



Antioxidant and chelating properties of phenolic compounds of agro-industrial waste of *Carapa guianensis*: theoretical insights for food and pharmaceutical applications

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Abstract

Context This study investigates the antioxidant behavior and chelating properties of thirteen phenolic compounds identified in *Carapa guianensis* agro-industrial waste. Using quantum mechanical methods, we analyzed the molecular structure and solvent effects, revealing potential applications in the food and pharmaceutical industries. Approximately 85% of these compounds demonstrated superior antioxidant performance compared to the phenol backbone, with three compounds rivaling quercetin and ascorbic acid in all tested environments. Solvent polarity significantly influenced the antioxidant mechanism: while hydrogen atom transfer (HAT) dominated in the gas phase, sequential proton loss electron transfer (SPLET) became prevalent in polar solvents. Hydrogen abstraction occurred primarily at the *meta* position, though polar solvents increased activity at the *para* site. These predictions are confirmed by simulating the chemical reactions between the aromatic compounds and free OH radicals. The analysis of the hydrogen abstraction reactions indicates that the inclusion of Hartree-Fock exchange-correlation and dispersion corrections is essential to describe hydrogen abstraction by explicitly free radicals. These findings not only underscore the commercial potential of *Carapa guianensis* waste but also provide a comprehensive understanding of its antioxidant mechanisms, contributing to the sustainable use of natural resources for health and environmental benefits.

Methods This is a two-step methodology. First, we select the best antioxidant molecules through thermochemical analysis. Then, we explore the hydrogen scavenging mechanism using transition state theory. All quantum mechanics and thermodynamic analyses were carried out within the framework of the density functional theory using the M06-2X, ω B97, ω B97XD, and CAM-B3LYP variants associated with the Pople's 6-311++G(*d*, *p*) basis set. The effects of the solvent are also systematically investigated by considering the Solvent Density Model for different polar and nonpolar environments. Naturally, the unrestricted wave-function formalism is accounted for once the thermodynamic description of the antioxidant mechanisms involves optimizing open-shell structures. Additionally, the chemical reaction of the hydrogen abstraction due to OH radicals is ensured by applying the Synchronous Transit-Guided Quasi-Newton Method, which allows us to estimate the transition state structures and the energy barrier of the reaction. At this stage, DFT methods like CAM-B3LYP and ω B97XD were applied in association with the 6-31+G(*d*). All calculations were carried out taking advantage of the Gaussian 16 program.

Keywords Antioxidants · Phenolic compounds · Reaction mechanisms · Polar solvents · Agro-industrial waste

Introduction

Free radicals are highly harmful compounds that cause premature aging and contribute to diseases such as arteriosclerosis, Alzheimer's, and Parkinson's [1, 2]. Antioxidants, which

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neutralize free radicals through hydrogen dissociation, are beneficial to living organisms and have become crucial for the cosmetic, pharmaceutical, and food industries [3]. As a result, finding new eco-friendly sources of antioxidants is essential. Agro-industrial wastes have emerged as an important alternative, offering a sustainable and low-cost solution [4–6]. These wastes are rich in bioactive compounds, with applications in the food industry, biogas, biofuel production, and as a potential source of antioxidants.

For agro-economy-based countries, exploring the financial potential of agro-wastes can provide significant advantages. In this context, species like *Carapa guianensis* emerge as promising candidates. This medicinal plant, abundant in the Amazon biome, exhibits remarkable versatility, being used as a larvicide, repellent, and therapeutic agent due to its anthelmintic properties [7–10]. Beyond its therapeutic applications, *Carapa guianensis* serves as a source of raw materials for biodiesel production and holds economic importance in South America, Asia, and Africa.

However, the potential of its agro-industrial wastes remains underexplored, with few initiatives such as that by Santos and co-workers [11], who were among the first to identify all phenolic constituents in this biomass using metabolomic techniques. Additionally, andiroba biomass has demonstrated significant antioxidant activity against DPPH and ABTS free radicals, with IC₅₀ values of 16.42 µg/mL and 6.52 µg/mL, respectively [11].

In the search for new drug sources, molecular modeling and quantum chemical approximations have significantly contributed by predicting the antioxidative potential of chemophores and elucidating the mechanisms of these chemical reactions. Hydrogen abstraction can occur through three primary routes: hydrogen atom transfer (HAT), sequential proton loss electron transfer (SPLET), and sequential electron transfer-proton transfer (SET-PT) [12–14].

Thus, the goal is to use quantum mechanics and molecular modeling techniques to calculate formation enthalpies, characterize hydrogen abstraction, and determine the most favorable antioxidant mechanism. This methodology has been used as the first theoretical approach for quantifying antioxidant performances and determining the molecular site for hydrogen abstraction [15–17]. In the second stage, it is important to determine the activation energies for hydrogen scavenging, considering the explicit interaction between the reference molecule and free radicals like OH, OOH, and DDPH [18–23].

Given the context outlined above, we conducted a systematic quantum chemical and thermodynamic investigation of the antioxidant behavior of *Carapa guianensis* agro-industrial constituents. The results align with previous experimental data for some compounds found in andiroba waste, confirming the accuracy of our conclusions. Dissociation energies were compared with phenol and ascorbic acid,

demonstrating that andiroba waste is a reliable and efficient source of antioxidants. Additionally, the solvent plays a crucial role, influencing the behavior of phenolic compounds and shifting the antioxidant mechanism with increasing polarity.

Methodology

Our main goal is to investigate the antioxidant behavior of the thirteen phenolic compounds previously identified in *Carapa guianensis* agro-industrial wastes and signalize possible applications (see Fig. 1). This analysis is entirely based on quantum mechanical and thermochemical parameters like enthalpy. The theory and procedure are better described in previous works [18, 24]. The proton (H⁺), electron (e), and hydrogen (H•) enthalpies, we used the current values found in the literature [25, 26]

In addition, phenolic compounds retain the ability to chelate ions of transition metals, in accordance with the Transition Metal Chelation (TMC) mechanism [27, 28]. Once the chelation usually occurs through deprotonated hydroxyl groups in phenolic compounds, the capacity of one molecule to give away a proton is assumed as $\text{ArOH} \rightarrow \text{ArO}^- + \text{H}^+$. From the thermochemical point of view, the gas-phase acidity is computed as the difference between the enthalpies of the anion and its neutral species as [13]

$$\Delta H_{\text{acidity}} = H_{\text{ArO}^-} - H_{\text{ArOH}} \quad (1)$$

For the condensed phase, the acidities are obtained in terms of total free solvation energies like

$$\Delta G_{\text{acidity}} = G_{\text{ArO}^-} - G_{\text{ArOH}} \quad (2)$$

All molecular geometries were optimized using density functional theory (DFT) with the M06-2X/6-311++G(*d*, *p*) method. This functional was chosen based on the work by Souza and Peterson, which showed its superior correlation with accurate coupled-cluster models compared to other DFT methods [29]. The minimum-energy configurations were obtained by scanning the orientations of the hydrogen bonds formed by the hydroxyl groups (OH). This step is crucial because the hydrogen bond orientation can significantly affect molecular stability [8]. Similarly, we scanned the molecular potential energy surface to determine the optimal orientations of the carbon chains attached to the aromatic rings. All quantum mechanics calculations were performed on these minimized energy structures (Fig. 2).

