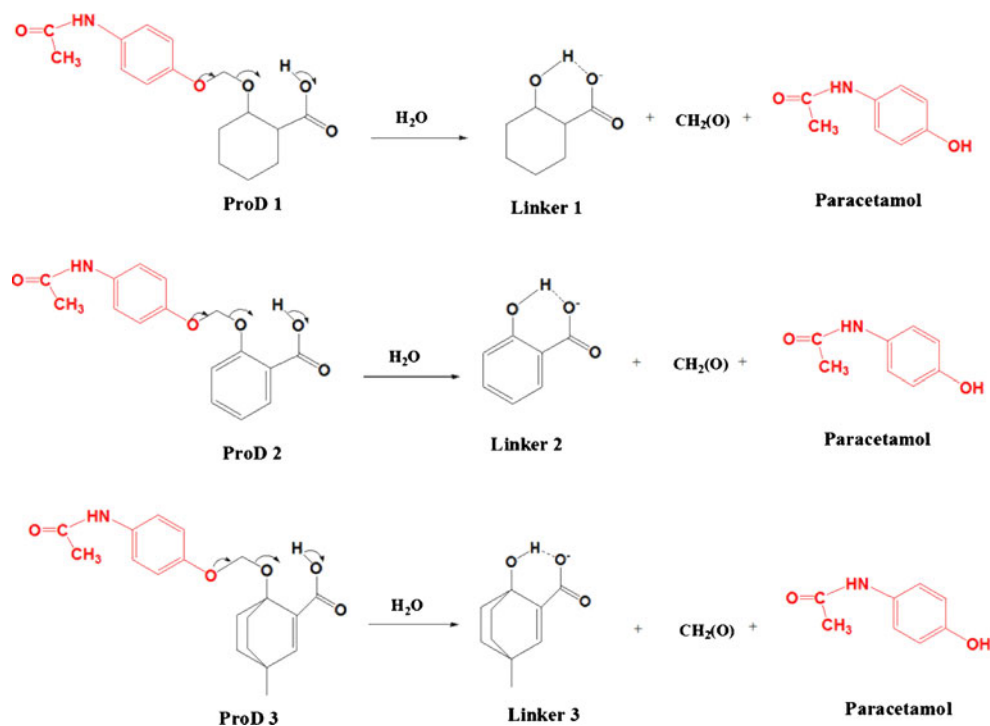
Based on the DFT calculations on the proton transfers in Kirby's enzyme models 1–10 reported herein (Scheme 2), three paracetamol prodrugs are proposed. As shown in Scheme 1, the paracetamol prodrugs, ProD 1–3, have a carboxylic acid group (hydrophilic moiety) and a lipophilic moiety (the rest of the molecule), where the combination of both groups ensures a moderate HLB. It should be noted that the HLB value will be determined upon the physiologic environment by which the prodrug is dissolved. For example, in the stomach, the paracetamol prodrugs will primarily exist in the carboxylic acid form whereas in the blood circulation the carboxylate anion form will be predominant. It is planned that ProD 1–3 will be obtained as sodium or potassium carboxylate salt since this form is expected to be resistant to cleavage by a proton transfer process. The latter is feasible when the carboxylate anion is converted to the free acid form (Scheme 1).

It should be emphasized that prodrugs ProD 1–3 could be used in different dosage forms (tablets, syrups, suppositories, and etc.) because of their potential solubility in organic and aqueous media due to the ability of their carboxyl groups to be converted to the corresponding carboxylate salt.

In this manuscript, we describe our DFT quantum molecular orbital investigations of ground state and transition state structures, vibrational frequencies, and reaction trajectories for intramolecular proton transfer in ten of Kirby's enzyme model systems 1–10 (Scheme 2). It is expected that the calculations study on systems 1–10 will provide a good basis for the prediction of the pharmacokinetic behavior of paracetamol prodrugs of the type ProD 1–3.

Calculations methods

The DFT calculations at B3LYP/6-31G (d,p) level were carried out using the quantum chemical package Gaussian-98 [53]. The starting geometries of all the molecules presented in this study were obtained using the Argus Lab program [54] and were initially optimized in the presence of one molecule of water at the AM1 level of theory, followed by an optimization at the HF/6-31G level [53]. The calculations were carried out based on the restricted Hartree-Fock (RHF) method with full optimization of all geometrical variables. An energy minimum (a stable compound or a reactive intermediate) has no negative vibrational force constant. A transition state is a saddle point which has only one negative vibrational force constant [55]. The "reaction coordinate method" [56] was used to calculate the activation energy in systems 1–10 and ProD 1–3. In this method, one bond length is constrained for the appropriate degree of freedom while all other variables are freely optimized. The activation energy values for the

Scheme 1 Proton transfer reactions in ProD 1–3

proton transfer reactions were calculated from the difference in energies of the global minimum structures and the derived transition states (TS). Verification of the desired reactants and products was accomplished using the “intrinsic coordinate method” [56]. The transition state structures were verified by their only one negative frequency. Full optimization of the transition states was accomplished after removing any constraints imposed while executing the energy profile. The activation energies obtained from DFT at B3LYP/6-31G (d,p) level of theory for 1–10 and ProD 1–3 were calculated with and without the inclusion of solvent (water). The calculations with the incorporation of a solvent were performed using the integral equation formalism model of the polarizable continuum model (PCM) [57–60].

