



Fagner da Silva Moura

Copper(II) complexes derived from *N*-acylhydrazonic ligands as an antitumor alternative to platinum compounds: Synthesis, characterization, studies in solution and pharmacological potential

Tese de Doutorado

Thesis presented to the requirements for the degree of Doutor em Química in the Graduate Program in Chemistry, Department of Chemistry, PUC-Rio.

Advisor: Prof. Dr. Nicolás A. Rey

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Abstract

Moura, Fagner da Silva; Rey, Nicolás Adrián (Advisor). **Copper(II) complexes derived from *N*-acylhydrazonic ligands as an antitumor alternative to platinum compounds: Synthesis, characterization, studies in solution and pharmacological potential.** Rio de Janeiro, 2024. 251p. Tese de Doutorado - Departamento de Química, Pontifícia Universidade Católica do Rio de Janeiro.

Cancer can be considered a collection of various diseases that collectively lead to an imbalance in the tissues from which they originate. The genesis of tumors is generally associated with mutations that accumulate within cells. The altered cell acquires an increased capacity of proliferation, undergoing clonal expansion and transmitting its genes to daughter cells. Disordered proliferation can form a solid and intricate mass of altered cells within the organ where the tumor originated.

Current cancer treatments focus on diagnosing the type of cell, its location and severity, guidance, selecting the best treatment options, and monitoring the progress. In the latter half of the 1960s, Rosenberg discovered the antitumor activity of cisplatin, which spurred the search for new metal-based anticancer agents. Despite this, few inorganic anticancer drugs have shown auspicious due to toxicity issues.

In this context, *N*-acylhydrazones and their copper(II) complexes have been suggested as promising compounds for achieving this objective. Copper(II) complexes have been presented in the literature as an alternative to platinum-based anticancer compounds, given that copper is an essential trace element with fewer side effects. In recent decades, many copper(II) coordination compounds exhibiting antitumor activity have been reported as promising active compounds against tumor cells, with some advancing to clinical trials, such as Casiopeínas®, which interact with cells in various ways.

Our research group has experience with copper(II) complexes exhibiting reported antitumor activity. Additionally, N,O-donor *N*-acylhydrazone ligands, both free and coordinated, have demonstrated biological activity as anticancer agents. This has motivated the design of a new generation of similar ligands to enhance antitumor activity. This work encompasses the synthesis, acquisition, and complete characterization of novel *N*-acylhydrazone ligands, which were thoroughly characterized, as well as their new copper(II) complexes obtained from three different starting salts. The study includes the reactivity, spectroscopic, electrochemical, and antiproliferative properties of a new generation of mono- and binuclear copper(II) complexes derived from these *N*-acylhydrazone ligands. Of the ten synthesized complexes, six showed reactivity towards human serum albumin (HSA), and three complexes derived from the ligand containing furan as a substituent had their antiproliferative activity evaluated, exhibiting greater activity than cisplatin.

Keywords: complexes, antitumor, hydrazone and copper(II)

Resumo Expandido em Português

Moura, Fagner da Silva; Rey, Nicolás Adrián (Orientador). **Complexos de cobre(II) derivados de ligantes *N*-acil-hidrazônicos como alternativa aos compostos de platina: Síntese, caracterização, estudos em solução e potencial farmacológico.** Rio de Janeiro, 2024. 251p. Tese de Doutorado - Departamento de Química, Pontifícia Universidade Católica do Rio de Janeiro.

Câncer pode ser considerado um conjunto de diversas doenças, que unidas, levam desequilíbrio aos tecidos dos quais se originaram. A gênese do tumor está associada, em geral, as mutações que as células sofrem e se acumulam em seu interior. A célula modificada adquire maior capacidade de proliferação, sofrendo expansão clonal transmitindo seus genes para as células filhas. A proliferação desordenada é capaz de formar uma massa sólida e intrincada de células alteradas dentro do órgão onde o tumor foi originado.

Os tratamentos atuais contra o câncer são voltados para o diagnóstico do tipo de câncer, sua localização e gravidade, orientação, a seleção de melhores opções de tratamento e o seu progresso. Na segunda metade da década de 1960, Rosenberg descobriu a atividade antitumoral da cisplatina, motivando a busca por novos agentes anticancerígenos baseados em metais. Apesar disso, poucos medicamentos anticancerígenos inorgânicos se mostraram promissores devido a problemas de toxicidade.