The solvent effects of benzene ($\epsilon = 2.3$) and water ($\epsilon = 78.4$) were simulated using the solvent model density (SMD) [30]. In addition to the general advantages of continuum

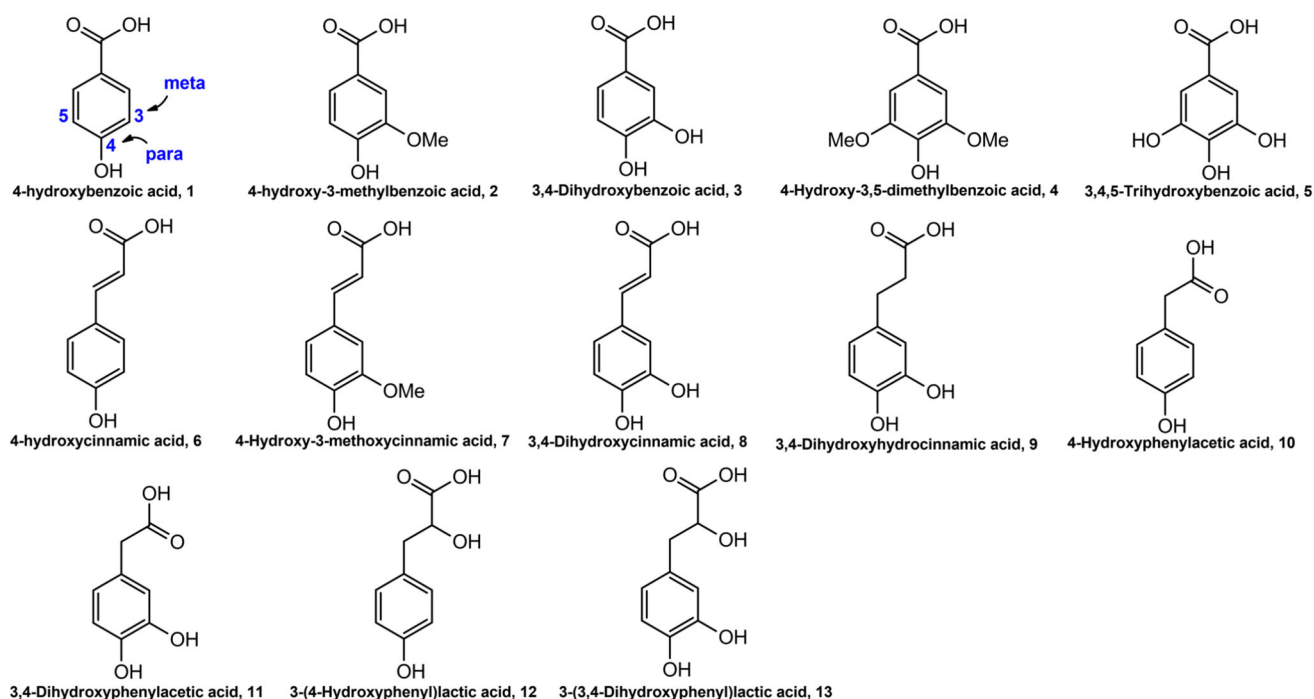


Fig. 1 Phenolic acids present in the agro-industrial wastes of andiroba oil

solvation models, SMD provides precomputed electron, proton, and hydrogen enthalpies for various wavefunction-based methods and DFT functionals, including the M06-2X Hamiltonian [26, 31, 32]. Hydrogen scavenging was analyzed using a quantum mechanics approach to chemical kinetics. Reagents and products were optimized using the unrestricted CAM-B3LYP and ω B97XD methods with the 6-31+G(d) basis set, widely used in reaction mechanism studies [21–23]. The transition states were located using the quasi-Newton method guided by synchronized transit [33]. For dispersion-corrected DFT methods, we employed Grimme's D3 correction with Becke-Johnson damping (GD3-BJ), which has been shown to provide reliable thermochemical properties [34]. In the absence of sufficient experimental data, we adopted the benchmark results of de Souza and Peterson, who demonstrated using high-level CCSD(T) calculations that the M06-2X functional offers optimal performance for polyphenolic systems [35]. While M06-2X proved accurate, its significant computational cost prompted us to additionally evaluate CAM-B3LYP. For our dispersion interaction analysis, we selected the ω B97 and ω B97XD functionals based on their established performance and computational efficiency, with ω B97XD being particularly recommended as a robust choice by Goerigk and Grimme [36]. The ω B97XD functional was also preferred due to its widespread implementation in major quantum chemistry packages such as Gaussian and Dalton. All quantum mechanics calculations were performed using Gaussian 16 software [37].

Results

HAT mechanism

From the electronic structure, it is possible to predict where the hydrogen atom will be extracted. By an analysis of the highest occupied and lowest unoccupied molecular orbitals (HOMO and LUMO), it is expected that the abstraction will occur at the hydroxyl group that is covered by the HOMO but is out of the LUMO. As an example, in Fig. 3, one expects that the hydrogen abstraction would happen at the *meta* position. However, no amount of energy is known about the amount of energy necessary to remove these atoms.

The hydrogen atom transfer (HAT) mechanism, governed by bond dissociation energies (BDEs), is the simplest hydrogen abstraction process. The BDEs are presented in Table 1. As shown in Fig. 1, some compounds (3, 5, 8, 9, and 11) feature multiple hydroxyl groups at *meta* (3-OH) and *para* (4-OH) positions. The results reveal a strong dependence on hydroxyl position, with a preference for hydrogen abstraction at the *meta* position. For instance, under gaseous conditions, compound 3 exhibits BDE values of 341.2 kJ/mol (3-OH) and 376.8 kJ/mol (4-OH), a difference of 35.6 kJ/mol. Lower BDE values indicate easier hydrogen extraction and higher antioxidant potential.

These findings align with the spin density analysis in Fig. 2a. Generally, a lower spin population on the O-atom correlates with lower BDEs and greater antioxidant power