Results and discussion

To mask paracetamol bitterness, the pro-drug approach of linking paracetamol to a moiety, which upon dissolution in a physiologic environment, liberates the parental drug seems to be promising. Kirby’s mechanistic study on acetals that were used as enzyme models has inspired us to exploit these models as appropriate linkers for masking the bitter taste of paracetamol. Kirby’s kinetic study on processes 1–10 (Scheme 2) indicates that the rate-limiting step in these processes is a proton transfer from the carboxylic hydroxyl group into the neighboring ether oxygen. In addition, Kirby’s findings revealed that the proton transfer rate is largely determined on the strength of the hydrogen

bonds in the products and consequently in the transition state leading to them [43–52]. Thus, it is safe to conclude that the proton transfer rate is dependent on the structural features of the enzyme model (linker) as evident from the different experimental rate values measured for processes 1–10.

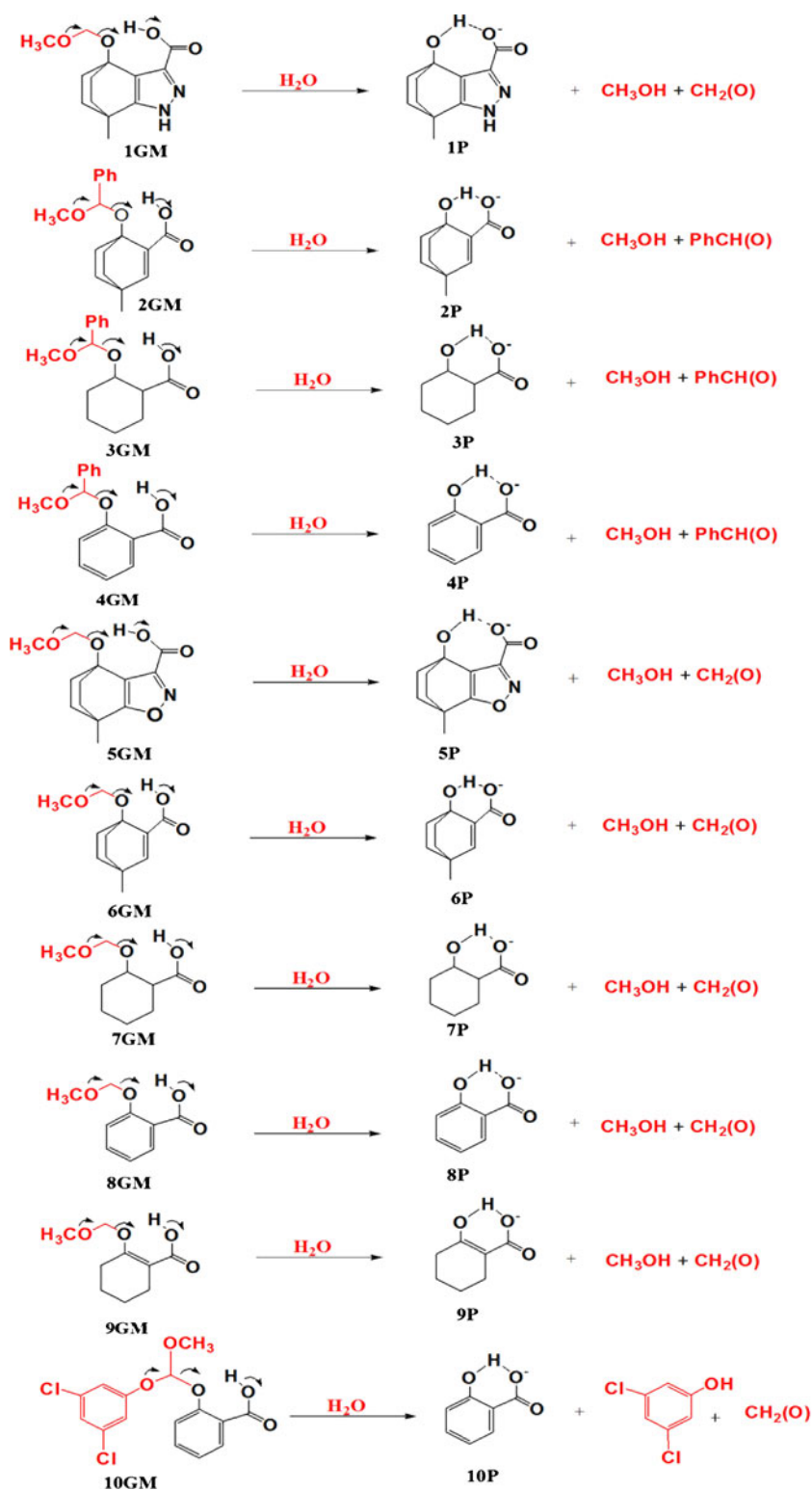
Replacing the leaving group (methoxy) in the reactants of the linkers 1–10 (Scheme 2) with paracetamol (ProD 1–3, Scheme 1) is not expected to have any significant effect on the rates of the proton transfer in these processes. Therefore, computational investigation of the kinetic properties for these linkers will shed light on the cleavage rates of paracetamol prodrugs ProD 1–3.

