## SYNTHESIS, CHARACTERIZATION AND BIOLOGICAL PROPERTIES OF METAL(II) POLYPYRIDYL COMPLEXES WITH OO'-, ONO'-, OR NO-CHELATING COLIGANDS

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## SYNTHESIS, CHARACTERIZATION AND BIOLOGICAL PROPERTIES OF METAL(II) POLYPYRIDYL COMPLEXES WITH 00'-, 0N0'-, OR NO-CHELATING COLIGANDS

By

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#### ABSTRACT

## SYNTHESIS, CHARACTERIZATION AND BIOLOGICAL PROPERTIES OF METAL(II) POLYPYRIDYL COMPLEXES WITH 00'-, 0NO'-, OR NO-CHELATING COLIGANDS

#### Chin Lee Fang

Exploring the combination of ligands and metal(II) ion to form ternary metal complexes is an attempt to gain insight into rational design of metal complexes for specific application, such as anticancer drug. 1,10phenanthroline (phen) has been chosen as the main ligand and as an intercalator. This kind of ternary metal(II) complexes allows intercalation of phen ligand between the DNA nucleobase pairs and orientation of the coligand(s) to interact with nucleobases in their vicinity. Maltol, dipicolinic acid and threonine have been chosen as coligands partly because their nontoxicity may results in lower toxicity of metal(II) complexes. The coordinated maltolate has H-acceptor site, dipicolinate have two H-acceptor sites whereas threonine has both H-acceptor and H-donor sites. This study compares the effect of three coligands, the number of chelated coligand and the types of metal(II) ion on the physical and biological properties of resultant ternary metal(II) complexes. The complexes were characterized by elemental analysis, FTIR, UV-Vis and FL spectroscopy, X-ray diffraction, molar conductivity, ESI-MS, TGA and CD spectroscopy. Based on the elemental analysis, molecular formulae of the synthesised metal(II) complexes are  $[Co(C_{12}H_8N_2)(C_6H_5O_3)Cl] \cdot 4H_2O$  (1),  $[Cu(C_{12}H_8N_2)(C_6H_5O_3)Cl] \cdot \frac{1}{2}H_2O$  (2),

$[Zn(C_{12}H_8N_2)(C_6H_5O_3)Cl] \cdot 1\frac{1}{2}H_2O$	(3),
$[Co(C_{12}H_8N_2)(C_6H_5O_3)(C_6H_5O_3)] \cdot 5H_2O$	(4),
$[Co(C_{12}H_8N_2)(C_7H_3NO_4)(H_2O)] \cdot 2H_2O$	(5),
$\{ [Cu_2(C_{12}H_8N_2)_3(C_7H_4NO_4)(H_2O)] [Cu(C_7H_3NO_4)_2] \cdot [(11H_2O)(CH_3OH)] \}$	(6),

 $[Zn(C_{12}H_8N_2)(C_7H_3NO_4)(H_2O)] \cdot H_2O$ (7),

 $[Cu(C_4H_8NO_3)(C_{12}H_8N_2)(H_2O)Cl] \cdot 2H_2O$  (8 - 9) and

 $[Zn(C_4H_8NO_3)(C_{12}H_8N_2)(H_2O)Cl] \cdot 2H_2O$  (10 - 11) [phen =  $C_{12}H_8N_2$ ; maltolate =  $C_6H_5O_3$ ;  $\mu$ -dipicolinate =  $C_7H_4NO_4$ ; dipicolinate =  $C_7H_3NO_4$ ; threeninate =  $C_4H_8NO_3$ ]. X-ray structure analyses show that complexes 4 - 5 and 7 - 11 have octahedral geometry about the central metal(II) ion. Complex  $\mathbf{6}$  is a trinuclear complex with a bridging dipicolinate ligand. A change in the type of metal(II) ion, coligand and the number of coordinated ligands influence the FL emission intensities but not the  $\lambda_{max}$  and the shape of the bands. Most of the studied compounds are 1:1 electrolyte except for complexes 4, 5 and 7 which are nonelectrolytes in water-methanol (1:1 v/v) solution. Based on the molar conductance and ESI-MS obtained, metal(II) complexes studied were found to be stable within the duration of the measurement up to 24 hours except for the neutral [Co(phen)(maltolate)<sub>2</sub>]. The lability of the metal complexes studied appears to depend on the type of metal, nature of the coordinated ligand and the number of the coordinated ligand. The complexes 8 - 11 are optically active and they are grouped into two pairs of enantiomers based on their CD spectra. However, there are no significant differences observed for each enantiomer pair of complexes in FTIR, CHN, UV-Vis, FL, molar conductivity, ESI-MS and TGA. Meanwhile, two groups of metal(II) complexes viz. Co(II) complexes (1 and 4) and Zn(II) complexes (7 and 10) were selected to investigate the effect of changing the coligand on their biological properties. It is believed that the type of coordinated ligand is a crucial factor in bestowing the binding site specificity and selectivity of a given metal complex. Moreover, not many Co(II) and Zn(II) complexes have been studied for their anticancer properties. Hence, it will be interesting to find out the biological properties of Co(II) complexes (1 and 4) and Zn(II) complexes (7 and 10). Indeed, a change of coligand and the number of chelated ligands of Co(II) and Zn(II) complexes seem to influence their DNA recognition, topoisomerase I inhibition and antiproliferative properties. Both Zn(II) complexes (7 and 10) can inhibit topoisomerase I, and have better anticancer activity than cisplatin against nasopharyngeal cancer cell lines, HK1 and HONE-1, with IC<sub>50</sub> values in low  $\mu$ M range. [Zn(phen)(L-threoninate)(H<sub>2</sub>O)Cl]·2H<sub>2</sub>O (10) has the highest therapeutic index for HK1 (3.9). Both Zn(II) complexes (7 and 10) can induce cell death by apoptosis. Changing the coligand in the Zn(II) complexes (7 and 10) affects the biological properties of the complexes such as the binding affinity for some DNA sequences, nucleobase sequence-selective binding, the phase at which cell cycle progression was arrested for treated cancer cells and their therapeutic index.

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#### **APPROVAL SHEET**

## This dissertation/thesis entitled "<u>SYNTHESIS, CHARACTERIZATION</u> AND BIOLOGICAL PROPERTIES OF METAL(II) POLYPYRIDYL COMPLEXES WITH 00'-, 0NO'-, OR NO-CHELATING COLIGANDS"

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## LIST OF ABBREVIATION

Δ	Delta
Λ	Lamda
ca.	Approximately
Calc.	Calculated
Co <sup>II</sup>	Cobalt(II) ion
Cu <sup>II</sup>	Copper(II) ion
$C^{\alpha}$ - $C^{\beta}$ bonds	Alpha-carbon-beta-carbon bond
dipico	Dipicolinate
D-thr	D-threonine
<i>e.g.</i>	For example
etc	Et cetera
H <sub>2</sub> dipico	Dipicolinic acid
Hma	Maltol
hrs	Hours
Hthr	Threonine
i.e.	That is
L-thr	L-threonine
<i>m/z</i> .	Mass-to-charge
ma	Maltolate
mins	Minutes
mL	Milliliters
mmol	Millimole
MTT assay	3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5- diphenyltetrazolium bromide assay
phen	1,10-phenanthroline
Ppt.	Precipitate
Торо І	Topoisomerase I
v/v	Volume per volume
viz.	Namely
Zn <sup>II</sup>	Zinc(II) ion

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

SYNTHESIS, CHARACTERIZATION AND BIOLOGICAL PROPERTIES OF METAL(II) POLYPYRIDYL COMPLEXES WITH 00'-, 0N0'- OR NO-CHELATING COLIGANDS

#### **CHAPTER 1**

#### **INTRODUCTION**

#### 1.1 GENERAL

According to Werner (1893), a metal complex is a compound formed from a Lewis acid (electron-pair acceptor) and a Lewis base (electron-pair donor). Metal ions can act as Lewis acids, accepting electron pairs from their ligands (Lewis base) because metal ions have one or more empty orbitals. A ternary metal complex is formed when two different ligands are coordinated to the metal centre. Metal complexes have many medicinal, industrial and pharmaceutical applications (Erkilla et al., 1999; Chris, 2002; Bhattacharya, 2005; Sakurai, 2010; Warra, 2011). The discovery of cisplatin as anticancer agent is a milestone in the development of metal complexes as medicine (Rosenberg et al., 1969; Kostova, 2006; Florea and Büsselberg, 2011). Besides cisplatin, carboplatin, oxaliplatin, nedaplatin and lobaplatin (Figure 1.1) have been approved for clinical use in Europe, Japan, China and the United States for cancer treatment (Kostova, 2006; Bharti and Singh, 2009). The cytotoxicity of platinum drugs is attributed to their ability to bind DNA and induce apoptosis (Griffith et al., 2007). However, therapy with platinum anticancer drugs is accompanied by severe side effects, such as nephrotoxicity, neurotoxicity, ototoxicity, and emetogenicity, which limit their widespread use (Bharti and Singh, 2009; Eastman, 1999; Gonzalez et al., 2001; Piulats et al.,

2009; Rafique et al., 2010).



**Figure 1.1:** Chemical structure of platinum drugs (Kostova, 2006; Bharti and Singh, 2009).

Thus, researchers have extended their search for other anticanceractive inorganic complexes, attempt to improve their pharmacological properties. In recent years, the research on complexes of essential metals have received much attention based on the assumption that endogenous metals may be less toxic than non essential metals (Becco et al., 2012). Hence, there are more and more studies on complexes of essential metals such as cobalt, copper and zinc. A previous theoretical study conducted by Huang and coworkers (2005), using clustering analysis and self-organising maps, of more than 1000 metal containing compounds with potential anticancer properties, concluded that their cytotoxicity is determined by the identity of the metal and the organic ligand, and the target-specificity can be accomplished by the right metal-ligand combination (Huang et al., 2005). Among the vast variety of possible designs, one interesting series involving simple mixed-ligand metal complexes with intercalating ligand may have both DNA binding and molecular recognition capabilities (Seng et al., 2010; Zeglis et al., 2007). Intercalation occurs when ligands of an appropriate size and chemical nature fit themselves in between base pairs of DNA. Most of these intercalating ligands are polycyclic, aromatic or planar compounds (Bencini and Lippolis, 2010).

Among all the polypyridyl ligands, 1,10-phenanthroline (phen) (**Figure 1.2**) has been chosen as the main ligand and as an intercalator in this project owing to the biological or pharmacological properties (antiproliferative, antifungal, antimycoplasma and antiviral) of some of its metal complexes (Farrell, 2003; García-Raso et al., 2003; Rao et al., 2007; Jia et al., 2010; Rao et al., 2008). The phen is a bidentate, heterocyclic diamine which is widely used as a chelating agent for transition metal ions, and the resultant complexes have played an important role in the development of coordination chemistry. Also, it is a versatile starting material to design more luminescent organic ligands, and metal complexes with phen-based ligands have many diagnostic and therapeutic applications (Bencini and Lippolis, 2010; Accorsi et al., 2009; Chen et al., 2008; Balzani et al., 2008).



Figure 1.2: Structure of 1,10-phenanthroline (phen).

Phen is a rigid planar, hydrophobic, electron-poor heteroaromatic compound (Summers, 1978; Sammes and Yahioglu, 1994; Luman and Castellano, 2004; Bencini and Lippolis, 2010). It has two nitrogen donor atoms at 1- and 10-position (Lever, 2003; Brahma et al., 2008; Bencini and Lippolis, 2010). The lone pairs of electrons on the nitrogen atoms, combined with the rigidity of the aromatic ring system, makes phen a good chelating ligand for forming metal complexes. The poorer  $\sigma$ -donor ability of the heteroaromatic nitrogen atoms is compensated by the ability of phen to behave as excellent  $\pi$ -acceptors (Anderegg, 1963; Bencini and Lippolis, 2010; Monzon, 2010). Ternary metal(II) complexes with phen as main ligand can allow intercalation of phen ligand between the DNA nucleobase pairs and orientation of the subsidiary ligand(s) to interact with nucleobases in their vicinity (Sammes and Yahioglu, 1994; Erkkila and Odom, 1999; Sigman et al., 1996).

In the design of ternary metal complexes, selection of coligand can be a crucial factor in determining their DNA binding property and their affinity for specific DNA binding site(s), if any. Maltol (Hma), dipicolinic acid (H<sub>2</sub>dipico) and threonine (Hthr) have been chosen as coligands in the design of the ternary metal complexes in the present thesis. Maltol (Figure 1.3) is a naturally occurring and non-toxic compound. It is an approved food additive in many countries due to its flavour and antioxidant properties (Kato, 2003; Yanagimoto et al., 2004; LeBlanc and Akers, 1989; Schenck et al., 1945; Thompson et al., 2004). Maltol is a planar compound with hydroxypyrone structure and it can acts as a monoanionic, bidentate OO'-ligand (Marwaha et al., 1994; Yasumoto et al., 2004; Zborowski et al., 2007). Many biologically important metals form stable complexes with maltol due to the relative easiness to deprotonate the hydroxyl group of maltol at the 3<sup>rd</sup> position (Hsieh et al., 2006; Lamboy et al., 2007; Maurya et al., 2011). The coordinated maltolate has H-acceptor sites (three oxygen atoms in chelated maltolate). From the literature search, various metal complexes of maltol (e.g. bis(maltolato)oxovanadium(IV) and bis(maltolato)cobalt(II)) have been reported to have various catalytic and biochemical properties (Li et al., 2008; Caravan et al., 1995; Sun et al., 1996; Hanson et al., 1996; McNeil et al., 1992). Thus, the study of metal complexes with maltolate has been a topic of considerable interest.



Figure 1.3: Structure of maltol

Meanwhile, dipicolinic acid (Figure 1.4) is also used as a coligand in this project. Dipicolinic acid is another essential compound use by living organism, including human (Vargová et al., 2004). It is a flexible and versatile ONO'-ligand and has diverse coordination modes (Erikson et al., 1987; Ducommun et al., 1989; Lubes et al., 2010). It can act as a bidentate, tridentate (Chatterjee et al., 1998; Trivedi et al., 2010), meridian or bridging ligand in various metal complexes (Andreev et al., 2010). Dipicolinic acid is a rigid and planar molecule with hydrogen bond acceptor sites (carboxylate group). Pyridinecarboxylate compounds are particularly interesting owing to their photophysical properties (Qin et al., 2005; Lamture et al., 1995; Mesquita et al., 2002). In addition, metal complexes with dipicolinate-based ligand  $([Co(dipico)_2]^{2-},$  $[Na_3Y(dipico)_3] \cdot 12H_2O$ ,  $[Y_2(dipico)(OH)_4] \cdot 3H_2O$ ,  $\{[Ni(phen)_3[Ni(dipico)_2]\}_2 \cdot 17H_2O$  where dipico = dipicolinate; phen = 1,10phenanthroline, Y = Yttrium(III) were reported by a number of researchers to exhibit various biological functions, viz. insulin mimetic, antibacterial and anticancer (Yang et al., 2002; Cai et al., 2010; Colak et al., 2010).



Figure 1.4: Structure of dipicolinic acid

Stereochemistry is of utmost importance in the construction of metal complexes as site-specific recognition agents. Many transition metal complexes are optically active. Enantiomers of chiral metal complexes have attracted considerable attention as potential structural probes of DNA conformation. Norden and Tjerneld (1976) first reported the preference of the  $\Delta$  enantiomer of *tris*(dipyridyl)iron(II) for right-handed B-form DNA. The Barton group of researchers subsequently developed elaborate series of chiral metal complexes, some of which were reported to be able to recognize specific DNA conformational features (A-DNA, B-DNA and Z-DNA) (Barton, 1986; Chow and Barton, 1992). In the year 1984, Barton and co-workers found that  $\Lambda$ -*tris*(4,7-diphenyl-1,10-phenanthroline)ruthenium(II) does not bind B-DNA owing to steric constraint, however it binds avidly to Z-DNA. Later, Barton and Raphael (1985) have reported the chiral complex  $\Lambda$ -*tris*(4,7-diphenyl-1,10-phenanthroline)cobalt(III) binds to and cleaves left-handed DNA helices and thereby may be used as molecular probe for DNA conformation. Extensive researches have been done on delta ( $\Delta$ ) and lambda ( $\Lambda$ ) chiral octahedral complexes but less research have been done on L- and D-chiral metal complexes. Therefore, a pair of optically active essential amino acid, L-threonine and D-threonine (**Figure 1.5**) were chosen as one of the coligand to synthesize chiral L- and D-metal(II) complexes. The coordinated L-threoninate and D-threoninate have both H-acceptor (carboxylate group) and H-donor sites (amine group).



Figure 1.5: Structures of (a) L-threonine (L-thr); (b) D-threonine (D-thr)

For the series of metal(II) complexes, [M(phen)(L)X],  $[M(phen)(L)(H_2O)]$  and  $[M(phen)(L)_2]$  (L = monoanionic or dianionic ligand) in this project, it is expected that these metal(II) complexes can have two important properties *viz*. DNA binding specificity (molecular recognition) and anticancer property with less harmful side-effect(s). Design of the above ternary complexes involves "modular assembly" of a main ligand and a coligand with the chosen metal cation. The metal centre acts as an anchor that can hold a rigid, three-dimensional scaffold of ligands in place and can also bear the desired ligand(s) as DNA recognition element(s). If these complexes use the phenanthroline to intercalate into the base pairs of DNA, the geometry of the complexes will have profound effect on the orientation of the coligand. The coordinated coligand(s) and the geometry of the complexes should contribute to the desired DNA recognition of nucleobases.

## **1.2 OBJECTIVES**

There are three main aims for this study *viz.* (i) to synthesize three series of ternary metal(II) polypyridyl complexes with the chosen OO'-, ONO'- and NO-coligands; (ii) to characterize metal(II) complexes in solid and solution state; (iii) to conduct biological studies on selected Co(II) and Zn(II) complexes. Further description on each aim is elaborated in this section. The modular system comprises of three sets of ternary metal(II) complexes. Each set of ternary metal(II) complexes contain phen as the main ligand (polypyridyl) and the three sets are constructed by varying the coligand (OO'-, ONO'- or NO-) and metal ion (Co(II), Cu(II) or Zn(II)). This modular system is systematically assembled to study the effect of varying coligand and metal(II) ion on its solid and solution properties.



Figure 1.6: Modular system in this research study.

The series of ternary metal(II) complexes, summarized in **Figure 1.6**, are characterized by using analytical methods shown in **Table 1.1**. There are mainly two types of characterization *viz*. characterization of solid complexes and characterization of aqueous solution of these complexes. Different methods were used for studies of complexes in the solid state and complexes in the solution state as listed in **Table 1.1**. The solid state studies of these metal(II) complexes synthesized are to find out their molecular formulae and structural geometries. The purpose of solution state studies of these metal(II) complexes dissolved in water-methanol (1:1 v/v). This is important for the last part of my study, *i.e.* selecting some of these complexes for biological studies.



#### Table 1.1: List of analytical methods

Numerous clinical, anticancer drugs are topoisomerase (Topo) I inhibitors (Kikuta et al., 2000; Chuang et al., 1996; Sunami et al., 2009; Pommier, 2006; Beretta et al., 2008; Rothenberg, 1997). However, none of these clinical drugs are zinc complexes. In fact, not many zinc complexes have been studied for their anticancer properties. From literature search, only a few cobalt(II) and zinc(II) complexes are known to inhibit Topo I. For this reason, two sets of ternary metal(II) complexes were chosen *viz*. Co(II) complexes  $([Co(phen)(ma)Cl]\cdot4H_2O$  and  $[Co(phen)(ma)_2]\cdot5H_2O)$  and Zn(II) complexes  $([Zn(phen)(dipico)(H_2O)]\cdotH_2O$  and  $[Zn(phen)(L-thr)(H_2O)\cdot2H_2O])$ , to investigate their interaction with Topo I and DNA besides studying their anticancer property. Two Co(II) complexes as mentioned above were selected to investigate the effect of number of chelated maltolate ligand on their biological properties. Both Zn(II) complexes were chosen to investigate the effect of changing coligands from *ONO'*-dipicolinate to *NO'*-L-threoninate on biological properties.

## **CHAPTER 2**

## LITERATURE REVIEW

# SYNTHESIS, CHARACTERIZATION AND BIOLOGICAL PROPERTIES OF METAL(II) POLYPYRIDYL COMPLEXES WITH 00'-, 0NO'- OR NO-CHELATING COLIGANDS

#### **CHAPTER 2**

#### LITERATURE REVIEW

In the past decade, many metal(II) complexes have been synthesized. These metal(II) complexes have attracted considerable attention in various fields of research, viz. catalysis, crystal engineering, medicine and DNA interaction (Adachi and Sakurai, 2004; Peng et al., 2007; Sharma et al., 2012). In this chapter, the background of the chosen main ligand (1,10phenanthroline), coligands (maltolate, dipicolinate, L-threoninate and Dthreoninate) and their related metal(II) complexes will be reviewed. This review mainly focuses on the chemical (e.g. structural geometry, thermal studies, photophysical, photochemical, catalysis and etc.) and biological (e.g. DNA interaction, insulin-mimetic, anti-hyperglycemic, anti-cancer, antimicrobial and etc.) studies. In the last section of this chapter, a focus review of cobalt, copper and zinc complexes on their biological activity is included.

## 2.1 1,10-PHENANTHROLINE COMPLEXES

From the list of polypyridyl ligands, such as 2,2'-bipyridine, 1,10phenanthroline, dipyrido[3,2-a:2',3'c]phenanzine, 1,10-phenantroline-5,6dione, dipyrido[3,2:2',3'-f]quinoxaline and *etc.*, 1,10-phenanthroline has been chosen as the main ligand to make a few series of ternary metal(II) complexes in this project. Phen is a versatile starting material due to its rigidity, planarity, aromaticity, basicity and chelating capability (Bencini and Lippolis, 2010). After Brandt et al. (1954) reviewed the metal complexes of 1,10phenanthroline, extensive research was carried out on the coordination chemistry of phen. It played an important role in the development of coordination chemistry (Sammes and Yohioglu, 1994; Luman and Castellano, 2004). As phen could coordinate to many metal ions in the Periodic Table, phen-based complexes have been actively studied for their catalytic, redox, photochemical and photophysical (luminescence) properties (Armaroli, 2001; Scaltrito et al., 2000; Luman and Castellano, 2004; Bossert and Daniel, 2008; Lavie-Cambot et al., 2008).

Aboul-Gheit et al. (2011) prepared a platinum complex, [Pt(phen)]Cl<sub>2</sub> and used it as a photosensitizer in water to photodegrade 4-chlorophenol under three irradiation wavelengths, viz. 254, 364 and 400 - 800 nm (visible). The rate of photodegradation by [Pt(phen)]Cl<sub>2</sub> was found to be in the order: 400 -800 nm (visible) > 364 nm > 254 nm. Besides photodegradation (photosensitizer) properties, antibacterial and antifungal properties of phenbased complexes were reported. A series of ternary phen-based complexes were synthesized by Shebl et al. (2010) and their antibacterial and antifungal properties investigated. These metal complexes, were viz.  $[Co(phen)(H_3L)]Cl \cdot 4H_2O,$  $[Ce(NO_3)(H_2O)(phen)(H_3L)] \cdot 5H_2O$ and  $[UO_2(H_3L)(phen)] \cdot 2H_2O$  (H<sub>3</sub>L= thiocarbohydrazone), showed antibacterial

activity towards *Staphylocaccus aureus* (Gram-positive bacteria) and Escherichia bacteria (Gram-negative bacteria). coli The  $[Co(phen)(H_3L)]Cl \cdot 4H_2O$  complex showed higher antifungal activity towards Candida albicans and Aspergillus flavus than Amphotricine B which was used as a control antifungal agent. Other phen-containing complexes, viz.  $[Cu(bpy)(phen)]Cl_2 \cdot 2H_2O$ ,  $[Co(bpy)(phen)_2](NO_3)_2 \cdot 2H_2O$  (Agwara et al., 2010), [Mn(4-MPipzcdt)<sub>2</sub>(phen)], [Co(4-MPipzcdt)(phen)<sub>2</sub>]Cl (Kalia et al., 2009), [Cu(SAla)(phen)]·H<sub>2</sub>O (Chandraleka et al., 2011), [CuL(phen)<sub>2</sub>]Cl<sub>2</sub>, [ZnL(phen)<sub>2</sub>]Cl<sub>2</sub> (Raman and Sobha, 2010), [M(L)(phen)Cl] (Raman et al., 2010) (bpy = 2,2'-bipyridine; 4-MPipzcdt = 4-methylpiperazine-1carbodithioate; SAla = Salicylaldehyde-alanine; L = isatin-based schiff base; M = Cu, Co, Ni or Zn), were also found to have antibacterial and/or antifungal properties.

In the past decades, many researchers reported various cationic phenbased complexes having anticancer property. These include iridium complex,  $[Ir(\eta^{5}-cp)(phen)Cl]^{+}$  (Liu et al., 2011), ruthenium porphyrin complex, [(Py-3')TPP-Ru(phen)<sub>2</sub>Cl]<sup>+</sup> (Liu et al., 2010), ruthenium-selenium complex,  $[Ru(phen)_2(phenSe)]^{2+}$  (Li et al., 2012), lanthanide complex, Ln[(phen)\_2(5- $Fu_{3}(NO_{3})|^{2+}$ (Zhong 2005) (where n<sup>5</sup>-cp et al., = pentamethylcyclopentadienyl; (py-3')TPP 5-(3'-pyridyl-10,15,20-=triphenylporphyrin; phenSe = 1,10-phenanthrolineselenazole; Ln = yttrium, lanthanum, cerium, samarium, gadolinium, dysprosium, erbium; 5-Fu = fluorouracil). Neutral phen-based complexes such as [M(phen)(edda)] (where
M = Co, Cu, or Zn; edda = ethylenediaminediacetic acid) (Ng et al., 2007) and  $[Cu(phen)_2(ma)]$  (ma = maltol) (Coyle et al., 2004) were reported to have anticancer property. Both [Cu(phen)(edda)] and [Cu(phen)<sub>2</sub>(ma)] could induce cell death mainly via apoptosis. On the other hand, Ng and coworkers (2008) revealed that an octahedral [Zn(phen)(edda)] could induce cell cycle arrest. Heffeter al. (2006)et showed that the [tris(1,10phenanthroline)lanthanum(III)] trithiocyanate exerts anticancer activity via potent induction of cell cycle arrest and/or apoptosis and has promising in vivo anticancer activity against a human colon cancer xenograft.

The potential use of phen-based complexes as DNA intercalating agents has been a hot topic of study by many inorganic chemists. Apart from the DNA intercalating property, these complexes have been studied for their potential use as artificial nucleases. Cu(I)-phen is a well known DNA nuclease that could cleave DNA *via* an oxygen-dependent reaction (Sigman et al., 1979; Thederahn et al., 1989; Chen et al., 1993). The chemical nuclease Cu(I)-phen cleaved DNA by oxidative attack on the deoxyribose moiety yielding 3'- and 5'-phosphomonoesters, free purine and pyrimidine, and 5-methylenefuranone as stable products (Zelenko et al., 1998). In addition, studies of García-Raso et al. (2003) showed that the Cu(II)-phen-peptide complexes with L-Val-gly and gly-L-trp cleaved pBR322 plasmid DNA without the presence of an external reducing agent. However, a recent research report by Rao and coworkers (2007) revealed that [Cu(L-pro)(phen)(H<sub>2</sub>O)](NO<sub>3</sub>) showed chemical nuclease activity under physiological reaction condition *via* a mechanistic pathway

involving formation of hydroxyl radicals in presence of the 3mercaptopropionic acid (reducing agent).

### 2.2 MALTOLATO COMPLEXES

Maltol has been known since the late 1800's but its coordination chemistry has only developed in the 1900's. Maltol has a hydroxypyrone structure and it deprotonates its hydroxyl group in basic media to form the monoanionic maltolate (ma; an *OO'*-bidentate chelator) (Yasumoto et al., 2004). Maltol was found to induce apoptosis of HL60 cells in the presence of iron, but maltol or iron alone did not affect the cells. Basically, apoptosis of HL60 cells can be explained by the prooxidant properties of maltol/iron compound (Murakami et al., 2006). Nonetheless, maltol enhancement of aluminium and gallium toxicity has been well studied (Katsetos et al., 1990; Savory et al., 1995; Farrar et al., 1988). Farrar et al. (1988) showed that the presence of maltol in fasted (16 hours) animals enhanced gallium uptake into liver, kidney, spleen, heart and brain. Farrar and coworkers (1988) suggested that the enhancement of gallium uptake indicates that gallium-maltol is soluble and carries a neutral charge thereby facilitating its movement across the membrane of the intestinal epithelial cell.

Owing to its high affinity towards metal ion, more and more maltolato complexes have been synthesized and screened for their biological properties. Parajón-Costa and Baran (2011) have compared the spectra of  $bis(maltolato)oxovanadium(IV), [VO(ma)_2] (where V^{IV}O = Oxovanadium(IV),$ ma = maltolate) with uncoordinated maltol and with some related species. Zborowski et al. (2007) have presented FT-IR and FT-Raman spectra of maltol (anion and cation form). Quantum chemical calculations were used to interpret vibrational data of FT-IR and FT-Raman spectra and described the changes upon protonation or deprotonation (Zborowski et al., 2007). The insulinmimetic property of *bis*(maltolato)oxovanadium(IV) have been investigated by many researchers (McNeil et al., 1992; Thompson et al., 2003; Peters et al., 2003: Thompson al., 2004; Sakurai al., 2003). et et When bis(maltolato)oxovanadium(IV) is absorbed, it may meet many other potential V<sup>IV</sup>O-binding molecules (such as nucleotides, inorganic and organic phosphate, lactate, etc.) present in extracellular or intracellular biological fluids. Hence, a study was carried out by Kiss and colleagues (1998) to assess the solution state of  $V^{IV}O$  in organism by mixing  $[VO(ma)_2]$  with various bioligands (potential metal ion binders of biofluids and tissues). It was found that  $[VO(ma)_2]$  underwent transformation into mixed ligand complexes by interacting with bioligands. Meanwhile, the interaction of vanadyl sulfate and [VO(ma)<sub>2</sub>] with human serum apo-transferrin were investigated by Bordbar et al. (2009). A series of binary maltolato complexes, [M(ma)<sub>n</sub>] (M is Co(II), Cu(II), Cr(III) and Zn(II); n is 2 or 3) and [MoO<sub>2</sub>(ma)<sub>2</sub>] were prepared by Thompson's group (2004) to compare their anti-hyperglycemic effect. Amongst all the tested compound, only  $[MoO_2(ma)_2]$  and  $[Co(ma)_2]$  showed hypoglycemic activity at  $ED_{50}$  dose for  $[VO(ma)_2]$ , 0.6 mmol kg<sup>-1</sup> by oral gavage in streptozotocin (STZ)-diabetic rats within 72 hours of administration

of compound.

Other than  $[VO(ma)_2]$ , a neutral *bis*(maltolato)zinc(II),  $[Zn(ma)_2]$  complex was also reported to have insulin-mimetic property (Sakurai et al., 2002; Yoshikawa et al., 2001; Fugono et al., 2002; Adachi and Sakurai, 2004). In 2001, a group of Japanese researchers tested  $[Zn(ma)_2]$  in KK-A(y) mice with Type 2 diabetes mellitus. It was found that the blood glucose level was reduced to within normal range during administration of the  $[Zn(ma)_2]$  for two weeks (Yoshikawa et al., 2001). In order to understand the insulinomimetic activity of  $[Zn(ma)_2]$ , Fugono et al. (2002) carried out a metallokinetic study of zinc in the blood of GK rats treated with  $[Zn(ma)_2]$ . The result was compared with zinc chloride. These studies revealed that oral administration of  $[Zn(ma)_2]$  lowered the blood glucose levels in GK rats with Type 2 diabetes mellitus.

Besides, a comparative study of insulin-mimetic activity of  $[Zn(ma)_2]$ and  $[VO(ma)_2]$  complexes was carried out by Adachi and Sakurai (2004). It was reported that  $[VO(ma)_2]$  lowered the high blood glucose levels in both Type 1 and Type 2 diabetes mellitus mice, while  $[Zn(ma)_2]$  was found to lower the blood glucose levels only in Type 2 diabetes mellitus mice. Enyedy and co-workers (2006) carried out an *in vitro* study of the interaction between insulin-mimetic zinc(II) complexes and selected plasma components (such as cysteine, histidine and citric acid). Their results showed that binary zinc(II) complexes formed various ternary zinc(II) complexes with plasma components, especially cysteine.

Besides the above insulin-mimetic property, some maltolato complexes have anticancer property. For example, have been reported to tris(maltolato)ruthenium(III) has been prepared by Kennedy and coworkers (2005) and it was tested for anti-proliferative activity against the human breast cancer cell line MDA-MB-435S (a spindle shaped variant of the parental MDA-MB-435 strain) and gave IC<sub>50</sub> value of 140 µM. Later, Kennedy and coworkers extended their work from binary ruthenium(III) complexes to ternary ruthenium(III) complexes. The ternary Ru(III) metronidazolemaltolato complex, *trans*- $[Ru(ma)_2(metro)_2]CF_3SO_3$  (where ma = maltolate; metro = metronidazole) was prepared and examined for anti-tumor activity against human breast cancer cell line MDA-MB-435S using 3-(4,5dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide (MTT) assay in phosphate-buffered saline (Kennedy et al., 2006). Surprisingly, the ternary ruthenium(III) complex had a lower IC<sub>50</sub> value than the binary ruthenium(III) complex, tris(maltolato)ruthenium(III).

Although many ruthenium complexes with anticancer property were reported, a titanium complex was the first non-platinum complex to be tested against solid tumor (Clarke et al., 1999; Keppler et al., 1991; Schilling et al., 1996). Lamboy et al. (2007) determined the crystal structure of  $[Ti_4(maltolato)_8(\mu-O)_4]$  and found that it was a tetranuclear complex with two bridging oxides and two bidentate maltolate ligands per titanium in a pseudooctahedral coordination environment. Subsequently, the anticancer property of this complex was tested on colon cancer HT-29 cells (Hernández et al., 2008) and caco-2 (human colon adenocarcinoma) cell line (Hernández et al., 2010). It had greater cytotoxic activity than various titanocene complexes ([Cp<sub>2</sub>TiCl<sub>2</sub>] and [Cp<sub>2</sub>Ti(aa)<sub>2</sub>]Cl<sub>2</sub> where Cp = cyclopentadienyl; Ti = titanium; aa = Lcysteine, L-methionine, and D-penicillamine) that were investigated together.

More binary metal-maltolato complexes had been synthesized. A neutral mer-tris(maltolato)iron(III), [Fe(ma)<sub>3</sub>], was found to be a potential candidate to treat iron deficiency anemia (Ahmet et al., 1988). Later, its crystal structure was determined by using X-ray diffraction method. This complex possessed a distorted octahedral geometry with the three maltolato ligands bonded through the hydroxy and ketone oxygen atoms to give the mer configuration (Ahmet et al., 1988). Another neutral complex. tris(maltolato)aluminium(III), [Al(ma)<sub>3</sub>], has found applications in the Alzheimer's disease (Finnegan et al., 1986; Nelson et al., 1988; Yu et al., 2002; Obulesu et al, 2009). Recently, tris(maltolato)gallium(III), [Ga(ma)<sub>3</sub>], is undergoing clinical and preclinical testing as a potential therapeutic agent for cancer, infectious disease and inflammatory disease (Bernstein, 2012; Chua et al., 2006; Chitambar et al., 2007; Bernstein et al., 2000).

Many researchers had synthesized and studied the antimicrobial property of complexes of maltolate with various heavy transition metals. For instance, *tris*(maltolato)gallium(III), [Ga(ma)<sub>3</sub>], significantly reduced the colonization of Staphylococcus aureus and Acinetobacter baumannii in the wound of thermally injured mice (DeLeon et al., 2009). It also prevented the growth of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* bacteria in the wound. Two other heavy transition metal complexes containing maltolate. viz. oxoperoxomolybdenum(VI) compound,  $[MoO(O_2)(ma)(acac)] \cdot H_2O$ , and  $[MoO(O_2)(ma)(macac)]$ .H<sub>2</sub>O (ma = maltolate; acac = acetylacetonate; macac = methylacetonate), were reported to have antimicrobial property towards Escherichia coli and Vibrio cholera (Maurya et al., 2011).

Maltolato complexes not only have potential to be therapeutic agents but they have been used as catalysts in transesterification and esterification reactions. A series of maltolato complexes,  $[M(ma)_2(H_2O)_2]$  ( $M = Sn^{2+}, Zn^{2+},$  $Pb^{2+}$  and  $Hg^{2+}$ ) were found to be able to catalyse transesterification of soybean oil with methanol. The results showed that the tin complex,  $[Sn(ma)_2(H_2O)_2]$ was a better catalyst than the traditional sodium hydroxide and sulfuric acid catalyst under the same conditions (Abreu et al., 2003). Brito et al. (2008) prepared two other series of similar complexes with the general formula M(nbutoxide)<sub>4-x</sub>(ma)<sub>x</sub>, where M = Ti or Zr and x = 0-4. Both series of complexes were screened for their catalytic activity. Among these complexes, the zirconium complexes containing at least one maltolate ligand were very efficient esterification catalysts for preparing fatty acid methyl esters.

### 2.3 DIPICOLINATO COMPLEXES

Pyridine-2,6-dicarboxylic acid or also called dipicolinic acid (H<sub>2</sub>dipico) is an oxygen and nitrogen donor ligand that can exhibit diverse coordination modes such as bidentate, tridentate and bridging (Sileo et al., 1997; Ma et al., 2003; Ranjbar et al., 2002; Devereux et al., 2002; Koman et al., 2000; Mao et al., 2004). During the past few years, its diverse coordination modes have attracted considerable attention from inorganic and bioinorganic chemists, and numerous metal complexes containing the dipicolinate ligand were synthesized and studied (Sileo et al., 1997; Vargová et al., 2004; Kirillova et al., 2007). Others had reported the crystal structures of different 3d and lanthanide metal dipicolinate complexes (Teoh et al., 2008; Gonzalez-Baró et al., 2005; Yang et al., 2002; Hakansson et al., 1993; Hadadzadeh et al., 2010; Uçar et al., 2007; Fernandes et al., 2001; Çolak et al., 2010).