Diante desse escopo, derivados *N*-acilhidrazônicos e complexos de cobre(II) têm sido sugeridos como compostos promissores para atingir esse objetivo. Os complexos de cobre(II) têm sido apresentados na literatura como uma alternativa promissora aos compostos anticancerígenos de platina, uma vez que o cobre é um elemento traço essencial com menor efeito colateral. Nas últimas décadas, muitos compostos de coordenação de cobre(II) que apresentam atividade antitumoral foram relatados como promissores compostos ativos contra células tumorais, alguns deles avançando para testes clínicos, como é o caso das Casiopeínas[®], apresentando diferentes formas de interação com a célula.

Diante disso, nosso grupo de pesquisa possui experiência em complexos de cobre(II) com atividade antitumoral já reportados. Além disso, ligantes N,O-doadores *N*-acilhidrazônicos livres e coordenados revelaram atividade biológica como agentes anticâncer. Isto motivou o design de uma nova geração de ligantes similares, na tentativa de potencializar a atividade antitumoral.

Este trabalho compreende a síntese, obtenção e caracterização completa de ligantes inéditos *N*-acilhidrazônicos que foram totalmente caracterizados, assim como seus novos complexos de cobre (II) obtidos a partir de três sais de partida diferentes, o estudo da reatividade, propriedades espectroscópicas, eletroquímicas e antiproliferativas de uma nova geração de complexos mono e binucleares de cobre(II) derivados desses ligantes *N*-acilhidrazônicos. Dos dez complexos sintetizados, seis deles apresentaram reatividade frente à HSA (albumina sérica humana), e três complexos tiveram sua atividade antiproliferativa avaliada, apresentando atividade maior que a cisplatina.

Palavras-chave: complexos, antitumoral, hidrazona e cobre(II)

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List of Acronyms and Abbreviations

Cas	[®] Casiopeins
CRGs	Cooperation response genes
DMF	Dimethylformamide
DMSO	Dimethyl sulfoxide
DNA	Deoxyribonucleic acid
DRIFTS	Diffuse Reflectance Infrared Fourier Transform Spectroscopy
Epa	Anodic potential
Epc	Cathodic potential
EPR	Electron Paramagnetic Resonance
ESCs	Embryonic stem cells
EtOH	Ethanol
GCE	Glassy Carbon Electrode
IC₅₀	Half maximal inhibitory concentration
HSA	Human Serum Albumin
HDI	Human Development Index
Hmb	5-methylsalicylaldehyde
ICP-OES	Inductively Coupled Plasma Optical Emission Spectrometry
Ipa	Anodic potential current
Ipc	Cathodic potential current
INCA	National Cancer Institute
<i>i</i>-PrOH	Isopropyl alcohol
iPSCs	Induced pluripotent stem cells
IR	Infrared spectroscopy
MDA-MB-231	Triple-negative breast adenocarcinoma
MeCN	Acetonitrile
MeOH	Methanol
M.p	Melting Point
NMR	Nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy
ORTEP	Oak Ridge Thermal Ellipsoid Plot
PBS	Phosphate buffered saline
Ppm	Parts per million
ROS	Reactive oxygen species
SOD	Superoxide Dismutase
TASR	Truncated age-standardized incidence rates
TBAPF₆	Tetrabutylammonium hexafluorophosphate

TGA	Thermogravimetric analysis
UHF	Unrestricted Hartree-Fock
WHO	World Health Organization
XRD	X-ray diffraction

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1. Introduction

1.1 Cancer: Statistics and Pathology

Cancer is a significant global public health issue. The 2020 pandemic caused by the 2019 coronavirus disease (COVID-19) led to delays in cancer diagnosis and treatment due to healthcare facility closures, disruptions in employment and health insurance, and fear of COVID-19 exposure. Although the impact was most pronounced during the peak of COVID-19, healthcare delivery has not fully recovered in many countries (Ghoshal *et al.*, 2022; Siegel *et al.*, 2023). The COVID-19 pandemic enforced worldwide confinement measures until late 2021, influencing cancer-related data. Medical facilities and research units diverted financial and personnel resources towards seeking suitable emergency medications for COVID-19 treatment, resulting in reduced attention to, and sometimes neglect of, other diseases. Therefore, cancer data collection likely lost priority within agencies during this period (Chhikara & Parang, 2023).