General consideration

Because the energy of carboxylic acid is strongly dependent on its conformation and especially on its ability to be engaged either inter- or intramolecularly in hydrogen bonding, we were concerned with the identification of the most stable conformation (global minimum) for each of Kirby’s enzyme models 1–10 and prodrugs ProD 1–3 calculated in this study. This was accomplished by 36 rotations of the carboxyl group about the bond C4–C6 in increments of 10° (i.e., variation of the dihedral angle O5C4C6C7, see Chart 1) and calculation of the energies of the resulting conformers.

In the DFT calculations of the reactants in 1–10 and ProD 1–3, two types of conformers were considered: one in which the carboxylic hydroxyl proton is *syn* to the alkoxy

Scheme 2 Proton transfer reactions in 1–10, where GM and P are the reactants and products, respectively



group in the β position of the carboxylic acid moiety (R, see Chart 1) and another in which it is *anti*. It was found that all global minimum structures exhibit a *syn* conformation. Further, the calculation results revealed that in 3, 7, 10 and ProD 1 the global minimum structures reside in a

conformation by which the carboxylic hydroxyl proton is far away from the alkoxy oxygen (no hydrogen bonding exists between the carboxylic hydroxyl proton and the alkoxy oxygen) and instead it engages in a hydrogen bonding with a molecule of water (Fig. 1a). For systems 1–2,

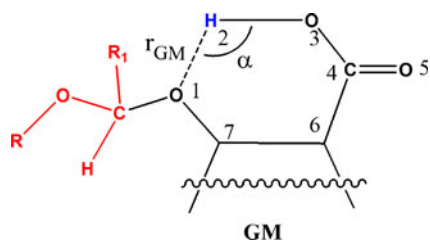


Chart 1 Schematic representation of the reactants in the proton transfers of Kirby's enzyme models 1–10 and ProD 1–3. GM is the global minimum structure, r_{GM} is the O–H distance in the GM. α , is the angle of attack (hydrogen bonding) O–H–O in the GM

4–6, 8–9, and ProD 2–3, the global minimum conformations were those having intramolecular hydrogen bonding between the carboxylic hydroxyl proton and the alkoxy oxygen (see Fig. 1a).

Structural analysis for the entities involved in the proton transfers of 1–10 and ProD 1–3

Global minimum structures (GM)

Generally, reactions in aqueous medium involve interactions between the reactants and water. The nature for such interactions is dependent on the structural features of the reactants. Since the proton transfers in 1–10 were carried out in aqueous medium, we have calculated the geometries of the entities involved in these processes in the presence of one molecule of water followed by optimization in a cluster of water. Figure 1a and Table 1 illustrate the DFT calculated properties for the global minimum structures of 1–10 (1GM–10GM) and ProD 1–3 (ProD 1GM–3GM). Examination of the optimized structures for 1GM–10GM and ProD 1GM–3GM indicate that 3GM, 7GM, 10GM, and ProD 1GM exhibit conformations by which the carboxylic group is engaged intermolecularly in a hydrogen bonding with a molecule of water. This is because the carboxyl group in 3GM, 7GM, 10GM, and ProD 1GM prefers to be engaged in hydrogen bonding with a molecule of water rather than intramolecularly, since the latter is energetically expensive due to a high energy barrier for the rotation of the carboxyl group around the C4–C6 bond [43–52]. It should be indicated that Fife reported that acetal 3GM shows no intramolecular general acid catalysis by the neighboring carboxyl group [61].

On the other hand, 1GM–2GM, 4GM–6GM, 8GM–9GM and ProD 2GM–3GM were found to reside in a conformation by which the carboxylic hydroxyl proton is engaged in an intramolecular hydrogen bond with the neighboring alkoxy oxygen. This engagement results in the formation of a seven-membered ring for 1GM and 5GM and a six-membered ring for 2GM–4GM, 6GM, 8GM, 9GM, ProD

2GM, and ProD 3GM (see Figs. 1a and 2). The DFT calculated hydrogen bonding length (r_{GM}) in 3GM, 7GM, 10GM, and ProD 1GM (reactants that are engaged intermolecularly with a water molecule) was found to be in the range of 3.60 Å–3.66 Å and that for the attack angle α (the hydrogen bond angle, O1H2O3) to be in the range of 47°–58°. On the other hand, the r_{GM} and α values for 1GM–10GM and ProD 1GM–3GM were 1.69 Å–1.75 Å and 143°–170.7°, respectively. Furthermore, the hydrogen bonding strength, r_{GM} (O1–H2), varies according to the structural features of the starting geometry.