Besides the above monometallic complexes, two series of homodimetallic aqua complexes,  $[M(H_2O)_5M(dipico)_2]\cdot 2H_2O$  and  $[M(H_2O)_6][M(dipico)_2]\cdot 2H_2O$ , (M = Fe (Laine et al., 1995), Co (Shiu et al., 2004; Xie et al., 2004; Qi et al., 2004; Wang et al., 2004a), Ni (Wen et al., 2002), Cu (Wang et al., 2004b) or Zn (Hakansson et al., 1993)) were reported. Later, several heterometallic complexes with dipicolinate ligand were prepared by self-assembly synthesis in aqueous solution at room temperature. These examples of heteronuclear dipicolinate complexes with 3d metals sharing the same general formula  $[M(H_2O)_5M'(dipico)_2]\cdot mH_2O$  ( $M/M' = Cu^{II}/Co^{II}$ ,

 $Cu^{II}/Ni^{II}$ ,  $Cu^{II}/Zn^{II}$ ,  $Zn^{II}/Co^{II}$ ,  $Ni^{II}/Co^{II}$ , m = 2-3; dipico = dipicolinate) were reported by Kirillova et al. (2007). Extensive H-bonded networks between the dipicolinate ligands and coordinated and/or uncoordinated water molecules were observed in most of the crystal packing structures of dipicolinato complexes (Hakansson et al., 1993; Sileo et al., 1997; Uçar et al., 2007; Kirillova et al., 2007; Hadadzadeh et al., 2010).

Also, thermal studies of dipicolinato complexes were studied by several researchers (Sileo et al., 1997; Vargová et al., 2004; Colak et al., 2010). Sileo and coworkers (1997) carried out a kinetic study of the isothermal dehydration of the monoclinic and triclinic polymorphs of [Cu(dipico)]·2H<sub>2</sub>O (where dipico = dipicolinate). It was reported that both the rate law and the morphology of dehydration were well accounted for by the packing characteristics of the structures. This included both the pathways for water elimination and the ease of the process (with temperatures of dehydration at measurable rates). Later, Vargová and colleague (2004) correlated with the thermal (TG/DTG, DTA) and spectral (infrared spectroscopy) properties of  $[Zn(dipicoH)_2] \cdot 3H_2O$  (where dipicoH) = hydrogendipicolinate) with its structure. Çolak et al. (2010) has synthesized and characterized  $\{[Ni(phen)_3][Ni(dipic)_2]\}_2 \cdot 17H_2O$  (where phen = 1,10-phenanthroline; dipic = dipicolinate) by spectroscopic and thermal analysis. The complex has also been investigated for its biological activity and it showed high activity against S. aureus from Gram positive bacteria and C. albicans from yeast.

Other than crystal structure and thermal studies, other researchers have extended the work to electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR) and electrochemical studies of dipicolinato complexes. For instance, the (2,2'dipyridylamine)(pyridine-2,6-dicarboxylato)copper(II) trihydrate complex was synthesized and characterized by spectroscopic (IR, UV-vis, EPR), X-ray diffraction technique and electrochemical methods by Uçar et al. (2007). Based on EPR and optical absorption studies, Uçar et al. (2007) determined the spin-Hamiltonian and bonding parameters. The g-values obtained indicated the presence of the unpaired electron in the  $d_{x-y}^{2/2}$  orbital. The evaluated metal-ligand bonding parameters showed strong in-plane  $\sigma$ - and  $\pi$ bonding. Furthermore, the cyclic voltammogram (2,2'of the dipyridylamine)(pyridine-2,6-dicarboxylato)copper(II) trihydrate complex in dimethylformamide (DMF) solution exhibited only metal centered electroactivity in the potential range  $\pm 1.25$  V versus Ag/AgCl reference electrode (Uçar et al., 2007).

Recently, ternary complex species formed by vanadium(III) cation with the picolinato and dipicolinato ligands in aqueous solutions were studied potentiometrically and by spectrophotometric measurements (Lubes et al., 2010). The stability constants of these ternary complexes. viz. [V(dipico)(pico)], [V(dipico)(pico)OH] and  $[V(dipico)(pico)_2]^{-}$ were determined by potentiometric measurements. In order to obtain a qualitative characterization of the complexes formed in aqueous solution, the spectrophotometric studies were carried out by Lubes and coworkers (2010). In addition, dipicolinate ligand was well known for its ability to enhance the lanthanide luminescence by a ligand to metal energy transfer mechanism. For example, it was found that the Eu<sup>3+</sup> and Tb<sup>3+</sup> *tris*-dipicolinato complexes were strong emitters in solution (Latva et al., 1997). Later, luminescence properties of *bis*-dipicolinato lanthanide complexes, [Eu(Hdipico)(dipico)] with dipico = 2,6-pyridinedicarboxylate were examined by Fernandes et al. (2001). Fernandes and colleagues reported that the <sup>5</sup>D<sub>0</sub> emission lifetime of [Eu(Hdipico)(dipico)] was only slightly shorter than that of [Eu(dipico)<sub>3</sub>]<sup>3-</sup> in solution (Latva et al., 1997). It was later found that the ligand to metal energy transfer was found to be much less efficient (Fernandes et al., 2001).

A short chain di-ureasil hybrid, designated as d-U(600), was doped with Eu(III) containing dipicolinate ligands, a complex  $Na_3[Eu(dipico)_3] \cdot xH_2O$ . As a result, the addition of the Eu(III) complex to d-U(600) resulted in an enhancement of the absolute emission quantum yield value, whose maximum value (0.66; excited at 280 nm) is the highest value reported for organic-inorganic hybrids modified by lanthanide complexes (Mesquita et al., 2009). Moreover, the use of terbium-sensitized luminescence for the detection of Bacillus spores, such as anthrax, has attracted much attention in recent years due to its applications in biodefense (Hindle and Hall, 1999; Cable et al., 2009) and microbial diagnostics (Gültekin et al., 2010; Kort et al., 2005). Accordingly, Barnes et al. (2011) have measured the effects of terbium chelation upon the parameters associated with dipicolinate ligation and *Bacillus* spore detection. The study revealed that the thermodynamic and emission stabilities of the [Tb(chelate)(dipicolinate)] (where chelate = 2,2',2''nitrilotriacetic acid; 2,2-bis(hydroxymethyl)-2,2',2"-nitrilotriethanol; ethylene glycol-bis(2-aminoethyl ether)-N,N,N',N'-tetraacetic acid; ethylenediamine-N, N, N', N'-tetraacetic acid; 1,2-bis(2-aminophenoxy)ethane-N,N,N',N'tetraacetic acid; 1,4,7,10-tetraazacyclododecane-1,7-diacetic acid; diethylenetriamine-N,N,N',N'',N''-pentaacetic 1,4,7,10acid; tetraazacyclododecane-1,4,7-triacetic acid; and 1,4,7,10tetraazacyclododecane-1,4,7,10-tetraacetic acid) complexes were directly related to chelate rigidity.

Two novel complexes of rare earth yttrium(III) with 2,6pyridinedicarboxylate, namely [Na<sub>3</sub>Y(dipico)<sub>3</sub>]·12H<sub>2</sub>O and  $[Y_2(dipico)(OH)_4]$ .3H<sub>2</sub>O (dipico = 2,6-pyridinedicarboxylate) have been prepared by Cai et al. (2010). Minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) of these two yttrium(III) complexes against Bacillus coli and Staphylococcus aureus were determined. Antibacterial data indicated two yttrium(III) complexes showed antagonistic effect in their antibacterial activities against B. coli and S. aureus. In another report, in vitro antimicrobial activity of  $\{[Ni(phen)_3[Ni(dipico)_2]\}_2.17H_2O$  (dipico = pyridine-2,6-dicarboxylic acid, phen = 1,10-phenanthroline) was investigated by agar well diffusion method (Çolak et al., 2010). This complex exhibited higher activity towards gram positive bacteria (Staphylococcus aureus) than Candida albicans from yeast. Another dipicolinato complex that was screened for antimicrobial activity was a bridged binuclear Cu(II) complex with mixed ligands, di-µ-(2aminopyridine(*N*,*N'*))-*bis*[(2,6-pyridinedicarboxylate)aquacopper(II)] tetrahydrate (Yenikaya et al., 2009).

The study of Murakami and co-workers showed that dipicolinic acid acted as an antioxidant: dipicolinic acid inhibited lipid peroxidation (Murakami et al., 1998) and protected glutathione reductase from the inactivation by copper (Murakami and Yoshino, 1999). Later in 2003, the same research group examined the protective effect of dipicolinic acid on LDL oxidation in relation to copper reduction. Here, the dipicolinic acid showed an antioxidant effect by forming a chelation complex with copper. The formation of the complex has a better antioxidant property due to the effect of chelation at two carboxylate anion (2 and 6 position) (Murakami et al., 2003). Besides, dipicolinato complexes were used as electron carriers in some model biological system, as specific molecular tools in DNA cleavage (Groves and Kady, 1993) and as NO scavengers (Cameron et al., 2003).

A cobalt(II)-dipicolinate complex, [Co(dipico)<sub>2</sub>]<sup>2-</sup> was found to be effective in reducing the hyperlipidemia of diabetes in rats with STZ-induced diabetes using oral administration in drinking water (Yang et al., 2002). A series of vanadium (III, IV, V)-dipicolinate complexes with different redox properties were selected by Zhang's research group to investigate the structure-property relationship of insulin-mimetic vanadium complexes for membrane permeability and gastrointestinal (GI) stress-related toxicity using the Caco-2 cell monolayer model. The cytotoxicity of the vanadium complexes on Caco-2 cells was measured by the decrease of cell viability using the MTT assay. The order of vanadium complexes to induce reactive oxygen and nitrogen species RONS was found to be V(V)-dipico > V(III)-dipico > V(IV)-dipico. The order of redox potential was found to be V(V)-dipico > V(IV)-dipico > V(III)-dipico > V(III)-dipico, respectively (Zhang et al., 2006).

Recently, Willsky and friends (2011) reviewed the anti-diabetic effects of a series of vanadium dipicolinate complexes in rats with streptozotocininduced diabetes. It was demonstrated that changes in coordination geometry caused the greatest improvement in the insulin-enhancing properties of these complexes. Willsky and coworkers (2011) proposed that the stability of the complexes and the ability to interact with cellular redox substrates were important for the insulin-enhancing activity exerted by vanadium complexes. Redox properties of vanadium complexes can be tuned from favouring oneelectron transfer reactions to two-electron transfer reactions, potentially decreasing the toxicity of these complexes (Willsky et al., 2011). Dipicolinato complexes not only have biological properties, they also show catalytic activity (Devereux et al., 2002; Trivedi et al., 2010). All the manganese complexes synthesized by Devereux research group exhibited catalytic activity towards the disproportionation of hydrogen peroxide in the presence of imidazole (Devereux et al., 2002). Recently, dinuclear а μbis(oxido)bis{oxidovanadium(V)}dipicolinato complex exhibited efficient catalytic activity toward selective epoxidation of *cis*-cyclooctene by using *tert*- butylhydroperoxide as an oxidant (Trivedi et al., 2010).

### 2.4 THREONINATO COMPLEXES

Amino acids are the building blocks of proteins. Threonine is a chiral  $\alpha$ -amino acid bearing an alcohol group. This essential amino acid is classified as a polar uncharged amino acid. Threonine has two chiral centers. Threonine can exist in four possible stereoisomers with the following configuration: (2*S*, 3*R*), (2*R*,3*S*), (2*S*, 3*S*) and (2*R*, 3*R*). The name L-threonine is used for (2*S*, 3*R*)-2-amino-3-hydroxybutanoic acid; D-threonine is used for (2*R*,3*S*)-2-amino-3-hydroxybutanoic acid. Such pair of chiral molecules (called enantiomers, **Figure 2.1**) can be differentiated by their optical rotation. Optical rotation is the turning of the plane of linearly polarized light about the direction of motion as the light travels through certain materials (Carey, 2000; Wikipedia®, 2012). It occurs in solutions of chiral molecules. Each enantiomer will rotate the light in a different direction, clockwise ((+)-form) or counter clockwise ((-)-form). The optical rotation of L-threonine and D-threonine in water are -28 and +29 (5 mg/mL), respectively (Chem Spider 6051, 2010; Chem Spider 62643, 2010).



**Figure 2.1:** Structure of (a) L-threonine (L-thr); (b) D-threonine (D-thr) with their chiral centres marked with asterisks.

Enantiomers of chiral metal complexes were discovered to be able to function as structural probes of DNA (Qu et al., 2000). Hence, enantiomers of chiral metal complexes, especially chiral amino acid complexes, have attracted considerable attention from researchers (Nakabayashi et al., 2004; Chetana et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2009; Jin and Ranford, 2000; Rao et al., 2007). Zhang et al. (2004) synthesized a ternary copper(II) complex, [Cu(phen)(L-thr)(H<sub>2</sub>O)](ClO<sub>4</sub>) and determined its crystal structure. The crystal structure of [Cu(phen)(L-thr)(H<sub>2</sub>O)](ClO<sub>4</sub>) shows that the [Cu(phen)(L-thr)(H<sub>2</sub>O)]<sup>+</sup> cation has a distorted square-pyramidal geometry. This copper(II) complex was reported to exhibit potent cytotoxic effects against human leukemia cell line HL-60 and human stomach cancer cell line SGC-7901 with inhibition rates of over 90% (1.0 x  $10^{-6}$  M) (Zhang et al., 2004). The structure of the D-

enantiomer and its biological activity has not been reported.

Rizzi and colleagues (2000) reported the structure and single crystal EPR studies of a binary copper(II) complex, bis(L-threoninato)copper(II) monohydrate,  $[Cu(L-thr)_2] \cdot H_2O$ . The  $[Cu(L-thr)_2] \cdot H_2O$  exists as an octahedral complex. The copper ion is in an elongated octahedral coordination. Trans coordination by two threonine molecules produces square planar environment. The axial ligands are carboxylate oxygen atoms of a pair of symmetry related molecules obtained through  $\pm b$  translations (Cu-O<sub>ax</sub> distances of 2.478(8) and 2.972(3) Å, respectively). The  $O_{eq}$ -Cu- $O_{ax}$  interaction of adjacent Cu(L-thr)<sub>2</sub> molecules in a chain provides the main path for the transmission of the superexchange coupling between copper unpaired electrons. The EPR data for [Cu(L-thr)<sub>2</sub>]·H<sub>2</sub>O indicated that this complex had carboxylate-bridged copper ion chains, which are linked through complex chemical paths involving the amino acid side chain and hydrogen bonds (Rizzi et al., 2000). A series of zinc(II) complexes of L- and D-amino acids, [Zn(aa)<sub>2</sub>] and their derivatives, [ZnL] (where aa = L-asparagine, D-asparagine, L-proline, D-proline, Lthreonine, D-threonine, L-valine, D-valine, glycine, L-alanine, D-alanine, Lhistidine and D-histidine; L = N, N'-ethylene-bis-glycine, N, N'-ethylene-bissarcosine, N,N'-ethylene-bis-L-methionine, N,N'-ethylene-bis- $\beta$ -alanine, N,N'trimethylene-bis-glycine and N,N'-trimethylene-bis-L-valine) were prepared to study their insulin-mimetic activity (Yoshikawa et al., 2001). Zinc(II) complexes with a Zn(N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>) coordination mode were found to have in vitro insulin-mimetic activity. Using isolated rat adipocytes treated with epinephrine, the insulin-mimetic activity of the complexes was evaluated in terms of inhibition of free fatty acid release. Furthermore, it was reported that the insulin-mimetic activity of zinc(II) complexes with overall stability constants (log  $\beta$ ) less than 10.5 was higher than that of ZnSO<sub>4</sub> and VOSO<sub>4</sub>. It was revealed that daily injections of *cis*-[Zn(L-thr)<sub>2</sub>(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>2</sub>] for 14 days successfully lowered down the high blood glucose level of KK-A<sup>y</sup> mice with Type 2 diabetes mellitus (Yoshikawa et al., 2001).

A series of metal(II) complexes with threonine as ligand,  $[M(Thr)_2] \cdot nH_2O$  (where M = Cobalt(II), Copper(II) and Zinc(II); Thr = threonine; n = 1-2), was synthesized and characterized by Marcu et al. (2008). Their main aim was to elucidate the structure of the synthesized threonine complexes by using several spectroscopy methods such as atomic absorption, elemental analysis, FTIR, UV-Vis and EPR spectroscopy. It was revealed that the amino acids are coordinated to the metal centre with its carbonyl oxygen and the nitrogen atom of amino group with the metal-ligand in the ratio of 1:2. Then, the EPR spectra were used to confirm the pseudotetrahedral local symmetry for copper ion and octahedral symmetry for cobalt ion respectively (Marcu et al., 2008). Both the structure and the stability constant of these complexes play an important role in their biological functions. In Na'aliya's (2010) report, the stability constants of nickel complexes with non-polar amino acids,  $[Ni(aa)_3]^-$  (where aa = proline, threonine, asparagine) was reported. It was reported that the high stability of the complexes could be associated to the nature of the chelation taking place in the complexes. All the complexes form rings in their structure which resulted from coordination of the Ni(II) ion with bidentate amino acids, and this resulted in the complexes being more stable. The high stability of the complexes is one of the factors that enhance the functioning of the complexes in the relevant biological processes taking place in the body.

Shi and coworkers (2007) carried out a mechanistic study of oxidation of L-serine and L-threonine by bis(hydrogen periodato)argentate(III) complex anion,  $[Ag(HIO_6)_2]^{5-}$ . The oxidation reaction took place in alkaline medium and each silver complex selectively broke down the  $C^{\alpha}$ - $C^{\beta}$  bonds, leading to the formation of its aldehyde (formaldehyde for serine and acetaldehyde for threonine). This suggests that the silver complex might be useful as a reagent for modification of peptides and proteins in alkaline medium (Shi et al., 2007). In 2000, Jin and Ranford synthesized nine ternary platinum(II) complexes with phen and amino acids (where amino acids are glycine (Gly), L-histidine (His), L-cysteine (Cys), L-isoleucine (Ile), L-alanine (Ala), L-proline (Pro), Lserine (Ser), L-aspartic acid (Asp), L-glutamic acid (glu)) as well as two ternary palladium(II) complexes with phen and amino acids (where amino acids are L-aspartic acid (Asp), L-glutamic acid (Glu)). All eleven metal(II) complexes were tested for cytotoxicity on Molt-4, a human leukaemia cell line, and it was found that [Pt(phen)(Pro)]Cl·2H<sub>2</sub>O and [Pd(phen)(Asp)]Cl·1<sup>1</sup>/<sub>2</sub>H<sub>2</sub>O showed cytotoxicity comparable to cisplatin (Jin and Ranford, 2000). No Damino acids were used to make these complexes. DNA recognition (DNA binding and DNA recognition) of palladium(II) and platinum(II) complexes

were not investigated by Jin and Ranford (2000).

Besides anticancer property, some amino acids complexes were reported to exhibit nucleolytic property (Rao et al., 2007; Chetana et al., 2009; Yodoshi et al., 2007; Ng et al., 2006). In 2007, two ternary copper(II) complexes,  $[Cu(L-pro)(L)(H_2O)](NO_3)$  (where L-pro = L-proline; L = 2,2'bipyridine or phen) were synthesized and investigated for their nucleolytic property. Significant chemical nuclease activity was observed for the [Cu(L $pro(phen)(H_2O)(NO_3)$  under physiological reaction conditions and the cleavage mechanism involved formation of hydroxyl radicals in the presence of the 3-mercaptopropionic. It was reported that the binding ability of the complexes was important to achieve efficient DNA cleavage activity. At the same time, [Cu(Gly)(bpy)Cl] complex synthesized by Yodoshi and coworkers (2007) showed effective DNA binding and cleavage. This complex showed a propensity to bind to CT DNA and to cleave SC DNA in the presence of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and ascorbic acid. The complex also degraded CT DNA in the presence of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and ascorbic acid. Recently, ternary copper(II) complexes with polypyridyl bases (2,2'-bipyridyl (bpy), 1,10-phenanthroline (phen), 1,10phenanthroline-5,6-dione (phendione), dipyrido[3,2:2',3'-f]quinoxaline (dpq)) and L-alanine were synthesized and tested for DNA cleavage activity (Chetana et al., 2009). Both phen and dpq complexes showed chemical nuclease activity in the presence of 3-mercaptopropionic as a reducing agent. Hydroxyl radicals were found to be the DNA cleavage active species.

Zhang et al. (2009) investigated the enantioselective binding of L- and D-phenylalanine to calf thymus DNA by circular dichroism, fluorescence quenching, viscosity, salt effect and fluorescence experiments. Although both L- and D-phenylalanines bound to CT-DNA with groove binding, only Lphenylalanine bound preferentially to CT-DNA. A more simple method was proposed by Zhang et al. (2007) to separate DL-tyrosine and DL-tryptophan. L-enantiomers preferentially bind to CT-DNA and remained in the dialysis tubing, while D-enantiomers easily escaped from the CT-DNA and permeated through dialysis tubing. CT-DNA could discriminate and separate Lenantiomer from D-enantiomer. Thus, the chiral separation of CT-DNA can be widely used for the separation of other amino acid enantiomers in industrial production. Arjmand et al. (2010) have also done a comparative study of enantiomeric pairs of L, D and DL-tryptophan of late transition metals,  $[Co(tryp)(dab)(H_2O)_2]Cl$  and [M(tryp)(dab)]Cl (where M = Cu or Zn; tryp = L-tryptophan, D-tryptophan or DL-tryptophan; dab = 1,2-diaminobenzene). The in vitro DNA binding studies demonstrated that the [Co(Ltryp)(dab)(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>2</sub>]Cl and [M(L-tryp)(dab)]Cl (where M = Cu or Zn; L-tryp = L-tryptophan; dab = 1,2-diaminobenzene) exhibited highest propensity for binding DNA. The DNA binding mode was essentially non-covalent viz. electrostatic via phosphate backbone of DNA double helix. The copper(II) complex, [Cu(L-tryp)(dab)]Cl bound DNA more avidly than the Co(II) and Zn(II) analogues. The [Cu(L-tryp)(dab)]Cl exhibited significant antitumor activity against MCF-7 cell line. Even though quite a number of studies were done on amino acid complexes, there are very few studies on DNA binding and biological properties of ternary metal(II) complexes with an enantiomeric

pairs of amino acid.

# 2.5 COMPARATIVE REVIEW OF BIOLOGICAL STUDIES OF COBALT(II), COPPER(II) and ZINC(II) COMPLEXES

Cobalt is an essential trace element in humans, exhibiting many useful biological functions. Numerous compounds, naturally occurring and manmade, contain cobalt at two common oxidation states Co(II) and Co(III). There is growing interest in investigating cobalt and other transition metal complexes for their interaction with DNA (Richards and Rodger, 2007; Terrón et al., 2007; Keene et al., 2009; Zeglis et al., 2007; Boerner and Zaleski, 2005). This may be partly influenced by the results of extensive investigation into two areas of research, viz. (i) the binding specificity of small organic molecules for their possible modulation and inhibition of DNA replication, transcription and recombination, and (ii) anticancer, antiviral and antibacterial drugs (Du et al., 2010). The DNA specific interactions of organic molecules include abasic, mismatch or bulge site recognition, secondary structure recognition and specific sequence recognition. Although there are numerous investigations into the DNA binding and nucleolytic property of cobalt complexes, there seems less attention on their ability for binding recognition of DNA base, DNA secondary structures or base sequences (Jiao et al., 2005; Kong and Xie, 2000; Efthimiadou et al., 2008; Chen et al., 2010; Gust et al., 2004; Cheng et al., 1999). Thus far, the DNA recognition ability of metal complexes is still not well understood. However, it is believed that the type of coordinated ligand and the geometrical orientation of the ligands are crucial

factors in bestowing the binding site specificity and selectivity of a given metal complex. Recently, Ng et al. (2008) and Seng et al. (2008) have reported the preferential binding of (ethylenediamine-N,N'-diacetato)(1,10-phenanthroline)metal(II), [M(phen)(edda)], for ds(AT)<sub>6</sub> over ds(CG)<sub>6</sub> and its anticancer property.

Besides DNA binding studies, cobalt complexes have been investigated for their anticancer properties (Nagababu et al., 2008; Klanicová et al., 2006). Cobalt(III) complexes have also been tested as hypoxia-activated anticancer prodrugs which upon reduction in the reducing environment of cancer tissues can release toxic ligands to kill the cancer cells (Failes and Hambley, 2006). In more recent approaches to anticancer drug development, inhibition of proteasome and topoisomerase with metal complexes have been studied (Chen et al., 2009; Milacic et al., 2008; Lo et al., 2009; Jayaraju et al., 1999). Apoptosis induced by cobalt(II) chloride seemed to involve inhibition of proteasome (Araya et al., 2002). From the literature search, only a few anticancer cobalt(II) complexes are known to inhibit proteasome or topoisomerase I. Among the [M(phen)(edda)] complexes mentioned above, [Co(phen)(edda)] was the least antiproliferative against MCF7 breast cancer cell line with an IC<sub>50</sub> value of 11.4  $\mu$ M at 72 hours incubation (Ng et al., 2008).

Other than cobalt complexes, there is growing interest in investigating copper and zinc complexes for their interaction with DNA. Copper is an essential trace element present in many species especially protein (e.g. cytochrome c oxidase, copper/zinc superoxide dismutase, tyrosinase, hemocyanin and laccase) (Fenton, 1995; Ettinger, 1984; Karlin and Zubieta, 1996). Owing to the biological role of copper(II) and its synergetic activity with the drug, copper(II) complexes have been extensively studied (Kato and Muto, 1988; Weder et al., 2002; Sorenson, 1989). A large number of copper(II) complexes have been reported to be able to induce DNA cleavage with or without oxidizing and reducing agents (such as hydrogen peroxide and ascorbic acid). Lamour and coworkers (1999) reported that copper(II) complexes of polyhydroxysalens(hydroxysalicylidene)ethylenediamine can act as self-activated chemical nucleases. Earlier investigations on the chemical nuclease activity of the bis(1,10-phenanthroline)copper(I) complex, [Cu(ophen)<sub>2</sub>]<sup>+</sup>, in presence of  $H_2O_2$ , indicated that this complex induced oxidative strand scission mediated by free radicals (Sigman et al., 1993a; Sigman et al., 1993b). According to Sitlani et al. (1992), the active oxo-species formed attacked the deoxyribose sugar proton of the nucleotide which was in the vicinity of the metal complex in the minor groove, initiating a series of oxidative reactions mediated by free radicals that lead to DNA strand scission.

Copper complexes are able to promote the generation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) in the presence of mild reducing agents, which has been exploited to oxidatively break the DNA strands and to further inhibit the proliferation of tumour cells (Zhang et al., 2004; Maheswari et al., 2008; Loganathan et al., 2012). A variety of copper complexes have been designed for these reasons (Silva et al., 2011; O'Connor et al., 2012). For example, ternary copper(II) complex of 1,10-phenanthroline with L-threonine,  $[Cu(phen)(L-thr)(H_2O)](ClO_4)$  can inhibit HL-60 and SGC-7901 tumour cell lines (Zhang et al., 2004). It was found that the copper(II) complex cleaved pBR322 DNA via intercalation of the DNA. The DNA cleavage occurred in the presence of ascorbate involved the hydroxyl radical species. Other than that, several copper(II)-terpyridine complexes such as  $[Cu(Itpy)_2](ClO_4)_2$ ,  $[Cu(ttpy)Cl]Cl, [Cu(itpy)Cl]Cl and [Cu(Itpy)(phen)(ClO_4)](ClO_4) \cdot (H_2O) (Itpy = imidazole terpyridine; ttpy = tolylterpyridine) have shown considerable nuclease property and antitumor activity in physiologically relevant conditions (Uma et al., 2005; Uma et al., 2007; Manikandamathavan et al., 2011).$ 

Besides DNA binding studies, copper complexes have been investigated for their catalytic oxidation properties. Copper is incorporated in metalloenzymes that are involved mainly in oxygen transport, electron transfer, and catalytic oxidation processes (Karlin and Tyeklar, 1993; Reinhammer, 1984; Solomon et al., 1996; Magnus et al., 1994; Linder, 1991; Adman, 1991). For example, blue copper electron transfer proteins use copper as a one electron relay, shuttling between the cuprous and cupric oxidation states (Solomon and Hadt, 2011). The tuning Cu<sup>II</sup>/Cu<sup>I</sup> redox couple play important role in electron transfer in blue copper proteins and also in catalysis (Roy et al., 2009; Yang and Du, 2011). Synthetic coordination complexes employing copper(II) have proven effective functional models for several classes of metalloenzymes including oxidases (catechol oxidase) (Zhang et al., 2007; Sreedaran et al., 2008), oxygenases (Tolman, 1997), nucleases (Zelder et al., 2003; Hegg and Burstyn, 1996; Hegg et al., 1977; Hegg and Burstyn, 1998; An et al., 2006; Belousoff et al., 2008a; Belousoff et al., 2008b), and phosphatases (Sreedaran et al., 2008; Golicnik, 2010; Oliveira et al., 2009; Liang et al., 2007; Belousoff et al., 2006; Fry et al., 2005; Gahan et al., 2009).

Zinc is an outstanding micronutrient with diverse biological, clinical, and public health importance (Hambidge et al., 2010; Sigel et al., 2006; Burdette and Lippard, 2001). There are over 300 natural metalloenzymes (Stehbens, 2003; Lin et al., 2005). Artificial zinc finger proteins and zinc complexes with simple organic ligands have been shown to have sequencespecific DNA binding recognition (Papworth et al., 2000; Nagaoka and Sugiura, 2000; Seng et al., 2010). Some zinc complexes are now beginning to be reported being able to inhibit topoisomerase I and II, which are nuclear enzymes needed for modification of topological state of DNA (Seng et al., 2010; Kikuta et al., 2000; Chuang et al., 1996). An important property of topoisomerase I (Topo I) inhibitors is their anticancer property; in fact, numerous clinical, anticancer drugs are topo I inhibitors (Kukuta et al., 2000; Chuang et al., 1996; Sunami et al., 2009; Pommier, 2006; Beretta et al., 2008; Rothenberg, 1997). However, none of these clinical drugs are zinc complexes. In fact, not many zinc complexes have been studied for their anticancer property (Liguori et al., 2010; Wen et al., 2011).

The above review of cobalt, copper and zinc complexes on their biological activity showed that copper(II) complexes have been extensively studied. These research studies includes DNA interaction, anticancer activity and catalytic oxidation properties as mentioned earlier in this section. Also, similar copper complexes described in the current study, [Cu(phen)(Lthr)( $H_2O$ )] has been synthesized by Zhang et al. (2004) and was found to have anticancer activity towards HL-60 and SGC-7901 tumour cell lines. Although  $[Zn(phen)(dipico)(H_2O)] \cdot H_2O$ has been previously synthesized and characterized by Harrison et al. (2006) but the work only covered the X-ray crystallographic data. Unlike copper(II) complexes, not many cobalt(II) and zinc(II) complexes have been studied for their anticancer activity. Motivated by this, selected cobalt(II) and zinc(II) complexes are tested for their DNA recognition, DNA specificity and anticancer properties.

### 2.6 Summary

A list of metal(II)-phen complexes with various *OO'-*, *ONO'-* and *NO-* type coligands are listed in **Table 2.1**. Although there are various *OO'-*, *ONO'-* and *NO-* type coligands reported in the literature, to our knowledge, there are limited studies on the synthesis and biological activities of ternary metal(II) complexes containing 1,10-phenanthroline as main ligand and *OO'-*maltolate, *ONO'-*dipicolinate and *NO-*threoninate coligands. In the review of phen, maltolate, dipicolinate, threoninate and metal(II) ions (Co(II), Cu(II) and Zn(II)) in the earlier sections, it was shown that combination of mentioned

metal and ligand is an interesting topic of research. In the present research, various sets of ternary complexes, described in **section 1.2**, are systematically assembled to study the effect of varying coligands and metal(II) ions on its solid and solution properties.

In short, this review sketches the background for the title of this research and the rationale for choosing the type of metal(II) ions, the type of polypyridyl as main ligand and the selected OO'-, ONO'- and NO-coligands. It is a continuation of the role of inorganic chemists to improve understanding of how the physical and chemical properties of the metal(II) complexes affect their biological activities. Interest in the biological activity of transition metal complexes has attracted the interest of many scientists due to the potential use of metal complexes as therapeutic agents for certain diseases. However, the relationship of the physic-chemical properties and the biological activities of the transition metal complexes are not fully understood. This could be due to diverse structural features of these complexes, resulting from various coordination modes of the ligands and varied coordination geometries of the metal centres.

M(phen)(L)X	Type of co-ligand, L			
	OO'-type	ONO'-type	NO-type	Others
Co(II)	$\begin{array}{l} [Co(phen)(acac)_2];\\ [Co_2(\mu\text{-OOCCH}_3)_2(\text{OOCCH}_3)_2\\ (phen)_2(\mu\text{-OH}_2)] \end{array}$	[Co(phen)(ida)(H₂O)]·H₂O; [Co(phen)(pteridine)(H₂O)]·3H₂O	[Co(pico) <sub>2</sub> (phen)]	[Co(phen)(edda)]; [Co(phen)(H <sub>3</sub> L)]Cl·4H <sub>2</sub> O; [Co(bpy)(phen) <sub>2</sub> ](NO <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> ·2H <sub>2</sub> O; [Co(4-MPipzcdt)(phen) <sub>2</sub> ]Cl; [Co(L)(phen)Cl]
Cu(II)	$\label{eq:constraint} \begin{array}{ll} [Cu(phen)_2(ma)]; & [Cu(phen)(ma)Cl]; \\ [Cu(phen)(acac)(H_2O)]ClO_4; \\ \{[Cu(acac)_2(phen)_2Co(NCS)_4] \\ \cdot 2[Cu(acac)(phen)(NCS)]\}; \\ [Cu(phen)_2(mal)] \cdot 2H_2O; \\ [Cu(phen)(Sal)]ClO_4 \end{array}$	$\label{eq:constraints} \begin{array}{l} [Cu(phen)(ida)(H_2O)]\cdot 4H_2O;\\ [Cu(phen)_2(\mu-ida)\\ Cu(phen)](ClO_4)\cdot CH_3OH;\\ [Cu_2(\mu-nta)(phen)_3](ClO_4)\cdot 2H_2O;\\ [\{Cu(phen)_2\}_2\{Cr_2(\mu-OH)_2(nta)_2\}]\\ [Cr_2(\mu-OH)_2(nta)_2]\cdot 8H_2O;\\ [Cu(phen)(SAla)]\cdot H_2O \end{array}$	$\label{eq:cupperp} \begin{split} & [Cu(phen)(L-pro)(H_2O)](NO_3);\\ & [Cu(phen)(gly)(H_2O)](NO_3);\\ & [Cu(phen)(L-Val-gly)];\\ & [Cu(phen)(gly-L-trp)];\\ & [Cu(phen)(gly-L-trp)]\cdot CIO_4 \end{split}$	[Cu(phen)(edda)]; [Cu(bpy)(phen)]Cl <sub>2</sub> ·2H <sub>2</sub> O; [Cu(SAla)(phen)]·H <sub>2</sub> O; [CuL(phen) <sub>2</sub> ]Cl <sub>2</sub> ; [Cu(L)(phen)Cl]
Zn(II)	{[Zn(phen)(L-tart)]·6H <sub>2</sub> O} <sub>n</sub> ; [Zn(phen) <sub>2</sub> (pime)]·6H <sub>2</sub> O; [Zn(phen)(acac) <sub>2</sub> ]	$[Zn(phen)(dipico)(H_2O)] \cdot H_2O;$ $[Zn(phen)(ida)(H_2O)] \cdot 1 = \frac{1}{2} H_2O;$ $[Zn_2(phen)_3(nta)]NO_3 \cdot 6H_2O$	[Zn₄(phen)₄(pico)₄]·11 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>4</sub> H₂O; [Zn(phen)(3-me-pic)₂]·5H₂O	[Zn(phen)(edda)]; [Zn(L)(phen) <sub>2</sub> ]·Cl <sub>2</sub> ; [Zn(L)(phen)Cl]
Other metals	[Ce(phen)(acac) <sub>3</sub> ]; [Mn(phen)(acac)]; [Y(phen)(acac) <sub>3</sub> ]	{[Ni(phen)₃][Ni(dipico)₂]}-17H₂O; [Ni(phen)(dipico)(H₂O)]·H₂O	[Pt(phen)(gly)]; [Pt(phen)(L-His)]; [Pt(phen)(L-Cys)]; [Pt(phen)(L-Ile)]; [Pt(phen)(L-ala)]; [Pt(phen)(L-pro)]; [Pt(phen)(L-Ser)]; [Pt(phen)(L-Asp)]; [Pt(phen)(L-glu)]; [Pd(phen)(L-Asp)]; [Pd(phen)(L-glu)]	$ \begin{array}{ll} [Ir(\eta^{5}\text{-cp})(phen)Cl]^{+}; & [Pt(phen)]Cl_{2}; \\ [Ce(NO_{3})(H_{2}O)(phen)(H_{3}L)]\cdot5H_{2}O; \\ [UO_{2}(phen)(H_{3}L)]\cdot2H_{2}O; \\ [Mn(4-MPipzcdt)(phen)_{2}]Cl]^{+} \end{array} $

### Table 2.1: List of ternary metal(II) complexes with 1,10-phenanthroline as main ligand and various co-ligand

Note:  $H_3L$  = thiocarbohydrazone; 4-MPipzcdt = 4-methylpiperazine-1-carbodithioate; bpy = 2,2'-bipyridine; SAla = Salicyladehyde-alanine; L = isatin-based schiff base; ida = iminodiacetic acid; L-tart = L-tartrato; pime = pimelate; acac = acetylacetonate; pico = picolinate; 3-me-pic = 3-methyl-picolinate; mal = malonates; ma = maltolate; dipico = dipicolinate; pteridine = (2-amino-7-methyl-4-oxidopteridine-6-carboxylato- $\kappa^3 O^4 N^5 O^6$ ); Sal = Salicyladehyde

### CHAPTER 3

### SYNTHESIS AND CHARACTERIZATION OF METAL(II) 1,10-PHENANTHROLINE COMPLEXES WITH *0,0'*-MALTOL,

 $[M(phen)(ma)Cl] \cdot xH_2O (M(II) = Co, Cu, Zn) and [Co(phen)(ma)_2] \cdot 5H_2O^*$ 

#### **CHAPTER 3**

## SYNTHESIS AND CHARACTERIZATION OF METAL(II) 1,10-PHENANTHROLINE COMPLEXES WITH *0,0'*-MALTOL, [M(phen)(ma)Cl]·*x*H<sub>2</sub>O (M(II) = Co, Cu, Zn) and [Co(phen)(ma)<sub>2</sub>]·5H<sub>2</sub>O\*

### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

This section describes the attempt to synthesis and characterize two related of metal(II)-phen-maltol complexes sets namely [M(phen)(ma)Cl]·*x*H<sub>2</sub>O and  $[Co(phen)(ma)_2]$ ·5H<sub>2</sub>O (where M = Co, Cu or Zn; phen = 1,10-phenanthroline; ma = maltolate). Metal(II)-phen-maltol complexes were characterized by FTIR, CHN, X-ray, molar conductivity, UV-Vis, fluorescence (FL), electrospray ionization mass spectroscopy, and thermal gravimetric studies. Like the phen ligand, the maltolate is planar. The choice of maltol (3-hydroxy-2-methyl-4-pyrone) was partly influenced by the reported insulin-mimetic property of *bis*(maltolato)cobalt(II), and the reported solubility and thermodynamic stability of neutral metal complexes with maltol (Thompson et al., 2004). Maltol was also reported to be able to inhibit apoptosis of human neuroblastoma cells induced by hydrogen peroxide (Yang et al., 2006). The study was carried out to gain an understanding on the effect of the type of metal ion and number of coordinated maltolate ligand on their structure, solution property and thermal stability of the metal complexes formed.