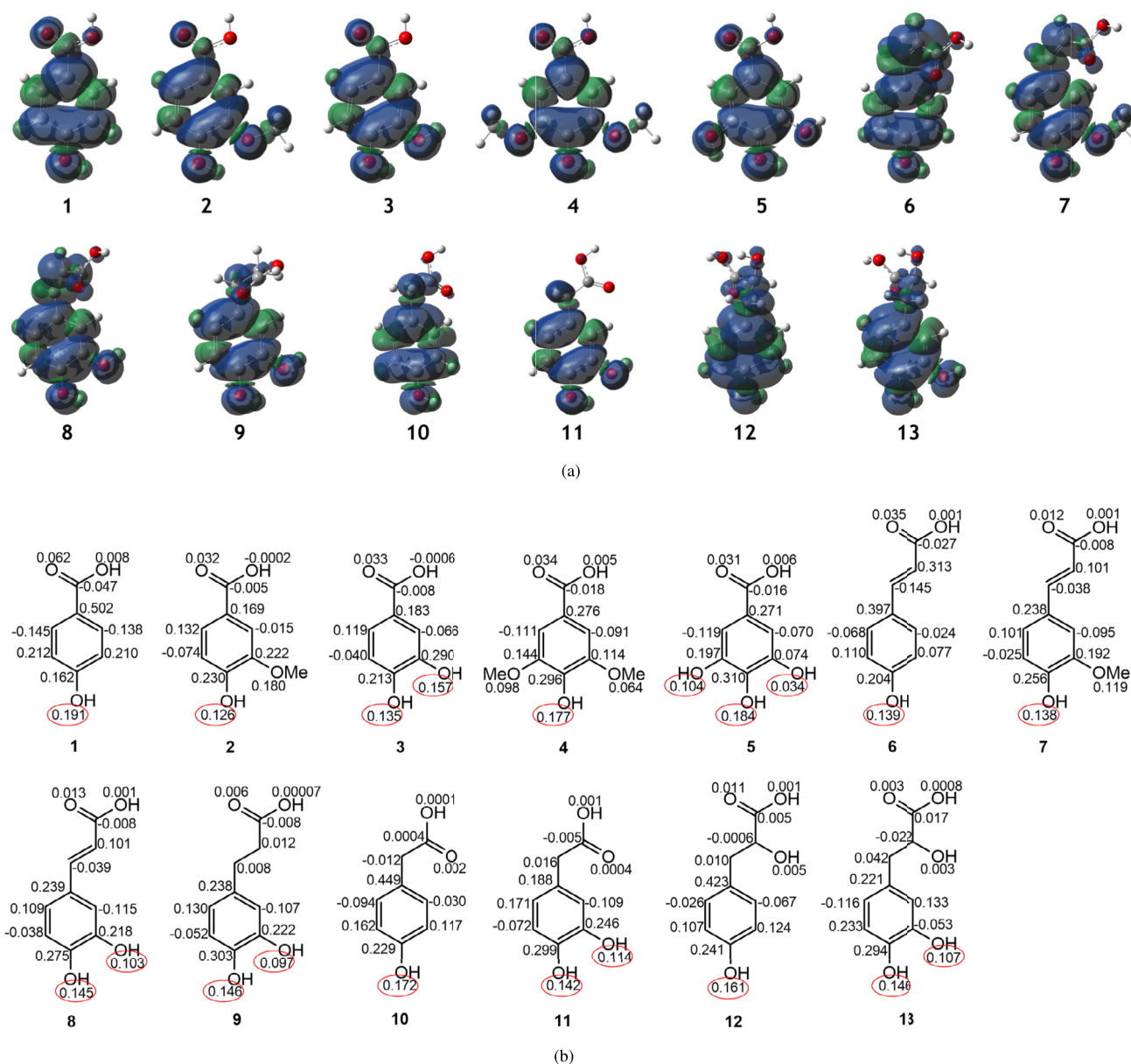


Fig. 2 Spin density isosurfaces (a) and its projections at each atomic site (b) calculated using the DFT/M06-2X/6-311++G(*d, p*) approximation level in aqueous

[38, 39]. This trend holds for all phenolic derivatives with OH groups at *meta* and *para* positions (5, 8, 9, 11, and 13), except for compound 3. For example, Fig. 2b shows spin density values of 0.097 (*meta*) and 0.172 (*para*) for compound 9.

Although the energy difference is significant, the solvent reduces the barrier between these enthalpies. As shown in Table 1, the difference decreases from the gas phase to 29 kJ/mol (benzene) and 10.5 kJ/mol (water). This effect is more pronounced for compound 8, where the difference drops from 22.6 kJ/mol (gas phase) to 18.1 kJ/mol (benzene) and 2.3 kJ/mol (water). Increasing solvent polarity makes it difficult

to determine whether hydrogen abstraction occurs at *meta* or *para* sites. Additionally, including explicit solvent molecules and specific interactions, such as solute-solvent hydrogen bonds, can further minimize this energy difference in water. For example, Guedes et al. studied the differential solvation of phenol and phenoxy radical [40, 41], finding that the solute-solvent interaction energies differ by less than 8 kJ/mol from benzene to acetonitrile [41].

To evaluate the antioxidant performance of phenolic derivatives, their behavior is compared to phenol, the foundational structure for these compounds [13, 42, 44]. Table 1 and Fig. 4 present these comparisons using $\Delta\text{BDE} =$