According to data Saloni Dattani (2023), cancer is the second leading cause of death globally, following cardiovascular diseases. In Brazil, according to the Brazilian National Cancer Institute José Alencar Gomes da Silva (INCA), excluding non-melanoma skin cancers, prostate cancer is the most common cancer among men in all regions of Brazil. Among women, breast cancer is the most frequent. Following prostate and breast cancer, cervical cancer in women and airway and lung cancer in men are the next most common types (e Vigilância, 2018).

1.1.1 Cancer Statistics

In 2022, it is estimated that over 19 million new cases of cancer occurred worldwide, resulting in more than 9 million confirmed deaths, accounting for 48% of the total new cancer cases diagnosed in 2012. Figure 1 depicts the new cancer cases worldwide in 2022. The proportion of confirmed deaths varied significantly by region, from 7.8% in Africa to 20.4% in Europe, 56.1% in Asia, and 0.76% in Oceania of the total fatal cases (Figure 2). Literature suggests that higher incidence in Europe and Asia may be attributed to their older populations, where cancer treatment in these patients can be more complex due to high levels of comorbidity, frailty, functional decline, and limited life expectancy affecting this age group (Observatory, 2024; Pilleron *et al.*, 2021; WHO, 2022).

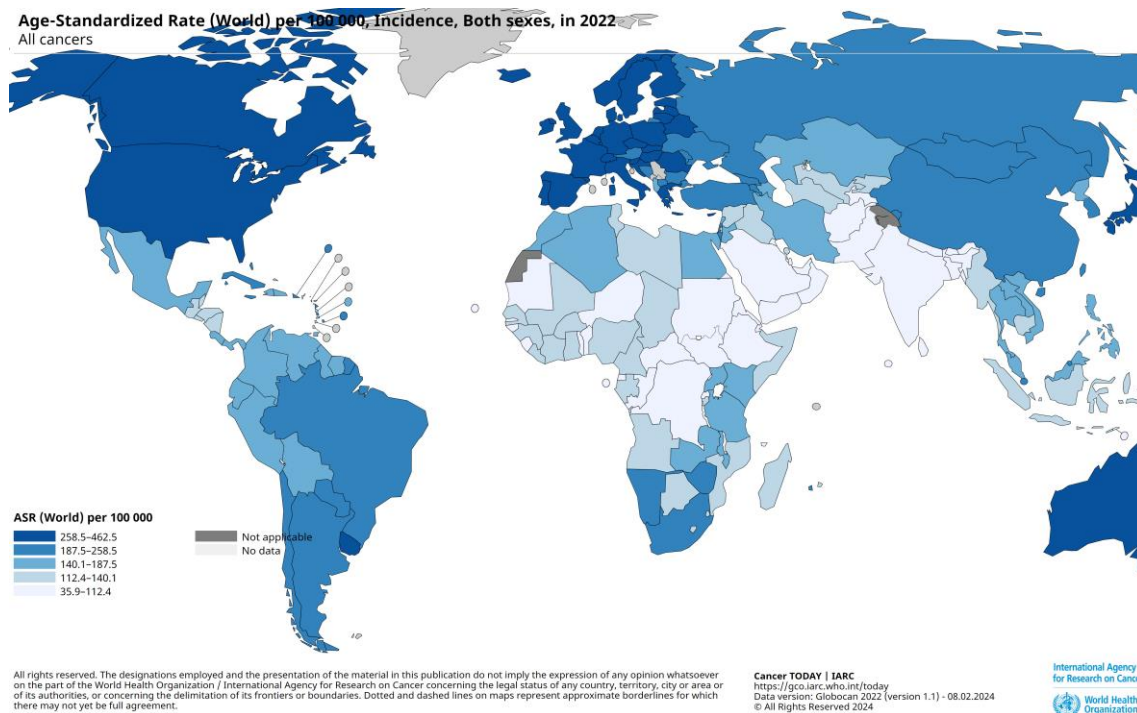


Figure 1. Truncated age-standardized incidence rates (TASR) in people aged 0 to 80+ years for both sexes combined in the world in 2022. Obtained from the WHO web page.