### **3.2 EXPERIMENTAL**

### **3.2.1** Materials and reagents

1,10-phenanthroline monohydrate (99%), 3-hydroxy-2-methyl-4pyrone (maltol), Copper(II) chloride dihydrate were purchased from Acros Organic. Zinc(II) chloride puriss, cobalt(II) chloride hexahydrate and sodium hydroxide were purchased from Riedel-de Haen, R&M Chemicals, and Systerm AR respectively. All other reagents, such as methanol and ammonia, were of analytical grade and were used as purchased.

### 3.2.2 Preparation of $[M(phen)(ma)Cl] \cdot xH_2O$ (M(II) = Co, Cu, Zn) 1 - 3 and $[Co(phen)(ma)_2] \cdot 5H_2O$ 4

The [Cu(phen)(ma)Cl]·½H<sub>2</sub>O was prepared according to a previously published procedure (Tan et al., 2008). The Co(II) and Zn(II) analogues were similarly prepared. To prepare [Co(phen)(ma)Cl]·4H<sub>2</sub>O complex, CoCl<sub>2</sub>.6H<sub>2</sub>O (0.24 g, 1 mmole) was dissolved in 5 mL of distilled water and the resultant solution was added slowly to a solution of maltol, which was previously prepared by dissolving maltol (0.13 g, 1 mmole) in 20 mL of 0.01 M sodium hydroxide solution. The solution mixture was stirred for 5 minutes (mins). A methanolic solution of phen was prepared separately by dissolving phen (0.20 g, 1 mmole) in 5 mL methanol. The phen solution was then added to the solution mixture of the cobalt chloride and maltol with constant heating (~50 °C) and stirring was continued until an orange precipitate was observed. The final volume of the solution after heating and stirring is *ca*. 5 mL. The solution

was cooled to room temperature, and the resultant solid was collected by suction filtration using a sintered funnel and washed with cold methanol (2 mL), and then dried in vacuo. The yield of orange precipitate (0.40 g, 0.70 mmole, 70%). The pure complex [Cu(phen)(ma)Cl]·1/2H<sub>2</sub>O was obtained as dark precipitate (0.37 g, 0.74 mmole, 74 %) green whereas [Zn(phen)(ma)Cl]·1<sup>1</sup>/<sub>2</sub>H<sub>2</sub>O was obtained as yellowish orange precipitate (0.36 g, 0.77 mmole, 77%).

 $[Co(phen)(ma)_2] \cdot 5H_2O$ complex was prepared by dissolving CoCl<sub>2</sub>·6H<sub>2</sub>O (0.24 g , 1 mmole) in 10 mL of distilled water and the solution was added slowly to a solution of maltol. The maltol solution was prepared by dissolving maltol (0.26 g, 2 mmole) in 20 mL sodium hydroxide (0.10 M). The solution mixture was continuously stirred with a magnetic bar at room temperature for 5 minutes. A methanolic solution of phen was prepared by dissolving phen (0.20 g, 1 mmole) in methanol (10 mL). The resultant mixture was heated overnight in water bath at 50 °C. Upon slow evaporation at room temperature, suitable red crystals (0.59 g, 0.84 mmole, 84 %) were obtained for X-ray crystal structure analysis. The attempt to synthesis the other  $[M(phen)(ma)_2]$  (where M = Cu or Zn) complexes were unsuccessful.

### **3.2.3** Characterization of solids complexes

Elemental analyses (C, H, and N) were carried out on a Perkin Elmer 2400 CHN analyser. CHN elemental analyses were performed in Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia (UKM). The FTIR spectra of the complex were recorded as KBr disc in the range of  $4,000 - 400 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  on a Perkin Elmer FTIR spectrometer. Thermal analyses were performed using a Mettler Toledo TGA/DTG 851<sup>e</sup> instrument under nitrogen atmosphere. The samples were heated in the temperature range of 25 - 800 °C and the heating rate was 10 °C/min. The flow rate of nitrogen gas, N<sub>2</sub>, was 20 mL/min.

### 3.2.4 Determination of crystal structure of complex 4

The crystal structure of complex **4** was solved by Prof. Teoh Siang Guan from Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM). The intensity data for a red crystal, 0.45 x 0.30 x 0.09 mm, were collected at 293 K on a Bruker SMART APEX area-detector using Mo K $\alpha$  radiation,  $\lambda = 0.71073$  Å, over the range  $1.81^{\circ} < \theta < 30.15^{\circ}$ . APEX2 software was used for data collection and refinement (Bruker, 2007). Absorption corrections were made using SADABS (Sheldrick, 1996). The structure was solved by direct-methods and refined by a full-matrix least-squares procedure on F<sup>2</sup> with anisotropic displacement parameters for non-hydrogen atoms, C and N-bound hydrogen atoms in their calculated positions and a weighting scheme of the form calculated w =  $1/[s^2(F_{\circ}^2)]$  w  $=1/[s^2(F_{\circ}^2) + (0.1040P)^2 + 0.0000P]$  where  $P = (F_{\circ}^2 + 2F_{\circ}^2)/3$  (Sheldrick, 2008). The complex was found to crystallise with six water molecules of solvation; two of these were disordered and were refined with a 50% occupancy factor each. Data collection and experimental details for the complex are summarised in **Table 3.1**.

Table 3.1: Crystal data and structure refinement for [Co(phen)(ma)<sub>2</sub>]·5H<sub>2</sub>O 4

Empirical formula	CoC <sub>24</sub> H <sub>28</sub> N <sub>2</sub> O <sub>11</sub>		
Formula weight	579.41		
Temperature (°C)	20		
Crystal system	Monoclinic		
Space group	P21/c		
Unit cell dimensions (Å)	a = 10.4432(2); b = 16.3806(3); c = 16.6834(3)		
Volume (Å <sup>3</sup> )	2645.04		
Ζ	4		
Density (calculated)(Mg/m <sup>3</sup> )	1.455		
Absorption coeffient (mm <sup>-1</sup> )	0.711		
F(000) (mm)	1204		
Crystal size (mm)	0.45 x 0.30 x 0.09		
$\theta$ range for data collection (°)	1.81 – 30.15		
Index ranges	$-12 \le h \le 14$ ; $-22 \le k \le 23$ l; $-23 \le l \le 22$		
Reflections collected	34,313		
Independent reflections	7793		
Data/restraints/parameters	7793/0/355		
Goodness-of-fit on F <sup>2</sup>	0.969		
Final R indices $[I > 2(\sigma)I]$	<i>R</i> = 0.0632; w <i>R</i> = 0.1686		
R indices (all data)	<i>R</i> = 0.1653; w <i>R</i> = 0.2161		
Largest dif. Peak and hole (e Å <sup>3</sup> )	0.340, - 0.407		

### 3.2.5 Characterization of aqueous solutions of complexes

A CON 700 bench top conductivity meter from EUTECH Instruments was used to measure the conductivity of the solvent and methanol-water (1:1 v/v) solutions of the metal(II) complexes. The conductivity meter was calibrated using KCl as a calibrant. For conductivity measurements, deionised water and the HPLC grade methanol were used for preparing solutions of the metal(II) complexes. A 1:1(volume : volume) water-methanol mixture was used as solvent to dissolve the complexes and metal(II) chloride salts to give  $1.0 \times 10^{-3}$  M solutions. The conductivity meter was checked with a calibration of KCl standard solution (1413  $\mu$ S) or recalibrated when necessary. The rinsed conductivity electrode was dipped in each solution and the reading was recorded after it stabilised.

UV-visible spectroscopic measurements of the aqueous sample solutions were carried out on a Perkin Elmer Lamda 35 spectrophotometer in the range of 200 - 900 nm. The solutions of samples, free ligands and metal(II) chloride were prepared by using 1:1 (v/v) water-methanol mixture to give 1.0 x  $10^{-3}$  M stock solutions. All the sample solutions were further diluted to 1.0 x  $10^{-5}$  to 5.0 x  $10^{-5}$  M for UV dilution experiments. For visible spectroscopic measurements, the solutions of samples and metal(II) chloride were prepared by using 1:1 (v/v) water-methanol mixture to give  $1.0 \times 10^{-2}$  M. Water-methanol was filled into the reference cell while the sample cell was filled with sample solutions.

The fluorescence study was carried out with a Perkin Elmer LS55 Fluorescence spectrometer at room temperature. The stock solutions of samples, free ligands and metal(II) chloride solutions were prepared in the same way as the stock solutions used for UV-Vis spectroscopic study. All the sample solutions were further diluted to  $1.0 \times 10^{-6}$  M for fluorescence study.
The measurements of Electrospray ionisation mass spectra (ESI) of the metal(II) complexes were done at Centre for Chemical, Molecular and Materials Analysis Centre (CMMAC), National University of Singapore (NUS). The ESI spectra were recorded in positive and negative modes using a Thermo Finningan LCQ spectrometer. In ESI-MS analysis, solution samples of all the complexes were fixed at 50 pMol/ $\mu$ L. The samples were introduced into the mass spectrometer either through a LC pump or injection using a syringe pump. The capillary temperature was set at 150 °C.

### 3.3 RESULT AND DISCUSSION

### **3.3.1** Characterization of solids complexes

According to Tan and co-workers, [Cu(phen)(ma)Cl]·<sup>1</sup>/<sub>2</sub>H<sub>2</sub>O has a square pyramidal geometry. Both coordinated phen and maltolate ligands in the Cu(II) complexes occupy the basal plane with the chloride occupying the apical position. The Co(II). Cu(II) and Zn(II) products of [M(phen)(ma)Cl]·xH<sub>2</sub>O were orange, dark green and yellowish orange in colour. Red crystals of [Co(phen)(ma)<sub>2</sub>]·5H<sub>2</sub>O were obtained. Samples collected were used to carry out the characterization studies. Results for  $[Co(phen)(ma)Cl] \cdot 4H_2O$  and  $[Co(phen)(ma)_2] \cdot 5H_2O$  in this chapter were published during the course of this research (Chin et al., 2011). Attempt in synthesis of  $[Cu(phen)(ma)_2]$ resulted in the isolation of  $[Cu(phen)(ma)Cl] \cdot \frac{1}{2}H_2O$ . This may due to the Jahn-Teller effect is profound in Cu(II) centre (Kang et al., 2005; Zhang et al., 2000). On the other hand, a brownish gel was obtained in the attempt to prepare the analogous Zn(II)

complex, [Zn(phen)(ma)<sub>2</sub>]. Several types of solvent such as acetone, ether, acetonitrile, dichloromethane and hexane were used to isolate the product from brownish gel substance. The gel substance dissolved in the mentioned solvents to form a clear brownish solution. Slow evaporation of solution form back gel substance. Unfortunately, this method was unable to isolate any characterisable product from formation the gel. Hence, of  $[Cu(phen)(ma)Cl] \cdot \frac{1}{2}H_2O$  and  $[Zn(phen)(ma)Cl] \cdot \frac{1}{2}H_2O$  are much more favourable compared to  $[Cu(phen)(ma)_2]$  and  $[Zn(phen)(ma)_2]$  complexes. Based on microanalysis results, the complexes can be formulated as  $[Co(phen)(ma)Cl] \cdot 4H_2O$  $[Cu(phen)(ma)Cl] \cdot \frac{1}{2}H_2O$ 1, 2,  $[Zn(phen)(ma)Cl] \cdot 1\frac{1}{2}H_2O$  **3** and  $[Co(phen)(ma)_2] \cdot 5H_2O$  **4** as listed in **Table 3.2**.

Commission		4	2	2	4
Complex		1	2	3	4
Molecular formulae		[Co(C <sub>12</sub> H <sub>8</sub> N <sub>2</sub> ) (C <sub>6</sub> H <sub>5</sub> O <sub>3</sub> )Cl]·4H <sub>2</sub> O	[Cu(C₁₂H₀N₂) (C₀H₅O₃)Cl] · <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> H₂O	[Zn(C <sub>12</sub> H <sub>8</sub> N <sub>2</sub> ) (C <sub>6</sub> H <sub>5</sub> O <sub>3</sub> )Cl] ·1 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> H <sub>2</sub> O	[Co(C <sub>12</sub> H <sub>8</sub> N <sub>2</sub> ) (C <sub>6</sub> H <sub>5</sub> O <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> ]·5H <sub>2</sub> O
Molecular weight (g/mol)		471.75	413.32	433.18	579.39
% yield		~ 70 %	~ 73 %	~ 78 %	~ 85 %
Colour		Orange ppt.	Dark green ppt.	Yellowish orange ppt.	Red crystals
CHN	<u>د</u>	45.83	52.31	49.91	49.75
elemental		(45.51)	(52.48)	(49.65)	(49.83)
analysis,		4.49	3.41	3.72	4.87
%	н	(4.25)	(3.20)	(4.07)	(4.33)
Calculated		5.94	6.78	6.47	4.83
(Found)	N	(5.88)	(6.53)	(7.07)	(4.88)

Table 3.2: Physical and chemical data of metal(II) complexes, 1 - 4

FTIR spectra of complexes 1 - 4 are shown in Appendix 3.1 and assignments of the characteristic peaks are tabulated in Table 3.3. The broad

bands at 3405, 3422, 3401 and 3407 cm<sup>-1</sup> in the FTIR spectra were attributed to the OH stretching of the lattice water molecule(s) in metal complexes, **1** - **4**, respectively (Dutt et al., 1975; Nakamoto, 1977; Hsieh et al., 2006; Maurya et al., 2011). The peaks correspond to the ring stretching frequencies (v(C=C) and v(C=N)) of phen were observed at 1508-1518 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 1424-1432 cm<sup>-1</sup> for complexes **1-4** respectively. By comparing the FTIR spectrum of free phen ligand (**Appendix 3.2**) with metal complexes, **1** - **4**, it was found that both v(C=C) and v(C=N) peaks of the phen observed were slightly shifted to higher frequencies upon coordinated to the metal centre (Schilt and Taylor, 1958; Garcia-Raso et al., 2003; Tang et al., 2007). Two strong absorption peaks at ~ 848 cm<sup>-1</sup> and ~727 cm<sup>-1</sup> were observed. These were ascribed to out-of-plane v(C-H) modes suggesting the coordination of the phen (Garcia-Raso et al., 2003; Zhang et al., 2004; Jin et al., 2000).

Three typical peaks of coordinated maltolate ligand were found in the region of  $1400 - 1602 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  (Lamboy et al., 2007; Fernandes et al., 2008). The peak at 1655 cm<sup>-1</sup>, which corresponds to v(C=O) in the free maltolate ligand, is blue shifted to 1602 cm<sup>-1</sup> in complex **1**, to 1591 cm<sup>-1</sup> in complex **2**, to 1598 cm<sup>-1</sup> in complex **3** and to 1596 cm<sup>-1</sup> in complex **4** (Greaves et al., 1988; Brito et al., 2008). The shift mentioned here, suggests the coordination of the C=O of maltolate ligand (Brito et al., 2008). Both v(C=O) and v(C=C) bands of the pyrone ring were observed at 1618 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 1561 cm<sup>-1</sup> were blue shifted to 1575 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 1509 cm<sup>-1</sup> in complex **1**, and to 1560 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 1508 cm<sup>-1</sup> in complex **2**. Similarly, the bands for v(C=O) and v(C=C) vibration of the

maltolate ligand are found to shift to a lower wavenumber in the infrared spectra of complexes **3** and **4**. These peaks were also observed in FTIR spectra of complexes **3** and **4** with the value of  $1571 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $1508 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  (Thompson et al., 2004; Marwaha et al., 1994).

IR band at the wavelength, ~1461 cm<sup>-1</sup>, has been assigned to the stretching of the C=C double bond located at the opposite side of the H<sub>3</sub>C-C=C-O<sup>-</sup> (Parajón – Costa and Baran, 2011) in the maltolate ligand. The bands at 1266 cm<sup>-1</sup> in complex **1**, 1271 cm<sup>-1</sup> in complex **2**, 1281 cm<sup>-1</sup> in complex **3** and 1278 cm<sup>-1</sup> in complex **4** have been assigned to the C-O-C stretching mode of the pyrone ring. The bands for  $v_{as}$ (C-O-C) and v(C-H) of the coordinated maltolate ligand were observed at 1103 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 1043 cm<sup>-1</sup> in the infrared spectrum of complex **1** whereas corresponding bands for complex **2** were observed at 1107 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 1039 cm<sup>-1</sup>. These bands were again observed at 1103 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 1042 cm<sup>-1</sup> for complex **3**, and at 1101 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 1042 cm<sup>-1</sup> for complex **4**. The medium bands at 923 cm<sup>-1</sup> (complex **1**), 915 cm<sup>-1</sup> (complex **2**), 918 cm<sup>-1</sup> (complexes **3** and **4**) have been assigned to the maltolate symmetric C-O-C stretching frequency (Parajón – Costa and Baran, 2011; Dutt et al., 1975; Marwaha et al., 1994; Maurya et al., 2011).

FTIR spectra of complexes 1 and 4 did not show any significant difference although the monodentate chloride ligand in complex 1 been replaced by a bidentate maltolate ligand in complex 4. It was proposed in the

earlier discussion that the planar phen coordinates to the metal ions through the nitrogen atoms of aromatic rings. In general, the v(M-N) bands are normally found in the low frequency region. The v(M-N) peak of these metals are in the 180 - 290 cm<sup>-1</sup> region (Nakamoto, 1977). The peak of coordinated chloride ligand, v(M-Cl), was previously observed in the infrared spectrum at  $280 - 290 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  region (Nakamoto, 1977; Reddy et al., 2007; Li et al., 2007). These v(M-Cl) peaks are beyond the detection of the FTIR spectrophotometer used here (Nakamoto, 1977; Reddy et al., 2007; Li et al., 2007). In conclusion, analysis of FTIR data supports the postulated formulae of the synthesized complexes **1** - **4**.

Bond	1	2	3	4	Remarks
v(O-H)	3402(b)	3422 (b)	3401 (b)	3393 (b)	Water
v(C-H)	-	3042 (w)	3056 (w)	3063 (w)	
v(C=N)	1424 (m)	1432 (m)	1426 (s)	1421 (m)	
v(C=C)	1509 (m)	1518 (m)	1517 (m)	1508 (m)	
					Phen
v(C-H)	728 (s),	723 (s),	727 (s),	727 (s),	
Out-of-plane	848 (s)	847(s)	849 (s)	847 (s)	
v(C=O)	1602 (s)	1591 (m)	1598 (s)	1596 (s)	
[ v(C=O) +	1575 (s)	1560 (s)	1571 (s)	1571 (s)	
v(C=C)]	1509 (m)	1508 (w)	1508 (m)	1508 (m)	
[ v(C=C) +	1/61 (m)	1/71 (s)	1459 (m)	1460 (m)	
$v(C-O^{-}) + \delta_{as}(CH_3)]$	1401 (11)	1471 (3)	1455 (11)	1400 (11)	Maltol
(C-H)rock	1340 (w)	1345 (w)	1342 (w)	1340 (w)	
v(C-O-C) <sub>aromatic</sub>	1266 (m)	1271 (s)	1281 (s)	1278 (w)	
	1103 (w)	1107 (w)	1103 (m)	1101 (w)	
$V_{as}(U-U-U) + V_{ring}$	1043 (w)	1039 (w)	1042 (w)	1042 (w)	
v <sub>s</sub> (C-O-C)	923 (m)	915 (m)	918 (m)	918 (m)	

**Table 3.3**: Characteristic Infrared band assignments of metal(II)complexes, 1 - 4

The thermograms of four complexes,  $[Co(phen)(ma)Cl] \cdot 4H_2O$  1, [Cu(phen)(ma)Cl].  $\frac{1}{2}H_{2}O$ 2.  $[Zn(phen)(ma)Cl] \cdot 1\frac{1}{2}H_2O$ 3 and  $[Co(phen)(ma)_2] \cdot 5H_2O$  4 were recorded in the temperature range of 25 – 800 <sup>o</sup>C at heating rate of 10 <sup>o</sup>C/min. Thermal data of complexes **1** - **4** are presented in Table 3.4. The thermogram (TGA and DTG curves) of complex 1, [Co(phen)(ma)Cl]·4H<sub>2</sub>O shows four steps of decomposition in the range of 25 - 800 °C (Appendix 3.3). The derivative thermogravimetric analysis (DTG) curves for 1 show that all four the decomposition steps are endothermic processes. A peak corresponds to the loss of four water molecules (Calc.: 15.3 %, Found: 15.2 %) in the temperature range of 26 - 130 °C was observed. The loss of water molecules at 98 °C indicates that they are lattice water molecules and not coordinated water molecules. A second weight loss of 5.4 % (Calc.: 7.5 %) was observed at 306 °C for the removal of the chloride ligand from complex 1. The high temperature required to remove the ligand suggests that chloride was coordinated to the Co(II). This analysis of thermal data is consistent with the earlier postulated formula from CHN analytical data (Table 3.2) and with the infrared spectroscopic analyses.

TGA curve of complex 2,  $[Cu(phen)(ma)Cl] \cdot \frac{1}{2}H_2O$  (Appendix 3.4) shows four decomposition steps in the range of 25 – 800 °C. The DTG curve for 2 shows that all four decomposition steps are endothermic processes. First step of decomposition occurred at decomposition temperature in the range of 40 - 77 °C. The loss of half molecule of water (Calc.: 2.2 %, Found: 2.2 %) at 50 °C indicates that it is lattice water molecule. The existence of half water molecule is in agreement with the elemental analysis of **2**. Appendix 3.5 shows thermogram of complex **3**,  $[Zn(phen)(ma)Cl] \cdot 1 \frac{1}{2} H_2O$ . In the range of 25 - 800 °C, there were three steps of decomposition. A weight loss of 12.5 % (Calc.: 14.4 %) was observed at 51 °C could be due to dehydration and loss of the chloride ligand.

The DTG curve of complex 4,  $[Co(phen)(ma)_2] \cdot 5H_2O$  (Appendix 3.6) shows decomposition pattern with three steps in the range of 25 - 800 °C. The first step occurred at 65 °C was due to the loss of five water molecules (Calc.: 15.5 %, Found: 14.3 %). This suggests the presence of five lattice molecules in this complex. The second step of decomposition took place at 292 °C, which was likely due to the loss of one maltol ligand (Calc.: 21.6 %, Found: 21.6 %). The final step of decomposition, which occurred at 653 °C, could be assigned to the removal of all the ligand moieties *i.e.* one maltol molecule and one phen molecule (Calc.: 52.7 %, Found : 56.4 %) from the complex (Dutt et al., 1975; Marwaha et al., 1994; Reddy et al., 2007; Maurya et al., 2008; Shebl et al., 2010; Maurya et al., 2011). The organic moieties in all maltolate compounds underwent decomposition above 800 °C, leading to the formation of metal oxide (Tuncel et al., 2006). The metal complexes 1 - 4 showed similar decomposition sequences. The decomposition began with the dehydration process. The dehydration was then followed by the loss of chloride, maltol and phen ligand. The TGA data appear to suggest that the decomposition of the maltol ligand occurred prior to the phen ligand, which

seems to imply that the phen ligand was bonded to the metal center more strongly.

Molecular formulae	Decomposition	Wt. % loss	Assignment
	range (°C)	Calc.	(Removal)
		(Found)	
$[Co(C_{12}H_8N_2)(C_6H_5O_3)CI]\cdot 4H_2O$	26 - 130	15.3	4 mole of
(1)	(98) <sup>b</sup>	(15.2)	lattice water
	130 - 315	7.5	1 mole of
	(306) <sup>b</sup>	(5.4)	chloride
$[Cu(C_{12}H_8N_2)(C_6H_5O_3)CI] \cdot \frac{1}{2}H_2O$	40 - 77	2.2	$1/_2$ mole of
(2)	(50) <sup>b</sup>	(2.2)	lattice water
$[Zn(C_{12}H_8N_2)(C_6H_5O_3)CI] \cdot 1 \frac{1}{2}H_2O$	27 - 177	14.4	1 $1/_2$ mole of
(3)	(51) <sup>b</sup>	(12.5)	lattice water +
			1 mole of
			chloride
$[Co(C_{12}H_8N_2)(C_6H_5O_3)_2]$ $\cdot 5H_2O$	26 - 177	15.5	5 mole of
(4)	(65) <sup>b</sup>	(14.3)	lattice water
	162 - 519	21.6	1 mole of
	(292) <sup>b</sup>	(21.6)	maltol
	533 - 799	52.7	1 mole of
	(653) <sup>b</sup>	(56.4)	maltol + 1 mole
			of phen

 Table 3.4: TGA data<sup>a</sup> of metal(II) complexes, 1 - 4

<sup>a</sup> Only the decomposition steps of water molecules and chloride was tabulated in the table due to its importance to determine the properties of water molecules and chloride atom.

<sup>b</sup> Value in the brackets refers to the inflection points of each decomposition step.

# 3.3.2 Analysis of crystal structure of complex 4

The ORTEP structure of the complex **4** is shown in **Figure 3.1** and selected bond lengths and bond angles are tabulated in **Table 3.5**. There are six lattice water molecules but the OW5A and OW5B water molecules are

disordered with half (50:50) occupancy. The structure shows the coordination of two maltolate ligands and phen in a distorted octahedral environment around the Co(II) atom. The planar heterocyclic phen coordinated to the Co(II) *via* two nitrogen atoms (N(1) and N(2)) while each of the two maltolate ligands coordinate *via* two oxygen atoms (O(1), O(2); O(3), O(4)).



Figure 3.1: ORTEP structure of  $[Co(phen)(ma)_2] \cdot 5H_2O$  4 with ellipsoids at 50%.

The bite angles  $(79 - 80^{\circ})$  observed for the coordinated maltolate ligands are relatively smaller than those reported elsewhere, which ranges

from 81.50° to 85.57 ° (Fernandes et al., 2008; Ahmed et al., 2000; Archer et. al., 1991; Tan et al., 2008; Carland et al., 2005). The Co-N bond distances (2.145 and 2.161 Å) and the bite angle (76.05°) of the coordinated phen were similar to other cobalt(II) complexes with variable number (1-3) of coordinated phen (Papadopoulos et al., 2007; Liu et al., 2009; Kumar et al., 2009; Harding et al., 2008). The small bite angles (76 – 80°) observed for all the three coordinated bidentate ligands are the consequence of their structural rigidity. In contrast, the bite angles of the maltolate and phen ligands in the square pyramidal [Cu(phen)(ma)Cl]·  $\frac{1}{2}H_2O$  are wider (82 – 85°) with shorter Cu-N (phen) bond distances (2.001 and 2.010 Å) (Tan et al., 2008).

Bond lengths (Å)									
Co(1) – O(1)	2.024 (3)		Co(1) – O(4)	Co(1) – O(4) 2.144 (3)		O(1) – C(13)		1.302 (5)	
Co(1) – O(3)		2.038 (2)	Co(1) – N(1)	2	2.145 (3)	O(2) – C(14)	1	.261 (5)	
Co(1) – O(2)		2.129 (2)	Co(1) - N(2)	2	2.161 (3)	O(3) – C(18)	1	1.310 (4)	
						O(4) – C(19)	1	1.255 (4)	
	Bond angles (°)								
O(1) – Co(1) – O(3)		102.60 (11)	O(2) – Co(1) – O(4)		166.63 (10)	O(1) - Co(1) - N(2)		89.03 (11)	
O(1) - Co(1) - O(2) 80.2 (11		80.24 (11)	O(1) – Co(1) – N(1)		159.68 (12)	O(3) – Co(1) – N(2)		167.60 (11)	
O(3) – Co(1) – O(2)		88.34 (10)	O(3) – Co(1) – N(1)		93.61 (12)	O(2) – Co(1) – N(2)		98.00 (10)	
O(1) - Co(1) - O(4) 96.71 (11)		96.71 (11)	O(2) - Co(1) - N(1)		88.15 (11)	O(4) - Co(1) - N(2)		94.95 (10)	
O(3) - Co(1) - O(4) (79.58 (10)		79.58 (10)	O(4) – Co(1) – N	(1)	98.23 (11)	N(1) – Co(1) – N	(2)	76.05 (12)	

Table 3.5: Selected bond lengths (Å) and angles (°) for complex 4

The centroid-centroid distance between both phen rings (3.181 Å) of adjacent  $[Co(phen)(ma)_2] \cdot 5H_2O$  molecule in molecular packing are near to the reported values (3.3 - 3.8 Å) (He et al., 2012; Chen et al., 2012; Castiñeiras et al. 2002; Lin et al., 2009; Janiak, 2000). This indicates the presence of intermolecular  $\pi$ - $\pi$  stacking interaction between the aromatic phen rings of adjacent molecules (Figure 3.2) which is a common phenomenon if planar heterocyclic phen ligand is present in the metal complex (Zhang et al., 2004; Yodoshi et al., 2007; Jia et al., 2010; Bodoki et al., 2009; Paulovicova et al., 2001). Besides, each maltolate ligand acts as a H-acceptor site and the lattice water molecules act as H-donor sites. Hydrogen bonding links each [Co(phen)(ma)<sub>2</sub>]·5H<sub>2</sub>O molecule with adjacent molecules in the lattice into an inter-linking network. The overall complex are stabilised by the  $\pi$ - $\pi$  interaction of planar phen rings and H-bond network. Supplementary data for this crystal structure (CCDC No. found online 774861) can be at doi:10.1016/j.jinorgbio.2010.11.018.



**Figure 3.2:** Packing diagram of complex **4** viewing along a\* axis (light blue dotted lines are H-bonds).

#### **3.3.3** Characterization of aqueous solutions of complexes

The ternary metal(II) complexes (1 - 4) synthesized in this work were analyzed using Electrospray Ionisation Mass Spectrometry (ESI-MS) at positive ion mode (**Table 3.6**). The base peak was observed at an m/z value of 364.2 (calc.: 364.2, relative abundance: 100 %) in the mass spectrum of  $[Co(phen)(ma)Cl] \cdot 4H_2O$  **1**. The peak could be assigned to  $[Co(phen)(ma)]^+$ . The base peaks observed at m/z 368.8 in the ESI-MS of complex 2 matched well with the calculated mass for  $[^{63}Cu(phen)(ma)]^+$  (calc.: 368.0, relative abundance: 100 %) and the isotopic peaks for  $[^{65}Cu(phen)(ma)]^+$  was observed at m/z 370.0 (calc.: 370.0, relative abundance: 48 %). In the case of complex 3, the base peak observed at m/z 369.2 is assigned to  $[^{64}Zn(phen)(ma)]^+$  (calc.: 369.2, relative abundance: 100 %). The isotopic peaks observed at m/z 371.2 (calc.: 371.2, relative abundance: 55 %), 372.2 (calc.: 373.2, relative abundance: 38 %), 374.3 (calc.: 373.2, relative abundance: 8 %) and 375.1 (calc.: 375.2, relative abundance: 2 %) are due to Zn isotopes (<sup>66</sup>Zn, <sup>67</sup>Zn, <sup>68</sup>Zn and <sup>70</sup>Zn). Complex **4** is a neutral molecule. The base peak observed at m/z364.2 can be assigned to  $[Co(phen)(ma)]^+$  (calc.: 364.2, relative abundance: 100 %), a ion fragment that can be generated from complex 4. The formation of  $[Co(phen)(ma)]^+$  might have caused by the dissociation of one maltolate ligand from complex 4. In order to verify the hypothesis, complex 4 was further investigated using ESI-MS where the mass spectrum was recorded in a negative mode. The base peak was observed at m/z 125.2 in the negative mode ESI mass spectrum of complex 4, which could be assigned to [ma]. The result provided indirect evidence to the formation of complex 4 as the related fragments were identified in the mass spectra. Complex **4** seems to be not stable under the ESI-MS conditions (capillary temperature,  $150 \, {}^{\circ}C$ ) used. Molar conductivity experiment was carried out to further study the stability and chemical nature of complex **4** in solution.

Complex	Fragment	m/z (calculated)	m/z	Relative
			(Found)	abundance, %
1	[Co(phen)(ma)]⁺	364.2	364.2	100
2	[ <sup>63</sup> Cu(phen)(ma)]⁺	368.0	368.8	100
	[ <sup>65</sup> Cu(phen)(ma)]⁺	370.0	370.0	48
3	[ <sup>64</sup> Zn(phen)(ma)]⁺	369.2	369.2	100
	[ <sup>66</sup> Zn(phen)(ma)]⁺	371.2	371.2	55
	[ <sup>67</sup> Zn(phen)(ma)]⁺	372.2	373.2	38
	[ <sup>68</sup> Zn(phen)(ma)]⁺	373.2	374.3	8
	[ <sup>70</sup> Zn(phen)(ma)] <sup>+</sup>	375.2	375.1	2
4	[Co(phen)(ma)]⁺	364.2	364.2	100
	[ma] <sup>-</sup>	125.2	125.2	100

Table 3.6: ESI-MS data for metal(II) complexes, 1 - 4

Conductivity measurement of 1 mM of individual solutions of CoCl<sub>2</sub>, CuCl<sub>2</sub>, ZnCl<sub>2</sub>, phen, maltol, complexes **1** - **4** in water-methanol (1:1 v/v) was carried out at 25 °C. The results are summarised in the form of a bar chart shown in **Figure 3.3**. The solution of [Co(phen)(ma)Cl]·4H<sub>2</sub>O complex **1** and CoCl<sub>2</sub> gave molar conductivity values of about 59 and 118  $\Omega^{-1}$  cm<sup>2</sup> mol<sup>-1</sup> respectively. On the other hand, the solution of [Cu(phen)(ma)Cl]·  $1/_2$ H<sub>2</sub>O complex **2** and [Zn(phen)(ma)Cl]·1  $1/_2$  H<sub>2</sub>O complex **3** gave molar conductivity values of about 57  $\Omega^{-1}$  cm<sup>2</sup> mol<sup>-1</sup>. The solution of the complexes **1** - **3** gave lower molar conductivity than the CuCl<sub>2</sub> (119  $\Omega^{-1}$  cm<sup>2</sup> mol<sup>-1</sup>) and ZnCl<sub>2</sub> (112  $\Omega^{-1}$  cm<sup>2</sup> mol<sup>-1</sup>) solution. Same molar conductivity values were obtained when the solutions were measured after 24 hours. Complexes **1** - **3**  gave slightly lower molar conductivity values than those previous known cationic metal (Co(II), Ni(II), Cu(II)) complexes with uncoordinated Cl<sup>-</sup> anion (66 - 73  $\Omega^{-1}$  cm<sup>2</sup> mol<sup>-1</sup>) (Shebl et al., 2010; Geary, 1971; Coury, 1999). The molar conductivity measurement of the solutions of complexes 1 - 3 suggested that the complexes exist as 1:1 electrolyte in solution, and they consist of [M(phen)(ma)]<sup>+</sup> and Cl<sup>-</sup> ions.



**Figure 3.3**: Molar conductivity ( $\Omega^{-1}$  cm<sup>2</sup> mol<sup>-1</sup>) for metal(II) complexes, **1 - 4**.

The molar conductivity of  $[Co(phen)(ma)_2] \cdot 5H_2O$  complex 4 was similarly measured as for complexes 1-3. Measurement of the solution of complex 4 gave a molar conductivity value of 11 -14  $\Omega^{-1}$  cm<sup>2</sup> mol<sup>-1</sup> and the value remains constant for the first 2 hours. The low conductivity indicates the non-electrolytic nature of complex 4. The results obtained is consistent with those values found for the previously reported neutral Co(II) and other metal(II) complexes  $(10 - 24 \ \Omega^{-1} \ cm^2 \ mol^{-1})$  (Chandra and Kumar, 2005; Tuncel and Serin, 2006; Maurya et al., 2008; Shebl et al., 2010; Reddy et al., 2007; Maurya et al., 2011; García-Raso et al., 2003). However, its molar conductivity increases to 35  $\Omega^{-1} \ cm^2 \ mol^{-1}$  at 24 hours, suggesting partial ligand dissociation. This data is consistent with the ESI-MS result. Although Co(II) complexes are said to be usually labile, coordinated phen and maltolate ligands in complexes **1** and **4** seem to be relatively stable, within the duration of the measurement.