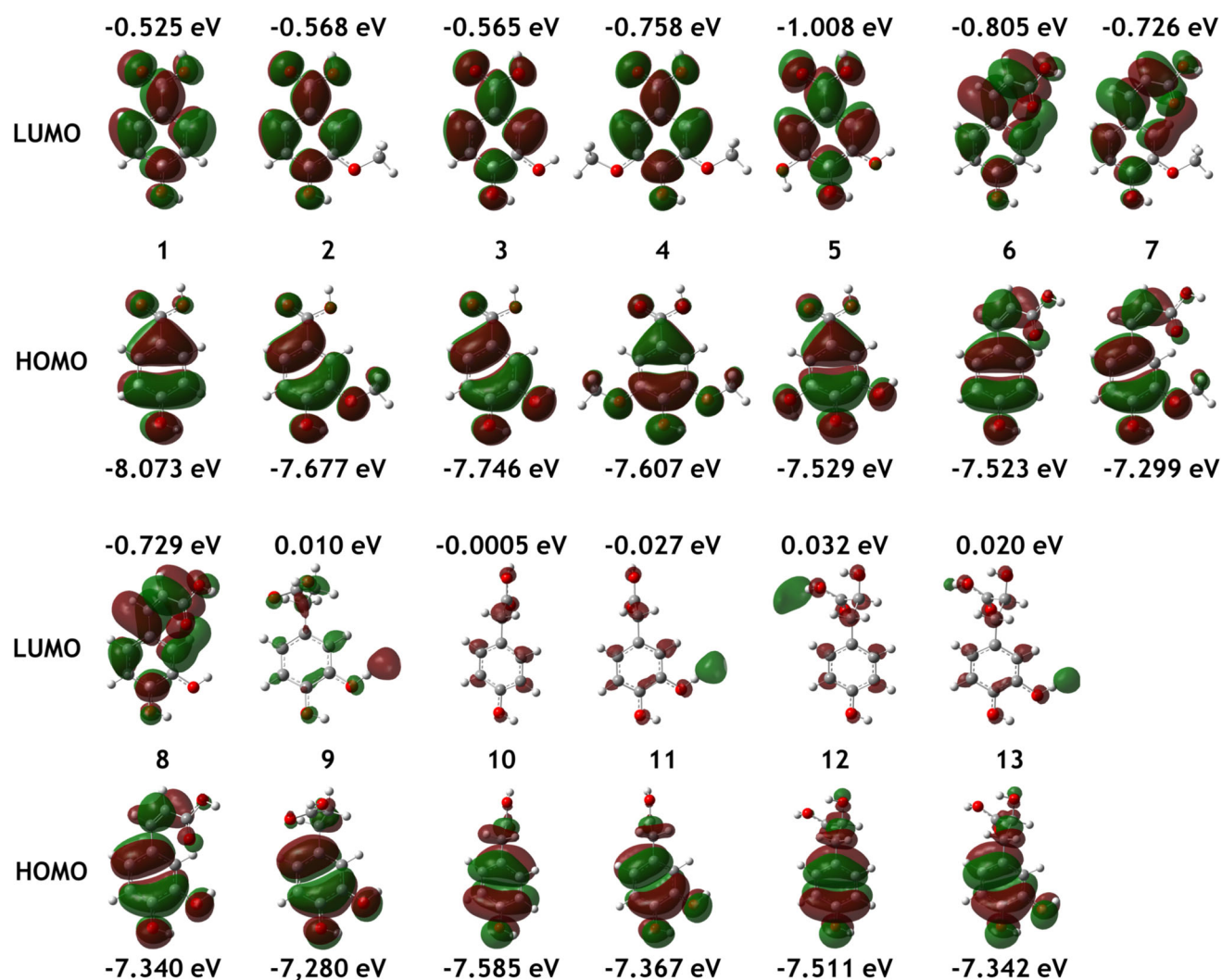


Fig. 3 Frontier orbitals plotted for the phenolic compounds using the M06-2X/6-311++G(*d,p*) level of quantum mechanics and SMD solvation model

$BDE_{\text{molecule}} - BDE_{\text{phenol}}$. Approximately 84% of the compounds in andiroba residue show improved behavior compared to phenol. Ascorbic acid, a well-known commercial antioxidant, is also used as a benchmark [43]. As shown in Fig. 4, at least 38% of the compounds resemble ascorbic acid, with energy variations around +10 kJ/mol in polar environments like water.

Among the studied compounds, molecule 9 (3,4-dihydroxyhydrocinnamic acid) exhibits the highest antioxidant potential, with hydroxyl groups at *meta* and *para* positions. In the gas phase, the relative bond dissociation energies (ΔBDE) compared to phenol are -40.8 kJ/mol (3-OH) and -4.9 kJ/mol (4-OH), indicating easier removal of the *meta*-hydrogen. However, in water, these values become nearly equivalent (-30.7 kJ/mol and -29.2 kJ/mol), suggesting hydrogen abstraction can occur at both sites.

SET-PT mechanism

As previously mentioned, the sequential electron transfer-proton transfer (SET-PT) mechanism involves transferring an electron followed by a proton to free radicals. This mechanism is characterized by ionization energy (IE) and proton dissociation energy (PDE) parameters, shown in Table 2. In the gas phase, IE values range from 756.3 to 854.6 kJ/mol, significantly higher than those for the hydrogen atom transfer (HAT) mechanism (328.8 to 379.4 kJ/mol), indicating that SET-PT is not viable for hydrogen scavenging in gaseous environments.

In the solvent, the trend persists. While proton affinities are reduced compared to the gas phase, they remain higher than those for HAT in liquid conditions. For example, in water, IP values range from 478.9 to 551.9 kJ/mol, exceeding HAT

Table 1 Bond dissociation enthalpy (BDE) and $\Delta\text{BDE} = \text{BDE}_{\text{molecule}} - \text{BDE}_{\text{phenol}}$ values (kJ/mol) obtained using the M06-2X/6-311++G(*d,p*) level of theory. The results for the solvents, including the reference antioxidants, were determined using the SMD solvation model and were supplemented with experimental data (kJ/mol) as reported in the literature

Compound	Bond	BDE (kJ/mol)			Δ BDE (kJ/mol)		
		Gas	Benzene	Water	Gas	Benzene	Water
1	4-OH	379.4	379.7	394.1	9.8	11.7	17.2
2	4-OH	374.7	370.4	369.8	5.1	2.4	−7.1
3	3-OH	341.2	343.1	360.6	−28.4	−24.9	−16.3
4	4-OH	376.8	372.1	371.1	7.2	4.1	−5.8
	4-OH	356.1	351.1	350.3	−13.5	−16.9	−26.6
	3-OH	346.4	348.5	364.6	−23.2	−19.5	−12.3
5	4-OH	346.9	344.7	351.4	−22.7	−23.3	−25.5
	5-OH	379.0	373.2	372.5	9.4	5.2	−4.4
	4-OH	368.1	361.7	372.5	−1.5	−6.3	−4.4
7	4-OH	365.9	360.6	354.7	−3.7	−7.4	−22.2
8	3-OH	345.4	344.0	360.0	−24.2	−24.0	−16.9
9	4-OH	368.0	362.1	362.2	−1.6	−5.9	−14.7
	3-OH	328.8	330.1	346.2	−40.8	−37.9	−30.7
	4-OH	364.7	357.7	347.7	−4.9	−10.3	−29.2
10	4-OH	367.7	365.7	377.8	−1.9	−2.3	0.9
11	3-OH	334.8	335.1	347.8	−34.8	−32.9	−29.1
12	4-OH	368.7	361.4	355.5	−0.9	−6.6	−21.4
	4-OH	366.5	364.2	370.8	−3.1	−3.8	−6.1
13	3-OH	333.5	334.4	348.7	−36.1	−33.6	−28.2
	4-OH	367.6	361.0	353.9	−2.0	−7.0	−23.0
Reference antioxidants							
Phenol			369.6	368.0	376.9		
Ascorbic acid			332.5	331.6	341.7		
Experimental							
Compound 4			343.5* [50]				
Compound 5			338.9* [50]; 347.4** [51, 52]				
Compound 8			339.8** [51, 52]				

*Acrylonitrile/chlorobenzene determined through the electron paramagnetic resonance spectroscopy (EPR);

**Methyl linoleate/micelles estimated from the kinetic data

values (330.1 to 394.1 kJ/mol). Thus, SET-PT is not feasible, even in a solvent.

Table 4 allows a direct comparison with phenol, aiding in classifying compound performance. In the gas phase, phenol's reference value (1446.7 kJ/mol) exceeds all andiroba biomass components. Compound 5, with a gas-phase acidity of 1371.3 kJ/mol at the *meta*-position (3-OH group), shows the best chelating behavior, while others underperform compared to phenol. However, blending this material could enhance metal chelation through synergistic effects.

In the solvent, the difference is more pronounced. In water, except for compound 11, acidity values at *meta* and *para* positions are lower than phenol's ($\Delta G_{\text{acidity}} = 1211.2$ kJ/mol).

SPLET mechanism

The sequential proton loss electron transfer (SPLET) mechanism is the final antioxidant pathway analyzed. Proton

affinity (PA) governs proton abstraction and is crucial for SPLET occurrence. According to gas-phase results (Table 3), PA values are significantly higher than bond dissociation energies (BDEs), making SPLET unsuitable for hydrogen abstraction in gaseous environments.