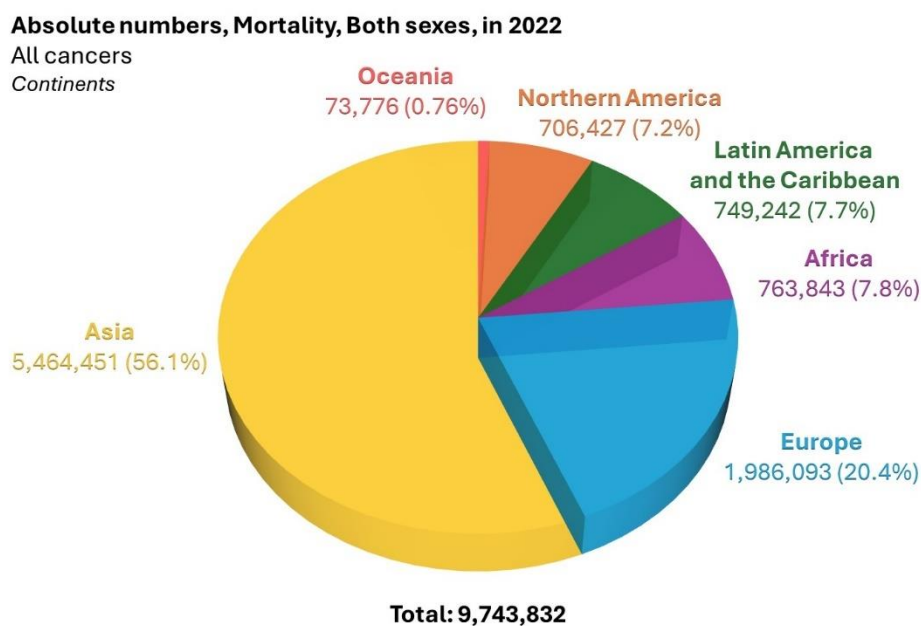


Figure 2. Graph that represents the total deaths as a percentage of the total number of new cancer cases in the world in people aged 0 to 80+ years for both sexes in 2022. Modified from the WHO web page.

The 2017 INCA data aligns with findings from the World Health Organization in 2022, wherein lung cancer emerged as the most common among men (15.2% of total new cases), followed by prostate cancer (14.2%) and colorectal cancer (10.4%). Among women, breast cancer is the most prevalent (23.8% of total new cases), followed by lung cancer (9.4%) and colorectal cancer (8.9%) (Observatory, 2024; WHO, 2022).

In Brazil, the scenario is distinctive due to significant social inequality, with a concentration of financial resources in certain regions facilitating better access to information, healthcare, and education. This leads to higher cancer reporting rates and clearer diagnosis and treatment pathways. States with higher Human Development Index (HDI) in Brazil show increased notification of malignant neoplasms, as indicated by projected INCA data for the upcoming triennium (2023-2025) (de Oliveira Santos *et al.*, 2023).

1.1.2 Pathology

According to the WHO, "cancer is a generic term for a large group of diseases characterized by the disorderly growth of cells beyond their usual boundaries, which can invade adjacent parts of the body and/or spread to other organs." The WHO uses terms such as malignant tumors and malignant neoplasms, among others, to denote cancer (WHO, 2022).

Cancer can develop in all tissues of the body WHO (2022) and encompasses numerous cytological and molecular subtypes, each requiring specific treatment approaches. According to the WHO, the most common types of cancer in men include lung, prostate, colorectal, stomach, and liver cancers, whereas in women, breast, colorectal, lung, cervical, and thyroid cancers are most frequent (WHO, 2022).

Cancer originates from transformed normal cells. Proto-oncogenes are initially inactive genes in normal cells responsible for encoding proteins that assist in regulating cellular growth, differentiation, and signal translation (Luo & Elledge, 2008). When proto-oncogenes are activated, they become oncogenes, which drive the malignancy of normal cells (Almeida *et al.*, 2005). Proto-oncogenes can be activated in various tissues, causing altered cells to behave atypically and multiply uncontrollably (Weinberg, 1983).

Uncontrolled cell proliferation increases the demand for nutrients, leading to the formation of new blood vessels (angiogenesis) that nourish tumor cells. This unregulated cell growth can result in the accumulation of mass, forming malignant tumors. Additionally, cells may detach from the original tumor and migrate to neighboring tissues, potentially entering blood or lymphatic vessels and disseminating throughout the body, reaching distant organs from the tumor's site of origin, a process known as metastasis (Almeida *et al.*, 2005).