UV-Visible spectroscopy is a useful technique in the characterisation of inorganic species. In UV-Visible region of the electromagnetic spectrum, molecules undergo electronic transitions. As a molecule absorbs energy, an electron is promoted from an occupied orbital to an unoccupied orbital of greater potential energy ( $\sigma \rightarrow \sigma^*$ ,  $n \rightarrow \sigma^*$ ,  $n \rightarrow \pi^*$  or  $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ ). Generally, the most probable transition takes place from the highest occupied molecular orbital (HOMO) to the lowest unoccupied molecular orbital (LUMO) (Pavia et al., 2001). Electronic spectra of four complexes **1** - **4** were recorded in watermethanol (1:1 v/v) solutions (UV: 1.0 to 5.0 x 10<sup>-5</sup> M; Visible: 0.01 M). The assignments of electronic spectral peaks observed in each of the complexes along with the molar extinction coefficients are tabulated in **Table 3.7**. In the visible region, [Cu(phen)(ma)Cl]  $\cdot \frac{1}{2}$ H<sub>2</sub>O (0.01 M) exhibit  $\lambda_{max}$  at 645 nm ( $\varepsilon$ = 55) whereas no visible absorptions for [Co(phen)(ma)Cl]  $\cdot 4$ H<sub>2</sub>O, [Zn(phen)(ma)Cl]  $\cdot 1 \frac{1}{2}$  H<sub>2</sub>O and [Co(phen)(ma)<sub>2</sub>]  $\cdot$ 5H<sub>2</sub>O were observed

(**Appendix 3.7**). This 645 nm band (**Appendix 3.8**) of the Cu(II) complex with low molar absorptivity was assigned to d-d transition. In the case of Co(II) complexes, d-d transitions are forbidden by the Laporte rule.

Complex	λ <sub>max</sub> (nm),	Assignment
	ε (mol <sup>-1</sup> dm <sup>3</sup> cm <sup>-1</sup> )	
[Co(phen)(ma)Cl]·4H <sub>2</sub> O <b>(1)</b>	225 ( <b>ε</b> = 38 750)	π→π* (phen)
	269 ( <b>ε</b> = 34 730)	$\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ (phen)
[Cu(phen)(ma)Cl]· <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> H <sub>2</sub> O <b>(2)</b>	225 ( <b>ε</b> = 44 260)	$\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ (phen)
	271 (ε = 36 320)	$\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ (phen)
	645 ( <b>ε</b> = 55)	d-d
[Zn(phen)(ma)Cl] $\cdot$ 1 $^{1}/_{2}$ H <sub>2</sub> O (3)	225 ( <b>ε</b> = 40 670)	$\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ (phen)
	270 ( <b>ε</b> = 35 250)	$\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ (phen)
[Co(phen)(ma)₂]·5H₂O <b>(4)</b>	227 ( <b>ε</b> = 43 720)	$\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ (phen)
	269 ( <b>ε</b> = 34 610)	$\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ (phen)

 Table 3.7: Absorption spectral data for metal(II) complexes, 1 - 4

In UV spectra, aqueous solutions of complexes **1** - **4** have two bands at  $\lambda_{\text{max}}$  of 225 nm and another  $\lambda_{\text{max}}$  within the range of 269 - 271 nm respectively. Phenantroline complexes have been extensively studied previously and many of these work have reported the two intense peaks observed in the UV region at about 226 nm and 269 nm which aroused from the  $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$  transition of the coordinated phenanthroline ligand (Zhang et al., 2004). Comparing the UV spectra of complexes **1** - **4** with those of MCl<sub>2</sub> (no UV absorption), 1,10-phenanthroline ( $\lambda_{\text{max}}$ : 229 nm and 265 nm) and maltol ( $\lambda_{\text{max}}$ : 213 nm and 273 nm), the presence of coordinated phen and maltolate ligands in the solution of complexes **1** - **4** are inferred (Radanović et al., 2003; Papadopoulos et al., 2007; Ni et al., 2005). Intraligand transitions of respective ligands help to identify the coordinated ligand in metal complexes. The results obtained from

the UV-Vis study matched well with the FTIR data. A plot of absorbance versus concentration for the two maximum absorption peaks in the UV region for four ternary complexes 1 - 4 are shown in Appendix 3.9 - 3.12 (inset). A regression line for each plot has been drawn by using the least-squares method generated by using Microsoft Office Excel 2007 software. The correlation coefficient ( $\mathbb{R}^2$ ) values for all the plotted graphs are very close to 1.0000 showing that the data obtained fit in the regression line and obeyed the Beer-Lamberts Law. The average molar absorptivity values were obtained for all four ternary complexes based on the Beer-Lambert Law and the general linear equations.

The *N*,*N*'-phen ligand was used in the current study as the main ligand and *O*,*O*'-maltol was used as the coligand to synthesise metal complexes 1 - 4. Many researchers have reported that phen is a fluorescent molecule. According to Peter and Chen (2002), fluorescence is a photonic process involving transition between electronic and vibration states of fluorophores. It would be interesting to obtain the fluorescence spectra of metal complexes 1 - 4in order to study the effect of the type of metal ions on the emission properties. The fluorescence (FL) spectra of maltolate complexes 1 - 4, maltol and phen ligands are shown in **Figure 3.4**.

 $[Co(phen)(ma)Cl] \cdot 4H_2O \quad \mathbf{1}, \quad [Cu(phen)(ma)Cl] \cdot \frac{1}{2} \quad H_2O \quad \mathbf{2},$  $[Zn(phen)(ma)Cl] \cdot 1\frac{1}{2}H_2O \quad \mathbf{3} \text{ and } [Co(phen)(ma)_2] \cdot 5H_2O \quad \mathbf{4} \text{ in water-methanol}$ 

still retain the FL emission property of the free phen ligand in the same solvent mixture. There is no change in the shape of the FL emission bands but there is slight red shift in  $\lambda_{max}$ . The FL emission in the metal complexes arises from the coordinated phen ligand. The FL emission intensities of complexes **1**, **2** and **4** are lower than the free phen ligand. This lower FL intensity is due to quenching of phen FL by the Co(II) and Cu(II) ion. The quenching mechanism has previously been ascribed to static quenching (Seng et al., 2008). Maltol has no FL emission. [Co(phen)(ma)<sub>2</sub>]·5H<sub>2</sub>O has a lower FL emission intensity than [Co(phen)(ma)Cl]·4H<sub>2</sub>O. The results appear to suggest that the change in geometry and the number of coordinated maltolate ligands influence the FL emission intensity but not the  $\lambda_{max}$  and shape of the FL emission bands (**Figure 3.10; spectra III and IV**). Seng and coworkers has reported the amount of quenching of the coordinated phen is influenced by the type of the transition metal(II) ion in the octahedral [M(phen)(edda)] complexes.



**Figure 3.4**: Fluorescence spectra of **3** (I), phen (II), **1** (III), **4** (IV), **2** (V), maltol (VI) and water-methanol mixture (1:1 v/v) (VII) at 1  $\mu$ M.

 $[Zn(phen)(ma)Cl] \cdot 1 \frac{1}{2}H_2O$  in water-methanol shows an enhancement in FL spectra which is different from the Co(II) and Cu(II) analogues. The enhancement of FL emission spectra of the Zn(II) complex cannot be explained by static quenching mechanism (Seng et al., 2008). Higher FL emission observed for the Zn(II) complex (compared to the Co(II) and Cu(II) complexes) has been attributed to the full d<sup>10</sup> electron configuration of the Zn(II) ion (Hu et al., 2010). In a previous study on the fluorescence of solid samples of a series  $ZnX_2$  (phen) complexes (X = Cl, Br, I), the type of halides was found to affect the FL emission intensity and the order was found to be  $ZnCl_2(phen) < phen < ZnBr_2(phen) < ZnI_2(phen)$  (Ikeda et al., 1996). The FL emission enhancement was explained by the dependence of intersystem crossing rate on the halide, and the mechanism involved a Heitler-London type mixing between the phen locally excited and the  $\rho$  (halogen)  $\rightarrow \delta^*$  (phen) ligand-to-ligand charge-transfer (LLCT) electronic configurations and 1,3(n,  $\delta^*$ ) energy level change due to the coordination. The order of complexes in terms of increasing FL intensity is 2 < 4 < 1 < phen < 3.

#### 3.4 CONCLUSION

Four metal complexes containing phen and maltolate ligands namely  $[Co(phen)(ma)Cl]\cdot 4H_2O$  **1**,  $[Cu(phen)(ma)Cl]\cdot \frac{1}{2}$  H<sub>2</sub>O **2**,  $[Zn(phen)(ma)Cl]\cdot \frac{1}{2}H_2O$  **3** and  $[Co(phen)(ma)_2]\cdot 5H_2O$  **4** were prepared. Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy (FTIR), elemental analysis and ESI-MS study confirmed their formation. Generally, all four metal complexes are

thermally stable at room temperature. The decomposition began with the dehydration process. The dehydration was then followed by the loss of chloride, maltol and phen ligand. It can be concluded from the discussion in the previous section 3.3.3, complexes 1 - 3 exist as  $[Co(phen)(ma)]^+$ ,  $[Cu(phen)(ma)]^+$  and  $[Zn(phen)(ma)]^+$  or its hydrated species and Cl<sup>-</sup> in solution while complex 4 exists as the neutral  $[Co(phen)(ma)_2]$  species in aqueous solution. Based on the molar conductivity obtained, complexes 1 - 3are categorized as 1:1 electrolyte while complex 4 is non-electrolyte in watermethanol (1:1 v/v) solution. The dissociation of phen and maltolate ligands in complexes 1 and 4 were not observed within the duration of the conductivity experiments, which appear to suggest that the ligands are bound strongly to the metal centres. FL emission intensities are increasing in the order of 2 < 4 <1 < phen < 3. Different quenching of phen FL by the type of metal ion and number of coordinated ligands resulted in the differential FL emission of this set of complexes. Zn(II) enhances the FL of the coordinated phen while Co(II) and Cu(II) partially quenches the FL of the coordinated phen. The UV absorption bands observed the UV-Vis spectra of the metal complexes aroused from the  $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$  transition of the coordinated phenanthroline ligand. However, no visible absorption spectra were obtained for [Co(phen)(ma)Cl]·4H<sub>2</sub>O,  $[Zn(phen)(ma)Cl] \cdot 1 \frac{1}{2}H_2O$  and  $[Co(phen)(ma)_2] \cdot 5H_2O$ . In the case of Co(II) complexes, d-d transitions forbidden by the Laporte are rule.

# **CHAPTER 4**

# SYNTHESIS AND CHARACTERIZATION OF METAL(II) 1,10-PHENANTHROLINE COMPLEXES WITH

*O,N,O'-*DIPICOLINIC ACID

#### **CHAPTER 4**

# SYNTHESIS AND CHARACTERIZATION OF METAL(II) 1,10-PHENANTHROLINE COMPLEXES WITH *0,N,O'*-DIPICOLINIC ACID

### 4.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter, two series of metal(II)-phen-maltolate complexes were synthesized and characterized to study the effect of the type of metal ion and the number of coordinated ligands on the solution properties and thermal stability of the metal(II) complexes. In this chapter, the subsidiary ligand has been replaced by dipicolinate ligand to synthesize  $[M(phen)(dipico)(H_2O)] \cdot xH_2O$  (where M = Co or Zn; x = 1 or 2) and  $[Cu_2(phen)_3(dipico)(H_2O)][Cu(dipico)_2] \cdot [(11H_2O)(CH_3OH)]$ complexes. These dipicolinate complexes were characterized by Fourier Transform Infrared spectroscopy (FTIR), CHN elemental analysis, X-ray crystallography, molar conductivity, UV-Visible spectroscopy (UV-Vis) and fluorescence spectroscopy (FL). Dipicolinate ligand has been chosen as coligand partly because its non-toxicity may results in lower toxicity of metal(II) complexes. In addition, dipicolinate-based complexes were reported to exhibit various biological functions, *viz.* insulin mimetic, antibacterial and anticancer (Yang et al., 2002; Cai et al., 2010; Martin et al., 1997; Pocker et al., 1980; Tochikubo et al., 1974; Murakami et al., 2003). This chapter also investigated the effect of the type of metal ion on the solution properties of the set of metal(II)-phendipicolinate complexes.

#### 4.2 EXPERIMENTAL

#### 4.2.1 Materials and reagents

1,10-phenanthroline monohydrate (99%), pyridine-2,6-dicarboxylic acid (dipico), zinc(II) chloride puriss were purchased from Riedel-de Haen. Cobalt(II) chloride hexahydrate was purchased from R&M Chemicals. Copper(II) chloride dihydrate and sodium hydroxide were bought from Acros Organic and Systerm AR respectively. All reagents and solvents (Analytical grade or HPLC grade methanol) were used as purchased.

# 4.2.2 Preparation of $[M(phen)(dipico)(H_2O)]\cdot xH_2O$ (M = Co or Zn; x = 1, 2) (5 and 7) and $[Cu_2(phen)_3(dipico)(H_2O)][Cu(dipico)_2]\cdot [(11H_2O)(CH_3OH)] 6$

To prepare  $[Co(phen)(dipico)(H_2O)]\cdot 2H_2O$  **5**, cobalt(II) chloride (0.24 g, 1 mmole) in deionised water (10 mL) and dipicolinic acid (0.17 g, 1 mmole) in 0.1 M NaOH (20 mL) were mixed and stirred for 30 minutes. This was followed by addition of a methanolic solution (5 mL) of phen (0.18 g, 1 mmole) to the solution mixture. The solution was heated to reduce the volume of the solution to *c.a.* 5 mL. The solution was then allowed to stand overnight. The product was collected on the following day by suction filtration and washed with cold deionised water, then dried *in vacuo*. The yield of brownish orange crystals (0.40 g, 69 %).

The above procedure was used to prepare the Cu(II) and Zn(II) analogues. The attempt to synthesis the other  $[Cu(phen)(dipico)(H_2O)]$  complex was unsuccessful. The recovered product was  $[Cu_2(phen)_3(dipico)(H_2O)][Cu(dipico)_2] \cdot [(11H_2O)(CH_3OH)]$  6. The pure complex 6 was obtained as blue crystals (0.35 g, 75 %) whereas  $[Zn(phen)(dipico)(H_2O)] \cdot H_2O$  7 was obtained as white crystals (0.32 g, 72%).

## 4.2.3 Characterization of solids complexes

Elemental analyses (C, H, and N) and FTIR spectra were similarly performed as ascribed in Chapter 3 section 3.2.3.

#### 4.2.4 Determination of crystal structures

The X-ray diffraction data was obtained with a Bruker AXS CCD diffractometer with Mo K $\alpha$  radiation ( $\lambda = 0.71073$  Å). The SMART (Version 5.631) & SAINT (Version 6.63) (Bruker, 2000) softwares were used for data collection. The integration of intensity of reflections and scaling were done by SMART (Version 5.631) & SAINT (Version 6.63) (Bruker, 2000); SADABS (Sheldrick, 2001) was used for empirical absorption correction. SHELXTL (Bruker, 2000) was used for space group determination, structure refinement, graphics and structure reporting. The structures were solved by direct-methods and refined by a full-matrix least-squares procedure of F<sup>2</sup> with anisotropic

displacement parameters for non-hydrogen atoms, C and N-bound hydrogen atoms in their calculated positions and using a weighting scheme of the form calculated  $w = 1/[s^2(F_o^2)+(0.0996P)^2 + 0.0491P]$  where  $P=(F_o^2 + 2F_c^2)/3$  5; calculated  $w = 1/[s^2(F_o^2) + (0.1603P)^2 + 10.9481P]$  where  $P=(F_o^{2^{A}} + 2F_c^2)/3$  6; calculated  $w = 1/[s^2(F_o^2) + (0.0384P)^2 + 0.9832P]$  where  $P = (F_o^2 + 2F_c^2)/3$  7 (Sheldrick, 2008). Hydrogen atoms in their calculated positions were refined using a riding model. Data collection and experimental details for the complexes are summarized in **Table 4.1**.

	5	6	7
Empirical formula	$CoC_{19}H_{17}N_3O_7$	$Cu_{3}C_{58}H_{59}N_{9}O_{24.5}$	$ZnC_{19}H_{15}N_3O_6$
Formula weight	458.29	1464.78	446.73
Temperature (K)	223	223	223
Crystal system	Triclinic	Triclinic	Monoclinic
Space group	P-1	P-1	P2(1)/c
	a = 7.7873(13);	a = 14.481(5);	a = 7.4836(3);
Unit cell dimensions (Å)	b = 9.2814(16);	b = 15.569(5);	b = 20.7987(9);
	c = 14.034(2)	c = 15.863(5)	c = 11.5801(5)
Volume (Å <sup>3</sup> )	953.7(3)	3137.4(18)	177.90(13)
Ζ	2	2	4
Density (calculated) (mg/m <sup>3</sup> )	1.596	1.523	1.674
Absorption coefficient (mm <sup>-1</sup> )	0.949	1.096	1.431
<i>F</i> (000) (mm)	470	1454	912
Crystal size (mm)	0.30 x 0.12 x 0.10	0.56 x 0.36 x 0.16	0.28 x 0.12 x 0.10
$\theta$ range for data collection (°)	2.31 – 27.50	2.31 - 21.15	1.96 – 27.50
Index ranges	-10 ≤ h ≤ 10;	-17 ≤ h ≤ 17;	-9 ≤ h ≤ 9;
	-11 ≤ k ≤ 11;	-18 ≤ k ≤ 18;	-25 ≤ k ≤ 27;
	-18 ≤ I ≤ 18	-18 ≤ I ≤ 18	-12 ≤ I ≤ 15
Reflections collected	10238	32739	12418
Independent reflections	4340	11022	4060
Data/restraints/parameters	4340/6/289	11022/18/874	4060/4/278
Goodness-of-fit on F <sup>2</sup>	1.067	1.077	1.060
Final Dindiana [b2(a)]	<i>R</i> = 0.0665;	<i>R</i> = 0.1141;	<i>R</i> = 0.0364;
	<i>w</i> R = 0.1632	<i>w</i> R = 0.2994	<i>w</i> R = 0.0849
R indices (all data)	<i>R</i> = 0.0833;	<i>R</i> = 0.1720;	<i>R</i> = 0.0428;
	<i>w</i> R = 0.1729	<i>w</i> R = 0.3279	<i>w</i> R = 0.0878
Largest dif. Peak and hole $(e^{A^3})$	1.435, -0.857	1.558, -0.862	0.428, -0.277

 Table 4.1: Crystal data and structure refinement for metal(II) complexes 5 - 7

#### 4.2.5 Characterization of aqueous solutions of complexes

A CON 700 bench top conductivity meter from EUTECH Instruments was used to measure the conductivity of the solvent mixture used and methanol-water (1:1 v/v) solutions of the ternary metal(II) complexes, using KCl as calibrant. The preparation of the water-methanolic (1:1 v/v) solutions of metal(II) complexes (5 - 7) and procedures for the conductivity measurement were the same as in Chapter 3 section 3.2.6. UV-visible spectra of aqueous solutions of these complexes were obtained with a Perkin Elmer Lamda 35 spectrophotometer in the range of 200 – 900 nm. These solutions were prepared by using 1:1 (v/v) water-methanol mixture to give  $1.0 \times 10^{-3} \text{ M}$ stock solutions. The solutions of the free ligands and the metal(II) chloride were similarly prepared. The reference cell was filled with water-methanol (1:1 v/v) while the sample cell was filled with the sample solution. The fluorescence study was carried out with a Perkin Elmer LS55 Fluorescence spectrometer at 272 nm (excitation wavelength). The stock solutions of the metal(II) complexes and the stock solutions of the free ligands and metal(II) chlorides for fluorescence study were prepared as described for sample solutions for UV-Vis spectra measurements. The sample solutions were further diluted to  $1.0 \times 10^{-6}$  M for the fluorescence study.

### 4.3 **RESULT AND DISCUSSION**

#### 4.3.1 Characterization of solids complexes

All three dipicolinate complexes, 5 - 7 were synthesized by modifying the method published elsewhere (Kirillova et al., 2007; Ma et al., 2002; Hadadzadeh et al., 2009). The complexes 5 - 7, were characterized by Fourier Spectroscopy, Transform Infrared elemental analysis and X-ray crystallography. The modified preparations gave yield of up to ~ 69 % for complex 5, ~ 75% for complex 6 and ~ 72 % for complex 7. Based on microanalysis results, the complexes be formulated can as [Co(phen)(dipico)(H<sub>2</sub>O)]·2H<sub>2</sub>O 5,  $[Cu_2(phen)_3(dipico)(H_2O)][Cu(dipico)_2] \cdot [(11H_2O)(CH_3OH)]$ 6 and  $[Zn(phen)(dipico)(H_2O)] \cdot H_2O 7$  as listed in **Table 4.2**.

Complex		5	6	7
Molecular formulae		[Co(C <sub>12</sub> H <sub>8</sub> N <sub>2</sub> )(C <sub>7</sub> H <sub>3</sub> NO <sub>4</sub> ) (H <sub>2</sub> O)]·2H <sub>2</sub> O	[Cu <sub>2</sub> (C <sub>12</sub> H <sub>8</sub> N <sub>2</sub> ) <sub>3</sub> (C <sub>7</sub> H <sub>3</sub> NO <sub>4</sub> ) (H <sub>2</sub> O)][Cu(C <sub>7</sub> H <sub>3</sub> NO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> ] ·[(11H <sub>2</sub> O)(CH <sub>3</sub> OH)]	[Zn(C <sub>12</sub> H <sub>8</sub> N <sub>2</sub> )(C <sub>7</sub> H <sub>3</sub> NO <sub>4</sub> ) (H <sub>2</sub> O)]·H <sub>2</sub> O
Molecular weight (g/mol)		458.28	1464.78	446.73
% yield		~ 69 %	~ 75 %	~ 72 %
Colour		Brown crystals	Blue crystals	White crystals
CHN	С	49.80 (49.60)	47.56 (46.79)	51.08 (51.04)
elemental analysis, %	Н	3.74 (3.59)	4.06 (3.78)	3.38 (3.18)
Calculated (Found)	N	9.17 (9.28)	8.61 (9.57)	9.41 (9.44)

Table 4.2: Physical and chemical data of metal(II) complexes, 5 - 7

FTIR spectra of complexes 5 - 7 are shown in Appedix 4.1 and assignments of the characteristic bands are listed in Table 4.3. In the higher wavenumber,  $v(H_2O)$  vibrations bands (3518 – 3254 cm<sup>-1</sup>) suggests presence

of coordinated water or lattice water molecule(s) for complexes **5**, **6** and **7** (Nakamoto, 1977; Hadadzadeh et al., 2010; Yenikaya et al., 2009; Kirillova et al., 2007; Vargová et al., 2004). This strong, broad and intense band is indicative of O-H stretching (Kirillova et al., 2007; Nakamoto, 1977). The relatively weak aromatic v(C-H) bands in the range of 3098 - 3052 cm<sup>-1</sup> for complexes **5** and **7** suggest the presence of phen ligand (Yenikaya et al., 2009; Kirillova et al., 2007; Gonzalez-Baró et al., 2005; Bulut et al., 2009).

A weak absorption of v(C=N) and strong absorption of aromatic v(C=C) typical of coordinated phen are observed for **5** - **7** in the range of 1516 – 1520 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 1426 – 1428 cm<sup>-1</sup> respectively (Schilt and Taylor, 1958; Garcia-Raso et al., 2003; Tang et al., 2007). Several ring stretching modes of the phen are found in the range of 1031 – 1106 cm<sup>-1</sup> (Shani et al., 1977). Two medium v(C-H) out of plane vibration bands at ~ 723 cm<sup>-1</sup> and ~855 cm<sup>-1</sup> suggest the coordination of phen (Garcia-Raso et al., 2003; Zhang et al., 2004; Jin et al., 2000). The presence of the v(M-N) vibration bands in the range of 180 - 290 cm<sup>-1</sup> observed for M(II)-phen complexes could not be verified for complexes **5** - **7** as they were out of range for the FTIR spectrophotometer used (Schilt and Taylor, 1958; Papadopoulos et al., 2007; Shebl et al., 2010; García-Raso et al., 2003; Yenikaya et al., 2009).

The v(C=O) and v(C-O) vibrations of -COOH group of the free dipicolinic acid occurred at 1701 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 1290 cm<sup>-1</sup> respectively (**Appendix**)

**3.2**). These two peaks were found to have shifted to a lower frequency in complexes **5** - **7** and this shift is due to coordination of the dipicolinate ligand to the Co(II), Cu(II) and Zn(II) centre. Strong  $v_{as}(COO^-)$  and  $v_s(COO^-)$  absorption bands were observed for **5** - **7** in the range of 1618 - 1629 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 1368 - 1379 cm<sup>-1</sup> respectively (Hadadzadeh et al., 2010; Dutta et al., 1981; Allan et al., 1989; Dutta et al., 1980; Sukanya et al., 2006; Yenikaya et al., 2009; Kirillova et al., 2007; Bulut et al., 2009; Zhou et al., 2009; Cai et al., 2010). Coordinated dipicolinate exhibit v(C=N) and v(C=C) stretching vibrations at 1585 cm<sup>-1</sup> (Dutta et al., 1980; Vargová et al., 2004; Shani et al., 1977; Rana et al., 1979). These were similarly observed for complexes **5** - **7** (1583 – 1589 cm<sup>-1</sup>).

The v(C-N) and v(C-H) vibrations of the pyridine moiety of the dipicolinate in complexes **5** - **7** were observed in the range of 1077 - 1283 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 911 - 914 cm<sup>-1</sup> respectively (Cai et al., 2010; Bulut et al., 2009). The ring wagging vibration of the pyridine moiety was also observed at 766 - 772 cm<sup>-1</sup> (Yenikaya et al., 2009; Bulut et al, 2009). The medium intensity of v(Co-O) and v(Cu-O) vibration bands were observed at 422 cm<sup>-1</sup> (**5**) and 429 cm<sup>-1</sup> (**6**) (Liu et al., 2005; Zhang et al., 2008; Yenikaya et al., 2009). However, the v(Zn-O) vibration band in complex **7** was not observed. The v(Zn-O) vibration band in complex **7** is beyond the detection of the FTIR spectrophotometer used. Observation of the v(M-O) vibration bands can be used to show coordination of the oxygen atom of the carboxylate group to the Co(II), Cu(II) and Zn(II) centres (Allan et al., 1989; Yenikaya et al; 2009; Cai

et al., 2010; Tunçel et al., 2006; García-Raso et al., 2003). The FTIR spectral of complexes **5 - 7** (**Appendix 4.1**) suggested that both phen and dipicolinate ligands were coordinated to the metal (Co(II), Cu(II) and Zn(II)) centres respectively.

Bond	5	6	7	Remarks		
	3494 (m)		3518 (s)			
v(O-H)	3436 (w)	3401 (b)	3447 (m)	Water		
	3369 (b)		3254 (b)			
у(C-H)	3052 (w)	_	3071 (w) 3098			
V(C-1)aromatic	5052 (W)		(w)			
v(C=N)	1516 (m)	1520 (m)	1519 (m)			
v(C=C)	1426 (s)	1428 (s)	1427 (s)			
	1098 (w)	1106 (m)	1104 (m)	Phon		
V <sub>ring</sub>	1077 (m)	1084 (m)	1079 (m)	Filen		
	1032 (w)	1036 (w)	1031 (m)			
v(C-H)	727(m),	723 (m)	727 (s),			
Out-of-plane	855(m)	854 (m)	848 (m)			
v(M-N)	529 (w)	-	438 (m)			
v <sub>as</sub> (COO <sup>-</sup> )	1618 (s)	1629 (s)	-			
v <sub>s</sub> (COO <sup>-</sup> )	1379 (s)	1370 (s)	1368 (s)			
v <sub>pyridine</sub> = [v(C=N) +	1586 (b)	1589 (b)	1583 (b)			
v(C=C)]	1566 (b)					
	1283 (s)	1276 (s)	1283 (s)	Dipipolipoto		
V(C-IN)	1077 (m)	1084 (m)	1079 (m)	Dipicolinate		
[v(C=C) + v(C-O)]	1459 (w)	1459 (w)	1460 (w)			
v(C-H)	914 (m)	912 (m)	911 (m)	1		
(pyridine) <sub>wagging</sub>	767 (m)	772 (m)	766 (m)	1		
v(M-O)	422 (m)	429 (m)	-	]		

Table 4.3: Characteristic Infrared band assignments ofmetal(II) complexes 5 - 7

# 4.3.2 Analysis of crystal structures

Fi	gures	4.1	-	4.3	showed	the	crystal	structures	of
[Co(phen)	(dipico	)(H <sub>2</sub> O)	)]·2ŀ	$H_2O$					5,
[Cu <sub>2</sub> (phen	) <sub>3</sub> (dipic	co)(H <sub>2</sub>	D)][(C	Cu(dip	ico) <sub>2</sub> ]·[(11]	$H_2O)(C$	CH <sub>3</sub> OH)]	6	and

 $[Zn(phen)(dipico)(H_2O)] \cdot H_2O$  7. Both complexes, 5 and 7 are isostructural to their manganese(II) (Ma et al., 2002), zinc(II) (Harrison et al., 2006) and nickel(II) analogues (Hadadzadeh et al., 2010) which are all octahedral. The dipicolinate ligand served as a tridentate ligand, the ligand bounds to the metal centres through the *O*,*N*,*O*' donor atoms. On the other hand, the phen ligand coordinates to the metal centres through its two nitrogen donor atoms and acts as a bidentate chelating ligand. The sixth coordination site is filled by a monodentate aqua ligand. These ligating atoms, O<sub>3</sub>N<sub>3</sub>, forms a distorted octahedral coordination sphere around each metal(II) center of the complexes 5 and 7. Complex 7 is highly distorted owing to the planarity, rigidity and denticity of phen and dipico ligands. Besides, the limited span width of the terminal O(1) and O(3) ligating atoms of dipico caused phen and dipico cannot chelate to Zn(II) in the same plane (Harrison et al., 2006; Hadadzadeh et al., 2010).

The Co(1) - N(3) (2.047 Å) and Co(1) - O5W (2.099 Å) bonds of complex **5** are significantly shorter than the other four octahedral bonds (2.104 - 2.154 Å) in **5**. Similarly, the Zn(1) - N(3) (2.0547 Å) and Zn(1) - O1W (2.0478 Å) bonds of complex **7** are significantly shorter than the other four octahedral bonds (2.1142 - 2.2617 Å) in **7**. The M – N<sub>phen</sub> bond lengths of complexes **5** and **7** are similar to those reported for other Co-phen and Zn-phen complexes (Papadopoulos et al., 2007; Harrison et al., 2006; Xiao et al., 2005; Rubin-Preminger et al., 2008; Hanauer et al., 2008; He et al., 2007; Song et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2000). Co(1) – O5W and Zn(1) – O1W bond

lengths are shorter than Co –  $O_{dipico}$  and Zn –  $O_{dipico}$  observed for other similar metal(II)-dipico complexes (Harrison et al., 2006; Hakansson et al., 1993; Ma et al., 2002; Hadadzadeh et al., 2010; Bulut et al., 2009). The M –  $N_{dipico}$  bond is shorter than the two M –  $N_{phen}$  bond lengths, indicating that  $N_{dipico}$  is a stronger donor, since the two carboxylate groups in ortho positions enhance the electron density (basicity) on this N-atom (Uçar et al., 2007; Ma et al., 2002; Bulut et al., 2009).

The N(1), O(1), O(3) and N(3) ligating atoms are equatorial ligating atoms in complex 7. These equatorial atoms are not coplanar as the N(1) atom is slightly displaced from the O(1)-O(3)-N(3) plane. The bite angles for the dipico ligand in complex 5 (N(3)-Co(1)-O(1) =  $75.97^{\circ}$  and N(3)-Co(1)-O(3) =  $75.92^{\circ}$ ) and complex 7 (N(3)-Zn(1)-O(3) =  $73.86^{\circ}$  and N(3)-Zn(1)-O(3) = 76.37°) are similar to those reported for dipicolinate-metal complexes (Gonzalez-Baró et al., 2005; Sukanya et al., 2006; Xie et al., 2004; Okabe and Oya, 2000; Hakansson et al., 1993; Ucar et al., 2007). The equatorial N(1) atom (phen) is almost directly opposite the equatorial N(3) atom (dipico) as the N(1)-Co(1)-N(3) bond angle is 171°. The bite angle of the phen ligand in complex 5 ( $78.50^{\circ}$ ) and 7 ( $77.03^{\circ}$ ) are smaller than those observed for the phen ligands in the less distorted octahedral complexes (Ng et al., 2009; Jhong et al., 2007; Li et al., 2007; Hadadzadeh et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2000). The chelated phen ligand can be considered to be rotated about its N(1)-ligating atom such that its other nitrogen-ligating atom (N(2)) latches onto the Zn(1)atom of the Zn(1)-dipico moiety from above, and the phen plane is

perpendicular to the O(1)-O(3)-N(3) plane of the dipico ligand. Interestingly, the coordinated water (O5W or O1W) are opposite to N(2), but the O(5)-Co(1)-N(2) and N(2)-Zn(1)-O1w bond deviates greatly from linearity ( $167^{\circ}$  and  $161^{\circ}$ ) in complexes **5** and **7** respectively.



Figure 4.1: An ORTEP structure of  $[Co(phen)(dipico)(H_2O)].2H_2O$ , 5 with ellipsoid at 50%.



Figure 4.2: An ORTEP structure of  $[Zn(phen)(dipico)(H_2O)].H_2O$ , 7 with ellipsoids at 50%.

 $[Cu_2(phen)_3(dipico)(H_2O)][Cu(dipico)_2] \cdot [(11H_2O)(CH_3OH)]$  6 is shown in Figure 4.3. The crystal quality is not good but it managed to provide some important information about the chemical structure and the coordination geometry of the complex. The crystal structure suggested that the isolated complex formulated copper can be as  $[Cu_2(phen)_3(dipico)(H_2O)][Cu(dipico)_2] \cdot [(11H_2O)(CH_3OH)]$  and that it is a trinuclear ionic compound, consisting of  $[Cu_2(phen)_3(dipico)(H_2O)]^{2+}$  cation  $[Cu(dipico)_2]^{2}$ anion. and In the dicopper(II) cation  $[Cu_2(phen)_3(dipico)(H_2O)]^{2+}$ , the dipicolinate ligand is coordinated to the Cu(1) center via O and N atoms and the other carboxylate oxygen atom bridges the Cu(1) and Cu(2) atoms. A phen ligand along with an aqua ligand are coordinated to the Cu(1), resulting in the formation of a distorted square pyramidal environment about Cu(1). Similarly, the Cu(2) center adopts a distorted square pyramidal. The Cu(2) ion of the dinuclear cation is bridged by one of the carboxylate oxygen atoms of dipicolinate ligand to Cu(1) and it has two phen ligands attached through nitrogen donors. The copper center of the counter anion,  $[Cu(dipico)_2]^{2-}$ , has a distorted octahedral environment resulting from the coordination of two dipicolinate ligands.

The Cu – N<sub>phen</sub> bond lengths (1.995 - 2.193 Å) in complex **6** are similar to those reported for other Cu-phen complexes (García-Raso et al., 2003; Zhou et al., 2011). Cu(1) - O1W bond length (2.009 Å) is shorter than those observed for complexes **5** [Co(1) – O5W (2.099 Å)] and **7** [Zn(1) – O1W (2.0478 Å)]. Both Cu(3) - N<sub>dipico</sub> bond lengths of  $[Cu(dipico)_2]^{2-}$  are shorter than Cu(1) - N<sub>dipico</sub> of  $[Cu_2(phen)_3(dipico)(H_2O)]^{2+}$ , Co(1) - N<sub>dipico</sub> and Zn(1) -N<sub>dipico</sub>. The Cu(2) - O(1) bond lengths (2.007 Å) of bridged carboxylate O atom of dipicolinate is shorter than all M – O<sub>dipico</sub> (M = Co, Cu and Zn) bond lengths (2.007 - 2.2617 Å). All M – O<sub>dipico</sub> bond lengths except for Cu(2) -O(1) bond length are similar to those reported metal(II)-dipico complexes (Harrison et al., 2006; Hakansson et al., 1993; Ma et al., 2002; Hadadzadeh et al., 2010; Bulut et al., 2009). Like those M – N<sub>dipico</sub> and M – N<sub>phen</sub> bond lengths for Co(II) and Zn(II) complexes, Cu – N<sub>dipico</sub> bond are shorter than Cu – N<sub>phen</sub> bond lengths, indicates that N<sub>dipico</sub> is a stronger donor, since the two carboxylate groups in ortho positions enhance the electron density (basicity) on this N-atom (Uçar et al., 2007; Ma et al., 2002; Bulut et al., 2009).

The bite angles for the dipico ligands in complex **6** (N(7)-Cu(1)-O(3) = 77.6°; N(8)-Cu(3)-O(5) = 78.4°; N(8)-Cu(3)-O(7) = 77.1°; N(9)-Cu(3)-O(9) = 77.7°; N(9)-Cu(3)-O(11) = 78.6°) are similar to those reported for dipicolinate-metal complexes (Gonzalez-Baró et al., 2005; Sukanya et al., 2006; Xie et al., 2004; Okabe and Oya, 2000; Hakansson et al., 1993; Uçar et al., 2007). The N(6) atom (phen) is almost directly opposite N(4) atom (phen) as N(6)-Cu(2)-N(4) bond angle is  $175^{\circ}$ . Also, the N(8) atom (dipico) and N(9) atom (dipico) is almost directly opposite to each other as N(8)-Cu(3)-N(9) bond angle is  $175^{\circ}$ . The bite angle of the phen ligand in complex **6** (79.4 - 82.0°) are slightly bigger than those observed for the phen ligands in complexes **5** and **7**, but is consistent to those reported distorted octahedral

complexes (Ng et al., 2009; Jhong et al., 2007; Li et al., 2007; Hadadzadeh et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2000). Interestingly, the bridging carboxylate O atom is opposite to N(5) atom of phen, but the N(5)-Cu(2)-O(1) bond deviate greatly from linearity ( $158^{\circ}$ ) in complex **6**.

