

* N Q P S U B O D F P G ' M V P S J O F B O E ' M V P S P D B S C P O O O D P M P H Z

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Abstract

Carbon-Fluorine (C-F) can serve as a molecular tag for many applications in medicinal chemistry and oncology. Although fluorine is the thirteenth most abundant element in the earth's crust, fluoride concentrations in surface water are low and fluorinated metabolites are extremely rare [5]. Indeed, up-to-date, only 13 naturally occurring fluorinated organic compounds are known. Among them, we can cite the bacterial fluorinating enzyme 5'-uro-5'-deoxyadenosine synthase used by *Streptomyces cattleya* to naturally catalyze a fluorination reaction [5]. This microorganism can form carbon-fluorine (C-F) bonds using aqueous fluoride through a nucleophilic substitution mechanism. The particular rarity of natural fluorination is of high industrial importance, with applications in pharmaceutical, biomedical, agrochemical and materials products.

Keywords: Fluorination; Carbon-Fluorine; Oncology; Nanomedicine; Pharmacy; Medicinal chemistry; Green chemistry; Green technology; Technological innovation; Carbon-fluorine and fluorinated metabolites are extremely rare [5]. Indeed, up-to-date, only 13 naturally occurring fluorinated organic compounds are known. Among them, we can cite the bacterial fluorinating enzyme 5'-uro-5'-deoxyadenosine synthase used by *Streptomyces cattleya* to naturally catalyze a fluorination reaction [5]. This microorganism can form carbon-fluorine (C-F) bonds using aqueous fluoride through a nucleophilic substitution mechanism.

Abbreviations: ADCs: Antibody-Drug Conjugates; C-F: Carbon-Fluorine; C-T: Computed Tomography; CFS: Carbon Fluorine Spectroscopy; rRNA: Interference Ribonucleic Acid; miRNA: Micro RNA; MRI: Magnetic Resonance Imaging; PCR: Polymerase Chain Reaction; ODN: Oligo Deoxy Nucleotide; PET: Positron Emission Tomography; NMR: Nuclear Magnetic Resonance; siRNA: Small RNA

Epistemology of Fluorine: From the Atom to Fluorocarbons

Fluorine (name derived from Latin *fluere*, meaning to flow) is the lightest of the halogens, the most reactive of all the elements. In 1886, a French chemist, Ferdinand Frederic Henri Moissan (1852-1907), was the first to isolate fluorine [1]. He used platinum electrodes to produce fluorine from the electrolysis of potassium fluoride (KF) and hydrofluoric acid. In 1872, Sir James Crichton-Browne postulated that a deficiency of fluorine was responsible for higher incidence of dental caries [2]. In 1892, a Belgian chemist Frederic Jean Edmond Swarts discovered the Cl/F exchange chemistry of the inorganic antimony tri fluoride (SbF₃), a hydrofluoric acid (HF) widely used in dyeing and pottery [3]. The reaction, commonly called "Swarts reaction", has since been improved to be an industrial process for the preparation of organofluorine compounds, such as for the synthesis of dimethyl and trimethyl chlorosilanes [4].

Carbon-Fluorine Properties and Effects

The C-F bond is the most polar bond in organic chemistry, and thus the bond has a relatively large dipole moment with a significant negative charge density on the fluorine atom and correspondingly a +ve

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charge density on carbon [6]. Because the C-F bond has a much greater dipole moment than does the carbon-hydrogen (C-H) bond, a stronger binding with dipolar water might be expected [7]. The electrostatic nature of the C-F bond renders it the strongest one in organic chemistry [6]. Further, C-F displays isoelectronic effects to oxygen (-O) atom and hydroxyl (-OH) group, and the high electronegativity of fluorine (-F) frequently alerts chemical reactivity. However, the (-F) atom itself is almost non-polarizable, and thus, despite the charge localization on (-F), it is a poor hydrogen-bonding acceptor [6]. Although the polarizability of (-F) in the C-F bond is relatively low, considering its position in the periodic table, the dispersion interactions of C-F with water are reasonably expected to be more attractive than those of C-H with water [8]. Therefore, a fluorocarbon surface could be argued to be more hydrophilic than the corresponding hydrocarbon. A plausible resolution could be that the fluorocarbon with a molecular cross-section of 28Å^2

¹⁹F-MRI, which is tremendously useful for better understanding the general oncogenesis/carcinogenesis process (e.g. cancer staging, dynamism of tumor microenvironment). Moreover, the labeling of stem cells can be useful to control in situ tissue engineering and so, become very useful in regenerative medicine. For instance, a very recent study reports the good performance of MRI to describe the association of the central zone with more aggressive prostate cancer [41]. Other studies used chemical-shift selective MRI to directly detect a specific intra-tumoral F-drug (e.g. 5-FU) trapping/retention (i.e. in solid tumors such hepatoma, in case of 5-FU), biodistribution (i.e. specific tissue uptake such as liver and kidneys, in case of 5-FU) and catabolism (i.e. major catabolite such as β -uro- -alanine was detected in case of 5-FU) in tumor-bearing rats [42,43].

Besides, MRI can be coupled with other imaging technologies such as computed tomography (CT). As an example, 3D images and 2D models based on MRI/CT image fusion provided a powerful tool for the visualization of jaw tumors by defining the relationship between tumors and adjacent structures, thereby assisting the subject-specific preoperative planning, surgical simulation, and intraoperative guidance for tumors [44]. MRI/CT also obtained a better estimation of the organ tumor size than CT alone, which tends to overestimate it, and is then a quite useful combination in 'radiotherapy planning' for localized cancers (e.g. rectal carcinoma, prostate carcinoma can be treated by more adapted radio-therapeutic doses consequently decreasing organ complications) [45,46].

Positron Emission Tomography (PET)

PET is a common and powerful analytical method for medical diagnosis, particularly in oncologic sector [19]. It

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