Different genetic alterations enable the transformation of a normal cell into a cancerous one. However, the most relevant process involves oncogenic mutations (cancer-causing) in critical genes, which render the cell insensitive to signals that normally inhibit growth or promote cell death (Almeida *et al.*, 2005). Tumor suppressor genes are normal genes that help control cell division, repair DNA, or induce apoptosis. Cellular transformation is linked to the combination of two important factors: the inactivation of tumor suppressor genes and the activation of oncogenes. The majority of genetic alterations (about 80%) are associated with the environment. Here, environment refers to the natural surroundings in which an individual resides, as well as occupational, social/cultural (lifestyle and habits), and consumption environments, such as food and medications (Luo & Elledge, 2008).

Literature reports that a single oncogene is insufficient to transform normal cells into cancerous ones; conversely, cooperation between two distinct oncogenic mutations can drive the oncogenic process. McMurray *et al.* (2008) examined the cooperation between two significant oncogenic mutations in human cancers (Ras and p53). p53 is a gene transcription factor that responds to cellular stressors such as DNA damage, oxygen scarcity, or the presence of oncogenes (like mutant Ras) to halt proliferation and promote programmed cell death (apoptosis). It functions as a tumor suppressor gene (McMurray *et al.*, 2008). Ras proteins participate in signal transmission to stimulate cellular differentiation and proliferation, expressed by the Ras gene. Mutations in this gene can transform it into an oncogene. While the GTPase Ras protein and the transcription factor p53 individually have limited effects on cancer promotion, their cooperation is responsible for the transformation of normal cells into cancer cells. In Figure 3, the p53 mutation affects the expression of genes in group A, and the Ras mutation modifies the expression of genes in group B. When p53 and Ras mutations occur

in the same cell, they synergistically regulate a subset of genes (AB), known as cooperation response genes (CRGs), which are crucial mediators of tumor formation (Luo & Elledge, 2008; Montagner *et al.*, 2015).