The centroid-centroid distance of the two phen ligands that coordinated to Cu(1) and Cu(2) in the cation  $[Cu_2(phen)_3(dipico)(H_2O)]^{2+}$  is 3.799 Å. Also, the centroid-centroid distance between both phen ligands of adjacent  $[Cu_2(phen)_3(dipico)(H_2O)]^{2+}$  cations is 3.480 Å. Besides, the centroid-centroid distance between the phen ligand of  $[Cu_2(phen)_3(dipico)(H_2O)]^{2+}$  cation and dipicolinate ligand of the  $[Cu(dipico)_2]^{2-}$  anion is 3.635 Å. All the mentioned centroid-centroid distance are consistent to reported values (3.3 - 3.8 Å) (He et al., 2012; Chen et al. 2012; Castiñeiras et al. 2002; Lin et al., 2009; Janiak, 2000). These centroid-centroid distances suggest presence of intermolecular  $\pi$ - $\pi$  stacking interaction between the aromatic phen rings and pyridine rings of dipicolinate (Figure 4.4). (Zhang et al., 2004; Yodoshi et al., 2007; Jia et al., 2010; Bodoki et al., 2009; Paulovicova et al., 2001). The hydrogen bonding is not indicated due to the H atoms of the water and methanol molecules are not located. Overall, the crystal structure of complex 6 is stabilized by electrostatic interactions and the  $\pi$ - $\pi$  stacking interaction between the aromatic rings of phen ligands and pyridine rings of dipicolinate ligands.


Figure 4.3: ORTEP structure of  $[Cu_2(phen)_3(dipico)(H_2O)][Cu(dipico)_2] \cdot [(11H_2O)(CH_3OH)]$  6, with ellipsoid at 50 %



**Figure 4.4:** Packing diagram of complex **6** viewing along *b* axis

Bond lengths (Å)	5		6		7	
	Co(1) – O(1)	2.140(3)	Cu(1) - O(3)	2.238 (8)	Zn(1) – O(1)	2.2617(15)
M-dipico	Co(1) – O(3)	2.154(3)	Cu(1) - N(7)	2.013 (8)	Zn(1) – O(3)	2.1943(16)
·	Co(1) - N(3)	2.047(3)	Cu(2) - O(1)	2.007 (7)	Zn(1) – N(3)	2.0547(17)
			Cu(3) - O(5)	2.178 (7)		
			Cu(3) - N(8)	1.929 (8)		
			Cu(3) - O(7)	2.202 (7)		
			Cu(3) - O(9)	2.225 (8)		
			Cu(3) - N(9)	1.914 (9)		
			Cu(3) - O(11)	2.167 (9)		
M-H <sub>2</sub> O	Co(1) – O5W	2.099(3)	Cu(1) - O1W	2.009 (7)	Zn(1) – O1W	2.0478(18)
M-phen	Co(1) - N(1)	2.104(3)	Cu(1) - N(1)	2.004 (8)	Zn(1) – N(1)	2.1142(18)
	Co(1) - N(2)	2.130(3)	Cu(1) - N(2)	2.027 (9)	Zn(1) – N(2)	2.2028(18)
			Cu(2) - N(3)	2.193 (9)		
			Cu(2) - N(4)	1.999 (10)		
			Cu(2) - N(5)	2.027 (9)		
			Cu(2) - N(6)	1.995 (9)		

 Table 4.4: Selected bond lengths (Å) for metal(II) complexes 5 - 7

5		6		7	
N(3)-Co(1)-O(5)	91.20(11)	N(1)-Cu(1)-O1W	93.5(3)	O(1W)-Zn(1)-N(3)	100.12(7)
N(3)-Co(1)-N(1)	171.20(11)	N(1)-Cu(1)-N(7)	173.0(3)	O(1W)-Zn(1)-N(1)	92.24(8)
O(5)-Co(1)-N(1)	90.67(11)	O1W-Cu(1)-N(7)	90.0(3)	N(3)-Zn(1)-N(1)	157.61(7)
N(3)-Co(1)-N(2)	100.47(11)	N(1)-Cu(1)-N(2)	81.6(3)	O(1W)-Zn(1)-O(3)	88.76(8)
O(5)-Co(1)-N(2)	167.46(11)	O1W-Cu(1)-N(2)	172.6(3)	N(3)-Zn(1)-O(3)	76.37(6)
N(1)-Co(1)-N(2)	78.50(11)	N(7)-Cu(1)-N(2)	95.4(3)	N(1)-Zn(1)-O(3)	122.86(6)
N(3)-Co(1)-O(1)	75.97(11)	N(1)-Cu(1)-O(3)	96.1(3)	O(1W)-Zn(1)-N(2)	161.04(7)
O(5)-Co(1)-O(1)	98.59(12)	O1W-Cu(1)-O(3)	94.2(3)	N(3)-Zn(1)-N(2)	95.32(7)
N(1)-Co(1)-O(1)	95.25(11)	N(7)-Cu(1)-O(3)	77.6(3)	N(1)-Zn(1)-N(2)	77.03(7)
N(2)-Co(1)-O(1)	88.77(11)	N(2)-Cu(1)-O(3)	91.8(3)	O(3)-Zn(1)-N(2)	84.22(6)
N(3)-Co(1)-O(3)	75.92(10)	N(1)-Cu(1)-O(1)	112.7(3)	O(1W)-Zn(1)-O(1)	94.00(7)
O(5)-Co(1)-O(3)	88.96(11)	O1W-Cu(1)-O(1)	87.5(3)	N(3)-Zn(1)-O(1)	73.98(6)
N(1)-Co(1)-O(3)	112.72(10)	N(7)-Cu(1)-O(1)	73.4(3)	N(1)-Zn(1)-O(1)	86.68(6)
N(2)-Co(1)-O(3)	89.43(11)	N(2)-Cu(1)-O(1)	89.3(3)		
		O(3)-Cu(1)-O(1)	151.0(3)		
		N(6)-Cu(2)-N(4)	175.4(4)		
		N(6)-Cu(2)-O(1)	92.7(3)		
		N(4)-Cu(2)-O(1)	91.0(3)		
		N(6)-Cu(2)-N(5)	82.0(4)		
		N(4)-Cu(2)-N(5)	95.5(4)		
		O(1)-Cu(2)-N(5)	158.0(3)		
		N(6)-Cu(2)-N(3)	97.3(4)		
		N(4)-Cu(2)-N(3)	79.4(4)		
		O(1)-Cu(2)-N(3)	97.8(3)		
		N(5)-Cu(2)-N(3)	104.0(3)		
		N(9)-Cu(3)-N(8)	175.0(3)		
		N(9)-Cu(3)-O(11)	78.6(4)		
		N(8)-Cu(3)-O(11)	101.5(3)		
		N(9)-Cu(3)-O(5)	96.7(3)		
		N(8)-Cu(3)-O(5)	78.4(3)		
		O(11)-Cu(3)-O(5)	89.7(3)		
		N(9)-Cu(3)-O(7)	107.9(3)		
		N(8)-Cu(3)-O(7)	77.1(3)		
		O(11)-Cu(3)-O(7)	95.5(3)		
		O(5)-Cu(3)-O(7)	155.4(3)		
		N(9)-Cu(3)-O(9)	77.7(3)		
		N(8)-Cu(3)-O(9)	102.2(3)		
		O(11)-Cu(3)-O(9)	156.2(3)		
		O(5)-Cu(3)-O(9)	93.0(3)		
		O(7)-Cu(3)-O(9)	91.7(3)		

Table 4.5: Selected bond angles (°) for metal(II) complexes 5 - 7

#### 4.3.3 Characterization of aqueous solutions of complexes

The aqueous solutions of complexes **5** - **7** were characterized by molar conductivity, UV-visible and fluorescence studies. To investigate the species in solution, the molar conductivities of metal(II) chloride, ligands, complexes **5** - **7** were determined for time points of up to 24 hours (**Figure 4.5**). Conductivity measurement is useful for studying the stability of the metal complexes in solution and analysing the species in solution. The metal complexes **5** - **7**, metal(II) chlorides and ligands were dissolved in a 1:1 (v/v) water-methanol mixture and their conductivities were measured at 25 °C. The molar conductivity of CoCl<sub>2</sub>, CuCl<sub>2</sub> and ZnCl<sub>2</sub> were about 118, 119 and 112  $\Omega$ <sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>2</sup> mol<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. These values remained unchanged up to 24 hours. Molar conductivity of the metal(II) chloride, CoCl<sub>2</sub>, CuCl<sub>2</sub> and ZnCl<sub>2</sub> are similar to the known 1:2 electrolytes, [Zn(L)(phen)<sub>2</sub>]Cl<sub>2</sub> and [ZnL(bpy)<sub>2</sub>]Cl<sub>2</sub> (Nakabayashi et al., 2006; Snow and Sheardy, 2001; Gallori et al., 2000).

Recently, Sharma and co-workers (2011) reported that the range of the molar conductivity value for non-electrolyte is within 8 to 14  $\Omega^{-1}$  cm<sup>2</sup> mol<sup>-1</sup> in water-methanol (1:1 v/v). The low molar conductivity values of freshly prepared solvent mixture (0.52  $\Omega^{-1}$  cm<sup>2</sup> mol<sup>-1</sup>), free phen ligand (2.98  $\Omega^{-1}$  cm<sup>2</sup> mol<sup>-1</sup>), **5** (9.45  $\Omega^{-1}$  cm<sup>2</sup> mol<sup>-1</sup>) and **7** (13.86  $\Omega^{-1}$  cm<sup>2</sup> mol<sup>-1</sup>) indicate the non-electrolyte nature of the solvent, phen and the complexes **5** and **7** (Papadopoulos et al., 2007). This suggests complexes **5** and **7** exist as neutral complex species in aqueous solution and dissolving them did not lead to any

dissociation of coordinated ligand. The molar conductivity of complex 6 (44  $\Omega^{-1}$  cm<sup>2</sup> mol<sup>-1</sup>) is near to those 1:1 electrolyte (37 - 43  $\Omega^{-1}$  cm<sup>2</sup> mol<sup>-1</sup>) compounds reported by Arjmand et al. (2010). The molar conductivity of complex **6** is much lower than theoretical values of 1:1 electrolyte (75 - 95  $\Omega^{-1}$ cm<sup>2</sup> mol<sup>-1</sup>) (Geary, 1971). This might be due to low mobility of bulky cations,  $[Cu_2(phen)_3(dipico)(H_2O)]^{2+}$  and anions  $[Cu(dipico)_2]^{2-}$  of an ionic metal complex in the solution (Golchoubian and Fazilati, 2012; Apelblat, 2011). The insignificant increase in the conductivity value of every sample over the time might be due to the changes in the ion mobility. This phenomenon might have caused by the evaporation of the volatile methanol in the mixture solutions with time, as reported by Bald and co-workers in 2007. Over 24 hours, the molar conductivity of complexes 5 - 7 did not change significantly, suggesting no dissociation of the neutral species of complexes 5 and 7, and no dissociation of the ionic species of complex 6. Hence, it is concluded that dipicolinate complexes 5 - 7 are stable in solution. Dipicolinate complexes 5 and 7, in aqueous solutions, could have existed as  $[Co(phen)(dipico)(H_2O)]$ and  $[Zn(phen)(dipico)(H_2O)]$  species respectively. Complex 6 could have individual cation  $[Cu_2(phen)_3(dipico)(H_2O)]^{2+}$ and exists as anion  $[Cu(dipico)_2]^{2-}$ .



Figure 4.5: Molar conductivity of 1 mM of metal(II) complexes 5 - 7, metal(II) chloride, phen and dipicolinate ligand in deionised water-methanol (1:1 v/v) at 25 °C.

The UV-visible spectra of the complexes and the pure ligands were recorded in deionised water-methanol (1:1 v/v) solutions. The peak assignments of these spectra of complexes 5 - 7 along with the molar extinction coefficients ( $\epsilon$  value) are tabulated in **Table 4.6**. Appendix 4.2 -4.4 are the UV spectra of the complexes 5 - 7. A d-d band was observed at 729 nm for complex 6 (Appendix 4.5). The coordination of phen and dipicolinate ligands to Cu(II) ion causes a blue shift of the d-d band position with respect to that in the CuCl<sub>2</sub> solution (831 nm) (Ng et al., 2006). No visible absorption spectra were observed for complexes 5 and 7. In this case, d-d transitions are forbidden by the Laporte rule. The spectrum of pure phen ligand gave two dominant bands at 229 nm and 265 nm. Two intense bands at 228 nm ( $\varepsilon = 53130$ ) and 271 nm ( $\varepsilon =$ 43660) were observed in the UV spectrum of complex **5**. Two intense bands at 222 nm ( $\varepsilon = 12530$ ) and 272 nm ( $\varepsilon = 10560$ ) were also observed in the UV spectrum of complex **6**. Similarly, two peaks were observed in the UV spectrum of complex **7** at 227 nm ( $\varepsilon = 48500$ ) and 272 nm ( $\varepsilon = 39500$ ). By comparing with the spectra of the corresponding dipicolinic acid and phen ligands (**Appendix 4.6**) for the position of the  $\lambda_{max}$  and intensity of the absorbance, it can be concluded that both intense peaks at ~ 227 nm and ~ 272 nm can be ascribed to the coordinated phen ligand. Bonghaei et al. (2007) and Bencini et al. (2010) have reported the two intense peaks observed in the UV region of the electronic spectra for phen containing complexes aroused from intra ligand  $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$  transition. The observations matched well with the results for the phenanthroline complexes in Chapter 3, section 3.3.3.

Regression lines and correlation coefficient ( $\mathbb{R}^2$ ) values for each plot are drawn as described in Chapter 3, section 3.3.3. The correlation coefficient ( $\mathbb{R}^2$ ) values for all the plotted graphs obtained for complexes 5 - 7 are very close to 1.0000, showing that the data obtained fit in the regression line and obeyed the Beer-Lambert Law. The average molar absorptivity values of complexes 5 - 7 were obtained by using the Beer-Lambert Law and the general linear equation.

Complex	λ <sub>max</sub> (nm), ε (mol <sup>-1</sup> dm <sup>3</sup> cm <sup>-1</sup> )	Assignment
5	228 (ε = 53 130)	π→π*(phen)
	271 (ε = 43 660)	$\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ (phen)
6	222 (ε = 12530)	π→π*(phen)
	272 (ε = 10560)	π→π*(phen)
	729	d-d
7	227 (ε = 48 500)	$\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ (phen)
	272 (ε = 39 500)	$\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ (phen)
phen	229	$\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$
	265	$\pi{\rightarrow}\pi^{\star}$

Table 4.6: Absorption spectral data of metal(II) complexes, 5 -	7
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The FL emission for complexes spectra [Co(phen)(dipico)(H<sub>2</sub>O)]·2H<sub>2</sub>O 5,  $[Cu_2(phen)_3(dipico)(H_2O)][Cu(dipico)_2] \cdot [(11H_2O)(CH_3OH)]$ 6 and  $[Zn(phen)(dipico)(H_2O)]$ ·H<sub>2</sub>O 7 are shown in Figure 4.6. All three complexes 5 - 7 can emit fluorescence in deionised water-methanol (1:1 v/v) solution. Complexes 5 - 7 gave two bands with the  $\lambda_{max}$  values in the range of 364 - 366 nm and at 377 nm. By comparing with FL spectra of free phen and dipico ligands in the same solvent mixture, it is concluded that both peaks arise from coordinated phen as dipicolinate ligand has no FL emission. The FL emission spectrum of complex 5 (Figure 4.6; spectra III) showed that Co(II) partially quenched the highly emissive free phen ligand. Similarly, Cu(II) quenched the highly emissive free phen ligand too as shown in spectrum of complex 6(Figure 4.6; spectra IV). Seng and co-workers (2008) have described this quenching mechanism as static quenching.



**Figure 4.6**: Fluorescence spectra of **7** (I), phen (II), **5** (III), **6** (IV), dipico (V) and solvent mixture (VI) at 0.1 μM.

Seng et al., (2008) found that the amount of quenching of the coordinated phen is influenced by the type of transition metal(II) ion in the octahedral [M(phen)(edda)] complexes. Diamagnetic Zn(II) enhances the FL of the coordinated phen while paramagnetic Co(II) and Cu(II) partially quenches the highly emissive free phen ligand. Higher FL emission observed for Zn(II) complex (compared to the Co(II) and Cu(II) complexes) has been attributed to the full d<sup>10</sup> electron configuration of the Zn(II) ion (Hu *et al.*, 2010). In a previous study on the fluorescence of solid samples of a series ZnX<sub>2</sub>(phen) complexes (X = Cl, Br, I), the type of halide was found to affect the FL emission intensity and the order was found to be ZnCl<sub>2</sub>(phen) < phen < ZnBr<sub>2</sub>(phen) < ZnI<sub>2</sub>(phen) (Ikeda et al., 1996). The FL emission enhancement

was explained by the dependence of intersystem crossing rate on the halide, and the mechanism involved a Heitler-London type mixing between the phen locally excited and the  $\rho$  (halogen)  $\rightarrow \delta^*$  (phen) ligand-to-ligand chargetransfer (LLCT) electronic configurations and 1,3(n,  $\delta^*$ ) energy level change due to the coordination. Analysis of the data in **Figure 4.6** shows that a change of the type of metal(II) ion influences the FL emission intensity but not the  $\lambda_{max}$  and shape of the FL emission bands. The order of complexes in terms of increasing FL intensity is 6 < 5 < phen < 7.

#### 4.4 CONCLUSION

Reactions between phen, dipicolinate and metal(II) chloride (metal(II) Co(II), Cu(II) complexes = or Zn(II)) vielded metal  $[Co(phen)(dipico)(H_2O)] \cdot 2H_2O$ 5,  $[Cu_2(phen)_3(dipico)(H_2O)][Cu(dipico)_2] \cdot [(11H_2O)(CH_3OH)]$ 6 and  $[Zn(phen)(dipico)(H_2O)] \cdot H_2O$  7. The chemical structures and chemical formulae have been established by Fourier Transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR), CHN elemental analysis and X-ray crystallography. It can be concluded from the above discussion that complexes 5 and 6 exist as nonelectrolyte in aqueous solution. The neutral complexes 5 and 6 exists as  $[Co(phen)(dipico)(H_2O)]$  and  $[Zn(phen)(dipico)(H_2O)]$  species in aqueous solution. The molar conductivity measurements suggest that complexes 5 and 7 seem to be stable within the duration of conductivity measurement. Complex 6 is a 1:1 electrolyte. The lower molar conductivity of complex 6 might be due to low mobility of bulky cation and anion of the complexes in the solution. UV absorption peaks observed in the electronic spectra of the complexes could arise from the  $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$  transition of the coordinated phenanthroline ligand. However, no visible absorption peaks was found in the electronic spectra obtained for complexes **5** and **7**. Zn(II) enhances the FL of the coordinated phen while Co(II) and Cu(II) partially quenches the FL of the coordinated phen. The order of compounds in terms of increasing FL intensity is **6** < **5** < phen < **7**.

# CHAPTER 5

SYNTHESIS AND CHARACTERIZATION OF METAL(II) 1,10-PHENANTHROLINE COMPLEXES WITH *N,O-* THREONINE, [M(phen)(AA)(H<sub>2</sub>O)Cl]·2H<sub>2</sub>O (M(II) = Cu, Zn; AA = L-thr, D-thr)

#### **CHAPTER 5**

# SYNTHESIS AND CHARACTERIZATION OF METAL(II) 1,10-PHENANTHROLINE COMPLEXES WITH *N*,*O*- THREONINE, [M(phen)(AA)(H<sub>2</sub>O)Cl]·2H<sub>2</sub>O (M(II) = Cu, Zn; AA = L-thr, D-thr)

#### 5.1 INTRODUCTION

Previous chapters investigated ternary metal(II) polypyridyl complexes with OO'-maltolate (chapter 3) or ONO'-dipicolinate (chapter 4) as coligand in the solid (FTIR, elemental CHN and X-ray crystallography) state and in the aqueous solution form (UV-visible, molar conductivity and fluorescence). In this chapter, another set of similar metal(II) complexes was constructed by retaining the main ligand 1,10-phenanthroline, by choosing two types of metal(II), and changing the coligand to threonine. Here, L-threonine (L-thr) and D-threonine (D-thr) were used. Thus, two pairs of enantiomeric ternary metal(II) complexes were prepared and their general formula is  $[M(phen)(AA)(H_2O)Cl] \cdot 2H_2O$  (M(II) = Cu, Zn; AA = L-thr, D-thr). Both coordinated L-threoninate and D-threoninate have H-donor and H-acceptor sites and are optically active. Many optically-active transition metal complexes have been synthesized and studied (Bryan and Dabrowiak, 1975; Douglas and Saito, 1980; Brunner et al., 2000). Enantiomers of chiral metal complexes have attracted considerable attention as potential structural probes of DNA conformation (Nakabayashi et al., 2004; Chetana et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2009; Jin and Ranford, 2000; Rao et al., 2007). Chiral octahedral metal

complexes involving delta ( $\Delta$ ) and lamda ( $\Lambda$ ) enantiomers have been extensively investigated (Svensson et al., 2011; Hall et al., 2011). However, less research on the L- and D- chiral metal complexes has been carried out (Arjmand et al., 2010). As was done for the previous two series of metal(II) complexes, this chapter also investigated the effect of changing the type of metal(II) ion and chiral coligand of [M(phen)(AA)(H<sub>2</sub>O)Cl]·2H<sub>2</sub>O complexes (M(II) = Cu, Zn; AA = L-thr, D-thr) on their structures, thermal stability and solution properties (UV-Visible, molar conductivity and fluorescence).

#### 5.2 EXPERIMENTAL

#### 5.2.1 Materials and Reagents

1,10-phenanthroline monohydrate (99%), L-threonine (98 %), Dthreonine (98 %), Copper(II) chloride dihydrate were purchased from Acros Organic. Zinc(II) chloride puriss was purchased from Riedel-de Haen. Methanol and ammonia were of analytical grade and were used as purchased. Deionised water was used as solvent.

## 5.2.2 Preparation of $[M(phen)(AA)(H_2O)Cl].2H_2O$ (M(II) = Cu, Zn; AA = L-thr, D-thr) 8 - 11

In the preparation of  $[Cu(phen)(L-thr)(H_2O)Cl] \cdot 2H_2O$  **8**, copper(II) chloride (0.17 g, 1 mmol) in deionised water (10 mL) and L-threonine (0.12 g, 1 mmol) in 1.0 M NH<sub>3</sub> solution (20 mL) were mixed and stirred continuously

at room temperature for 10 minutes. This was followed by addition of a methanolic solution (5 mL) of phenanthroline (0.18 g, 1 mmol) to the above mixture. The resultant mixture was heated until the volume of the solution reached approximately 5 mL. The solution was then allowed to stand overnight. The solid product formed was collected on the following day by suction filtration and washed with cold deionised water. The complex, 8, was obtained as blue crystals (0.40 g, 85 %). The [Cu(phen)(D-thr)(H<sub>2</sub>O)Cl]·2H<sub>2</sub>O 9, was similarly prepared. In the preparation of complex 9, the L-threonine solution was replaced by D-threonine solution. The D-threonine solution was prepared by dissolving D-threonine (0.12 g, 1 mmol) in 1.0 M NH<sub>3</sub> solution (20 mL). On standing, blue crystals formed in the reaction mixture. The crystals were filtered and washed with cold deionised water (0.38 g, 82 %). analogues, viz.  $[Zn(phen)(L-thr)(H_2O)Cl] \cdot 2H_2O$  10 and The zinc(II)  $[Zn(phen)(D-thr)(H_2O)Cl] \cdot 2H_2O$  11, were similarly prepared. The copper(II) chloride solutions were replaced by zinc(II) chloride solutions. The colourless crystals of 10 and 11 formed in their respective reaction mixtures on standing overnight. These crystals were filtered and washed with cold deionised water (Complex **10**: 0.35 g, 80 %; complex **11**: 0.36 g, 82 %).

#### 5.2.3 Characterization of solids complexes

Elemental analyses (C, H, and N) and FTIR spectral of the complexes were similarly carried out as described in chapter 3.2.3. In this chapter, thermogravimetric analyses of the complexes were performed with a Mettler Toledo TGA/DTG 851<sup>e</sup> instrument as described in Chapter 3 (Section 3.2.3) with a slight change in program setting. The samples were heated in the range of 25 - 800  $^{\circ}$ C and the heating rate was 15  $^{\circ}$ C/min. The nitrogen gas (N<sub>2</sub>) flow rate was set at 20 mL/min.

#### **5.2.4** Determination of crystal structure

Crystal structures of complexes **8**, **10** and **11** were solved by Prof. Ng Seik Weng from University of Malaya (UM), Malaysia. Crystal data of complexes **8**, **10** and **11** were collected on a Bruker SMART APEX-II CCD area-detector using Mo K $\alpha$  radiation ( $\lambda = 0.71073$  Å), using  $\omega$ -scan mode. The SMART and SAINT softwares (2000) were used for data acquisition, cell refinement and data reduction. SADABS (Sheldrick 2001) was used for empirical absorption correction. The structures were solved by direct methods and refined by full-matrix, least-squares method using the SHELXS-97 program (Sheldrick 1997).

Crystal structure of complex **9** was solved by Assoc. Prof. Leong Weng Kee from Nanyang Technological Universilty (NTU), Singapore. Crystal data of complex **9** was collected at 103 K on a Bruker APEX-II CCD area-detector using Mo K $\alpha$  radiation ( $\lambda = 0.71073$  Å), over the range  $2.57^{\circ} < \theta < 36.48^{\circ}$ . Bruker APEX2 and SAINT softwares (2007) were used for data collection, refinement and reduction. Absorption corrections were made using SADABS (Sheldrick 1997). Bruker SHELXTL (2000) was used for space group determination, structure refinement, graphics and structure reporting. Crystal parameters, data collection details and results of the refinements are summarized in **Table 5.1**.

#### 5.2.5 Characterization of aqueous solutions of complexes

The preparation of the water-methanolic (1:1 v/v) solutions of metal(II) complexes (8 - 11) and procedures for the conductivity measurement, ESI-MS, UV-visible and fluorescence study were the same as those in Chapter 3 Section 3.2.5. Circular dichroism (CD) study of the chirality of metal complexes was carried out with a 1.0 mm quartz cell using a Jasco J-810 spectropolarimeter. Solutions of copper complex (2.5 x  $10^{-4}$  M) and zinc complex (1.0 mM) were prepared by using deionised water.

	8	9	10	11
Empirical formula	CuC <sub>16</sub> H <sub>22</sub> N <sub>3</sub> O <sub>6</sub> Cl	CuC <sub>16</sub> H <sub>22</sub> N <sub>3</sub> O <sub>6</sub> Cl	ZnC <sub>16</sub> H <sub>22</sub> N <sub>3</sub> O <sub>6</sub> Cl	ZnC <sub>16</sub> H <sub>22</sub> N <sub>3</sub> O <sub>6</sub> Cl
Formula weight	451.36	451.36	453.19	453.19
Temperature (°C)	25	- 170	20	20
Crystal system and Space group	Monoclinic, P2(1)	Monoclinic, P2(1)	Monoclinic, P2(1)	Monoclinic, P2(1)
Unit cell	a = 7.0809(13)	a = 6.9777(2);	a = 6.9963(7)	a = 7.0809(13)
dimensions (Å)	b = 10.3455(18)	b = 10.2734(4);	b = 10.3330(10)	b = 10.3455(18)
	c = 12.564(2)	c = 12.5168(4)	c = 12.7290(12)	c = 12.564(2)
Volume (Å <sup>3</sup> )	915.2	893.47	914.9(15)	937.3(3)
Z	2	2	2	2
Density (calculated) (Mg/m <sup>3</sup> )	1.638	1.678	1.645	1.606
Absorption coefficient (mm <sup>-1</sup> )	1.379	1.412	1.528	1.491
<i>F</i> (000) (mm)	466	466	468	468
Crystal size (mm)	0.49 x 0.16 x 0.09	0.40 x 0.36 x 0.32	0.35 x 0.25 x 0.15	0.25 x 0.10 x 0.05
θ range for data collection (°)	1.60 – 25.50	2.57 – 36.48	1.61 – 27.49	1.60 – 25.00
Index ranges	-7 ≤ h ≤ 8	-11 ≤ <i>h</i> ≤ 11;	-9 ≤ h ≤ 9	-8 ≤ h ≤ 8
	-12 ≤ k ≤ 12	-17 ≤ <i>k</i> ≤ 17;	-13 ≤ k ≤ 13	-12 ≤ k ≤ 12
	-15 ≤ l ≤ 15	0 ≤ / ≤ 20	-15 ≤ I ≤ 16	-15 ≤ l ≤ 15
Reflections collected	5526	19941	8550	7316
Independent reflections	3238	8146	4058	3250
Data/restraints/parameters	3238/10/280	8146/1/263	4058/10/272	3250/10/264
Goodness-of-fit on F <sup>2</sup>	1.030	1.049	1.075	1.007
Final R indices $[l > 2(\sigma)I]$	<i>R</i> = 0.031; <i>w</i> R = 0.071	<i>R</i> = 0.0274; w <i>R</i> = 0.0640	<i>R</i> = 0.0523; <i>w</i> R = 0.1491	<i>R</i> = 0.0579; <i>w</i> R = 0.1348
R indices (all data)	<i>R</i> = 0.033; <i>w</i> R = 0.072	R = 0.0309; w $R = 0.0640$	<i>R</i> = 0.0585; <i>w</i> R = 0.1530	<i>R</i> = 0.0811; <i>w</i> R = 0.1476
Largest dif. Peak and hole (e Å <sup>3</sup> )	0.29, -0.27	0.387, - 0.787	1.535, -0.741	0.994, -0.694
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# Table 5.1: Crystal data and structure refinement for metal(II) complexes, 7 - 10

#### 5.3 **RESULT AND DISCUSSION**

#### 5.3.1 Characterization of solids complexes

A series of threoninate complexes were prepared with heterocyclic phen ligand and two chosen late transition metal ( $Cu^{2+}$  and  $Zn^{2+}$ ). [M(phen)(AA)(H<sub>2</sub>O)Cl].2H<sub>2</sub>O complexes were prepared by modifying previously published methods (Abdel-Rahman et al., 1996; Zhang et al., 2004; Rizzi et al., 2000; Yodoshi et al., 2007). AA represents amino acid used, L-threonine or D-threonine. Blue crystals were obtained for both Cu(II) complexes,  $[Cu(phen)(L-thr)(H_2O)Cl] \cdot 2H_2O 8$  (yield, ~85 %) and  $[Cu(phen)(D-thr)(H_2O)Cl] \cdot 2H_2O$  9 (yield, ~82 %). For [Zn(phen)(Lthr)(H<sub>2</sub>O)Cl]·2H<sub>2</sub>O 10 (yield, ~80 %) and  $[Zn(phen)(D-thr)(H_2O)Cl]·2H_2O$ 11 (yield, ~82 %), white crystals were obtained. Based on microanalysis results, the complexes formulated [Cu(phen)(Lcan be as thr)(H<sub>2</sub>O)Cl].2H<sub>2</sub>O 8, [Cu(phen)(D-thr)(H<sub>2</sub>O)Cl].2H<sub>2</sub>O 9, [Zn(phen)(Lthr)( $H_2O$ )Cl].2 $H_2O$  10 and [Zn(phen)(D-thr)( $H_2O$ )Cl].2 $H_2O$  11. These and other physicochemical data are listed in Table 5.2.

Complex		8	9	10	11
Molecular formulae		$\begin{array}{l} [Cu(C_4H_8NO_3) \\ (C_{12}H_8N_2)(H_2O)CI] \\ \cdot 2H_2O \end{array}$	$ \begin{array}{l} [Cu(C_4H_8NO_3) \\ (C_{12}H_8N_2)(H_2O)CI] \\ \cdot 2H_2O \end{array} $	$\begin{array}{l} [Zn(C_4H_8NO_3) \\ (C_{12}H_8N_2)(H_2O)CI] \\ \cdot 2H_2O \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{l} [Zn(C_4H_8NO_3) \\ (C_{12}H_8N_2)(H_2O)CI] \\ \cdot 2H_2O \end{array}$
Molecular weight (g/mo	ol)	451.36	451.36	453.19	453.19
% yield		~ 85 %	~ 82 %	~ 80 %	~ 82 %
Colour		Blue crystals	Blue crystals	White crystals	White crystals
CHN elemental	С	42.58 (42.26)	42.58 (42.21)	42.40 (42.50)	42.40 (42.70)
analysis, %	н	4.91 (4.61)	4.91 (4.38)	4.89 (4.71)	4.89 (4.70)
Calculated (Found)	Ν	9.31 (9.31)	9.31 (9.18)	9.27 (9.64)	9.27 (9.73)

 Table 5.2: Physical and chemical data of metal(II) complexes, 8 - 11

The vibration peaks observed at 3421 (complexes 8 - 9) and 3391 cm<sup>-1</sup> (complexes 10 - 11) suggested the presence of coordinated water or lattice water molecule(s) (Abdel-Rahman et al., 1996). All the four complexes exhibit two bands, one in the range of 1615 - 1623 cm<sup>-1</sup> and another at about 1395 cm<sup>-1</sup> <sup>1</sup>, which are characteristic for  $v_{asy}(COO^{-})$  and  $v_{sym}(COO^{-})$  of the COO<sup>-</sup> group present in amino acid. The free amino acid  $v_{asy}(COO^{-})$  is observed at frequency 1630 cm<sup>-1</sup> (Appendix 5.1) while the corresponding  $v_{asy}(COO^{-})$ stretching vibrations of the four complexes were shifted to lower frequencies suggesting the terminal coordination mode of carboxylate group of threonine to the copper/zinc ion (Yang et al., 2003). The difference between  $v_{asv}(COO^{-})$ and  $v_{sym}(COO^{-})$  stretching frequencies ( $\Delta v$ ) value was used to determine the nature of binding of carboxylate to metal ion. The  $\Delta v$  values of all four complexes are more than 200 cm<sup>-1</sup>, which clearly indicate unidentate binding of carboxylate group to metal ion (Abdel-Rahman et al., 1996; Jin and Ranford, 2000; Zhang et al., 2004; Jia et al., 2010; Arjmand et al., 2010). The free amino acid v(C-N) stretching is at approximately 1184 cm<sup>-1</sup> and this band shifted to lower frequency at 1165 cm<sup>-1</sup> for its complex, suggesting coordination of the amino nitrogen atom. In other words, FTIR analyses suggest the bidentate coordination of amino acid ligand to metal through -COO<sup>-</sup> and –NH<sub>2</sub> groups (Nakamoto et al., 1978; Abdel-Rahman et al., 1996; Versiane et al., 2006).

Also, the v(C=N) and v(C=C) stretching frequencies of free phen ligand are observed at 1505 and 1422 cm<sup>-1</sup> (**Appendix 3.2**). In the infrared

spectra of complexes **8** - **11**, the v(C=N) stretching band shifted to a higher frequencies at 1524 cm<sup>-1</sup> (complexes **8** and **9**) and 1520 cm<sup>-1</sup> (complexes **10** and **11**). The v(C=C) stretching peaks are also observed at a higher frequencies compared to those of free phen ligand, at 1434 and 1590 cm<sup>-1</sup> in both Cu(II) complexes **8** and **9**. In Zn(II) complexes (**10** and **11**), the v(C=C) stretching peaks are observed at 1432 and 1583 cm<sup>-1</sup>. Both v(C=N) and v(C=C) stretching shifted to a higher frequency upon complexation (Jin and Ranford 2000; Zhang et al., 2004). The literature value of v(M-N), v(M-O) and v(M-CI) stretching frequencies are found below 400 cm<sup>-1</sup>. These peaks are beyond the detection of the FTIR spectrophotometer used (Nakamoto 1977; Reddy et al., 2006). In conclusion, FTIR spectral analysis of complexes **8** - **11** (**Appendix 5.2**) shows that both phen and threoninate ligands are coordinated to the metal (Cu(II) and Zn(II)) centres respectively.

Bond	8	9	10	11	Remarks
v(O-H)	3421(b)	3421(b)	3391(b)	3391(b)	water
v(C-H)	3048(w)	3048(w)	3054(w)	3054(w)	
V(C-C)	1590(sh)	1590(sh)	1583(sh)	1583(sh)	
₹(8-8)	1434(m)	1434(m)	1432(m)	1433(m)	
v(C=N)	1524(m)	1524(m)	1520(m)	1520(m)	
v(C-H) Out-of-plane	725(s), 738(w), 790(w), 851(s), 900(m)	725(s), 738(w), 790(w), 851(s), 900(m)	729(s), 787(w), 851(s), 898(m)	729(s), 788(w), 851(s), 898(m)	Phen
v(COO <sup>-</sup> ) <sub>as</sub>	1623(s)	1623(s)	1616(s)	1615(s)	
v(COO <sup>-</sup> ) <sub>sy</sub>	1395(s)	1395(s)	1395(s)	1395(s)	
v(N-H)	3313(b)	3313(b)	3329(b)	3329(b)	
v(C-H)	2973(w)	2973(w)	2976(m) 2990(w)	2976(m) 2990(w)	
(C-H)bend	1458(m)	1458(m)	1452(m)	1453(m)	
(C-H)rock	1347(m)	1347(m)	1351(m)	1351(m)	
v(C-N)	1165(m)	1165(m)	1154(m)	1154(m)	Threonine
v(C-C) + v(C-O)	872(w)	872(w)	866(w)	867(w)	
ρ(CH <sub>3</sub> ) + ρ (NH <sub>2</sub> )	1308(w), 936(w), 972(w)	1307(w) 971(w)	1311(w) 966(w)	1311(w) 966(w)	
ρ(C=O)	648(w)	648(w)	643(w)	643(w)	
$\delta(NH_2)_{wagg}$ + $U(C-N)$	1052(m)	1052(m)	1047(m)	1047(m)	
$\delta(NH_2)_{wagg}$	807(m)	807(m)	802(w)	802(w)	

 Table 5.3: Characteristic Infrared band assignments of metal(II) complexes, 8 - 11

Elemental analysis of complexes 8 and 9 allows their formulation as  $[Cu(phen)(L-thr)(H_2O)Cl] \cdot 2H_2O$  and  $[Cu(phen)(D-thr)(H_2O)Cl] \cdot 2H_2O$ . The TG-DTG curves (Appendices 5.3 - 5.4) of the pair of enantiomeric Cu(II) complexes 8 and 9 have five decomposition peaks (Table 5.4). In the DTG curves for complexes 8 and 9, it can be seen that all five decomposition steps are endothermic processes. The loss of two water molecules (Calc.: 8.0 %; Found: 7.9 % (8); 7.8 % (9)) for both Cu(II) complexes occurred in the first step of decomposition at around 100 °C, suggesting that they are lattice water molecules. In the second decomposition step, loss of another water molecule (Calc.: 4.0 %; Found: 3.9 % (8); 3.3 % (9)) for both Cu(II) complexes at above 100 °C suggests coordinated water molecule. This means that both complexes 8 and 9 have two lattice water molecules and one coordinated water molecule (*i.e.* aqua ligand). A weight loss of 7.8 % (complex 8) and 7.3 % (complex 9) (Calc.: 7.9 %) were observed at around 168 °C. These can be assigned to the removal of one chloro ligand from each of the complexes. The high decomposition temperature suggests that the chloro ligand is coordinated into the Cu(II) center as reported elsewhere (Fouad et al., 2010; Mishra et al., 2012). The above analyses of thermal data are consistent with the earlier CHN analytical data (Table 5.2), infrared spectroscopic analyses (Table 5.3) and Xray data (Table 5.5) which show the presence of coordinated chloride, one coordinated water molecule and two lattice water molecules. The last two decomposition steps could not be interpreted.