Increasing solvent polarity from gas to aqueous conditions reduces PA values, enabling proton abstraction. For example, for compound 1, gas-phase BDE and PA values are 379.4 kJ/mol and 1391.6 kJ/mol, respectively. In benzene, these values converge to 379.7 kJ/mol (BDE) and 410 kJ/mol (PA). However, in water, the order inverts, with BDE at 394.1 kJ/mol and PA at 132.6 kJ/mol. This trend, illustrated in Fig. 5, applies to all studied molecules. Since benzene retains gas-phase behavior, SPLET occurrence clearly depends on solvent polarity.

With proton loss feasible in polar solvents, it is essential to assess electron transfer (ETE) conditions. Table 3 shows that ETE values are slightly higher than PA but comparable

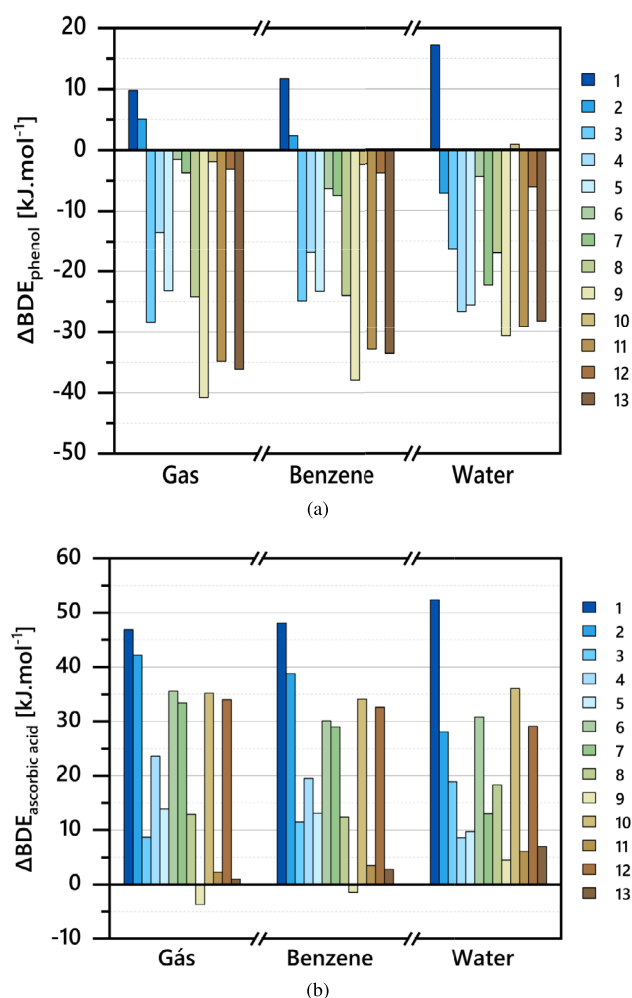


Fig. 4 Relative bond dissociation energy ($\Delta\text{BDE} = \text{BDE}_{\text{mol}} - \text{BDE}_{\text{ref}}$ calculated using phenol (a) and ascorbic acid (b) as patterns. Negative values means improved performance against the reference molecule

to BDEs, indicating that the second step of SPLET can also occur.

Metal chelating properties

The chelating ability of a compound is typically determined by analyzing its acidities, $\Delta H_{\text{acidity}}$ (gas phase) and $\Delta G_{\text{acidity}}$ (solvent) [13, 44]. These parameters measure the ease of proton removal from a neutral molecule, with lower values indicating better chelating behavior. Table 4 presents the results for phenolic compounds found in andiroba agro-industrial waste.

Under gas-phase conditions, DFT results show that acidity at the *meta* position is higher than at the *para* position. For example, compound 3 exhibits acidities of 1376.9 kJ/mol (*meta*) and 1404.5 kJ/mol (*para*), a trend consistent across all molecules. This suggests that *meta* hydroxyls favor metal chelation in phenols. This preference remains unchanged in

solvent, but the environment provides an additional advantage: solute-solvent interactions reduce molecular acidity compared to gas-phase values ($\Delta H_{\text{acidity}} > \Delta G_{\text{acidity}}$). For instance, in benzene, $\Delta G_{\text{acidity}}$ decreases by approximately 100 kJ/mol relative to gas-phase results. Further increasing solvent polarity enhances acidity even more, with values around 200 kJ/mol lower than in the gas phase.

Table 4 shows that $\Delta G_{\text{acidity}}$ ranges from 1284.1 kJ/mol to 1355.2 kJ/mol in benzene and from 1179 kJ/mol to 1218.7 kJ/mol in water. These values are significantly lower than those previously reported [13, 44], confirming that andiroba biomass is a promising source of chelating molecules.

Concerning the theory-experiment agreement, Beltrán and co-workers investigated the pK_a of various polyphenolic compounds using different techniques [45]. After analyzing *p*-Hydroxybenzoic acid (1), Vanillic acid (2), Protocatechuic acid (3), Gallic acid (5), *p*-Coumaric acid (6), Ferulic acid (7), and Caffeic acid (8) acids via liquid chromatography, the authors obtained the following order for pK_a : $5 < 1 < 3 < 2 < 7 < 8 < 6$. Since this property is proportional to the Gibbs free energy ($\Delta G = 2.3RTpK_a$), it provides a connection with the theoretical results shown in Table 4. The M06-2X/6-311++G(*d*, *p*) data predicts $5 < 1 < 3 < 2 < 7 < 8 < 6$, in agreement with experimental findings.

On the other hand side, The M06-2X/6-311++G(*d*, *p*) method typically exhibits errors in predicting bond dissociation energies (BDEs), ΔG , and ΔH for aromatic compounds in the range of ± 3 –8 kcal/mol (~ 12 –34 kJ/mol), depending on the bond type and system studied. For C–H bonds in aromatic hydrocarbons, errors tend to fall on the lower end (~ 3 –5 kcal/mol), whereas bonds involving heteroatoms (O–H in phenols or N–H in anilines) may show larger deviations (5–8 kcal/mol) due to challenges in modeling charge delocalization in transition states or radical fragments.

As a particular example, using Gaussian-4 theory and M06-2X/6-311+G(3*df*, 2*p*) calculations, Alvareda and collaborators [46] investigated the thermochemistry and C–OH bond cleavage in flavonoids (quercetin, fisetin, luteolin) and phenolic acids (caffeic acid, pinocembrin, *p*-coumaric acid). While M06-2X showed good agreement with G4 for the weakest O–H BDEs, the mean absolute deviation (MAD) between methods was 5.0 kcal/mol for BDEs and 10.0 kcal/mol for ΔH . With better results, Hou and You investigated the reaction kinetics of hydrogen abstraction from polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons by H atoms, obtaining a MAD value of 1.0 kcal/mol using M06-2X/6-311 g(*d*, *p*) in comparison with CCSD(T)/CBS calculations [47].