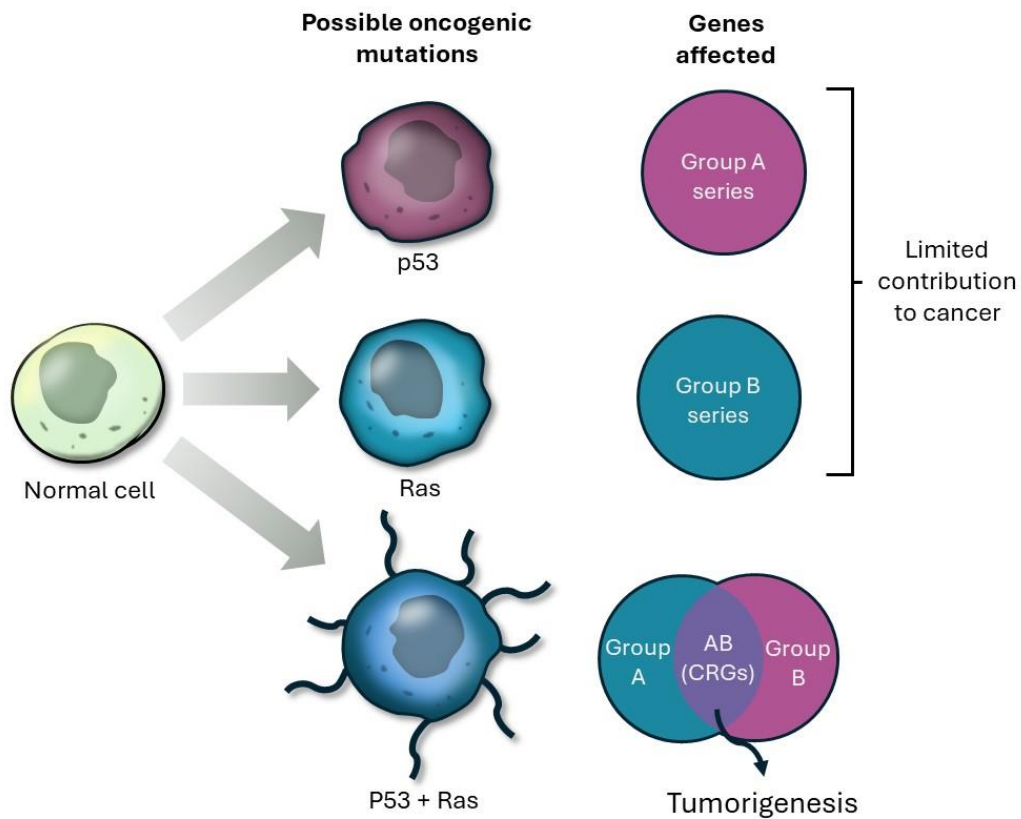


Figure 3. Scheme with oncogenic mutations involving the transcription factor p53 and the GTPase Ras protein. Modified from Luo & Elledge (2008).

Cancer cells are less specialized and functional compared to their normal counterparts. As the tumor grows uncontrollably, they replace the spaces of regular cells within tissues, leading to loss of function. Tissue malfunction can result in various detrimental effects on the organism, impairing the health and quality of life of oncology patients (de Oliveira Santos *et al.*, 2023; Montagner *et al.*, 2015)

1.1.3 Current cancer treatments

The literature reports a range of treatments for cancer, highlighting two categories: conventional and advanced therapies. Currently, worldwide, over half of all ongoing medical trials are focused on cancer treatment (Abbas & Rehman, 2018). These trials aim to diagnose cancer type, location, severity, guide treatment selection, and monitor progress. Traditional treatment methods include surgery, radiotherapy, and chemotherapy, while advanced therapies encompass hormonal therapy, anti-angiogenic therapy, stem cell therapies, immunotherapy, and dendritic cell-based immunotherapy (Charmsaz *et al.*, 2019).

Traditional cancer treatments, still widely recommended, come with both advantages and disadvantages. Surgical intervention is most effective during the early stages of disease progression (Moses *et al.*, 2003). Radiation therapy, however, can damage healthy cells, tissues, and organs (Arruebo *et al.*, 2011). Chemotherapy has significantly reduced cancer morbidity and mortality; however, most chemotherapeutic agents also harm healthy cells, and drug resistance remains a serious challenge (Mondal *et al.*, 2014; Shapira *et al.*, 2011).

Advanced treatments, like traditional ones, offer benefits and challenges. Stem cell therapy is still under experimental clinical trials, though its use in tissue regeneration has been explored (Naji *et al.*, 2019). Embryonic stem cells (ESCs), derived from the inner cell mass of embryos, have the potential to differentiate into various cell types, excluding placental cells (Takahashi & Yamanaka, 2006). Induced pluripotent stem cells (iPSCs) are another breakthrough, reprogrammed from adult cells, showing promise in cellular immunotherapy and anti-tumor vaccine development (Debela *et al.*, 2021; Li *et al.*, 2018; Ouyang *et al.*, 2019).

Targeted therapies involve medications or substances that interfere with molecules promoting tumor growth (Yadav, 2017). Unlike conventional chemotherapy, which affects healthy cells similarly to cancer cells, targeted therapies selectively disrupt cancer cell mechanisms like apoptosis induction, cell cycle arrest, and proliferation prevention (Valter *et al.*, 2017). These therapies have significantly increased survival rates, such as improving survival from 17% to 24% in advanced pancreatic cancer cases (Weber, 2006; Yadav, 2017).

Enzymes play critical roles in cancer cell signaling pathways. Specific targeted therapies inhibit these enzymes, such as DNA topoisomerases, to halt cancer cell growth. Molecules designed for targeted therapy bind to these

enzymes, acting as enzyme inhibitors. Mononuclear and dimeric copper(II) complexes have shown promise as DNA topoisomerase inhibitors, advancing to clinical trials. This underscores the potential of coordination chemistry, pioneered by Alfred Werner, in the pursuit of effective cancer treatments.

Some enzymes serve as signaling molecules for the growth of cancer cells. Certain targeted therapies inhibit these signaling enzymes, such as DNA topoisomerases, to impede cancer cell growth. The ideal molecules used in targeted therapy can bind to these enzymes, acting as enzymatic inhibitors. Mononuclear and dimeric copper(II) complexes have been reported in the literature as inhibitors of DNA topoisomerases, with some progressing to clinical trials (Citri & Yarden, 2006; Molinaro *et al.*, 2020). This suggests that in coordination chemistry, pioneered by Alfred Werner, there may lie the hope for a cure.