The TGA curves of Zn(II) complexes **10** and **11** also showed five steps of decomposition in the range of 25 - 800 °C. In the first decomposition step, a peak (Calc.: 7.9 %, Found: 7.6 % (10); 6.7 % (11)) was observed at around 60 °C, which corresponds to the loss of two water molecules. The expulsion of water molecules at low temperature seems to suggest that they are lattice water molecules and not coordinated water molecules. The second weight loss was observed at ca. 90 °C. This involved a weight loss of 4.0 % and 3.8 % (Calc.: 4.0 %) which can be ascribed to loss of one water molecule for complexes 10 and 11 respectively. Because of the higher decomposition temperature, this water molecule could be the aqua ligand, *i.e.* coordinated water. Both dehydration process, *i.e.* first and second decomposition steps, in Zn(II) complexes, are endothermic reactions as shown in DTG curve (Appendices 5.5 - 5.6). The third decomposition step at ~204 °C for both Zn(II) complexes can be interpreted as removal of chloro ligand as the weight loss of 6.0 % (10) and 4.1 % (11) approximately matched the theoretical loss of a chloride (Calc.: 7.8 %). This thermal data matched well with the CHN analytical data, X-ray data and infrared result. In the final decomposition stage, a broad curve and large weight loss was observed for both Zn(II) complexes. This decomposition step could have involved more than one chemical processes. As a result, it is difficult to correlate these steps accurately with proper decomposition products. All four TGA curves for Cu(II) and Zn(II) complexes show that they underwent similar dissociation processes at the first three stages. Firstly, dehydration of two lattice water molecules followed by removal of one aqua molecule from the metal(II) complexes. Decomposition process continue with the removal of chloro ligand from both Cu(II) and Zn(II) complexes.

Molecular formulae	Decomposition range (°C)	Wt. % loss Calc. (Found)	Assignment (Removal)
	28 - 98 (48) <sup>b</sup>	8.0 (7.9)	2 mole of lattice water
[Cu(C <sub>12</sub> Π <sub>8</sub> IN <sub>2</sub> )(C <sub>4</sub> Π <sub>8</sub> INO <sub>3</sub> )(Π <sub>2</sub> O)CIJ·2Π <sub>2</sub> O ( <b>8)</b>	105 - 144 (134) <sup>b</sup>	4.0 (3.9)	1 mole of coordinated water molecule
	164 - 178 (169) <sup>b</sup>	7.9 (7.8)	1 mole of Cl <sup>-</sup>
[Cu(C <sub>12</sub> H <sub>8</sub> N <sub>2</sub> )(C <sub>4</sub> H <sub>8</sub> NO <sub>3</sub> )(H <sub>2</sub> O)Cl]·2H <sub>2</sub> O	29 -115 (44) <sup>b</sup>	8.0 (7.8)	2 mole of lattice water
(9)	115 - 147 (129)⁵	4.0 (3.3)	1 mole of coordinated water molecule
	147 - 180 (167) <sup>b</sup>	7.9 (7.3)	1 mole of Cl <sup>-</sup>
	39 - 79 (60) <sup>b</sup>	7.9 (7.6)	2 mole of lattice water
[Zn(C <sub>12</sub> H <sub>8</sub> N <sub>2</sub> )(C <sub>4</sub> H <sub>8</sub> NO <sub>3</sub> )(H <sub>2</sub> O)Cl]·2H <sub>2</sub> O (10)	79 - 132 (91) <sup>b</sup>	4.0 (4.0)	1 mole of coordinated water molecule
	132 - 232 (204) <sup>b</sup>	7.8 (6.0)	1 mole of Cl <sup>-</sup>
	26 - 72 (60) <sup>b</sup>	7.9 (6.7)	2 mole of lattice water
[Zn(C <sub>12</sub> H <sub>8</sub> N <sub>2</sub> )(C <sub>4</sub> H <sub>8</sub> NO <sub>3</sub> )(H <sub>2</sub> O)Cl]·2H <sub>2</sub> O <b>(11)</b>	73 - 99 (88) <sup>b</sup>	4.0 (3.8)	1 mole of coordinated water molecule
	99 - 225 (204) <sup>b</sup>	7.8 (4.1)	1 mole of Cl <sup>-</sup>

### **Table 5.4:** TGA data<sup>a</sup> for metal(II) complexes, 8 - 11.

<sup>a</sup> Only the first three decomposition steps was tabulated in the table due to its importance to determine the properties of water molecules and chloride atom. <sup>b</sup> Value in the brackets refers to the inflection points of each decomposition stage.

### 5.3.2 Analysis of crystal structures

The crystal structures of Cu(II) complexes (8 and 9) and Zn(II) complexes (10 and 11) are shown in Figure 5.1 and Figure 5.2 and these structures are similar. Each of these structures depicts a neutral compound which can be formulated as  $[M(phen)(AA)(H_2O)CI]$  and two lattice water molecules. Thus, all of them can be formulated as  $[M(phen)(AA)(H_2O)CI] \cdot 2H_2O$  (M is Cu(II) or Zn(II); AA is L-thr or D-thr).

The central M(II) ion is six-coordinated and has a distorted octahedral geometry. The phen ligand behaves as a *N*,*N*-bidentate ligand. Phen ligand coordinated to the metal centre *via* its two nitrogen atoms. The threoninate ligand behave as a *N*,*O*-bidentate ligand. The threoninate ligand is coordinated *via* its amino nitrogen atom and carboxylate oxygen atom. Both threoninate and phen ligands coordinated to the metal centre at the equatorial positions. The fifth and sixth vacant coordinated chloride ion, Cl(1). Selected bond lengths and angles are listed in **Table 5.5**.



Figure 5.1: Crystal structure of (a)  $[Cu(phen)(L-thr)(H_2O)Cl] \cdot 2H_2O 8$ ; (b)  $[Cu(phen)(D-thr)(H_2O)Cl] \cdot 2H_2O 9$ 



Figure 5.2: Crystal structure of (a)  $[Zn(phen)(L-thr)(H_2O)Cl] \cdot 2H_2O$  10; (b)  $[Zn(phen)(D-thr)(H_2O)Cl] \cdot 2H_2O$  11

The equatorial Cu(1)-O(2) and Cu(1)-N(3) bond lengths are 1.969(2) Å, 1.990(3) Å in complex **8** and the Cu(1)-O(1) and Cu(1)-N(1) bond lengths are 1.9742(10) Å, 1.9959(12) Å in complex **9**. The bond lengths of threoninate to the metal centre are similar to those found in other copper-amino acid complexes such as [Cu(phen)(L-thr)(H<sub>2</sub>O)](ClO<sub>4</sub>), [Cu(OH<sub>2</sub>)(phen)(Lphe)]NO<sub>3</sub>·H<sub>2</sub>O, [Cu(L-thr)<sub>2</sub>]·H<sub>2</sub>O, [Cu(phen)(Gly)Cl]<sub>2</sub>·7H<sub>2</sub>O, [Cu(bpy)(Lpro)(H<sub>2</sub>O)]·NO<sub>3</sub> (L-thr = L-threoninate and L-phe = L-phenylalanine; Gly = glycine; bpy = 2,2'-bipyridine) (Abdel-Rahman et al., 1996; Rizzi et al., 2000; Zhang et al., 2004; Rao et al., 2007; Yodoshi et al., 2007). The bond lengths of Zn-O<sub>thr</sub> and Zn-N<sub>thr</sub> are 2.057(4) Å, 2.083(5) Å in complex **10** and 2.118(5) Å and 2.161(6) Å in complex **11**, respectively. The bite angles O<sub>thr</sub> – M(1) – N<sub>thr</sub> for chelated amino acids to the metal centres in complexes **8** - **11** are in the range of 82 - 84°.

Bond lengths of the coordinated phen nitrogen atoms to the Cu(II) and Zn(II) centres are close to the corresponding literature values of Cu(II)-phen and Zn(II)-phen complexes. The bite angle  $N_{phen} - M(1) - N_{phen}$  of both Cu(II) and Zn(II) complexes are in the range of 78 - 82°, which are close to the corresponding values reported for some phenanthroline complexes (Abdel-Rahman et al., 1996; Paulovicova et al., 2001; Zhang et al., 2004; Yodoshi et al., 2007; Jia et al., 2010). On the other hand, the M(1)-Cl(1) distance and M(1)-O<sub>aqua</sub> distance are longer than the corresponding values reported for the known Cu(II) and Zn(II) complexes with aqua and chloro ligands (Su et al., 1993; Abdel-Rahman et al., 1996; Ng et al., 2003; Zhang et al., 2004; Jia et al.,

2010). Thus, the chloro and aqua ligands are probably weakly bounded to the M(II) atom and they may dissociate when dissolved in water.

Basically, each of the threoninate ligand has both H-acceptor and Hdonor sites and the lattice water molecules act as H-donor sites. Hydrogen bonding links each [M(phen)(AA)(H<sub>2</sub>O)Cl]·2H<sub>2</sub>O (M = Cu or Zn) molecule with adjacent molecules in the lattice into 3D supramolecular frameworks. Interestingly, both pairs of Cu(II) and Zn(II) enantiomers show a mirror image in the direction of *a*-axis (**Figures 5.3** – **5.4**). This suggests that the chirality of complexes **8** - **11** are controlled by the chirality of ligands like those Cu(II) and Cd(II) complexes reported by Li and co-workers (2013).



Figure 5.3: The molecular packing with hydrogen-bonding of complex 8 (left) and its enantiomer, complex 9 (right) in the direction of a-axis. The mirror is drawn as a dash line.



**Figure 5.4:** The molecular structure with hydrogen-bonding of complex **10** (left) and its enantiomer, complex **11** (right) in the direction of *a*-axis. The mirror is drawn as a dash line.

Bond lengths, (Å)							
8		9		10		11	
Cu(1) - N(1)	2.015(3)	Cu(1) - N(2)	2.0121(12)	Zn(1) – N(1)	2.073(5)	Zn(1) – N(1)	2.078(6)
Cu(1) - N(2)	2.031(3)	Cu(1) - N(3)	2.0296(12)	Zn(1) – N(2)	2.136(5)	Zn(1) – N(2)	2.131(7)
Cu(1) - N(3)	1.990(3)	Cu(1) - N(1)	1.9959(12)	Zn(1) – O(1)	2.057(4)	Zn(1) – O(1)	2.083(5)
Cu(1) - O(2)	1.969(2)	Cu(1) - O(1)	1.9742(10)	Zn(1) – N(3)	2.118(5)	Zn(1) – N(3)	2.161(6)
Cu(1) - O(4)	2.404(3)	Cu(1) - O(4)	2.3465(10)	Zn(1) – O1W	2.201(4)	Zn(1) – O1W	2.222(5)
Cu(1) - Cl(1)	2.780(3)	Cu(1) - Cl(1)	2.772(3)	Zn(1) – Cl(1)	2.5729(13)	Zn(1) - Cl(1)	2.5929(19)
		· ·	Bond	angles, (°)		· · · · ·	
8		9		10		11	
O(2) - Cu(1) - N(3)	84.45(11)	O(1) - Cu(1) - N(1)	84.43(5)	O(1) - Zn(1) - N(1)	81.96(18)	O(1) - Zn(1) - N(1)	81.8(2)
O(2) - Cu(1) - N(1)	96.35(9)	O(1) - Cu(1) - N(2)	96.61(12)	O(1) - Zn(1) - N(3)	100.26(16)	O(1) - Zn(1) - N(3)	172.0(2)
O(2) - Cu(1) - N(2)	172.04(10)	O(1) - Cu(1) - N(3)	172.77(4)	O(1) - Zn(1) - N(2)	171.49(17)	O(1) - Zn(1) - N(2)	100.3(2)
O(2) - Cu(1) - O(4)	86.01(11)	O(1) - Cu(1) - O(4)	86.80(4)	O(1) – Zn(1) – O1W	85.59(19)	O(1) - Zn(1) - O1W	86.1(3)
N(3) - Cu(1) - N(1)	178.54(12)	N(1) - Cu(1) - N(2)	177.71(5)	N(1) - Zn(1) - N(3)	177.8(2)	N(1) - Zn(1) - N(3)	99.7(2)
N(3) - Cu(1) - N(2)	97.29(10)	N(1) - Cu(1) - N(3)	97.16(5)	N(1) - Zn(1) - N(2)	99.56(17)	N(1) - Zn(1) - N(2)	177.9(3)
N(3) - Cu(1) - O(4)	88.18(11)	N(2) - Cu(1) - N(3)	82.06(5)	N(3) - Zn(1) - N(2)	78.3(2)	N(3) - Zn(1) - N(2)	78.4(3)
N(1) - Cu(1) - O(4)	93.09(10)	N(1) - Cu(1) - O(4)	88.24(4)	N(1) – Zn(1) – O1W	89.33(18)	N(1) - Zn(1) - O1W	89.7(3)
N(2) - Cu(1) - O(4)	86.28(11)	N(2) - Cu(1) - O(4)	93.85(4)	N(3) - Zn(1) - O1W	91.07(18)	N(3) - Zn(1) - O1W	86.0(3)
N(1) - Cu(1) - N(2)	82.09(12)	N(3) - Cu(1) - O(4)	86.20(4)	N(2) – Zn(1) – O1W	86.06(19)	N(2) – Zn(1) – O1W	90.9(2)

# Table 5.5: Selected bond lengths, $(\text{\AA})$ and bond angles $(^{\circ})$ for complexes 8 - 11.

#### 5.3.3 Characterization of aqueous solutions of complexes

To study the species of metal(II)-phen-threoninate complexes **8** - **11** respectively in solution, complexes were dissolved in water-methanol (1:1 v/v) mixture and each solution was analysed by using Electrospray Ionisation Mass Spectrometry (ESI-MS). All the metal(II) complexes were studied by ESI-MS in positive ion mode. The mass spectrum of complex **8** shows a base peak at an m/z value of 360.8 (calc. 361.8, relative abundance: 100 %) could be assigned to [ $^{63}$ Cu(phen)(L-thr)]<sup>+</sup>. The isotopic peak at m/z value of 362.8 (calc. 362.9, relative abundance: 42 %) could be assigned to [ $^{64}$ Cu(phen)(L-thr)]<sup>+</sup>. The mass spectrum of complex **9** shows a base peak at an m/z value of 360.9 (calc. 361.8, relative abundance: 46 %). These peaks could be assigned to [ $^{63}$ Cu(phen)(D-thr)]<sup>+</sup> and [ $^{64}$ Cu(phen)(D-thr)]<sup>+</sup>, respectively. The high intensity peak at m/z 274 is due to the presence of low amount of impurity in the sample. The same peak (m/z 274) is observed in the ESI mass spectrum of phen ligand.

The base peak observed at m/z 361.7 in the ESI mass spectrum of complex **10** matched well with the calculated mass for  $[^{67}Zn(phen)(L-thr)]^+$  (calc.: 363.7, relative abundance: 100 %). The isotopic peaks at m/z values of 359.7 (calc. 360.9, relative abundance: 9 %), 360.8 (calc. 362.9, relative abundance: 15 %), 363.7 (calc. 364.9, relative abundance: 53 %) and 365.7 (calc. 366.9, relative abundance: 31 %) in the ESI mass spectrum of complex

**10** are assigned to  $[Zn(phen)(L-threo)]^+$  species with different zinc isotopes (<sup>64</sup>Zn, <sup>66</sup>Zn, <sup>68</sup>Zn and <sup>70</sup>Zn). In the case of complex **11**, peak at m/z 361.8 matched well with the calculated mass for  $[^{64}Zn(phen)(D-thr)]^+$  (calc.: 360.9, relative abundance: 45 %). There are two explanations for the lower relative abundance in  $[^{64}Zn(phen)(D-thr)]^+$ . This phenomenon might be due to the lower concentration used or the high temperature applied to the capillary system. The temperature used (150 °C) to obtain ESI mass spectrum might be too high temperature and lead to degradation or break down of the complexes. The isotopic peaks at m/z values of 363.7 (calc. 362.9, relative abundance: 21 %), 364.7 (calc. 363.9, relative abundance: 8 %), 365.7 (calc. 364.9, relative abundance: 16 %) and 366.7 (calc. 366.9, relative abundance: 2 %) in the ESI mass spectrum of complex **11** are similarly assigned to [Zn(phen)(L-threo)]<sup>+</sup> species with different zinc isotopes (<sup>66</sup>Zn, <sup>67</sup>Zn, <sup>68</sup>Zn and <sup>70</sup>Zn).

The messy mass spectra of complexes 10 and 11 might be due to the presence of impurity in the sample. By comparing ESI mass spectra of complexes 10 and 11 with those of phen and threonine ligands, the impurity could be assigned to unreacted phen and threonine. Two similar peaks at m/z212 and 302 in ESI mass spectra of complexes 10 and 11 were observed at ESI mass spectrum of phen ligand. Other peaks at m/z 289, 482 and 541 were observed at ESI mass spectrum of L-threonine ligand too. All the cationic complex species detected in the ESI mass spectra were formed via dissociation of the aqua and the anionic chloride ligands from their respective complexes 8 11 (Ng al., 2006; Arjmand 2010). et et al.,

Complex	Fragment	m/z (calculated)	<i>m/</i> z (Found)
8	[ <sup>63</sup> Cu(phen)(L-thr)]⁺	361.8	360.8
	[ <sup>64</sup> Cu(phen)(L-thr)] <sup>+</sup>	362.8	362.9
9	[ <sup>63</sup> Cu(phen)(D-thr)] <sup>+</sup>	361.8	360.9
	[ <sup>64</sup> Cu(phen)(D-thr)] <sup>+</sup>	362.8	362.9
10	[ <sup>64</sup> Zn(phen)(L-thr)] <sup>+</sup>	360.9	359.7
	[ <sup>66</sup> Zn(phen)(L-thr)] <sup>+</sup>	362.9	360.8
	[ <sup>67</sup> Zn(phen)(L-thr)] <sup>+</sup>	363.9	361.7
	[ <sup>68</sup> Zn(phen)(L-thr)] <sup>+</sup>	364.9	363.7
	[ <sup>70</sup> Zn(phen)(L-thr)] <sup>+</sup>	366.9	365.7
11	[ <sup>64</sup> Zn(phen)(D-thr)] <sup>+</sup>	360.9	361.8
	[ <sup>66</sup> Zn(phen)(D-thr)]⁺	362.9	363.7
	[ <sup>67</sup> Zn(phen)(D-thr)] <sup>+</sup>	363.9	364.7
	[ <sup>68</sup> Zn(phen)(D-thr)]⁺	364.9	365.7
	[ <sup>70</sup> Zn(phen)(D-thr)] <sup>+</sup>	366.9	366.7

 Table 5.6: ESI-MS data for metal(II) complexes, 8 - 11

Conductivity measurement is a useful technique to study the type of species in solution. The molar conductivities of copper(II) chloride, zinc(II) chloride, phen, L-threonine, D-threonine, Cu(II) and Zn(II) complexes were determined for time points of up to 24 hours (Figure 5.5). Complexes 8 - 11, copper(II) chloride, zinc(II) chloride, phen, L-threonine and D-threonine were dissolved in a 1:1 (v/v) water-methanol mixture and their conductivities were measured at 25 °C. The molar conductivity of Cu(II) (52 – 53  $\Omega^{-1}$  cm<sup>2</sup> mol<sup>-1</sup>) and Zn(II)  $(62 - 65 \Omega^{-1} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ mol}^{-1})$  complex solutions remains unchanged from 0 to 24 hours. The CuCl<sub>2</sub> and ZnCl<sub>2</sub> solutions have molar conductivity values of about 119 and 110  $\Omega^{-1}$  cm<sup>2</sup> mol<sup>-1</sup> respectively, typical of 2:1 electrolytes. These values remain unchanged up to 24 hours. Metal(II) salts (CuCl<sub>2</sub> and ZnCl<sub>2</sub>) in aqueous solutions exist as  $M^{2+}$  and Cl<sup>-</sup> ions. Low molar conductivities (< 5  $\Omega^{-1}$  cm<sup>2</sup> mol<sup>-1</sup>) of respective solutions of the free ligands (phen, L-thr and D-thr) indicate their non-electrolyte in nature. Molar conductivities of complexes 8 - 11 are lower than those reported cationic metal complexes with uncoordinated Cl<sup>-</sup> anion (66 - 73  $\Omega^{-1}$  cm<sup>2</sup> mol<sup>-1</sup>)  $([(H_2L)Co(phen)]Cl \cdot 4H_2O, [(H_2L)Cu(ox)]Cl \cdot 3H_2O, [(H_2L)Zn(ox)]Cl \cdot 4H_2O$ where  $H_2L$  = thiocarbohydrazone; ox = oxalate) (Shebl et al., 2010). From the results obtained, all metal(II) complexes **8** - **11** are classified as 1:1 electrolytes and probably exist as  $[M(phen)(AA)]^+$  or  $[M(phen)(AA)(H_2O)]^+$  (where M = Cu or Zn; AA = L-thr or D-thr) and Cl<sup>-</sup> ions (Jin and Ranford 2000; Ng et al., 2006; Arjmand et al., 2010; Shebl et al, 2010). The conductivity measurements results obtained are consistent with the ESI-MS data obtained earlier.



**Figure 5.5:** Molar conductivity of 1 mM of **8** - **11** and other compounds in deionised water-methanol (1:1 v/v) at 25 °C.

Both Cu(II) complexes **8** and **9** in aqueous medium (deionised water: methanol 1:1 v/v) show a broad d-d transition band centred at 611 nm in their respective visible spectra (Paulovicova et al., 2001; Rao et al., 2007; Chetana et al., 2009). The shift of the d-d band position with respect to that in the

CuCl<sub>2</sub> solution (Appendix 5.11) is a consequence of the coordination of phen and threonine ligands to Cu(II) ion. As these values are far from that of aqueous  $CuCl_2$  at 831 nm (Ng et al., 2006), it is reasonable to assume that most of the complexes 8 and 9 species are not dissociated in an aqueous medium. The electronic spectra of the complexes 8 and 9 matched well with the previously reported square pyramidal Cu(II) complexes, [Cu(phen)(Lala)( $H_2O$ )]NO<sub>3</sub>,  $[Cu(phen)(L-thr)(H_2O)]NO_3 \cdot ClO_4$ and [Cu(phen)(L $pro(H_2O)$ ]NO<sub>3</sub> (L-ala = L-alanine; L-thr = L-threonine; L-pro = L-proline) (Paulovicova et al., 2001; Rao et al., 2007; Chetana et al., 2009). By comparing the  $\lambda_{max}$  at visible spectra (611 nm) with the literature values (611 -615 nm), it suggests that Cu(II) complexes, 8 and 9 could adopt a square pyramidal geometry in the solution (Paulovicova et al., 2001; Rao et al., 2007; Chetana et al., 2009). In contrast, the X-ray data show that the metal centre of both copper(II) complexes adopted an octahedral coordination geometry in solid state. The weakly bonded chloro ligand dissociated in aqueous solutions of complexes 8 and 9, and is likely to be replaced by solvent water molecule.

Complex	λ <sub>em</sub> (nm)	λ <sub>abs</sub> (nm), ε (Μ <sup>-1</sup> cm <sup>-1</sup> )	Assignment
	225 ( $\epsilon$ = 33840); 273 ( $\epsilon$ = 32540); 294 ( $\epsilon$ = 10270)		π→π*(phen)
0	301, 377	611	d-d
0	361 377	225 (ε = 36490); 273 (ε = 35240); 294 (ε = 10940)	π→π*(phen)
	501, 577	611	d-d
10	366, 380	227 (ε = 35560); 271 (ε = 32550); 292 (ε = 10330)	π→π*(phen)
11	366, 380	227 (ε = 42530); 271 (ε = 38900); 292 (ε = 12460)	π→π*(phen)

 Table 5.7: Electronic absorption and emission data for metal(II) complexes, 8 - 11.

The UV spectra of complexes 8 - 11 show intense bands at ~ 225 nm, ~273 nm and ~294 nm (Table 5.7) which may be attributed to the second and

higher order internal  $\pi$ - $\pi$ \* transitions of the coordinated phen (Jin et al., 2000). The observations matched well with the results for the known phenanthroline complexes,  $[Cu(phen)(acac)(NO_3)] \cdot H_2O$ ,  $[Cu(phen)(L-thr)(H_2O)]NO_3 \cdot ClO_4$ ,  $[Cu(phen)(L-pro)(H_2O)]NO_3, [Cu_2(phen)_2(PDI-Ala)(H_2O)_2](ClO_4)_2 \cdot 2^1/_2H_2O,$  $[Cu_4(phen)_6(D,L-PDIAla)(H_2O)_2](ClO_4)_6\cdot 3H_2O$ and [Cu<sub>2</sub>(phen)<sub>2</sub>(D,L-PDIAla)(H<sub>2</sub>O)](ClO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>· $1/_{2}$ H<sub>2</sub>O (acac = acetylacetonate; L-thr = L-threonine; L-pro = L-proline; PDI-Ala = N,N'-(p-xylylene)di-alanine; D,L-PDIAla = N,N'-(p-xylylene)di-D,L-alanine) (Paulovicova et al., 2001; Zhang et al., 2004; Rao et al., 2007; Chetana et al., 2009; Jia et al., 2010). The plots of absorbance versus concentration for the three maximum absorption peaks in the UV region for complexes 8 - 11 are shown in Appendices 5.7 - 5.10. Regression lines for each plot are drawn as described in previous chapter. The correlation coefficient  $(R^2)$  values for all the plotted graphs are close to 1.0000 showing that the data obtained fit in the regression line and obeyed the Beer-Lambert Law. The average molar absorptivity values were obtained for all four ternary complexes based on the Beer-Lambert Law and the general linear equation. Thus, absorbance values of unknown solutions of these complexes at these wavelengths can be used to determine their concentrations.

Both Cu(II) and Zn(II) pairs of enantiomeric complexes in watermethanol (1:1 v/v) still retain the FL emission property of the free phen ligand in the same solvent mixture. Threonine has no FL emission. Due to conjugated structure, the free phen gives rise to a greater FL emission intensity in watermethanol (1:1 v/v) compared to Cu(II) pairs of enantiomeric complexes. When coordinated to the Cu(II) ion center, the highly emissive phen is partially quenched by Cu(II). The quenching mechanism has previously been ascribed to static quenching by Seng and coworkers in 2008. The Zn(II) complexes show an enhancement (>2X) in FL emission intensity. Higher FL emission by Zn(II) complex (compared to Cu(II) complexes) has been attributed to the full  $d^{10}$  electron configuration of the Zn(II) ion (Hu et al., 2010). The enhancement mechanism may be similar to ZnX<sub>2</sub>(phen) complexes (X = Cl, Br, I) (Ikeda et al., 1996). The chirality of the threoninato ligand of complexes does not seems to have an influence on the fluorescence emission intensities, as the same intensities were observed in the spectra of the enantiomeric pairs for both Cu(II) and Zn(II) complexes. However, the fluorescence seems to be affected by the type of metal ions, as shown in **Figure 5.6**. The order of compounds in terms of increasing FL emission intensity is  $8 \approx 9 <$  phen  $< 10 \approx 11$ .



**Figure 5.6:** Fluorescence spectra of **9** (I), **10** (II), phen (III), **7** (IV), **8** (V), L-thr (VI) and D-thr (VII) at 0.5 μM.
The circular dichroism (CD) studies are useful in determining the enantiomeric pair of metal(II) complexes. A pair of enantiomers should give rise to a mirror image in CD spectra like those reported by Ivićić and Simeon (1981). The CD spectra of the two Cu(II) complexes (8 and 9) are mirror-image of each other, showing that these two species are a pair of enantiomers. Similarly, the CD spectra of the pair of Zn(II) complexes (10 and 11) shows that they are also a pair of enantiomers (Figure 5.7). Based on the mirror image spectra obtained, it was proven that the enantiomeric pairs for both Cu(II) and Zn(II) complexes were successfully prepared.



Figure 5.7: CD spectra of (a) Cu(II) complexes, 8 - 9 and (b) Zn(II) complexes, 10 - 11

## 5.4 CONCLUSION

Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy (FTIR), elemental analysis and ESI-MS show that [Cu(phen)(L-thr)(H<sub>2</sub>O)Cl]·2H<sub>2</sub>O 8, [Cu(phen)(Dthr) $(H_2O)Cl$ ·2H<sub>2</sub>O 9, [Zn(phen)(L-thr)(H<sub>2</sub>O)Cl]·2H<sub>2</sub>O 10 and [Zn(phen)(Dthr) $(H_2O)Cl$   $\cdot 2H_2O$  **11** were successfully synthesized. All threeninate complexes, 8 - 11, have a similar distorted octahedral coordination environment around the metal(II) (Cu(II) or Zn(II)) atom in the solid state. A Cl<sup>-</sup> atom and an aqua molecule occupy the axial positions. A phen and a threonine ligand occupy the equatorial positions. Both enantiomeric pairs of Cu(II) and Zn(II) complexes have similar thermal degradation steps. Generally, all four metal(II) complexes undergo dehydration at early stages of decomposition and followed by the removal of chloro ligand. In fact, conductivity measurement data shows that these complexes are 1:1 electrolytes. These complexes, 8 - 11, probably exist as cationic  $[M(phen)(AA)(H_2O)]^+$  and anionic Cl<sup>-</sup> species in aqueous solution. The coordinated phen and threoninate ligands in complexes 8 - 11 seem to be stable within the duration of the conductivity measurement. Dissociation of the threoninate ligand would increase the molar conductivity as cationic species with two positive charges would be produced.

UV absorption aroused from the  $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$  transition of the coordinated phenanthroline ligand. Visible absorption peaks found in the electronic spectra obtained for both Cu(II) complexes spectra are assigned as d-d transition. Differential FL emission intensities are dependent on the type of metal ion. The chirality of the threoninate ligand of complexes does not seem to have an influence on the fluorescence emission intensities. There are no significant differences observed for each enantiomer pair of complexes. A change in the type of metal(II) ion influences the FL emission intensity but not the  $\lambda_{max}$  and shape of the FL emission bands. The order of complexes in terms of increasing FL emission intensity is  $\mathbf{8} \approx \mathbf{9} < \text{phen} < \mathbf{10} \approx \mathbf{11}$ . Circular dichroism (CD) spectroscopy were used to differentiate and confirm the enantiomeric pairs of the metal(II) (Cu(II) and Zn(II)) complexes in solution. The CD spectra of each pair of enantiomeric complexes are mirror-image of each other.

## CHAPTER 6

## **BIOLOGICAL STUDIES OF COBALT(II) 1,10-PHENANTHROLINE**

## COMPLEXES WITH 0,0'-MALTOL,

 $[Co(phen)(ma)Cl]{\cdot}4H_2O \ and \ [Co(phen)(ma)_2]{\cdot}5H_2O{*}$ 

## **CHAPTER 6**

## BIOLOGICAL STUDIES OF COBALT(II) 1,10-PHENANTHROLINE COMPLEXES WITH *0,0'*-MALTOL, [Co(phen)(ma)Cl]·4H<sub>2</sub>O and [Co(phen)(ma)<sub>2</sub>]·5H<sub>2</sub>O\*

## 6.1 INTRODUCTION

DNA or deoxyribonucleic acid is the genetic material in humans and almost all other organisms. This heredity material is stored as a code made up of adenine (A), guanine (G), cytosine (C) and thymine (T). DNA bases pair up with each other, *i.e.* A with T and C with G, to form units called base pairs. There are two types of nucleobases: the purines, A and G, which are fused five- and six-membered heterocyclic compounds, and the pyrimidines, C and T, which are six-membered rings heterocyclic compounds (Berg et al., 2002). DNA is a long polymer made from repeating units called nucleotides. Nucleotide consists of a base, sugar and phosphate molecule (Saenger, 1983; Alberts et al., 2002). DNA (**Figure 6.1**) is a double helix formed by base pairs attached to sugar-phosphate backbone as described by Watson and Crick (1954). The DNA double helix structure is stabilized by the base pairing between complementary strands and stacking between adjacent bases (Yakovchuk, et al., 2006).



Figure 6.1: DNA double helix structure cited from U.S. National Library of Medicine

Metal complexes are known to interact with DNA *via* covalent bonding, hydrogen bonding, intercalation, van der Waals forces and electrostatic interaction (**Figure 6.2**). Basically, metal complexes can bind to DNA in each of three different non-covalent modes which are: (a) groove binding (b) intercalation and (c) insertion.



**Figure 6.2:** The three binding modes of metal complexes with DNA: (a) groove binding, (b) intercalation, and (c) insertion. (Taken from Zeglis et al., 2007)

Small organic molecules have been extensively investigated for their use as anticancer, antiviral and antibacterial drugs in addition to their binding specificity for possible modulation and inhibition of DNA replication, transcription and recombination (Du et al., 2010). The DNA specific interactions include abasic, mismatch or bulge site recognition, specific sequence recognition and secondary structure recognition. Similarly, there is also growing research into the DNA recognition by metal complexes or metallomolecules (Boerner and Zaleski, 2005; Richards et al., 2007; Terrón et al., 2007; Zeglis et al., 2007; Keene et al., 2009). However, such DNA recognition ability of metal complexes is not well understood. The type of coordinated ligand is crucial factor in bestowing the binding site specificity and selectivity of a given metal complex. Unlike the inert and more stable Co(III) complexes, Co(II) complexes are less investigated for their interaction with DNA. Recently, preferential binding of (ethylenediamine-*N*,*N*'-diacetato)(1,10-phenanthroline)metal(II), [M(phen)(edda)], for ds(AT)<sub>6</sub> over ds(CG)<sub>6</sub> and its anticancer property were reported (Ng et al., 2008; Seng et al., 2008). Among these complexes, [Co(phen)(edda)] was the least antiproliferative against breast cancer cell line MCF7 with the IC<sub>50</sub> value of 11.4  $\mu$ M.

This chapter is an extension of Chapter 3. In this chapter, two cobalt(II) ternary complexes,  $[Co(phen)(ma)Cl]\cdot 4H_2O$  **1** and  $[Co(phen)(ma)_2]\cdot 5H_2O$  **4** synthesized in Chapter 3 were tested for their biological properties. Both Co(II) complexes, **1** and **4** were selected to gain an understanding the effect of the

number of coordinated maltolate ligand on the DNA recognition, DNA binding specificity and anticancer properties. The type of biological studies done on these two complexes included DNA binding studies, restriction enzyme inhibition, topoisomerase I inhibition and cell viability assay.

## 6.2 EXPERIMENTAL

## 6.2.1 Materials and reagents

Most of the reagents were of analytical grade and were used as supplied. The pBR322, gene ruler 1 kb DNA ladder, 6x loading buffer, and oligonucleotides were bought from BioSyn Tech (Fermentas). Analytical grade powder 3-[4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl]-5-(3agarose and carboxymethoxyphenyl)-2-(4-sulfophenyl)-2H-tetrazolium inner salt (MTS) were purchased from Promega (USA). Calf-thymus DNA, sodium chloride (NaCl), human DNA topoisomerase I, thiazole orange and ethidium bromide were purchased from Sigma Chemical Co. (USA). All solutions for DNA experiments were prepared with ultra-pure water from a Elga PURELAB ULTRA Bioscience water purification system with UV light accessory. The Tris-NaCl (TN) buffer was prepared from the combination of Tris base and NaCl dissolved in aqueous solution in which the pH was adjusted with hydrochloric acid (HCl) solution till pH 7.5. The Tris-NaCl buffer pH 7.5 contains Tris at 5 mM and NaCl at 50 mM. Tris-NaCl buffer were freshly prepared before use.

## 6.2.2 DNA binding studies

Stock solutions of calf thymus DNA (CT-DNA) was prepared by dissolving the DNA in buffer solution at 4 °C, and the resultant homogeneous solutions were used within two days. The purity of the DNA was checked by monitoring the absorbance at 260 and 280 nm. PAGE grade of selfcomplimentary 12-mer oligonucleotides (CG)<sub>6</sub>, (AT)<sub>6</sub>, CGCGAATTCGCG, 5'-CGCGATATCGCG, HPLC grade 22-mer oligonucleotide AGGGTTAGGGTTAGGGTTAGGG-3' (for annealing G-quadruplex) and 17mer complementary oligonucleotide pair (5'-CCAGTTCGTAGTAACCC-3' and 3'-GGTCAAGCATCATTGGG-5') were annealed, to give the respective duplexes and G-quadruplex, as specified by the suppliers 1<sup>st</sup> BASE and Eurogentec Ait. Fluorescence (FL) emission spectra in the study of ethidium bromide quenching assay for the duplexes of the various synthetic oligonucleotides were recorded in the wavelength range 550-650 nm by exciting the respectively solutions with light at 545 nm. In the FL emission spectra (thiazole orange quenching assay) for the G-quadruplex and corresponding duplex, the excitation wavelength  $\lambda_{ex}$  is 504 nm while the emission wavelength  $\lambda_{em}$  is 527 nm. Excitation and emission slits were set at 10 nm. Solutions of DNA, and the cobalt complexes were prepared in TN buffer (5 mM Tris, 50 mM NaCl) at pH 7.5 unless specifically stated. CD study of the interaction of Co(II) complexes with CT-DNA was carried out with a 1.0 mm quartz cell using a Jasco J-810 spectropolarimeter.