Hydrogen abstraction by hydroxyl radicals

Our thermochemical and electronic structure analysis enables the determination of the best antioxidant performances

Table 2 Ionization energy (IE) and proton dissociation enthalpy (PDE) values were calculated using the M06-2X/6-311++G(*p*, *d*) theoretical level. The simulations were conducted in the gas phase, in nonpolar and polar environments in the SMD solvation model

Bond	IE (kJ/mol)			PDE (kJ/mol)			SET-PT (kJ/mol)		
	Gas	Benzene	Water	Gas	Benzene	Water	Gas	Benzene	Water
1	854.6	720.0	551.9						
4-OH				836.0	72.9	5.3	1690.6	792.9	557.2
2	797.1	669.2	507.7						
4-OH				888.7	114.4	25.2	1685.8	783.6	532.9
3	817.9	687.5	517.0						
3-OH				834.4	68.7	6.7	1652.3	756.2	523.7
4-OH				870.0	97.8	17.1	1687.9	785.3	534.1
4	763.6	644.2	498.5						
4-OH				903.6	120.0	14.8	1667.2	764.2	513.3
5	813.4	688.8	516.8						
3-OH				844.1	72.9	10.9	1657.5	761.7	527.7
4-OH				844.6	69.1	−2.3	1658.0	757.9	514.5
5-OH				876.7	97.6	18.7	1690.1	786.4	535.5
6	788.9	661.3	508.6						
4-OH				890.3	113.5	27.0	1679.2	774.8	535.6
7	756.3	638.0	487.0						
4-OH				920.8	135.7	30.9	1677.1	773.7	517.9
8	722.6	650.6	492.3						
3-OH				883.9	106.5	30.7	1606.5	757.1	523.0
4-OH				906.5	124.6	33.0	1629.1	775.2	525.3
9	755.7	634.2	478.9						
3-OH				884.3	109.0	30.4	1640.0	743.2	509.3
4-OH				920.2	136.6	31.9	1675.9	770.8	510.8
10	801.3	668.3	512.2						
4-OH				877.6	110.5	28.7	1678.9	778.8	540.9
11	774.1	649.6	491.6						
3-OH				871.9	98.6	19.2	1646.0	748.2	510.8
4-OH				905.8	124.9	26.9	1679.9	774.5	518.5
12	781.9	662.1	505.6						
4-OH				895.7	115.2	28.3	1677.6	777.3	533.9
13	757.8	655.5	481.7						
3-OH				886.8	92.1	30.0	1644.6	747.6	511.7
4-OH				920.9	118.6	35.3	1678.7	774.1	517.0
Reference Antioxidants									
Phenol	824.3	683.6	518.1	856.4	97.5	21.9	1680.7	781.1	540.0
Ascorbic acid	833.4	706.1	521.4	810.3	38.7	−16.6	1643.7	744.8	504.8

among the thirteen compounds found in andiroba waste, as well as the preferential molecular site for hydrogen abstraction. However, the mechanism of radical inhibition can only be fully understood by explicitly considering the interactions between the reference molecule and the free radical.

This goal can be achieved by starting from reactant (RE) and product (PR) configurations and generating transition state (TS) structures. The difference between the single-point energy of the transition state and the reactants ($E_a = TS - RE$) provides the energy barrier (see Fig. 6) that must

be overcome in the chemical reaction. Table 5 presents these parameters for compounds 11 and 13 inhibiting OH radicals. In addition, all values account for zero-point energy (ZPE) corrections. Thus, the energy of transition state energy is the sum of the electronic energy and ZPV corrections ($E_{TS}^{ZPE} = E_{TS}^{electronic} + E_{ZPE}^{TS}$), and the activation energy is $E_a = E_{TS}^{ZPE} - E_{RE}^{ZPE}$.

First, by analyzing the ω B97XD results, the superior performance of molecule 13 is confirmed. According to DFT calculations, the energy barrier estimated for this compound

Table 3 Proton affinities (PA) and electron transfer enthalpies (ETE) values with M06-2X/6-311++G(*p*, *d*) level of theory. The results for the solvents, including the reference antioxidants, were determined using the SMD solvation model

Bond	PA (kJ/mol)			ETE (kJ/mol)			SPLET (kJ/mol)		
	Gas	Benzene	Water	Gas	Benzene	Water	Gas	Benzene	Water
1									
4-OH	1391.6	410.0	132.6	299.0	382.9	424.5	1690.6	792.9	557.1
2									
4-OH	1413.4	429.5	132.3	272.5	354.0	400.5	1685.9	783.5	532.8
3									
3-OH	1383.1	404.0	131.0	269.3	352.2	392.7	1652.4	756.2	523.7
4-OH	1410.7	426.6	131.7	277.3	358.7	402.4	1688.0	785.3	534.1
4									
4-OH	1417.8	435.2	130.5	249.4	329.0	382.9	1667.2	764.2	513.4
5									
3-OH	1377.5	398.4	129.9	280.0	363.2	397.8	1657.5	761.6	527.7
4-OH	1381.9	399.8	120.2	276.1	358.0	394.3	1658.0	757.8	514.5
5-OH	1436.5	398.4	142.9	253.6	387.9	392.6	1690.1	786.3	535.5
6									
4-OH	1384.7	408.4	139.1	294.6	366.4	396.5	1679.3	774.8	535.6
7									
4-OH	1404.9	426.0	137.1	272.2	347.8	380.8	1677.1	773.8	517.9
8									
3-OH	1396.4	416.4	139.0	260.1	340.8	384.1	1656.5	757.2	523.1
4-OH	1401.1	419.2	137.3	278.0	356.0	388.0	1679.1	775.2	525.3
9									
3-OH	1401.0	418.5	141.7	239.0	324.6	367.6	1640.0	743.1	509.3
4-OH	1462.1	467.4	156.9	213.7	303.4	353.8	1675.8	770.8	510.7
10									
4-OH	1432.3	446.9	157.5	244.6	331.9	383.5	1676.9	778.8	541.0
11									
3-OH	1399.8	417.4	141.9	246.2	330.8	369.0	1646.0	748.2	510.9
4-OH	1455.2	464.4	156.5	224.7	310.0	362.0	1679.9	774.4	518.5
12									
4-OH	1435.2	450.0	154.0	242.4	327.3	379.9	1677.6	777.3	533.9
13									
3-OH	1396.9	418.4	138.6	247.8	329.2	373.1	1644.7	747.6	511.7
4-OH	1455.3	465.3	153.4	223.4	308.8	363.6	1678.7	774.1	517.0
Reference Antioxidants									
Phenol	1452.9	453.8	154.3	227.9	327.3	385.7	1680.8	781.1	540.0
Ascorbic acid	1312.7	344.0	87.4	331.0	400.8	417.4	1643.7	744.8	504.8

is 1.94 kJ/mol, which is slightly lower than that reported for the second molecule, 2.21 kJ/mol. Although the differences are subtle (0.27 kJ/mol), they confirm the predictions made using thermochemical analysis.

In line with the quantum mechanical framework, we verified the influence of Hartree-Fock exchange-correlation and dispersion corrections, which have become popular in DFT. Our ω B96 calculations, which do not account for these corrections, point out activation energies of 6.38 kJ/mol and 6.03

kJ/mol, respectively, for molecules 11 and 13. These values are three times those reported by the ω B97XD version, providing a poor description of the phenomenon.