1.2 The rich chemistry of *N*-acylhydrazones: From structures to biological activity

Hydrazones are a class of organic compounds belonging to the Schiff bases family with the structure $R_1R_2C=NNH_2$. They can be obtained through the condensation reaction of an aldehyde or ketone with hydrazine (or substituted hydrazine) or hydrazides (H_2NNHR_1 , where R_1 can be an acyl, sulfonyl, or phosphoryl group). In this work, the main focus will be on *N*-acylhydrazones (Verma *et al.*, 2014). These compounds contain the C=N bond, which is conjugated with a lone pair of electrons on the nitrogen atom, enabling them to act as ligands in complexation reactions as they can function as Lewis bases (Uppal *et al.*, 2011; Verma *et al.*, 2014). The nitrogen atoms in hydrazones are nucleophilic, with the amine nitrogen being the most reactive. The carbon atom, on the other hand, exhibits electrophilic and nucleophilic nature. The α -hydrogen of hydrazones is more acidic than that of acidic ketones (Uppal *et al.*, 2011). The combination of hydrazones with other functional groups, such as phenols and aromatic derivatives, allows for the synthesis of compounds with unique physicochemical properties (Verma *et al.*, 2014).

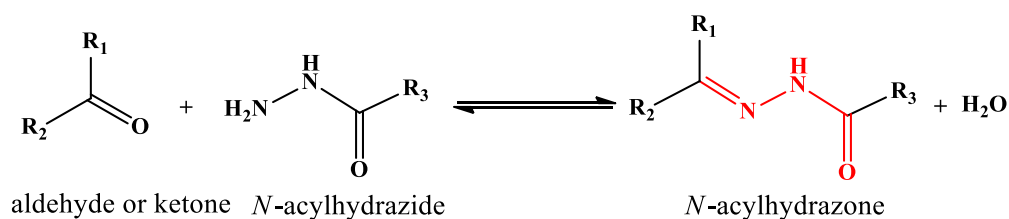


Figure 4. General scheme illustrating the obtaining of *N*-acylhydrazone from a condensation reaction.

1.2.1 Introduction to hydrazone chemistry

In addition to their widely documented pharmacological properties, hydrazones have emerged in medical biotechnology. Hydrazones are often combined with certain drugs and typically maintain neutrality at physiological pH (Wu & Senter, 2005). One of the primary biological activities of hydrazones is their anti-inflammatory effects. To achieve this anti-inflammatory effect, the hydrazine functional group reacts with aldehydes or ketones to form a new substituent group that provides chemical, thermal, and hydrolytic stability (Kajal *et al.*, 2014). Aryl, acyl, and heteroaryl hydrazones are known for featuring an additional donor site (C=O), making them versatile and flexible. This versatility has led to extensive exploration in the literature as effective chelating agents capable of forming a variety of coordination compounds with different transition metals (Kajal *et al.*, 2014).

Hydrazones possess two cleavable bonds, generally stable enough to allow transformations in other parts of the hydrazone molecule. The C=N bond is susceptible to hydrolytic, oxidative, and reductive cleavage, restoring the carbonyl group, while the N–N bond is predisposed to reductive cleavage to produce a primary amine (Enders *et al.*, 2000; Lazny & Nodzevska, 2010). *N*-acylhydrazones may exhibit keto-enolic tautomerism, utilizing the electron donor (the oxygen atom of the carbonyl group) along with the azomethine nitrogen atom (–N=) to coordinate with metal ions (Purandara *et al.*, 2019; Selvam *et al.*, 2019). Acylhydrazones can form intramolecular hydrogen bonds involving the hydrogen atom linked to the amino nitrogen (–NH–) and the oxygen atom (Sadhukhan *et al.*, 2019; Socea *et al.*, 2022).