Transition state structures (TS)

The DFT calculated geometries for the transition states of 1–10 (1TS–10TS) and ProD 1–3 (ProD 1TS–3TS) are depicted in Figs. 1b and 2 and Table 1. Inspection of the optimized structures for 1TS–10TS and ProD 1TS–3TS revealed that all the TS structures involve strong hydrogen bonding between the carboxylic hydroxyl proton (H2) and the ether oxygen. The calculated hydrogen bonding angle (O1H2O3) in the TS optimized structures was found in the range of 131°–170°.

Product geometries (P)

The DFT calculated geometries for the products of 1–10 (1P–6P) and ProD 1–3 (ProD 1P–3P) shown in Fig. 1c indicate the presence of a strong hydrogen bond between O1H2O3 where the bond length was found in the range 1.45 Å to 1.66 Å and the O1H2O3 angle was in the range of 154°–170°. This is similar to that found for the corresponding transition state structures, 1TS–10TS and ProD 1TS–3TS.

Calculations of the kinetic properties for the proton transfer in 1–10 and ProD 1–3

Using the quantum chemical package Gaussian-98 [53] we calculated the DFT at B3LYP/6-31G (d,p) level of theory the kinetic and thermodynamic properties for the intramolecular proton transfer in processes 1–10 and ProD 1–3 (Schemes 1 and 2).

The B3LYP/6-31G (d,p) activation energies were calculated in the presence of one molecule of water and with the inclusion of a cluster of water as a solvent. The calculation results show that the energies with and without a cluster of water are significantly different (Table 2). This indicates that the presence of water as a solvent has a profound effect on the proton transfer rate values. This is in accordance with previously reported studies by Kirby and Fife that show the importance of water in the mechanistic pathway for the proton transfer in such systems [43–52, 61].