We also tested the performance of CAM-B3LYP, which includes long-range corrections and some portions of Hartree-Fock exchange, but is not about the dispersion force. In such a case, we obtained transition barriers of 2.01 kJ/mol and 1.81 kJ/mol, respectively, for molecules 11 and 13, showing good agreement with ω B97XD data. This finding indicates

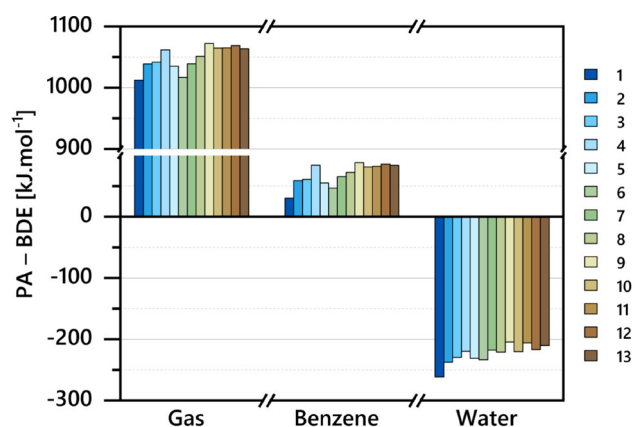


Fig. 5 Difference between the proton affinity (PA) and bond dissociation energy (BDE). Negative values means improved performance against the reference molecule

that the exchange-correlation effects can be more relevant for describing TS energies.

The poorest description for both compounds comes from the ω B97 method. Although this Hamiltonian model accounts for long-range corrections, it does not include any dispersion correction. Thus, at first glance, one might assume that dispersion forces are essential for describing the phenolic compounds under investigation. However, considering the results for compound 11, the differences between CAM-B3LYP and ω B97XD are minor. This suggests that the absence of dispersion corrections is not the main issue. Consequently, we conclude that using ω B97 to investigate transition states involving phenolic compounds and free radicals may be unreliable. Similar conclusions apply to compound 13.

The impact also arises at the structure of the TS. For example, from Fig. 7, the evolution of the $r(\text{O} \cdots \text{H})$, $r(\text{O} - \text{H})$, and $\theta(\text{OHO})$ parameters for molecule 11 can be analyzed at different DFT levels. If one uses the ω B97 functional, which lacks a portion of pure Hartree-Fock exchange and dispersion corrections, the obtained values are 1.32 Å, 1.08 Å, and 159.7° for $r(\text{O} \cdots \text{H})$, $r(\text{O} - \text{H})$, and $\theta(\text{OHO})$, respectively. In contrast, when both corrections are included using the ω B97XD method, the values shift slightly to 1.39 Å, 1.05 Å, and 162.4° (see Fig. 7). Clearly, these changes are significant and can not be neglected.

Regarding other dyes, these compounds present competitive behavior. Also at gas phase conditions, there have been reported energy barriers varying from 19 kJ/mol to 21.6 kJ/mol for a new class of xanthenes recently found in the endophytic fungus *Guignardia mangiferae* [18]. For scopolin, a natural antioxidant compound belonging to the coumarin class, activation energies of 20.91 kcal/mol have

Table 4 $\Delta H_{\text{acidity}}$ (kJ/mol) and $\Delta G_{\text{acidity}}$ (kJ/mol) values were calculated using the DFT/M06-2X/6-311++G(*d*, *p*) theoretical level. The simulations were conducted in the gas phase, in nonpolar and polar environments in the SMD solvation model

Bond	$\Delta H_{\text{acidity}}$ Gas	$\Delta G_{\text{acidity}}$ Benzene	pK_a^* exp. Water	[45]
1				4.7
4-OH	1385.4	1286.8	1189.3	
2				4.7
4-OH	1407.2	1309.2	1190.6	
3				4.7
3-OH	1376.9	1284.3	1189.3	
4-OH	1404.5	1304.7	1189.4	
4	4-OH	1411.6	1311.8	1190.1
5				4.5
3-OH	1371.3	1285.2	1188.0	
4-OH	1375.7	1284.1	1179.0	
5-OH	1430.3	1325.6	1201.9	
6				4.8
4-OH	1378.5	1288.3	1202.8	
7				4.8
4-OH	1398.7	1310.2	1200.3	
8	3-OH	1390.2	1299.1	1203.4
4-OH	1394.9	1306.0	1201.9	
9				4.8
3-OH	1401.0	1298.3	1197.7	
4-OH	1462.1	1350.8	1211.4	
10	4-OH	1434.3	1329.1	1218.7
11	3-OH	1393.6	1301.3	1203.0
4-OH	1449.0	1345.6	1214.9	
12	4-OH	1429.0	1331.0	1209.9
13	3-OH	1390.7	1302.0	1195.9
4-OH	1449.1	1355.2	1209.4	
Phenol		1446.7	1331.1	1211.2

*Liquid chromatography in water (10% MeCN)

been reported [20] (These values do not account for ZPE corrections).

However, analyzing the energy barrier alone is insufficient to fully understand the reaction pathway. This task is better accomplished using the intrinsic reaction coordinate (IRC) concept [48, 49], which connects reactants, transition states, and products (see Fig. 8).

The key parameter in such cases is the activation energy ($E_a = E_{\text{TS}} - E_{\text{RE}}$). The lower E_a , the easier and faster the reaction proceeds. For compound 13, $E_a = 5.8 \times 10^{-3}$ Hartree is less than that reported for its counterpart (44.9×10^{-3} Hartree), indicating that the antioxidant reaction initiates and completes more easily.

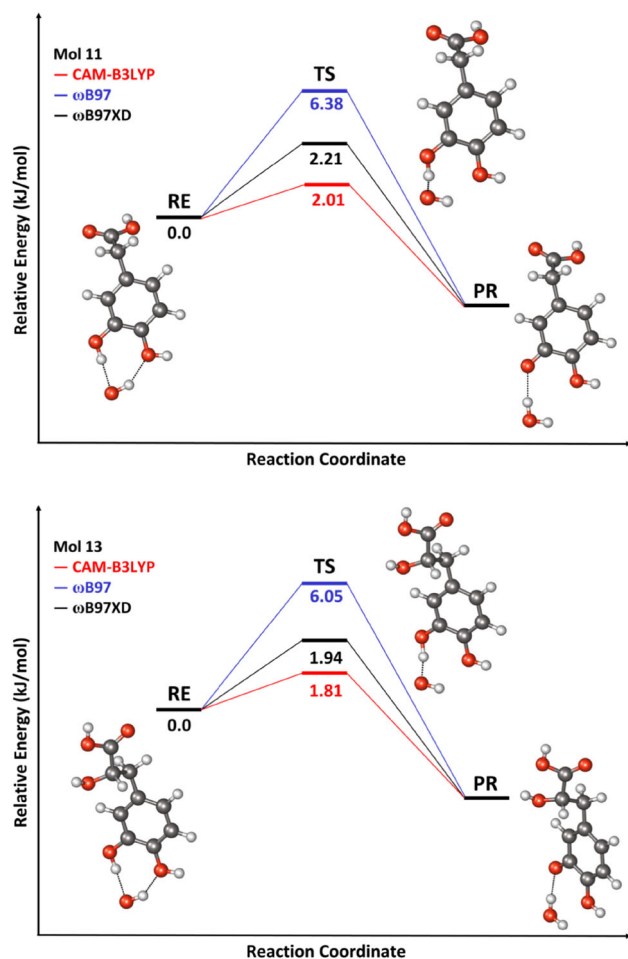


Fig. 6 The gas phase barriers of energy necessary for the chemical reactions between OH radicals and molecules 11 (top) and 13 (bottom), respectively. This values include zero-point energy (ZPE) corrections

Conclusions

Using density functional theory (DFT), this work investigates the hydrogen scavenging process in thirteen phenolic compounds from *Carapa guianensis* agro-industrial waste.