# 6.2.3 Restriction enzyme inhibition assay and human topoisomerase I inhibition assay

These assays were carried out as described previously (Seng et al., 2010). The apparent binding constants of the  $[Co(phen)(ma)Cl]\cdot 4H_2O$  **1** and  $[Co(phen)(ma)_2]\cdot 5H_2O$  **4** complexes for the various DNA duplexes and G-quadruplex are tabulated in **Table 6.1**.

## 6.2.4 Anticancer study

F12 medium, Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's Media (DMEM), fetal bovine serum, MEM non-essential amino acids, horse serum and L-glutamine were purchased from GIBCO®. Hydrocortisone and insulin were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Epidermal growth factor was purchased from Invitrogen. MDA-MB-231, MCF7 and MCF10A cells were obtained from American Type Culture Collection. Human breast cancer MDA-MB-231 and MCF7 cells were cultured in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium containing 10% fetal calf serum, 100 units/mL of penicillin and 100 μg/mL of streptomycin. Human breast tissue-derived MCF 10A (immortalized but non-tumorigenic) cells were cultured in 1:1 F12/DMEM media supplemented with 5 % (v/v) horse serum, 1X non essential amino acid, 1X glutamine, insulin, epidermal growth factor, hydrocortisone, 100 units/ml penicillin and 100 μg/ml streptomycin. All cell lines were maintained at 37°C in a humidified incubator with an atmosphere of 5% CO<sub>2</sub>. Cells were seeded in a 96-well plate and were grown to 70–80 % confluence, followed by addition of each compound at the indicated concentrations. After 24 hours of incubation at 37°C, 5% CO<sub>2</sub>, MTS working solution was added for a further 4 hours. Optical density was read using enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELIZA) plate reader at a wavelength of 490 nm with background subtraction at 630 nm. The percentage of cell viability was calculated with the formula: Average  $A_{490}$  value for live cell(treated)/average  $A_{490}$  value for live cell (untreated) × 100. The IC<sub>50</sub> values were obtained from the graphs drawn.

## 6.3 **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

## 6.3.1 DNA binding studies

Circular Dichroism (CD) spectroscopy is a useful technique in studying the changes in DNA morphology during drug-DNA interactions, as the band due to base stacking (275 nm) and that due to right-handed helicity (248 nm) are quite sensitive to the mode of DNA interactions with small molecules (Ivanov et al., 1973). The spectra of CT-DNA incubated with and without complexes **1** and **4** have a negative band at ~250 nm due to right-handed DNA helicity and a positive band at ~280 nm due to base stacking, suggesting retention of the B-form DNA upon binding of complexes **1** and **4** (**Figure 6.3**). Both complexes **1** and **4** induced significant intensity enhancement of the positive spectral band at ~280 nm, and this indicated intercalation mode of binding (Li et al., 2006; Sun et al., 2002).



Figure 6.3: CD spectra of CT-DNA alone (a) and in the presence of the complexes 1 (b) and 4 (c).

Ethidium bromide (EB) and thiazole orange quenching assays have been successfully used to determine the DNA binding affinity and sequence selectivity of small organic molecules and metal complexes (LePecq and Paoletti, 1967; Boger and Tse, 2001; Rajendra and Nair, 2006; Li et al., 2007; Monchaud et al., 2008; Seng et al., 2010). A complex with a higher binding constant for a given DNA determined by either assay is said to have a higher binding affinity. Likewise, a complex with a higher binding constant for a certain DNA than for another DNA is said to bind more selectively towards the former. It has been concluded in Chapter 3, complex **1** exists as  $[Co(phen)(ma)]^+$  or its hydrated species and Cl<sup>-</sup> while complex **4** exists as the neutral  $[Co(phen)(ma)_2]$  species in aqueous solution. As both Co(II) complexes, **1** and **4**, have higher binding constants for ds(AT)<sub>6</sub> than for ds(CG)<sub>6</sub> (**Table 6.1**), hence complexes **1** and **4** have more selectivity towards AT-sequences than CG-sequences. Although the AT:CG binding constant ratio for complex **4** (1.4) is higher than that for complex **1** (1.2), the difference is not that great. The binding constants for both complexes **1** and **4** suggest their greater binding selectivity for ds(CGCGATATCGCG)<sub>2</sub> over the ds(CGCGAATTCGCG)<sub>2</sub> and this indicated greater binding preference or selectivity for alternate AT-sequence over AATT-sequence. Both complexes **1** and **4** again exhibit greater selectivity for G-quadruplex (G-4) over duplex DNA as they have G-4:duplex binding ratios of 1.4 and 1.5 respectively. Interestingly, the binding constants of complex **4** for CT-DNA, G-4 and duplex are significantly greater than those of complex **1**. For example, the binding constant of complex **4** towards G-4 is nine times more than that of complex **1**.

Since chloride in  $[Co(phen)(ma)Cl]\cdot 4H_2O \mathbf{1}$  is a weak field ligand, it should dissociate easily in aqueous solution to form  $[Co(phen)(ma)]^+$  or its hydrated species. By using the EB quenching assay, it was found that the apparent binding constant decreases from  $5.86 \pm 0.08 \times 10^4 \text{ M}^{-1}$  gradually to  $1.74 \pm 0.10 \times 10^4 \text{ M}^{-1}$  when the NaCl concentration increased from 0 to 40 mM (data not shown). This showed that the interaction of complex  $\mathbf{1}$  with the anionic DNA is electrostatic and that the complex is cationic in aqueous solution. The maltolate ligand has hydrogen-bonding acceptors while the phen moiety can intercalate into adjacent DNA base pairs and thus, non-covalent interactions are envisaged. The binding affinity of cationic complex,  $[Co(phen)(ma)]^+$  towards all the different types of DNA studied above (**Table 6.1**) is not higher than that of neutral complex,  $[Co(phen)(ma)_2]$  towards the corresponding DNA. This may be explained by assuming that the chelated phen ligand helps to anchor both Co(II) complexes between the adjacent basepairs, and by doing so fixes the orientation of the other ligands bonded to the cobalt. Looking at it in this way, one may then ascribed the increasing DNA binding strength of complex **4** to the orientation of the maltolate ligands (*viz.* one above and one below the phenanthroline plane) diagonally towards the upper and lower ribose-nucleobases. This then results in stronger attractive interaction of the maltolates with the riboses and nucleobases. The pyroneoxygen atom in the maltolate can act as H-bond acceptor while the methyl group can have van der Waals interaction. Additionally, stacking interaction can also occur between the pyrone ring with the DNA nucleobase. On the other hand, the maltolate in complex **1** is in the plane of the anchoring intercalated phen and is not positioned nearer to either base pair above or below the plane of intercalation.

Table 6.1: Binding constant of Co(II) complexes for various DNA

DNA	[Co(phen)(ma)Cl]·4H <sub>2</sub> O ( <b>1</b> )	[Co(phen)(ma)₂]⋅5H₂O ( <b>4</b> )	Ratio <b>4/1</b>
CT-DNA	1.162 x 10 <sup>4</sup>	3.559 x 10 <sup>4</sup>	3.1
ds(AT) <sub>6</sub>	2.176 x 10⁴	2.563 x 10 <sup>4</sup>	1.2
ds(CG) <sub>6</sub>	1.823 x 10 <sup>4</sup>	1.791 x 10⁴	1.0
ds(CGCGAATTCGCG) <sub>2</sub>	1.217 x 10 <sup>4</sup>	1.474 x 10 <sup>4</sup>	1.2
ds(CGCGATATCGCG) <sub>2</sub>	1.776 x 10 <sup>4</sup>	1.782 x 10 <sup>4</sup>	1.0
G-quadruplex	7.34 x 10 <sup>3</sup>	6.72 x 10 <sup>4</sup>	9.2
G-duplex	5.11 x 10 <sup>3</sup>	4.32 x 10 <sup>4</sup>	8.5

## 6.3.2 Restriction enzyme inhibition

To further investigate the binding specificity of complexes 1 and 4, twelve restriction enzymes (REs), viz. Bst 11071(5'-GTA↓ TAC-3'), NdeI (5'-C A↓TATG-3'), EcoR I (5'-↓AATTC-3'), Mun I (5'-C↓ AATTG-3'), Ssp I (5'-A A TATT-3'), Ase I (5'-AT TAAT-3'), Sca I (5'-AGT ACT-3'), Pvu II (5'-CAG CTG-3'), Pst I (5'-CTGC A G-3'), Sal I (5'-G TCGAC-3'), Tsp5091 (5'- AATT -3') and Hae III (5'-GC GC-3'), were used. The specific sequence recognized by each RE is listed in parenthesis with its cutting site. RE has been used to investigate the binding specificity or selectivity of metal complexes (Gallori et al., 2000; Snow and Sheardy, 2001; Karidi et al., 2005). The choice of these REs is because of the greater preferences of complexes 1 and 4 for AT-sequence or AT-rich duplexes. As comparison, it was observed that EB and thiazole orange (TO) could inhibit all the REs used, suggesting the non-discriminating binding of these intercalator dyes at all the sites, including those at the recognition sites of the twelve REs (data not shown). In contrast, 50 µM of complex 1 can only totally inhibit Ssp I (5'-A A TATT-3'), NdeI (5'-CA TATG-3') and Bst 11071 (5'-GTA TAC-3') (Appendix 6.1 -6.2). This suggests the binding specificity of complex 1, unlike that of EB or TO. As shown in Appendix 6.3 - 6.4, 50  $\mu$ M of complex 4 can partially inhibit DNA cleavage by Tsp 5091(5'-LAATT-3'), Hae III (5'-GCLGC-3') and Pvu II (5'-CAG CTG-3') but not the other REs. Like in complex 1, this selective inhibition of only some REs suggests that complex 4 can bind selectively to DNA. Surprisingly, complex 4 cannot inhibit DNA cleavage by Ssp I, Nde I and Bst 11071 while complex 1 can (Table 6.2). Complex 1 has one coordinated phen and one coordinated maltolate while complex 4 has one coordinated phen and two coordinated maltolate. It seems reasonable to ascribe the different binding specificity and recognition of DNA of complexes 1 and 4 to the number of coordinated maltolate ligand.

RE	Sequence	[Co(phen)(ma)Cl] (1)	[Co(phen)(ma)₂] (4)
Tsp 509I	5'—↓ A A T T —3' 3'— T T A A ↑—5'		N
Hae III	5'—G C ↓G C —3' 3'—C G ↑C G —5'		N
Sal I	5'—G ↓T C G A C—3' 3'—C A G C T ↑G—5'		
Pst I	5'—C T G C A ↓G—3' 3'—G↑ A C G T C—5'		
Pvu II	5'—C A G ↓C T G—3' 3'—G T C ↑ G A C—5'		V
Sca I	5'—A G T ↓A C T—3' 3'—T C A ↑ T G A—5'		
Ase I	5'—A T ↓T A A T—3' 3'— T A A T ↑T A—5'		
Ssp I	5'—A A ↓T A T T—3' 3'— T T A T ↑A A—5'	V	
Mun I	5'—C↓ A A T T G—3' 3'— G T T A A ↑C—5'		
EcoR I	5'—G↓ A A T T C—3' 3'— C T T A A ↑G—5'		
Ndel	5'—C A↓ T A T G—3' 3'—G T A T ↑A C—5'	N	
Bst 11071	5'—G T A ↓ T A C—3' 3'—C A T ↑ A T G—5'	$\checkmark$	

Table 6.2: Restriction enzyme inhibition for Co(II) complexes, 1 and 4

## 6.3.3 Human topoisomerase I inhibition

Topoisomerase I (Topo I) is one of the enzymes that control the topology of the DNA by a single-strand cut, passing the other strand through the cutting site and religating the cut strand (Feng et al., 2009). These topoisomerases are important in DNA replication and transcription. Topo I inhibitors have been reported to be among the most widely used clinical drugs for treatment of cancer (Rothenberg, 1997; Beretta et al., 2008; Teicher, 2008; Pommier, 2008; Sunami et al., 2009). However, there are not many metal complexes that have been reported to inhibit topoisomerases (Chuang et al., 1996). Gel electrophoresis can be used to view the topoisomers which result from relaxation of supercoiled pBR322 by Topo I (Webb and Ebeler, 2008).

More relaxed topoisomers will migrate slower than less relaxed topoisomers while the supercoiled DNA will migrate fastest.

In Figure 6.4, 1 unit of Topo I could fully convert the supercoiled pBR322 DNA to fully relaxed topoisomers (Lane 4). Incubating the DNA with 1 (5 – 40  $\mu$ M) and Topo I resulted in appearance of slower moving bands of more relaxed DNA (Lane 6 - 9). The initial inhibitory effect of complex 1 started from 5  $\mu$ M (Lane 6). The inhibitory effect of the Topo I is enhanced by increasing complex concentration (5 – 40  $\mu$ M). At 40  $\mu$ M, complex 1 is still not enough to fully inhibit the function of the Topo I.



**Figure 6.4:** Human topoisomerase I inhibition assay by gel electrophoresis. Electrophoresis results of incubating human topoisomerase I (1 unit/21µL) with pBR322 (0.25 µg) in the absence or presence of 5-40 µM of complex 1: Lane 1 & 5, gene ruler 1 Kb DNA ladder; Lane 2, DNA alone; Lane 3, DNA + 40 µM complex 1 (control); Lane 4, DNA + 1 unit Human Topoisomerase I (control). Lanes 6-9, DNA + 1 unit Human Topoisomerase I + varying concentration of complex 1: Lane 6, 5 µM complex 1; Lane 7, 10 µM complex 1; Lane 8, 20 µM complex 1; Lane 9, 40 µM complex 1.

Figure 6.5 showed the inhibition assay results for the corresponding  $[Co(phen)(ma)_2] \cdot 5H_2O$ , 4. As the banding pattern for DNA incubated with

complex **4** (200  $\mu$ M) is the same as that of the DNA alone, it is concluded that complex **4** by itself could not relax or cleave the DNA at this concentration (**Figure 6.5, lane 3**). Done at a different time, one unit of Topo I converted the supercoiled DNA into mostly fully relaxed topoisomers and few bands of very slow moving topoisomers on top of the gel. Complex **4** showed practically no inhibition on the activity of the Topo I in the concentration range 10 – 50  $\mu$ M as substantial amount of supercoiled DNA was converted to fully relaxed topoisomers (**Figure 6.5, Lanes 7 - 9**). At 100  $\mu$ M, the Co(II) complex **4** started to inhibit the Topo I as can be seen by the appearance of distinct bands of faster moving topoisomers (**Figure 6.5, lane 10**). On increasing the concentration of complex **4** to 200  $\mu$ M, faster moving, new bands (less relaxed topoisomers) appeared, indicating greater inhibition of the Topo I by complex **4** (**Figure 6.5, lane 11**).



**Figure 6.5:** Human topoisomerase I inhibition assay by gel electrophoresis. Electrophoresis results of incubating human topoisomerase I (1 unit/21µL) with pBR322 (0.25 µg) in the absence or presence of 10-200 µM of complex **4**: Lanes 1 & 12, gene ruler 1 Kb DNA ladder; Lane 2, DNA alone; Lane 3, DNA + 200 µM complex **4** (control); Lane 4, empty; Lane 5, DNA + 1 unit Human Topoisomerase I (control); Lane 6, empty. Lanes 7-11, DNA + 1 unit Human Topoisomerase I + varying concentration of complex **4**: Lane 7, 10 µM complex **4**; Lane 8, 20 µM complex **4**; Lane 9, 50 µM; Lane 10, 100 µM complex **4**: Lane 11, 200 µM complex **4**.

The above results showed that the Co(II) complexes **1** and **4** are inhibitors and not topoisomerase poisons. Topoisomerase poisons give rise to permanent DNA cleavage (Palumbo et al., 2002). Topoisomerase poisons block the religation step, thereby enhancing the formation of persistent DNA breaks responsible for cell death. Permanent single-strand (nicked band) or double-strand (linear band) cleavage can be easily observed by gel electrophoresis.

## 6.3.4 Anticancer study

3-[4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl]-5-(3-carboxymethoxyphenyl)-2-(4- sulfop henyl)-2H-tetrazolium (MTS) assay was used to examine the antiproliferating effect of the Co(II) complexes, **1** and **4**, against two breast cancer cell lines MCF7 and MDA-MB-231, and one corresponding normal breast cell line MCF10A. Estrogen receptor (ER) positive MCF7 and ER negative MDA-MB-231 breast cancer cells have been found to exhibit differential sensitivity to both organic or metal-based anticancer drugs (Shanmugam et al., 2001; Mazzei et al., 2001; Nikitin et al., 2010). Surprisingly, the MDA-MB-231 cancer cells are more resistant than the normal cells towards the two Co(II) complexes as their IC<sub>50</sub> values are more than 450  $\mu$ M (**Table 6.3**). The IC<sub>50</sub> values for both Co(II) complexes on the MCF10A normal cells are the same, at 160  $\mu$ M. Nevertheless, complexes **1** and **4** are more antiproliferative against the cancer cell line MCF7, with IC<sub>50</sub> values of 75 and 55  $\mu$ M respectively. Thus, the antiproliferative activity and the accompanying growth inhibitory mechanism of these two Co(II) complexes are cell-type dependent. Such celltype dependent antiproliferative and growth inhibition mechanism (NFκB inhibition) were observed for extracts from medicinal plants against MCF7, MDA-MB-231 and HEK293T embryonal kidney cell lines (Kaileh et al., 2007).

 $\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|} \hline Co(II) \ complex & \hline IC_{50} \ (\mu M) \\ \hline MDA-MB-231 & MCF7 & MCF10A \\ \hline 1 & >600 & 75 & 160 \\ \hline 4 & 495 & 55 & 160 \\ \hline \end{tabular}$ 

Table 6.3: IC50 values of complexes 1 and 4 for the MDA-MB-231, MCF7and MCF10A cell lines

#### 6.4 CONCLUSION

The two Co(II) complexes are found to exhibit different binding affinity and selectivity towards different types of duplex DNA. For the G-quadruplex, the binding constant of complex **4** is considerably higher than that of complex **1**. The number of maltolate ligand seems to be important parameter in DNA recognition. This is further exemplified by the RE inhibition experiment results which show that the binding specificity of complexes **1** and **4** are totally different. Although both Co(II) complexes can inhibit Topo I, their inhibitory behavior is again different. The antiproliferative property of both complexes is cell-type dependent, and their potential use as anticancer drug towards MCF7 is indicated. The cytotoxicity of these tested Co(II) complexes may be either due to the binding to DNA to prevent the binding of Topo I or their binding to Topo I to inactivate it. Another mechanism may involve DNA damage by the cobalt complexes. However, MDA-MB-231 cancer cells are insensitive towards both Co(II) complexes although both have distinctly differential  $IC_{50}$  values.

## CHAPTER 7

# BIOLOGICAL STUDIES OF ZINC(II) 1,10-PHENANTHROLINE COMPLEXES WITH 0,N,O'-DIPICOLINIC ACID OR N,O-L-THREONINE

 $[Zn(phen)(dipico)(H_2O)] \cdot H_2O \ and \ [Zn(phen)(L-thr)(H_2O)Cl] \cdot 2H_2O^*$ 

#### CHAPTER 7

# BIOLOGICAL STUDIES OF ZINC(II) 1,10-PHENANTHROLINE COMPLEXES WITH *0,N,O'*-DIPICOLINIC ACID OR *N,O*-L-THREONINE [Zn(phen)(dipico)(H<sub>2</sub>O)]·H<sub>2</sub>O and [Zn(phen)(L-thr)(H<sub>2</sub>O)Cl]·2H<sub>2</sub>O\*

## 7.1 INTRODUCTION

Zinc is an outstanding micronutrient with diverse biological, clinical, and public health importance (Burdette and Lippard, 2001; Chang and Lippard, 2006; Hambidge et al., 2010). There are over 300 natural zinc metalloenzymes (Stehbens, 2003; Lin et al., 2005). Artificial zinc finger proteins and zinc complexes with simple organic ligands have been shown to have sequencespecific DNA binding recognition (Nagaoka and Sugiura, 2000; Papworth et al., 2006). Some zinc complexes are now beginning to be reported be able to inhibit topoisomerase I and II, which are nuclear enzymes needed for modification of topological state of DNA (Chuang et al., 1996; Kikuta et al., 2000; Seng et al., 2010). An important property of topoisomerase I (Topo I) inhibitors is their anticancer property (Chuang et al., 1996; Rothenberg, 1997; Kikuta et al., 2000; Pommier, 2008; Beretta et al., 2008; Sunami et al., 2009). In fact, numerous clinical, anticancer drugs are Topo I inhibitors. However, none of these clinical drugs are zinc complexes. Actually, not many zinc complexes have been studied for their anticancer property (Liguori et al., 2010; Wen et al., 2011). Simple mixed-ligand metal complexes with

intercalating ligand may have both DNA binding and molecular recognition capabilities (Seng et al., 2010). Unlike cisplatin, such mononuclear metallointercalators can use the intercalating ligand to anchor the metal complex between adjacent DNA bases and consequently orientate the subsidiary ligand(s) to interact with nucleobases in their vicinity.

Among all the Zn(II) complexes ( $[Zn(phen)(ma)Cl] \cdot 1\frac{1}{2}H_2O$  3,  $[Zn(phen)(dipico)(H_2O)] \cdot H_2O$  7,  $[Zn(phen)(L-thr)(H_2O)Cl] \cdot 2H_2O$  10 and  $[Zn(phen)(D-thr)(H_2O)Cl] \cdot 2H_2O$  11) synthesized in my study, only two Zn(II) complexes 7 and 10 were chosen. One reason for choosing complexes 7 and 10 was their similarities and differences. The dipicolinate and L-threoninate ligands contain carboxylate group(s). The coordinated dipicolinate ligand has two H-acceptor sites whereas threoninate has both H-acceptor and H-donor sites. Complexes 7, 10 and 11 have a similar octahedral geometry about their Zn atom whereas complex 3 has a square pyramidal geometry. Complex 10 was chosen because L-amino acids have been reported to play an important role in biological process compared to D-amino acids (Shahjee et al., 2002; Conti et al., 2011). In this chapter, the choices of two Zn(II) complexes  $([Zn(phen)(dipico)(H_2O)] \cdot H_2O$  7 and  $[Zn(phen)(L-thr)(H_2O)Cl] \cdot 2H_2O$  10) allows investigation into the effect of two different and yet related subsidiary ligands (dipicolinate and L-threoninate) on biological properties viz. DNA binding studies, restriction enzyme inhibition, topoisomerase inhibition and anticancer studies.

## 7.2 EXPERIMENTAL

## 7.2.1 Materials and reagents

Both complexes **7** and **10** were synthesized and characterized in Chapter 4 and Chapter 5, respectively. Most of the reagents were analytical grade and used as supplied. The pBR322, gene ruler 1 kb DNA ladder, 6x loading buffer, and oligonucleotides were bought from BioSyn Tech (Fermentas). Analytical grade agarose powder and 3-[4,5-dimethylthiazol-2yl]-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide (MTT) were purchased from Promega (USA). Sodium chloride (NaCl), human DNA topoisomerase I, thiazole orange and ethidium bromide were purchased from Sigma Chemical Co. (USA). All solutions for DNA experiments were prepared with ultra-pure water from an Elga PURELAB ULTRA Bioscience water purification system with UV light accessory. The Tris-NaCl (TN) buffer was prepared from the combination of Tris base and NaCl dissolved in aqueous solution in which the pH was adjusted with hydrochloric acid (HCl) solution till pH 7.5.The Tris-NaCl buffer pH 7.5 contains Tris at 5 mM and NaCl at 50 mM. All stock solutions in Tris-NaCl buffer were freshly prepared daily.

## 7.2.2 DNA binding studies

The studies were carried out as described in Chapter 6, section 6.2.2. The apparent binding constants of complexes **7** and **10** for the various DNA duplexes and G-quadruplex are tabulated in **Table 7.1**.

# 7.2.3 Restriction Enzyme inhibition assay and human topoisomerase I inhibition assay

The restriction enzyme and human topoisomerase I inhibitory assays were carried out for complexes **7** and **10** as described in Chapter 6, section 6.2.3.

## 7.2.4 Anticancer studies

NPC cell lines growing at log-phase were used. HONE-1 cell line was a kind gift from Prof. Sam CK (University of Malaya) The cell line was established from a biopsy from a 68-year old Chinese man diagnosed with a poorly differentiated NPC with lymph node metastasis (Sung et al., 2005). The absence of EBV in HONE-1 was rechecked by PCR analysis of genomic DNA. NP69, an immortalized human nasopharyngeal epithelial cell line, and HK1 cell line were obtained from the University of Hong Kong Culture Collection. HONE-1 cells were maintained as a monolayer culture in RPMI medium supplemented with 10 % (v/v) fetal bovine serum (FBS) and kept in incubator with humidified atmosphere containing 5 % CO<sub>2</sub> at 37 °C. HK1 cell line was grown in MEM medium (Invitrogen Corp.) supplemented with 10% FBS. NP69 was maintained in keratinocyte serum-free medium supplemented with 0.1 ng/mL of epidermal growth factor, 50  $\mu$ g/mL of bovine pituitary extract, and a final Ca<sup>2+</sup> concentration of 0.3 mmol/L.

For MTT assay, approximately  $3.0 - 5.0 \times 10^3$  HONE-1, HK1, NP69, MDCK, or NRK-52E cells were seeded into each of a series of wells in separate 96-well culture plates and allowed to adhere overnight (24 hours). Different concentrations of the complexes tested (0 - 300 µM; several trials were done to get a suitable range to obtain the concentration causing 50 % inhibition of cell proliferation *i.e.*  $IC_{50}$  for each compound) were added to the wells, except for control cells, to which only the culture medium was added. The set of cultures without and with increasing concentration of the added compound was done in triplicate. At the end of the incubation period (72 hours), 20 µL of 5.0 mg/mL MTT in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) was added and incubated in a 5 % CO<sub>2</sub> humidified incubator for 3 hours. Medium and excess MTT were aspirated and formazan formed was solubilized with 100 µl of dimethyl sulfoxide. Optical density of the resultant formazan solutions, which corresponded to the number of viable cells, was determined by Spectramax plate reader at 570 nm. IC<sub>50</sub> values of tested complexes were estimated from plots of percentage cell viability versus increasing concentration of test complexes (µM).

For apoptosis study, HONE-1 cells were treated with  $IC_{50}$  concentration of each compound for 72 hours. Culture media were collected and cells were washed with cold PBS. Cells were treated with accutase at 37 °C for 5 minutes to completely detached them and the collected cells were centrifuged at 1000 rpm. The cells were resuspended in 1x binding buffer to give a final concentration of 1.0 x  $10^6$  cells/ml. 100 µL

of FITC Annexin V and 5  $\mu$ L PI were added. The cells were mixed gently and incubated for 15 minutes at room temperature in the dark. 400  $\mu$ L of 1x binding buffer was added to each tube and analyzed immediately with a Becton-Dickinson FACS-Calibur flow cytometer.

For cell cycle analysis, different sets of HONE-1 cells  $(0.45 \times 10^6)$ were incubated with or without IC<sub>50</sub> concentration of each zinc(II) complexes (7 and 10) in 60 mm dishes for 24 hours. Washing, trypsination, centrifugation and resuspension in PBS were carried out as in apoptosis study. Cell count was performed with Countess® Automated Cell Counter. Cell concentration was adjusted to  $0.5-1.0 \times 10^6$  cells/mL, and then centrifuged at 1000 rpm for 5 minutes. The supernatant was discarded and mixed well with 300  $\mu$ L of hypotonic DNA staining buffer (0.25 g sodium citrate, 0.75 mL Triton-X 100, 0.025 g propidium iodide, 0.005 g ribonuclease A and 250 mL distilled water). Filtered samples, with minimum of 20,000 cells per sample, were kept at 4 °C in the dark for at least 10 minutes before analysis with Beckton-Dickinson FACS-Calibur Fluorescence Activated Cell Sorter with a Cell Quest Pro software. The percentages of cells in cell cycle phases  $G_0/G_1$  (resting), S (DNA synthesis) and  $G_2/M$  (mitotic cells) obtained and recorded using ModFit LT<sup>TM</sup> software (Verity Software House, Inc. ME).

#### 7.3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

## 7.3.1 DNA binding studies

As in Chapter 6, ethidium bromide and thiazole-orange quenching assays were used to find the DNA binding affinity and sequence selectivity of  $[Zn(phen)(dipico)(H_2O)] \cdot H_2O$  7 and  $[Zn(phen)(L-thr)(H_2O)Cl] \cdot 2H_2O$  10. Using these assays, the apparent binding constants of complexes 7 and 10 for different duplex oligonucleotides and G-quadruplex (G-4) were determined and calculated (Table 7.1). A higher value for the binding constant indicates the metal complexes have a greater binding affinity and preference for the given duplex. Only complex 7 has distinctly higher binding constant for  $ds(AT)_6$  than for  $ds(CG)_6$  (1.7x), indicating greater affinity for  $ds(AT)_6$  than  $ds(CG)_6$  (**Table 7.1**). Other metal complexes which bind preferentially to ATsequence are also known (Eriksson et al., 1994; Franklin et al., 1996; Wheate and Collins, 2000; Kikuta et al., 1999; Patra et al., 2007; Rajendiran et al., 2008). There does not seem to be any easily recognisable common feature(s) among these metal complexes, as can be seen from examples such as [Cu(L $arg_{2}NO_{3}$ , [Cu(L-arg)(phen)Cl]Cl, [Pt(en)\_{2}]^{2+}, [Ru(phen)\_{3}]^{2+} and [Zn(cyclenderivatives)]<sup>2+</sup>. As mentioned earlier in section 7.1, dipicolinate ligand has two H-acceptor sites whereas L-threoninate has both H-acceptor and H-donor sites. Hence, both complexes 7 and 10 are expected to have different DNA binding ability. However, there seems to be very minor effect of changing the subsidiary ligand on the DNA binding affinity of the ternary Zinc(II)-phen complexes as both complexes 7 and 10 have similar binding constants for ds(AT)<sub>6</sub>, ds(CG)<sub>6</sub>, ds(CGCGAATTCGCG)<sub>2</sub>, ds(CGCGATATCGCG)<sub>2</sub>, G-4 and the corresponding duplex of G-4.

**Table 7.1:** Binding constants for various duplexes and G-4 (with standard<br/>deviations < +0.1)</th>

	7	10
	(10 <sup>4</sup> M <sup>-1</sup> )	(10 <sup>4</sup> M <sup>-1</sup> )
ds(AT) <sub>6</sub>	3.0	2.2
ds(CG) <sub>6</sub>	1.8	1.8
ds(CGCGAATTCGCG) <sub>2</sub>	1.6	1.2
ds(CGCGATATCGCG) <sub>2</sub>	2.0	1.8
G-4	2.5	2.1
(5'-AGGGTTAGGGTTAGGGTTAGGG-3')		
duplex mimic of G-4	2.0	1.7
(5'-CCAGTTCGTAGTAACCC-3')		
(3'-GGTCAAGCATCATTGGG-5')		

## 7.3.2 Restriction Enzyme (RE) inhibition

In the previous chapter, restriction enzyme (RE) inhibition assay was used to investigate the effect of number of chelated maltolate in Co(II) complexes, **1** and **4**, on their binding specificity. Restriction enzyme inhibition results showed that the binding specificity of complexes **1** and **4** are totally different. As in chapter 6, restriction enzyme inhibition was used to investigate the binding specificity difference between complexes **7** and **10**. Restriction enzyme inhibition assay has been successfully used to show sequence selective binding of Pt(II) and Ru(II) complexes by other researchers (Gallori et al., 2000; Nakabayashi et al., 2001; Snow and Sheardy, 2001; Rahman et al., 2007). The same twelve restriction enzymes as listed in chapter 6, section 6.3.2 were used. ZnCl<sub>2</sub> and phen could not inhibit any of the REs (**Appendices 7.1-7.2**). However, all the REs can be inhibited by thiazole orange, an intercalator fluorescent dye and a random site binder (**Appendix 7.3**),

suggesting the non-discriminating binding of these intercalator dyes at all the sites.

Unlike intercalator dye, complex 7 could only inhibit Ssp I and Nde I (Appendix 7.4). In contrast, complex 10 could inhibit only Ase I, Ssp I, Nde I and Bst 11071, suggesting binding of at least one molecule of complex 10 to the six base pair recognition sequence of each of these REs, and its binding selectivity for the sequences recognised by these four REs (Appendix 7.5) (Gallori et al., 2000; Snow and Sheardy, 2001; Nakabayashi et al., 2006; Rahman et al., 2007). By changing the subsidiary ligand from L-threoninate to dipicolinate, the binding selectivity of the ternary zinc-phen complex (Table 7.2) is greatly enhanced. Both complexes 7 and 10 could inhibit Ssp I and Nde I, hence, it is reasonable to ascribe this ability to the coordinated phen ligand which confers recognition of nucleotide binding sequences of these REs to complexes 7 and 10. Interestingly, complex 10 is able to discriminate the palindromic sequences 5'-CATATG-3' (Nde I) and 5'-GTATAC-3' (Bst 11071), which are dissimilar in terms of their orientation. In order to find out whether binding of Zn(II) complexes to the RE could result in enzymatic inhibition, two tests were carried out. The circular dichroism spectrum of the RE remained unchanged when incubated with Zn(II) complexes, suggesting no binding of complex or no effect on conformation of RE. In addition, changing the sequence of mixing to RE with Zn(II) complexes first before adding the DNA produced the same inhibition result. Gallori et al. (2000) had also previously demonstrated that Ru(II) complex bound to DNA, not free Ru(II)

complex, was responsible for RE inhibition.

RE	Sequence	7	10
=	eequenee	•	
Tsp 509I	5'—↓ A A T T —3'		
	3'— T T A A ↑—5'		
Hae III	5'—G C ↓G C —3'		
	3'—C G ↑C G —5'		
Sal I	5'—G ↓T C G A C—3'		
	3'—C A G C T ↑G—5'		
Pst I	5'—C T G C A ↓G—3'		
	3'—G↑ A C G T C—5'		
Pvu II	5'—CAG↓CTG—3'		
	3'—G T C ↑ G A C—5'		
Sca I	5'—A G T ↓A C T—3'		
	3'—T C A ↑ T G A—5'		
Ase I	5'—A T ↓T A A T—3'		
	3'— T A A T ↑T A—5'		
Ssp I	5'—A A ↓T A T T—3'		$\checkmark$
	<u>3'— T T A T ↑A A—5'</u>		
Mun I	5'—C↓ A A T T G—3'		
	3'— G T T A A ↑C—5'		
EcoR I	5'—G↓ A A T T C—3'		
	<u>3'— C T T A A ↑G—5'</u>		
Ndel	$5^{\prime}$ — C A $\downarrow$ I A T G — $3^{\prime}$	V	V
	3′—G I A I ↑A C—5′		
Bst 11071	5'—G T A ↓ T A C—3'		
	3'—CAT↑ATG—5'		

Table 7.2: Restriction enzyme inhibition for Zn(II) complexes

## 7.3.3 Human topoisomerase I inhibition

Topoisomerase I (Topo I) and Topoisomerase II (Topo II) inhibitors have been reported to be among the most widely used clinical drugs for treatment of cancer and their inhibition can lead to apoptosis (Rothenberg, 1997; Beretta et al., 2008; Teicher, 2008; Pommier, 2008; Sunami et al., 2009; Arjmand et al., 2010; Chashoo et al., 2011). These topoisomerases play an important role in biological processes, such as DNA replication during mitosis, by respectively introducing single or double transient breaks in the DNA strands (Wang et al., 1998). Topo I unwinds duplex DNA by repeated singlestrand cut, passing the other strand through the cutting site and finally religating the cut strand. In the Topo I inhibition assay, 1 unit of human Topo I can convert all the plasmid pBR322 into fully relaxed DNA topoisomers which appear as the usual slowest moving nicked DNA band (Appendix 7.6: A and B, lane 5) (Seng et al, 2010). At 80  $\mu$ M, both complexes 7 and 10 partially inhibited Topo I as a smear of faster moving, overlapping bands of less relaxed topoisomers can be seen (Appendix 7.6, lane 8). When the concentration of complexes was increased to 120 µM, both complexes could almost totally inhibit the Topo I as the DNA pattern now appears as mainly closed circular, supercoiled DNA band and a thin nicked open circular DNA band, as is observed for the untreated DNA (Appendix 7.6, A and B lane 9). This inhibition of Topo I and the preceding discovery of possible sequenceselective binding of complexes 7 and 10 to DNA is akin to the recent realisation that topoisomerase inhibitor of organic origin also has sequenceselective activity as evidenced by stabilization of topoisomerase-DNA cleavage complexes at specific sites (Capranico et al., 1997; Arimondo et al., 2006; Rao et al., 2007).

## 7.3.4 Anticancer studies

According to American Cancer Society, nasopharyngeal cancer (NPC) is a cancer that starts in the nasopharynx. Nasopharynx (**Figure 7.1**) is the upper part of the throat behind the nose and near the base of the skull. It is a common cancer in southern China, Malaysia and other Southeast Asian

countries (Sung et al., 2005). Almost all cases of NPC worldwide are associated with Epstein-Barr virus (EBV) (American Cancer Society, 2012). The link between EBV infection and NPC is complicated and not yet completely understood. NPC has high invasive-cum-metastatic tendency and intense inflammatory tumour microenvironment (Wong et al., 2010). Recurrence and distant metastasis are still the main causes of NPC deaths despite aggressive treatment involving concurrent chemo-radiotherapy (Wong et al., 2010). Two NPC cell lines were screened, viz. HK1 which is highly differentiated squamous cell carcinoma from a Chinese male patient, and HONE-1 which is poorly differentiated squamous cell carcinoma (Glaser et al., 1989; Wong et al., 2010). HONE-1 cell line was previously used to confirm relationship of NPC metastasis and antiapoptotic B cell lymphoma-2 (bcl-2) protein expression, which is a biomarker of poor prognosis with current therapy and whose over expression in NPC confers chemoresistance (Gulley et al., 1998; Dolcetti and Menezes, 2003). Bcl-2 was also previously found to be highly over expressed in HK1 cells (Gulley et al., 1998). Both HK1 and HONE-1 are EBV-negative cell lines (Glaser et al., 1989; Wong et al., 2010). Interestingly, there exists a strong link between infection with EBV and undifferentiated nasopharyngeal carcinoma (Schobert et al., 2011). Cancers from Hong Kong tended to be less differentiated and more frequently associated with EBV (To et al., 2009).