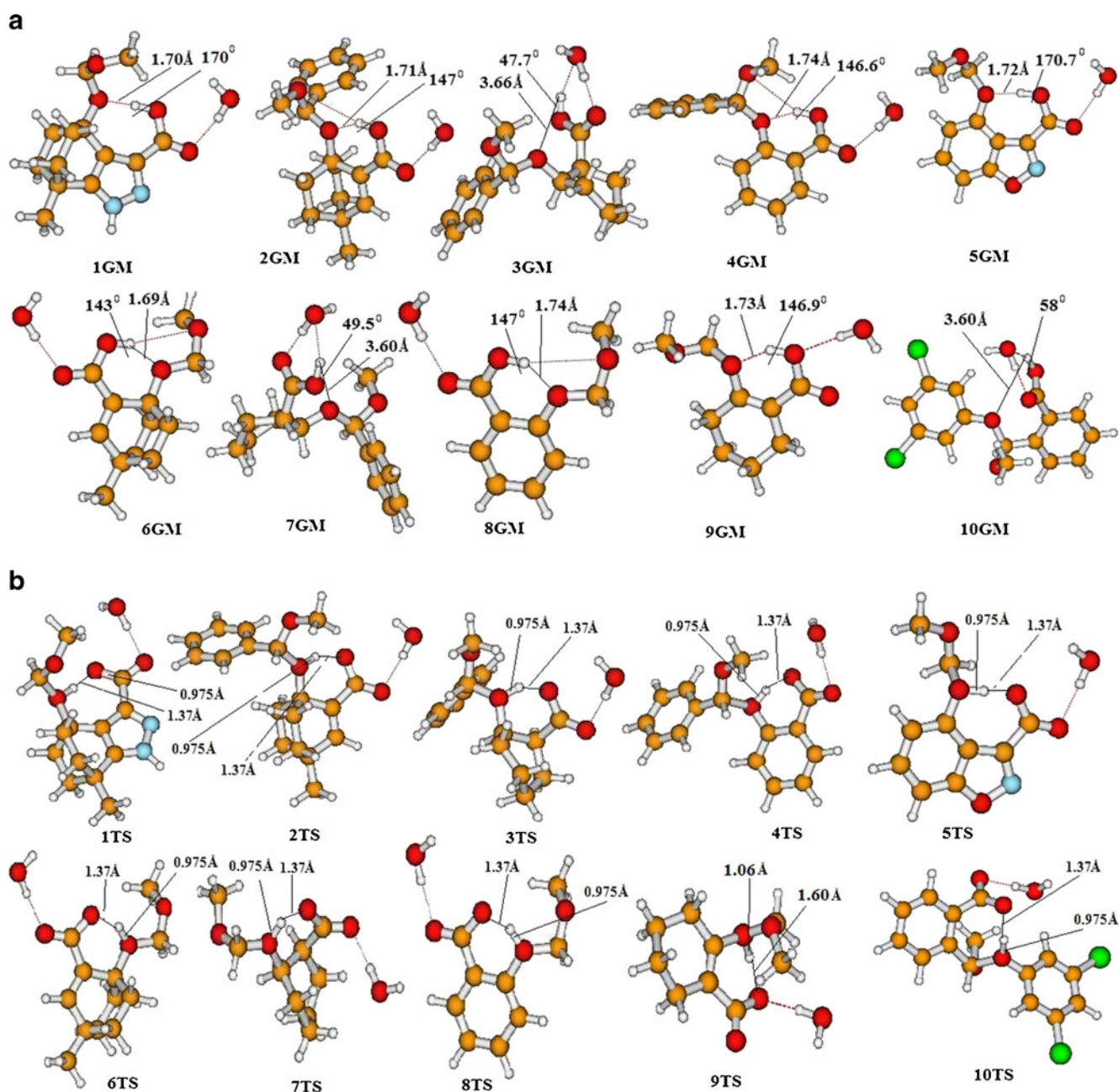


Fig. 1 (a) DFT optimized structures for the global minimum (GM) structures in the intramolecular proton transfer reaction of 1–10. (b) DFT optimized structures for the transition state (TS) structures in the

intramolecular proton transfer reaction of 1–10. (c) DFT optimized structures for the product (P) structures in the intramolecular proton transfer reaction of 1–10

Using the calculated DFT enthalpic and entropic energies for the global minimum structures 1GM–10GM and ProD 1GM–3GM and their corresponding transition states 1TS–10TS and ProD 1TS–3TS (Table 1) we have calculated the enthalpic (ΔH^\ddagger), the entropic ($T\Delta S^\ddagger$), and the free activation energies (ΔG^\ddagger), in the gas phase and in the presence of cluster of water, for the corresponding proton transfer reactions. The calculated energy values are summarized in Table 2.

The effect of the distance r_{GM} and the angle α on the activation energy for the proton transfer in processes 1–6

The intramolecular hydrogen bonding (r_{GM}) between the hydroxyl proton (H2) and the ether oxygen O1 (O1–H2) was found to be dependent on the conformation of the global minimum structure. Short r_{GM} values were obtained when the attack angle (α) values in the GM conformations

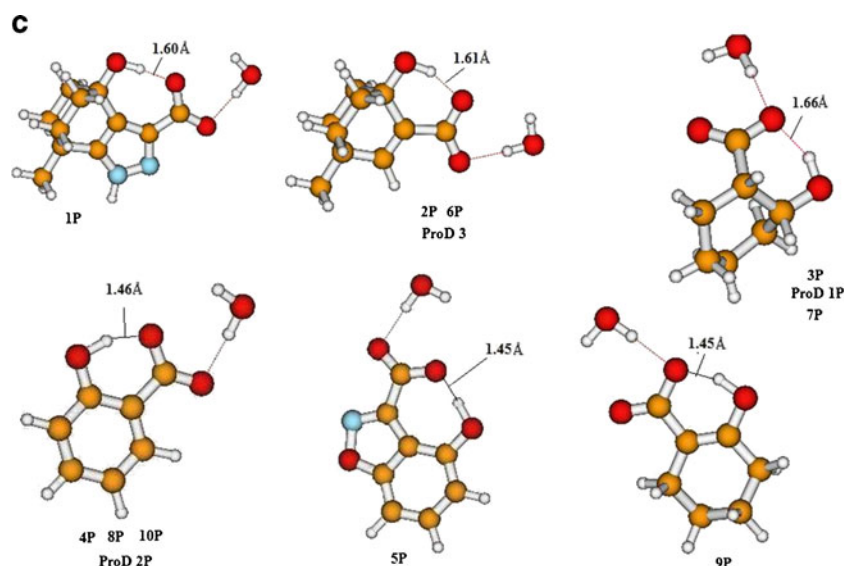


Fig. 1 (continued)

were high and close to 180° , whereas small α values resulted in longer r_{GM} distances (Figs. 1a and 2). In fact, a strong correlation with a correlation coefficient of $R=0.98$ was found between the distance r_{GM} and the attack angle α (Fig. 3a).

Examination of Table 2 revealed that the calculated free activation energy (ΔG^\ddagger) in the gas phase and in water needed to execute a proton transfer in systems 1–10 and ProD 1–3 is largely affected by both the O1-H2 distance (r_{GM}) and the attack angle O1H2O3 (α) (see Chart 1). Acetals having global minimum conformation with low r_{GM} and high α , such as 1, 5, and ProD 3, undergo proton

transfer in higher rates (lower ΔG^\ddagger) than those having high r_{GM} and low α values, such as 3, 7, and ProD 1. When r_{GM} and α values were examined for correlation with the calculated DFT enthalpic energies (ΔH^\ddagger) a linear correlation was found between ΔH^\ddagger and $r_{GM}^2 \times \sin(180-\alpha)$ with a correlation coefficient of $R=0.95$. On the other hand, a correlation of the activation free energies (ΔG^\ddagger) with $r_{GM}^2 \times \sin(180-\alpha)$ gave an R value of 0.85 (Fig. 3b).