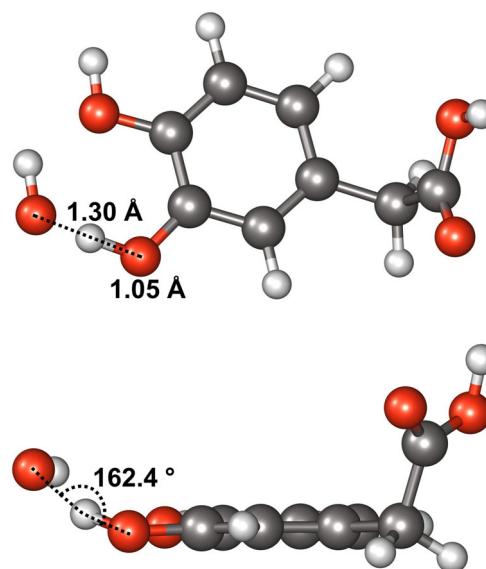


Fig. 7 Front and side views of transition states calculated for compound 11 interacting with the OH radical. The geometries were calculated at the gas phase at ω B97XD/6-31+G(*d*) level of quantum mechanics. The parameters are $r(\text{O} \cdots \text{H}) = 1.30 \text{ \AA}$, $r(\text{O} - \text{H}) = 1.05 \text{ \AA}$, and $\theta = (\text{OHO}) = 162.4^\circ$

This analysis is crucial for understanding the antioxidant mechanisms of chromophores and their applications as metal chelators, which are vital in cosmetics to prevent stability issues.

Quantum mechanical calculations show that the position of OH groups on the aromatic ring significantly influences hydrogen and proton abstraction. DFT analysis of molecular enthalpies and Gibbs free energies reveals that hydrogen and proton removal is easier from OH groups at the *meta* position across all studied molecules.

Regarding antioxidant efficiency, approximately 85% of the phenolic derivatives in *Carapa guianensis* waste exhibit competitive hydrogen dissociation energies compared to phenol. However, only 35% are competitive with ascorbic acid, a commercial antioxidant standard. Among these, three

Table 5 The relative energies for the reaction barrier (TS-RE), products (PR-RE), as well as structural parameters calculated for the optimized reactants, transition states, and products at gas phase conditions

	Mol 11			Mol 13		
	CAM-B3LYP	ω B97	ω B97XD	CAM-B3LYP	ω B97	ω B97XD
Energy Barrier (TS-RE)	2.01	6.38	2.21	1.81	6.05	1.94
PR-RE	−30.78	−31.62	−31.42	−31.21	−32.02	−32.13
$r(\text{O} - \text{H})$	1.06	1.08	1.05	1.05	1.07	1.04
$r(\text{O} \cdots \text{H})$	1.38	1.32	1.39	1.39	1.33	1.40
$\theta(\text{OHO})$	164.2	159.7	162.4	163.8	159.7	162.1

All values were corrected for zero-point energy (ZPE) contributions, and the calculations were carried out using the unrestricted CAM-B3LYP, ω B97, and ω B97XD methods associated with the 6-31+G(*d*) basis set. Energies are in kJ/mol, bonds and angles are in angstroms and degrees, respectively

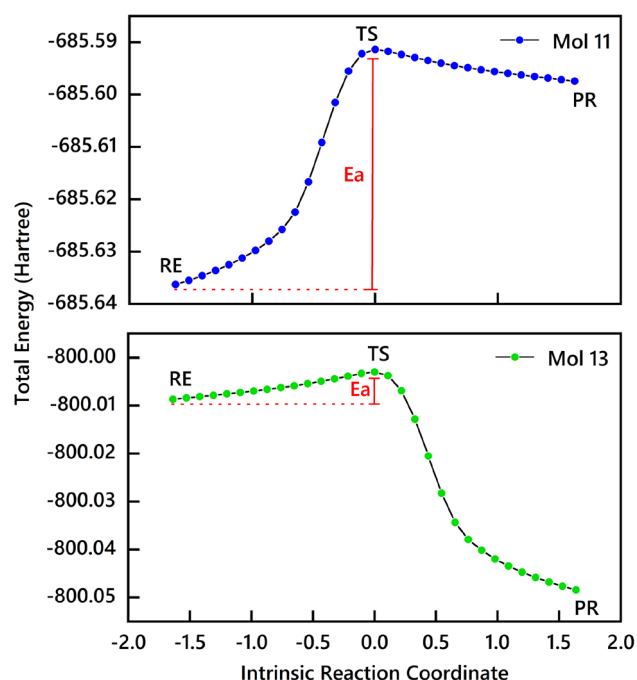


Fig. 8 Intrinsic reaction coordinate (IRC) paths calculated for using the ω B97XD method for molecules 11 (top) and 13 (bottom) at the gas phase

chromophores (9, 11, and 13) show slight energetic deviations from ascorbic acid, highlighting the waste's potential as a source of potent antioxidants.

Solvent effects, modeled using continuum approaches, significantly influence antioxidant behavior. While solvents typically facilitate hydrogen dissociation, some compounds exhibit altered behavior as polarity increases from benzene to water. Thus, solvent selection is critical to maximizing antioxidant potential. Additionally, the solvent enhances metal chelation performance compared to gas-phase conditions.

Beyond altering hydrogen dissociation energies, the solvent also affects the antioxidative mechanism. From the gas phase to benzene, hydrogen removal energy decreases, but the hydrogen atom transfer (HAT) mechanism remains dominant. In highly polar solvents like water, the mechanism shifts to sequential proton loss electron transfer (SPLET), underscoring the importance of solvent polarity.

The analysis of the mechanism of hydrogen scavenging by explicit hydroxyl radicals confirms the order of the antioxidant power of the investigated compounds. Moreover, this analysis reinforces the importance of including Hartree-Fock exchange-correlation contribution, once in the absence of these interactions it is not possible to describe correctly these properties.

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Author contributions Neidy S. S. dos Santos: electronic structure calculations, data analysis, writing. Loubenky Surfin: electronic structure calculations, data analysis, writing. William Silva: electronic structure calculations, data analysis, writing. Antônio R. da Cunha: formal analysis, writing original draft. Herbert Georg: formal analysis, writing original draft. Kaline Coutinho: writing review and editing, supervision. Sylvio Canuto: writing original draft, writing review and editing, supervision. Rodrigo Gester: writing original draft, writing review and editing, supervision.

Data availability No datasets were generated or analysed during the current study.

Declarations

Competing interests The authors declare no competing interests.

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