Anatomy of the Pharynx



Figure 7.1: Anatomy of the pharynx (taken from National Cancer Institute)

Both Zn(II) complexes **7** and **10**, and cisplatin were tested against the above two cancer cell lines and one non-cancer cell line, NP69 by using MTT antiproliferative assay. From the results obtained, both complexes **7** and **10** were more efficient than cisplatin, by a factor of ~2-4, in inhibiting the proliferation of HONE-1 and HK1 cancer cells. Interestingly, both complexes **7** and **10** were more antiproliferative towards HK1 cells than HONE-1 cells (by 2x or 4x). To quantitatively compare the selectivity of these complexes for cancer cells over normal cells and to show practical clinical applicability, their therapeutic indices (TI) [TI =  $IC_{50}(NP69)/IC_{50}(HK1 \text{ or HONE-1})$ ] were calculated and these are partially shown for HK1 in **Table 7.3** (Wang et al., 2006).

A tested drug with TI value greater than 1 shows selectivity. Higher TI value shows higher selectivity and better safety. TI values of complexes **7** and **10** against HONE-1 are less than 1 (values not shown), showing their non-selectivity. Cisplatin, a clinical anticancer drug with some harmful side effects, is cytotoxic and not selective against both cancer cell lines over corresponding normal cell line. In fact, cisplatin has been previously reported to be highly cytotoxic to normal nasopharyngeal cell lines (SUNE1, CNE2, C666-1, NP69) than cancer nasopharyngeal cell lines (CCD19Lu, PBMC) (Cao et al., 2010; Ghosh et al., 2011). However, complexes **7** and **10** are selective against HK1 over NP69. As HK1 cells and most human epithelial carcinomas have very high expression of epithelial growth factor receptor (EGFR) and there is correlation between high EGFR level with more aggressive phenotype, resistance to treatment and poor prognosis, these two Zn(II) complexes are good candidates for further development into NPC anticancer drugs (Sung et al., 2005).

When MTT assay was performed for treatment of NPC HONE-1 cells with complexes **7** (IC<sub>50</sub>, 4.5  $\mu$ M), **10** (IC<sub>50</sub>, 5.6  $\mu$ M), and cisplatin (IC<sub>50</sub>, 12  $\mu$ M) for 72 h, phen and [Zn(phen)Cl<sub>2</sub>] were included in the study. A similar IC<sub>50</sub> value (8.10  $\mu$ M) for cisplatin was previously obtained (Heffeter et al., 2006). The IC<sub>50</sub> values of phen and [Zn(phen)Cl<sub>2</sub>] are 10.3 and 4.0  $\mu$ M. Chelating the phen to Zn(II) in the three Zn(II) complexes clearly enhanced its antiproliferative property. Both complexes **7** and **10** are more antiproliferative towards HONE-1 than cisplatin.
	HONE-1	HK1	NP69	NP69/HK1
7	4.5	2.3	4.5	1.9
10	5.6	1.3	5.1	3.9
cisplatin	12	4.9	4.9	1

 Table 7.3: IC<sub>50</sub> values of incubating cancer and non cancer nasopharyngeal cells with compounds for 72 hours

Recently, Liguori et al. (2010) synthesised a series of ternary Zn(II) complexes with *N*,*N*-chelating ligand (4,4'-dinonyl-2,2'-bipyridine) as main ligand and different diketonate (tropoloid) as subsidiary ligand, and found that they were antiproliferative against various human prostrate cancer cell lines with IC<sub>50</sub> (3 to >100  $\mu$ M) values which were dependent on the subsidiary ligand. Here, apoptosis and cell cycle arrrest were not investigated. However, a recently synthesised Zn(II) complex of N-(2-hydroxyacetophenone)glycinate was found to have poor antiproliferative property against various T-lymphoblastic leukemia cell lines (IC<sub>50</sub> > 500  $\mu$ M, 72 hours incubation) (Stanojkovic et al., 2010). Obviously, the choice of ligand(s) is crucial for the efficacy of Zn(II) complexes as anticancer agents.

In cytotoxic drug treatment, most of the cell death is due to apoptosis (Stanojkovic et al., 2010). Hence, flow cytometry was used to find out the cause(s) of decrease in HONE-1 cell viability by complexes **7** and **10**, phen,  $[Zn(phen)Cl_2]$  and cisplatin at IC<sub>50</sub> concentrations for 72 hours incubation.

Percentage of necrotic cells found for cancer cells treated with all these compounds is less than 4% which is comparable to that found in untreated cells (**Figures 7.2 and 7.3**). The % apoptotic cells induced by complexes **7**, **10**, phen, [Zn(phen)Cl<sub>2</sub>] and cisplatin are 31, 55, 38, 54 and 69 respectively. Thus, these compounds kill the cancer cells by inducing apoptosis. Based on % apoptotic cells induced, complex **10** and [Zn(phen)Cl<sub>2</sub>] are equally cytotoxic, and they are both more cytotoxic than complex **7**.



**Figure 7.2:** Apoptosis analysis of HONE-1 cells untreated (A) or treated for 72 hours with IC<sub>50</sub> concentration of cisplatin (B), phen (C), [Zn(phen)Cl<sub>2</sub>] (D), **7** (E) and **10** (F).



**Figure 7.3:** % viable cells, necrotic cells and apoptotic cells for HONE-1 treated with test compounds.

Since inhibition of cancer cell proliferation could result from induction of apoptosis and/or cell cycle arrest, cell cycle analysis was carried out for HONE-1 cells treated with  $IC_{50}$  concentration of complexes 7 and 10. Compared to untreated cells, cells treated with complex 7 for 24 hours resulted in an increase in S phase population from 46.9% to 65.6% while the G<sub>2</sub>/M phase population decreased significantly. In the presence of complex 10, G<sub>0</sub>/G<sub>1</sub> population increased from 37.7% to 72.8% while the S phase population decreased significantly. Therefore, complexes 7 and 10 could induce cell cycle arrest in HONE-1 cells at S and G<sub>0</sub>/G<sub>1</sub> phases respectively (Figure 7.4).



Figure 7.4: Cell cycle analysis of HONE-1 cells untreated and treated with 7 and 10 for 24 hours.

Von and colleagues (2012) have treated KB-3-1 cancer cells (cervix) with 5  $\mu$ M [*Tris*(1,10-phenanthroline)lanthanum(III)] trithiocyanate for 8 hours, it underwent a massive block in G<sub>o</sub>/G<sub>1</sub> phase while corresponding cells treated with 5  $\mu$ M 1,10-phenanthroline for 24 hours undewent a modest arrest in S phase. Cell cycle arrest at S phase implies inhibition of DNA synthesis by complex **7** whereas cell cycle arrest at  $G_0/G_1$  is often the result of respective cell cycle checkpoint activation due to DNA damage (Von et al., 2012). In contrast to the present Zn(II) complexes **7** and **10**, two previously reported Zn(II) complexes containing the same 2-acetyl pyridine 1-(4-fluorophenyl)piperazinyl thiosemicarbazone induced cell cycle arrest at S phase for K562, HeLa and MDA-MB-453 cancer cell lines while they caused MDA-MB-361 cancer cells to arrest at  $G_0/G_1$  (Von et al., 2012). However, the change in subsidiary ligand in ternary Zn(II)-phen complexes (*i.e.* complexes **7** and **10**) is responsible for alteration in cell cycle arrest in the same cancer cell line.

## 7.4 CONCLUSION

By changing the subsidiary ligand from dipicolinate to L-threoninate ligand, binding affinity of both Zn(II) complexes for  $ds(AT)_6$  and  $ds(CG)_6$  is moderated. Apparently, complex **7** bind preferentially to AT-sequence. However, both Zn(II) complexes have insignificant effect for other DNA duplexes and G-quadruplex tested. Although both complexes show DNA binding selectivity by inhibiting some REs, complex **7** bind more selectively than complex **10**. The degree of antiproliferation, percentage induced apoptosis and the phase at which cell cycle arrest occurs in HONE-1 cancer cells are also affected by the nature of the subsidiary ligand. However, no distinct difference in topoisomerase I inhibition is observed.

## CHAPTER 8

## GENERAL CONCLUSION

# SYNTHESIS, CHARACTERISATION AND BIOLOGICAL PROPERTIES OF METAL(II) POLYPYRIDYL COMPLEXES WITH

# 00'-, 0NO'- OR NO-CHELATING COLIGANDS

## **CHAPTER 8**

### **GENERAL CONCLUSION**

This project has two parts, viz. the synthesis and characterization of three series of ternary metal(II) complexes and the biological study of some of these metal(II) complexes. The complexes are (i) maltolato complexes  $([M(phen)(ma)Cl] \cdot xH_2O (M = Co, Cu or Zn) and [Co(phen)(ma)_2] \cdot 5H_2O), (ii)$ dipicolinato complexes ( $[M(phen)(dipico)(H_2O)] \cdot xH_2O$  (Co or Zn) and  $\{ [Cu_2(phen)_3(dipico)(H_2O)] [Cu(dipico)_2] \cdot [(11H_2O)(CH_3OH)] \}$ and (iii) threoninato complexes ( $[M(phen)(AA)(H_2O)Cl] \cdot xH_2O$  (M = Cu or Zn; AA = L-thr or D-thr). There are two parts in the characterization studies (Table 1.1), viz. the characterization of the solids of complexes (solid state) and the characterization of aqueous solutions of complexes. Analysis of the data (FT-IR, CHN elemental analysis and X-ray (if any)) of the solid complexes suggests that the three series of ternary metal(II) complexes were successfully prepared. Based on the elemental analyses, molecular formulae of the synthesised metal(II) complexes are  $[Co(phen)(ma)Cl] \cdot 4H_2O$ (1),  $[Cu(phen)(ma)Cl] \cdot \frac{1}{2}H_2O$ (2),  $[Zn(phen)(ma)Cl] \cdot 1\frac{1}{2}H_2O$ (3),  $[Co(phen)(ma)_2] \cdot 5H_2O$ (4),  $[Co(phen)(dipico)(H_2O)] \cdot 2H_2O$ (5),  $\{ [Cu_2(phen)_3(dipico)(H_2O)] [Cu(dipico)_2] \cdot [(11H_2O)(CH_3OH)] \}$ (6).  $[Zn(phen)(dipico)(H_2O)] \cdot H_2O$  (7),  $[Cu(phen)(AA)(H_2O)Cl] \cdot 2H_2O$  (8 - 9) and  $[Zn(phen)(AA)(H_2O)Cl] \cdot 2H_2O$  (10 - 11) (where AA = L-thr or D-thr). Analysis of FTIR spectra also helped to established the presence of chelated 1,10-phenanthroline and coligands (maltolate, dipicolinate, L-threoninate and

D-threoninate).

This study has gathered some important information regarding the effect of number of chelated maltolato ligands, changing coligand and changing metal(II) ion of the ternary metal(II) complexes on the solid and solution properties. As discussed in Chapter 3, the number of chelated maltolato ligands influence the geometrical structure of the metal(II) complexes. With one coordinated maltolato ligand, [Co(phen)(ma)Cl]·4H<sub>2</sub>O 1 has a square pyramidal geometry. However,  $[Co(phen)(ma)_2] \cdot 5H_2O$  4, with two coordinated maltolato ligands, has an octahedral geometry. Apparently, the number of chelated maltolato ligands not only affected the structural geometry but also the electrolytic nature of complex 1 (1:1 electrolyte) and complex 4 (non-electrolyte). The intensities of FL emission of complex 1 is slightly higher than complex 4. Thus, the structural geometry and number of coordinated maltolato ligands affected the FL emission intensity. In addition, changing the type of metal(II) ion also influence the FL emission intensity but not the  $\lambda_{max}$  and shape of the FL emission bands. It was found that Co(II) and Cu(II) have quenching ability while Zn(II) ion enhanced the FL emission intensity of the coordinated phen. Hence, FL emission studies of complexes 1 - 4 revealed that FL emission intensity is affected by structural geometry, number of coordinated maltolato ligands and type of metal(II) ion.

The effect of changing the type of metal(II) ion on the solution properties of the set of metal(II)-phen-dipicolinate complexes was discussed in  $[Co(phen)(dipico)(H_2O)] \cdot 2H_2O$ 5 Chapter 4. Both and  $[Zn(phen)(dipico)(H_2O)] \cdot H_2O$  7 are mononuclear complexes. Aqua, phen and dipico ligands are coordinated to the metal(II) center (Co(II) or Zn(II)), forming distorted octahedral complexes. The structure of both phen and dipico (planarity, rigidity and denticity) and limited span width of both carboxylate ligating atoms (O(1) and O(3)) of dipico causes complex 7 to be highly distorted.  $[Cu_2(phen)_3(dipico)(H_2O)][Cu(dipico)_2] \cdot [(11H_2O)(CH_3OH)]$  6 is a trinuclear ionic compound consisting of a  $[Cu_2(phen)_3(dipico)(H_2O)]^{2+}$  cation  $[Cu(dipico)_2]^{2}$ and a anion. The dicopper(II) cation  $[Cu_2(phen)_3(dipico)(H_2O)]^{2+}$  has a distorted square pyramidal geometry about each copper, and the counter anion  $[Cu(dipico)_2]^{2-}$  has a distorted octahedral geometry about the copper atom. Both complexes 5 and 7 exist as neutral complex species in aqueous solution and complex 6 is a 1:1 electrolyte. The low molar conductivity (37 - 43  $\Omega^{-1}$  cm<sup>2</sup> mol<sup>-1</sup>) of complex 6 compared to theoretical values (75 - 95  $\Omega^{-1}$  cm<sup>2</sup> mol<sup>-1</sup>) is due to the low mobility of bulky cations and anions of an ionic compound in the solution. Similar to other phen based complexes in this chapter, the UV absorption peak is due to  $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ transition of the coordinated phenanthroline ligand. FL emission intensities of the coordinated phen increases in the following order: 6 < 5 < phen < 7. Zn(II) enhances the FL of the coordinated phen while Co(II) and Cu(II) partially quenches the FL of the coordinated phen. Once again, it shows that the type of metal(II) ion influences the FL emission intensities of ternary metal(II) complexes of phen.

However, in changing the coligand in  $[M(phen)(AA)(H_2O)Cl] \cdot 2H_2O$ (M = Cu or Zn) 8 - 11 from L-threenine to D-threenine, there are no significant differences observed for each enantiomer pair of complexes in their FTIR spectra, CHN data, UV-Visible absorption, FL emission, molar conductivity, ESI-MS and TGA except for 3D supramolecular framework and circular dichroism spectrum. In the solid state, complexes 8 - 11 have a similar distorted octahedral geometry. The crystal packing of non-chiral molecules are superimposable at the same axis. Interestingly, the crystal packing of both pairs of Cu(II) and Zn(II) enantiomers show a mirror image in the direction of *a*-axis. This suggests that the chirality of each of complexes 8 - 11 is controlled by the chirality of the coligand (L-threoninato and D-threoninato). The CD spectra of each pair of Cu(II) and Zn(II) enantiomers are mirrorimage of each other and this proves that the enantiomeric pairs for both Cu(II) and Zn(II) complexes were successfully prepared. It is important to highlight that a change in the type of metal(II) ion (Co(II), Cu(II) or Zn(II)) influence the FL emission intensity but not the  $\lambda_{max}$  and the shape of the bands. Among all three types of metal ion mentioned earlier, it is found that Zn(II) ion enhanced the FL emission intensity of phen whereas Co(II) and Cu(II) ions have different quenching of the FL intensity of phen. The chirality of the threoninate coligand of  $[M(phen)(AA)(H_2O)Cl] \cdot 2H_2O$  (M = Cu or Zn) 8 - 11 does not seem to have an influence on the FL emission intensities. Each enantiomer pair of Cu(II) and Zn(II) complexes is found to undergo dehydration at an early stage of its thermal degradation.

Two sets of metal(II) complexes, viz. Co(II) ([Co(phen)(ma)Cl]·4H<sub>2</sub>O 1 and  $[Co(phen)(ma)_2] \cdot 5H_2O$  4), and  $Zn(II) ([Zn(phen)(dipico)(H_2O)] \cdot H_2O$  7 and  $[Zn(phen)(L-thr)(H_2O)Cl] \cdot 2H_2O$  10), have been studied for their biological properties. The results have been presented and discussed in Chapters Six and Seven. As both Co(II) complexes, 1 and 4 have higher binding affinity for ds(AT)<sub>6</sub> (1: 2.176 x  $10^4$  M<sup>-1</sup>; 4: 2.563 x  $10^4$  M<sup>-1</sup>) than for  $ds(CG)_6$  (1: 1.823 x 10<sup>4</sup> M<sup>-1</sup>; 4: 1.791 x 10<sup>4</sup> M<sup>-1</sup>), they are said to have more binding selectivity towards AT-sequences than CG-sequences. The greater binding constants for both complexes 1 and 4 towards ds(CGCGATATCGCG)<sub>2</sub> (1: 1.776 x  $10^4$  M<sup>-1</sup>; 4: 1.782 x  $10^4$  M<sup>-1</sup>) over the ds(CGCGAATTCGCG)<sub>2</sub> (1: 1.217 x  $10^4$  M<sup>-1</sup>; 4: 1.474 x  $10^4$  M<sup>-1</sup>), suggest greater binding preference or selectivity for ATAT-sequence over AATTsequence. Interestingly, the binding constant of complex 4 towards G-4 is nine times greater than complex 1. It is important to highlight that both Co(II) complexes, 1 and 4 are found to exhibit different binding affinity and selectivity towards different types of duplex DNA. Restriction enzyme inhibition and topoisomerase I inhibitory behavior of both complexes 1 and 4 are also found to be different. The different binding specificity and recognition of DNA of complexes 1 and 4 can be ascribed to the number of coordinated maltolate ligand. Both Co(II) complexes, 1 and 4 shows antiproliferative activity towards cancer cell line MCF7, with  $IC_{50}$  values of 75 and 55  $\mu M$ respectively. The antiproliferative property of both complexes is cell-type dependent. The number of chelated maltolate ligands of Co(II) complexes seems to influence their binding specificity, recognition and antiproliferative property.

Changing the type of coligand from dipicolinato (two H-acceptor sites) to L-threoninato (H-acceptor and H-donor sites) in the Zn(II) complexes, i.e.  $[Zn(phen)(dipico)(H_2O)] \cdot H_2O$  7 and  $[Zn(phen)(L-thr)(H_2O)Cl] \cdot 2H_2O$  10, are expected to have different binding affinity. However, the results disprove the proposed hypotheses as no significant difference is found in their binding affinity  $ds(AT)_6$ ,  $ds(CG)_6$ , ds(CGCGAATTCGCG)<sub>2</sub>, towards ds(CGCGATATCGCG)<sub>2</sub>, G-4 and the corresponding duplex of G-4. Surprisingly, both complexes 7 and 10 shows DNA binding selectivity by inhibiting some REs. Complex 7 is found to bind more selectively than complex 10 as complex 10 can inhibit Ase I, Ssp I, Nde I and Bst 11071 while complex 7 can only inhibit Ssp I and Nde I. A change of coligand from Lthreoninato to dipicolinato, seems to enhance their binding specificity.

Both zinc(II) complexes, **7** and **10** are found to be able to inhibit topoisomerase I. However, there is no significant difference in their topoisomerase I inhibition.

For both Zn(II) complexes, **7** and **10**, it is found that both have better anticancer activity than cisplatin against HK1 (**7**: 4.5  $\mu$ M; **10**: 5.6  $\mu$ M; cisplatin: 12  $\mu$ M) and HONE-1 cancer cell lines (**7**: 2.3  $\mu$ M; **10**: 1.3  $\mu$ M; cisplatin: 4.9  $\mu$ M). Both complexes **7** and **10** were 2x or 4x more antiproliferative towards HK1 cells than HONE-1 cells. The % apoptotic cells induced by complexes **7** and **10** are 31 and 55 respectively. These two Zn(II) complexes killed the cancer cells by inducing apoptosis. The % apoptotic cells indicate that complex **10** is more cytotoxic than complex **7**. Cell cycle analysis suggested that complex **7** could induce cell cycle arrest in HONE-1 cells at S phase. However, the other Zn(II) complex, **10** induced cell cycle arrest in HONE-1 cells at  $G_0/G_1$  phase. A change of coligand in ternary Zn(II) complexes seems to alter the cell cycle arrest in the same cancer cell line. In conclusion, a change of type of coligand of Zn(II) complexes is found to be a factor in influencing their DNA recognition and antiproliferative properties.

Overall analysis of all the metal(II) complexes in this study shows retention of some properties of the phen although the type of coligand (*OO*'maltolate, *ONO*'-dipicolinate, *NO*-L-threoninate or *NO*-D-threoninate) changed. The UV peaks (~ 226 nm and ~ 269 nm) of all the metal(II) complexes, **1** - **11**, arose from  $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$  transition of the coordinated phenanthroline ligand. Besides, a change of the type of coligand did not affect the  $\lambda_{max}$  and the shape of the FL peaks of complexes **1** - **11**. However, changing the type of metal(II) ion was found to change the FL emission intensity. This study revealed that Co(II) and Cu(II) quenched the FL emission intensity of phen but Zn(II) ion enhanced it. The quenching mechanism is ascribed to static quenching and the enhancement is attributed to the full d<sup>10</sup> electron configuration of the Zn(II) ion. In general, FL emission intensities of metal(II) complexes in terms of increasing order as follow: Cu(II) complexes < Co(II) complexes < phen < Zn(II) complexes. Additionally, a change of coligand was found to influence the DNA binding, molecular recognition capability and antiproliferative property of "metal-phen-coligand complexes" as mentioned in Chapters 6 and 7.

In conclusion, the type of metal(II) ion, coligand and the number of coordinated ligands were found to affect only some of the physical properties of the synthesized metal complexes. Similar effects are also found in the biological properties of the studied metal(II) complexes. This work has provided some information on the structure activity relationship (SAR) of transition metal complexes from a biological/biomedical science perspective. These results will be useful in the future exploration of the potential use of transition metal complexes in life science.

For future study, other *OO'-*, *ONO'-* and *NO-*coligands can be assembled to study their solid and solution properties. In the present work, enantiomeric pair of metal(II) complexes were synthesized and characterized in their solid and solution states but it does not cover their biological studies. The biological studies of enantiomeric pair of metal(II) complexes are limited, hence, future work should include it. The interaction of metal(II) complex with proteins is an interesting research topic as its mechanisms is not clearly understood. Recently, molecular docking plays an important role in rational design of drugs. Molecular docking is a computational simulation to monitor the molecular recognition process. There are several molecular docking programs such as GOLD suite, DOCK, FlexX, GLIDE, ICM, PhDOCK, and Surflex which are available in the market. It is useful to determine the interaction of metal(II) complexes with proteins and to predict their strength of binding affinity and the detailed interactions between metal complexes and proteins. Besides, nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy (NMR) can also be used to study the interaction between metal(II) complex and proteins. Hence, in future studies, molecular docking and NMR spectroscopy methods can be use to find out the interaction between metal(II) complexes and proteins. Complexes **7** and **10** under this study are recommended for further investigation for treatment of cancers with high expression of topoisomerase I, antiapoptotic Bcl-2 protein and those diagnosed with high EGFR level. This will be a potential direction for future work since Zn(II) complexes that have anticancer properties are rare.

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Appendix 3.1: FTIR spectra of metal complexes, 1 - 4.



Wavenumber, cm<sup>-1</sup> Appendix 3.2: FTIR spectra of 1,10-phenanthroline and dipicolinic acid



Appendix 3.3: TGA (top) and DTG (bottom) curves of complex 1



Appendix 3.4: TGA (top) and DTG (bottom) curves of complex 2



Appendix 3.5: TGA (top) and DTG (bottom) curves of complex 3



Appendix 3.6: TGA (top) and DTG (bottom) curves of complex 4



Appendix 3.7: Visible spectra of  $[Co(phen)(ma)Cl] \cdot 4H_2O(1)$ ,  $[Zn(phen)(ma)Cl] \cdot 1^{1/2} H_2O(3)$  and  $[Co(phen)(ma)_2] \cdot 5H_2O(4)$  at 2 mM.



Appendix 3.8: Visible spectra of 0.01 M of complex 2 (I) and CuCl<sub>2</sub> (II)



Appendix 3.9: UV spectra and plot of absorbance against concentration of complex 1.



**Appendix 3.10**: UV spectra and plot of absorbance against concentration of complex **2**.



Appendix 3.11: UV spectra and plot of absorbance against concentration of complex 3.



200 220 240 260 280 300 320 340 360 380 400 420 440 460 480 500 520 540 560 580 600 620 640 660 680 700 Wavelength, nm

Appendix 3.12: UV spectra and plot of absorbance against concentration of complex 4.



Appendix 4.1: FTIR spectra of metal(II) complexes, 5 - 7.



0.0 200 220 240 260 280 300 320 340 360 380 400 420 440 460 480 500 520 540 560 580 600 620 640 660 680 700 Wavelength, nm

Appendix 4.2: UV spectra and plot of absorbance against concentration of complex 5.



**Appendix 4.3**: UV spectra and plot of absorbance against concentration of complex **6**.



200 220 240 260 280 300 320 340 360 380 400 420 440 460 480 500 520 540 560 580 600 620 640 660 680 Wavelength, nm

Appendix 4.4: UV spectra and plot of absorbance against concentration of complex 7.



Appendix 4.5: Visible spectra of complexes 5 and 6 at 0.01 M.



**Appendix 4.6:** UV spectra of phen and dipicolinic acid at  $1.0 \times 10^{-5}$  M



Appendix 5.1: FTIR spectra of L-threonine and D-threonine



Appendix 5.2: FTIR spectra of metal(II) complexes 8 – 11



Appendix 5.3: TGA (top) and DTG (bottom) curves of complex 8



Appendix 5.4: TGA (top) and DTG (bottom) curves of complex 9



Appendix 5.5: TGA (top) and DTG (bottom) curves of complex 10



Appendix 5.6: TGA (top) and DTG (bottom) curves of complex 11



200220 240 260 280 300 320 340 360 380 400 420 440 460 480 500 520 540 560 580 600 620 640 660 680 700 Wavelength, nm

Appendix 5.7: UV dilution for complex 8 at different concentration



200 220 240 260 280 300 320 340 360 380 400 420 440 460 480 500 520 540 560 580 600 620 640 660 680 700 Wavelength, nm

Appendix 5.8: UV dilution for complex 9 at different concentration



200 220 240 260 280 300 320 340 360 380 400 420 440 460 480 500 520 540 560 580 600 620 640 660 680 700 wavelength, nm





Appendix 5.10: UV dilution for complex 11 at different concentration



Appendix 5.11: Visible spectra of  $[Cu(phen)(L-thr)(H_2O)Cl] \cdot 2H_2O 8$  (I),  $[Cu(phen)(D-thr)(H_2O)Cl] \cdot 2H_2O 9$  (II) and  $CuCl_2$  (III).

L1	L2	L3	L4	L5	L6	L7	L8	L9	L10	L11	L12	L13	L14	L15	L16
-	-	-			-	_	-	-	=	=	=	=	=	=	-
=			_	_		_			=	=	-	-	_	_	=
-			-	=	=	=			=	=	-	-	_	_	=
-			=	=	_	-			_	-					-
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				100		1					_	_			

**Appendix 6.1:** Electrophoresis results of incubating  $\lambda$  DNA (0.5 µg/µL) with 5 unit of restriction enzyme in the presence or absence of 50 µM complex **1** for 2 hours at 37°C. Lane 1, 1kb DNA ladder; Lane 2,  $\lambda$  DNA alone (0.5 µg); Lane 3,  $\lambda$  DNA + 50 µM complex **1**; Lane 4,  $\lambda$  DNA + 5 unit Tsp 509I (control); Lane 5,  $\lambda$  DNA + 5 unit Tsp 509I + 50 µM complex **1**; Lane 6,  $\lambda$  DNA + 5 unit Hae III (control); Lane 7,  $\lambda$  DNA + 5 unit Hae III + 50 µM complex **1**; Lane 8,  $\lambda$  DNA + 5 unit Sal I (control); Lane 9,  $\lambda$  DNA + 5 unit Sal I + 50 µM complex **1**; Lane 10,  $\lambda$  DNA + 5 unit Pst I (control); Lane 11,  $\lambda$  DNA + 5 unit Pst I + 50 µM complex **1**; Lane 13,  $\lambda$  DNA + 5 unit Pvu II + 50 µM complex **1**; Lane 14,  $\lambda$  DNA + 5 unit Sca I (control); Lane 15,  $\lambda$  DNA + 5 unit Sca I + 50 µM complex **1**; Lane 16, 1kb DNA ladder


**Appendix 6.2:** Electrophoresis results of incubating  $\lambda$  DNA (0.5 µg/µL) with 5 unit of restriction enzyme in the presence or absence of 50 µM complex **1** for 2 hours at 37°C. Lane 1, 1kb DNA ladder; Lane 2,  $\lambda$  DNA alone (0.5 µg); Lane 3,  $\lambda$  DNA + 50 µM complex **1**; Lane 4,  $\lambda$  DNA + 5 unit Ssp I (control); Lane 5,  $\lambda$  DNA + 5 unit Ssp I + 50 µM complex **1**; Lane 6,  $\lambda$  DNA + 5 unit Ase I (control); Lane 7,  $\lambda$  DNA + 5 unit Ase I + 50 µM complex **1**; Lane 8,  $\lambda$  DNA + 5 unit Mun I (control); Lane 9,  $\lambda$  DNA + 5 unit Mun I + 50 µM complex **1**; Lane 10,  $\lambda$  DNA + 5 unit EcoR I (control); Lane 11,  $\lambda$  DNA + 5 unit EcoR I + 50 µM complex **1**; Lane 13,  $\lambda$  DNA + 5 unit NdeI + 50 µM complex **1**; Lane 14,  $\lambda$  DNA + 5 unit Bst 11071 (control); Lane 15,  $\lambda$  DNA + 5 unit Bst 11071 + 50 µM complex **1**; Lane 16, 1kb DNA ladder



**Appendix 6.3:** Electrophoresis results of incubating  $\lambda$  DNA (0.5 µg/µL) with 5 unit of restriction enzyme in the presence or absence of 50 µM complex 4 for 2 hours at 37°C. Lane 1, DNA Ladder; Lane 2, DNA Alone; Lane 3, DNA + 50 µM complex 4; Lane 4, DNA + TSP5091; Lane 5, DNA + complex 4 + TSP5091; Lane 6, DNA + Hae III; Lane 7, DNA + complex 4 + Hae III; Lane 8, DNA + Sal I; Lane 9, DNA + complex 4 + Sal I; Lane 10, DNA + Pst I; Lane 11, DNA + complex 4 + Pst I; Lane 12, DNA + Pvu II; Lane 13, DNA + complex 4 + Pvu II; Lane 14, DNA + Sca I; Lane 15, DNA + complex 4 + Sca I; Lane 16, DNA Ladder



**Appendix 6.4:** Electrophoresis results of incubating  $\lambda$  DNA (0.5 µg/µL) with 5 unit of restriction enzyme in the presence or absence of 50 µM complex 4 for 2 hours at 37°C. Lane 1, DNA Ladder; Lane 2, DNA Alone; Lane 3, DNA + 50 µM complex 4; Lane 4, DNA + Ase I; Lane 5, DNA + complex 4 + Ase I; Lane 6, DNA + SSp I; Lane 7, DNA + complex 4 + SSp I; Lane 8, DNA + Mun I; Lane 9, DNA + complex 4 + Mun I; Lane 10, DNA + EcoR I; Lane 11, DNA + complex 4 + EcoR I; Lane 12, DNA + Nde I; Lane 13, DNA + complex 4 + Nde I; Lane 14, DNA + Bst11071; Lane 15, DNA + complex 4 + Bst11071; Lane 16, DNA Ladder



**Appendix 7.1:** Electrophoresis results of incubating  $\lambda$  DNA (0.5 µg/µL) with 5 unit of restriction enzyme in the absence (-) or presence (+) of 50 µM ZnCl<sub>2</sub> for 2 hours at 37°C. Lane 1, 1 kb  $\lambda$  DNA; 2,  $\lambda$  DNA alone; 3,  $\lambda$  DNA + ZnCl<sub>2</sub> alone. Restriction enzymes, Lanes 4 – 15: 4, Tsp 509I; 5, Hae III; 6, Sal I; 7, Pst I; 8, Pvu II; 9, Sca I; 10, Ssp I; 11, Ase I; 12, Mun I; 13, EcoR I; 14, NdeI; 15, Bst 11071.



**Appendix 7.2:** Electrophoresis results of incubating  $\lambda$  DNA (0.5 µg/µL) with 5 unit of restriction enzyme in the absence (-) or presence (+) of 50 µM phen for 2 hours at 37°C. Lane 1, 1 kb  $\lambda$  DNA; 2,  $\lambda$  DNA alone; 3,  $\lambda$  DNA + phen alone. Restriction enzymes, Lanes 4 – 15: 4, Tsp 509I; 5, Hae III; 6, Sal I; 7, Pst I; 8, Pvu II; 9, Sca I; 10, Ssp I; 11, Ase I; 12, Mun I; 13, EcoR I; 14, NdeI; 15, Bst 11071.



**Appendix 7.3:** Electrophoresis results of incubating  $\lambda$  DNA (0.5 µg/µL) with 5 unit of restriction enzyme in the absence (-) or presence (+) of 50 µM thiazole orange for 2 hours at 37°C. Lane 1, 1 kb  $\lambda$  DNA; 2,  $\lambda$  DNA alone; 3,  $\lambda$  DNA + thiozole orange alone. Restriction enzymes, Lanes 4 – 15: 4, Tsp 509I; 5, Hae III; 6, Sal I; 7, Pst I; 8, Pvu II; 9, Sca I; 10, Ssp I; 11, Ase I; 12, Mun I; 13, EcoR I; 14, NdeI; 15, Bst 11071.



**Appendix 7.4:** Electrophoresis results of incubating  $\lambda$  DNA (0.5 µg/µL) with 5 unit of restriction enzyme in the absence (-) or presence (+) of 50 µM [Zn(phen)(dipico)(H<sub>2</sub>O)]·H<sub>2</sub>O 7 for 2 hours at 37°C. Lane 1, 1 kb  $\lambda$  DNA; 2,  $\lambda$  DNA alone; 3,  $\lambda$  DNA + 7 alone. Restriction enzymes, Lanes 4 – 15: 4, Tsp 509I; 5, Hae III; 6, Sal I; 7, Pst I; 8, Pvu II; 9, Sca I; 10, Ssp I; 11, Ase I; 12, Mun I; 13, EcoR I; 14, NdeI; 15, Bst 11071.



**Appendix 7.5:** Electrophoresis results of incubating  $\lambda$  DNA (0.5 µg/µL) with 5 unit of restriction enzyme in the absence (-) or presence (+) of 50 µM [Zn(phen)(L-Thr)(H<sub>2</sub>O)Cl]·2H<sub>2</sub>O **10** for 2 hours at 37°C. Lane 1, 1 kb  $\lambda$  DNA; 2,  $\lambda$  DNA alone; 3,  $\lambda$  DNA + **10** alone. Restriction enzymes, Lanes 4 – 15: 4, Tsp 509I; 5, Hae III; 6, Sal I; 7, Pst I; 8, Pvu II; 9, Sca I; 10, Ssp I; 11, Ase I; 12, Mun I; 13, EcoR I; 14, NdeI; 15, Bst 11071.



**Appendix 7.6:** Human topo I inhibition assay by gel electrophoresis. Electrophoresis results of incubating human topoisomerase I (1 unit/21µL) with pBR322 (0.25 µg) in the absence or presence of 40 µM of Zn(II) complexes **7** (A) and **10** (B): Lane 1 & 4, gene ruler 1 Kb DNA ladder; Lane 2, DNA alone; Lane 3, DNA + 40 µM complex (control); Lane 5, DNA + 1unit Topo I (control); Lane 6, DNA + 10 µM complex + 1unit Topo I; Lane 7, DNA + 20 µM complex + 1unit Topo I; Lane 8, DNA + 80 µM complex + 1unit Topo I; Lane 9, DNA + 120 µM complex + 1unit Topo I.

## LIST OF PUBLICATIONS / CONFERENCE PRESENTATIONS

## PUBLICATIONS

- Chin, L.F., Kong, S.M., Seng, H.L., Khoo, K.S., Vikneswaran, R., Teoh, S.G., Munirah, A., Alan Khoo, S.B., Mohd Jamil Maah and Ng, C.H., 2011. Synthesis, characterization and biological properties of cobalt(II) complexes of 1,10-phenanthroline and maltol. *Journal of Inorganic Biochemistry*, 105 (2011), pp. 221 - 229.
- Chin, L.F., Kong, S.M., Seng, H.L., Tiong, Y.L., Neo, K.E., Munirah, A., Alan Khoo, S.B., Mohd Jamil Maah, Andy Hor, T.S., Lee, H.B., San, S.L., Chye, S.M. and Ng, C.H., 2012. [Zn(phen)(O,N,O)(H<sub>2</sub>O)] and [Zn(phen)(O,N)(H<sub>2</sub>O)] with O,N,O is 2,6-dipicolinate and N,O is L-threoninate: synthesis, characterization, and biomedical properties. *Journal of Biological Inorganic Chemistry*, 17, pp. 1093 - 1105.

## **CONFERENCE PRESENTATIONS**

 Chin, L.F., Kong, S.M., Seng, H.L., Khoo, K.S., Vikneswaran, R., Teoh, S.G., Munirah, A., Alan Khoo, S.B., Mohd Jamil Maah and Ng, C.H., 2011. Synthesis, characterization and biological properties of cobalt(II) complexes of 1,10-phenanthroline and maltol. *AsBIC V*, 1 Nov - 5 Nov 2010, Kaohsiung, Taiwan. (Poster)  Chin, L.F., Kong, S.M., Seng, H.L., Tiong, Y.L., Neo, K.E., Munirah, A., Alan Khoo, S.B., Mohd Jamil Maah, Andy Hor, T.S., Lee, H.B., San, S.L., Chye, S.M. and Ng, C.H., 2012. New anticancer zinc compounds for nasopharyngeal cancer. 5<sup>th</sup> International Symposium on Nasopharyngeal Carcinoma (NPC 2011), 22 June - 24 June 2011, Penang, Malaysia. (Poster)