The measure generally used for intramolecular efficiency is the effective molarity (EM). The EM parameter is defined as k_{intra}/k_{inter} for corresponding intramolecular and intermolecular processes driven by identical mechanisms.

Table 1 DFT (B3LYP) calculated properties for the proton transfer reactions of 1–10 and ProD 1–3

Struct.	Enthalpy, H In Hartree	Entropy, S, Cal/Mol-Kelvin	Frequency Cm^{-1}	Struct.	Enthalpy, H In Hartree	Entropy, S, Cal/Mol-Kelvin	Frequency Cm^{-1}
1GM	-993.05253	153.17	—————	8GM	-726.31205	132.92	—————
1TS	-993.00826	144.17	181.03i	8TS	-726.26559	119.33	132.40i
2GM	-1076.50693	172.52	—————	9GM	-728.72138	133.20	—————
2TS	-1076.45691	160.07	611.61i	9TS	-728.66450	120.34	522.39i
3GM	-957.37381	159.64	—————	10GM	-1876.55809	152.33	—————
3TS	-957.32753	142.46	184.58i	10TS	-1876.49684	154.58	719.08i
4GM	-961.00056	152.14	—————	ProD 1GM	-1129.71308	171.26	—————
4TS	-960.93507	155.62	578.23i	ProD 1TS	-1129.63371	160.51	612.59i
5GM	-893.73201	135.57	—————	ProD 2GM	-1126.07858	165.90	—————
5TS	-893.68532	135.66	165.49i	ProD 2TS	-1126.02298	160.67	215.70i
6GM	-845.44633	147.15	—————	ProD 3GM	-1245.20203	173.32	—————
6TS	-845.39359	142.97	558.92i	ProD 3TS	-1245.15174	175.96	256.26i
7GM	-729.94298	129.27	—————	—————	—————	—————	—————
7TS	-729.87241	121.80	390.28i	—————	—————	—————	—————

B3LYP refers to values calculated by B3LYP/6-31G (d, p) in the gas phase. GM and TS are global minimum and transition state structures, respectively

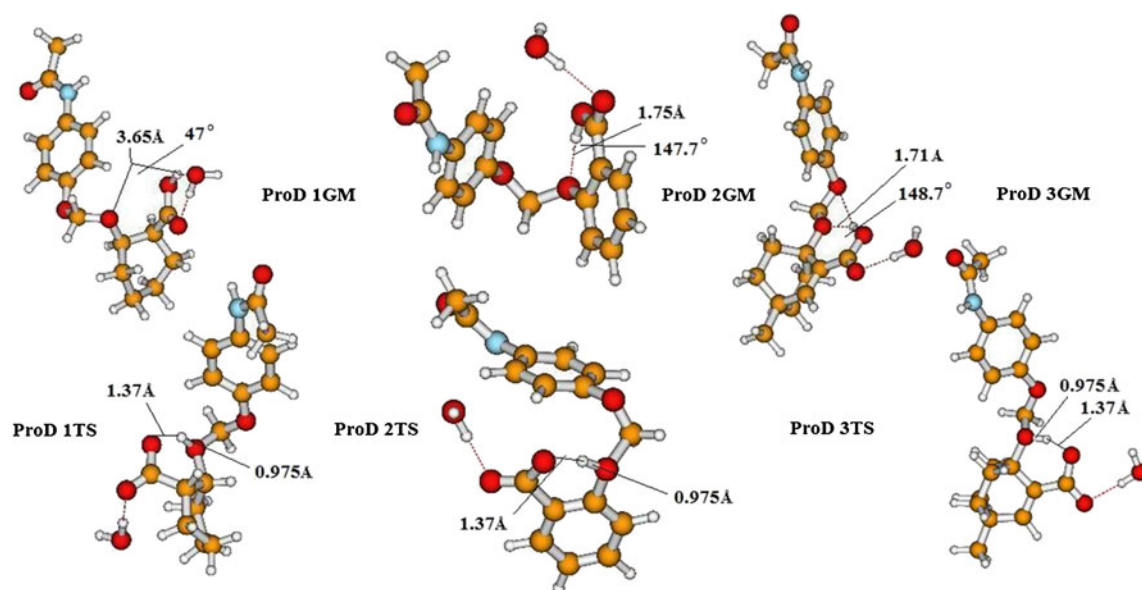


Fig. 2 DFT optimized global minimum (GM) and transition state structures (TS) for processes ProD 1–3

The factors determining the EM value are ring size, solvent and reaction type. Cyclization reactions *via* intramolecular nucleophilic addition are much more efficient than intramolecular proton transfers. Values in the order of 10^9 – 10^{13} M have been measured for the effective molarity in intramolecular processes occurring through nucleophilic addition. Whereas for proton transfer processes values of less than 10 M were obtained [62]. The effective molarity parameter is considered an excellent tool to describe the efficiency of a certain intramolecular process.

In order to obtain credibility for our calculation results we introduce our computation rational for calculating the

EM values for processes 1–10 based on the DFT calculated activation energies (ΔG^\ddagger) of 1–10 and the corresponding intermolecular process 11 (Scheme 3).

Equation 5 which describes the EM term as a function of the difference in the activation energies of the intra- and the corresponding intermolecular processes was derived from Eqs. 1, 2, 3 and 4. The calculated EM values for processes 1–10 by using Eq. 5 are listed in Table 2.

$$EM = k_{\text{intra}}/k_{\text{inter}} \quad (1)$$

$$\Delta G_{\text{inter}}^\ddagger = -RT \ln k_{\text{inter}} \quad (2)$$

Table 2 DFT (B3LYP/6-31G (d,p)) calculated kinetic and thermodynamic properties for the proton transfers in 1–10 and ProD 1–3

System	log EM ^{43–52} (exp.)	log EM (calc.)	ΔH^\ddagger (gas phase)	T ΔS^\ddagger (gas phase)	ΔG^\ddagger (gas phase)	ΔH^\ddagger (Water)	ΔG^\ddagger (Water)
1	10.000	10.58	27.78	-2.68	30.46	21.47	24.15
2	3.4771	6.04	31.38	-3.71	35.09	26.64	30.35
3	—————	-0.41	41.09	1.04	40.05	40.15	39.11
4	3.9777	5.30	29.04	-5.12	34.16	26.22	31.34
5	12.600	12.72	29.30	0.03	29.27	21.22	21.19
6	—————	7.40	33.09	-1.25	34.34	24.71	25.96
7	—————	-1.52	44.29	-2.23	46.52	34.76	36.99
8	4.0000	5.17	34.32	-3.42	37.74	27.53	31.52
9	4.3010	5.30	35.69	-3.83	39.52	27.49	31.32
10	1.5798	-1.52	38.43	0.67	37.76	37.66	36.99
ProD 1	—————	-5.81	49.80	-3.20	53.00	39.65	42.85
ProD 2	—————	6.55	34.89	-1.56	36.45	28.09	29.65
ProD 3	—————	11.75	31.56	0.79	29.77	23.30	22.51

ΔH^\ddagger is the activation enthalpic energy (kcal/mol). T ΔS^\ddagger is the activation entropic energy in kcal/mol. ΔG^\ddagger is the activation free energy (kcal/mol). log EM (exp.) and log EM (calc.) are the experimental and calculated effective molarities ($EM = k_{\text{intra}}/k_{\text{inter}}$)

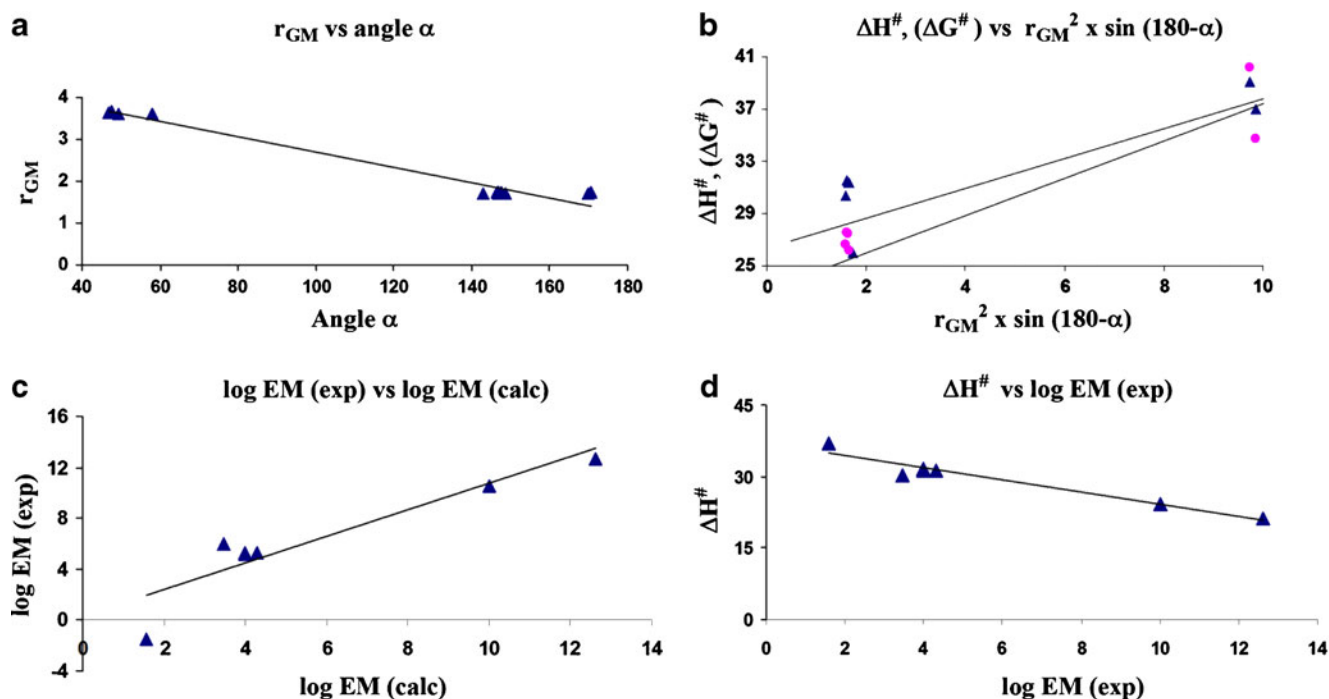


Fig. 3 (a) Plot of the DFT calculated r_{GM} vs. angle α in 1–10 and ProD 1–3, where r_{GM} and α are the distance between the two reactive centers and the attack (hydrogen bond) angle in the GM structure, respectively. (b) Plot of the DFT calculated ΔH^\ddagger and ΔG^\ddagger vs. r_{GM}

$\times \sin(180-\alpha)$ in 1–10 (c) Plot of the experimental EM values vs. the calculated EM values in 1–10 (d) Plot of the DFT calculated ΔH^\ddagger values vs. the experimental EM values in 1–10

$$\Delta G_{intra}^\ddagger = -RT \ln k_{intra} \quad (3)$$

$$\Delta G_{intra}^\ddagger - \Delta G_{inter}^\ddagger = -RT (\ln k_{intra}/k_{inter}) \quad (4)$$

$$EM = e^{-(\Delta G_{inter}^\ddagger - \Delta G_{intra}^\ddagger)/RT}, \quad (5)$$

where T is 298° K and R is the gas constant.

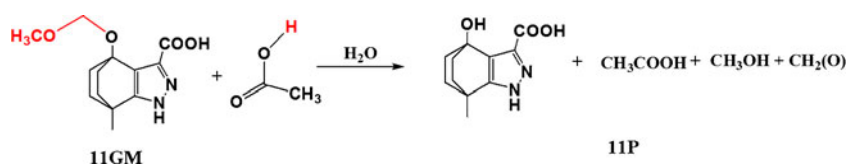
Careful inspection of the effective molarity values shown in Table 2 revealed that systems 1, 5, and ProD 3 are the most efficient processes among 1–10 and ProD 1–3 (log EM >10) and the least efficient are 3, 7, 10, and ProD 1 with log EM <1.6. Furthermore, the calculated EM values were examined for correlation with the experimental EM values. The correlation results show good correlation between the two parameters with a correlation coefficient of $R=0.92$ (Fig. 3c). Similarly, good correlation results with a correlation coefficient of $R=0.97$ were obtained when the

enthalpic activation energy values were correlated with the experimental EM values (Fig. 3d) [16, 23].

Examination of the calculated EM values for ProD 1–3 (Table 2) indicates that ProD 3 is the process with the highest rate whereas ProD 1 is the process with the lowest rate among the three prodrugs. Based on the experimental $t_{1/2}$ (the time needed for the conversion of 50% of the reactants to products) values for processes 1 and 5 and the EM values for 1, 5, and ProD 1–3 we have calculated the $t_{1/2}$ values for the conversion of the three prodrugs to the parental drug, paracetamol. The calculated $t_{1/2}$ values for ProD 1–3 are 21.3 hours, 4.7 hours and 8 minutes, respectively.

Based on these results solid and liquid preparations of three prodrugs could be made in order to achieve two goals: (1) masking the bitterness of paracetamol and (2) slow release of paracetamol where the rate of the release is determined on the nature of the prodrug linker (Kirby's enzyme model).

Scheme 3 Intermolecular proton transfer in 11, where GM and P are the reactants and products, respectively



Summary and conclusions

The DFT calculation results revealed that the activation energy for the proton transfer in processes 1–10 and ProD 1–3 is quite dependent on the geometric variations in the ground state. It was found that the distance between the two reactive centers, r_{GM} , and the angle of attack α are the main factors affecting the rate (activation energy) of the proton transfer. A short distance between the two reactive centers (r_{GM}) and hydrogen bonding angle close to 180° result in strong intramolecular hydrogen bonding that clearly indicates the directionality of hydrogen bonding, hence to stabilization of the product and the transition states leading to them and consequently to accelerations in rate.

The linear correlation of the experimental and calculated EM values established a good basis for the design of some paracetamol prodrugs that are capable of masking the bitter taste of paracetamol and have the potential to be used in slow release preparations. Further, this study could be utilized to design other prodrugs by which the rate for the release of the parental drug could be determined according to the nature of the linker (Kirby's enzyme model).

Our future directions include the synthesis of paracetamol prodrugs ProD 1–3 according to known procedures. *in vitro* kinetic studies at different pH values will be made in order to be utilized for the *in vivo* pharmacokinetic studies.

Based on the *in vitro* results, the prodrugs will be tested *in vivo* in addition to paracetamol as a control. The prodrug will be administered to animals by I.V. injection and per-os, blood and urine samples will be collected at different times. The concentration of paracetamol will be determined using a reliable bioanalytical method. Further, pharmacokinetic parameter values will be calculated including oral bioavailability, terminal elimination half-life and other pharmacokinetic parameters as deemed necessary.

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