Acylhydrazones exhibit geometric isomerism due to the imine group ($\text{N}=\text{CH}-$), existing in a mixture of *E* and *Z* isomers, where *E* predominates due to its greater stability over the *Z* isomer (Socea *et al.*, 2022). Theoretically, acylhydrazones can have four isomers, two of which are geometric isomers (*E/Z*) due to the $\text{C}=\text{N}$ double bond, and two are conformational isomers (*syn/anti*) due to the $\text{N}-\text{N}$ bond (Sadhukhan *et al.*, 2019; Socea *et al.*, 2022). In the case of *N*-aroylhydrazones, the *E* isomer is stabilized by an intramolecular hydrogen bond (Socea *et al.*, 2022).

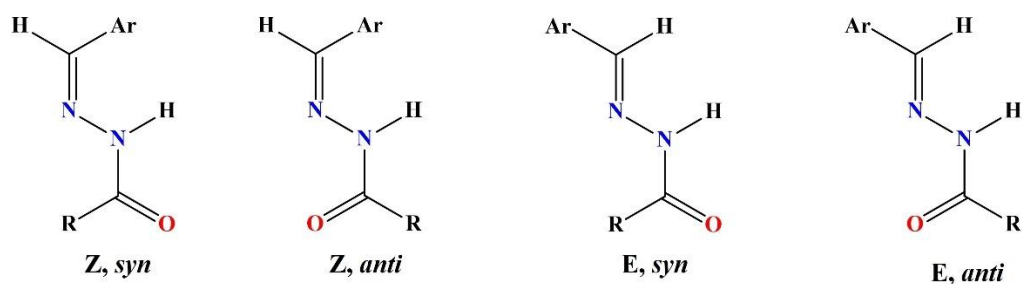
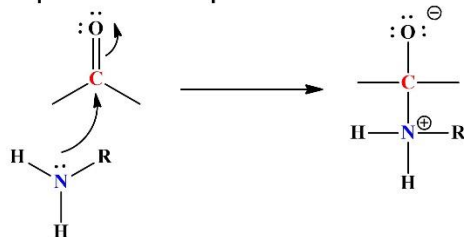


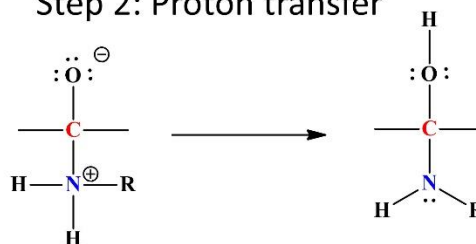
Figure 5. Isomers of acylhydrazone derivatives.

The mechanism for obtaining hydrazones through condensation reaction is widely documented in literature. One of the accepted mechanisms suggests nucleophilic addition to the carbonyl as the first reaction step, followed by proton transfer from the nitrogen that performed the nucleophilic attack. The reaction progresses as the oxygen molecule is protonated, forming a species that facilitates water elimination, leading to the formation of the iminium intermediate. In the final reaction step, the iminium ion is converted into the desired hydrazone through deprotonation by the conjugate base of the acid that protonated the oxygen earlier (Kölmel & Kool, 2017; Trost & Fleming, 1991). The mechanism is depicted in Figure 6, illustrating the general process of obtaining hydrazones through condensation reaction.

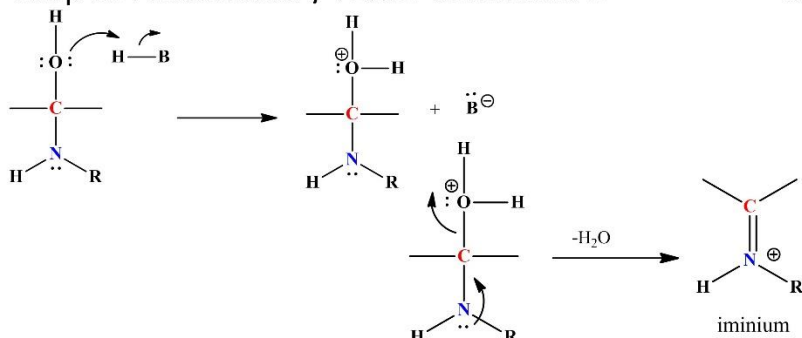
Step 1: Nucleophilic addition



Step 2: Proton transfer



Step 3: Protonation/Water elimination



Step 4: Desprotonation

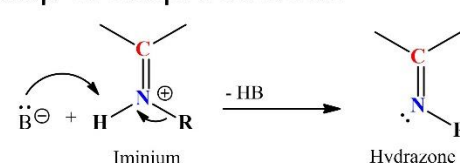
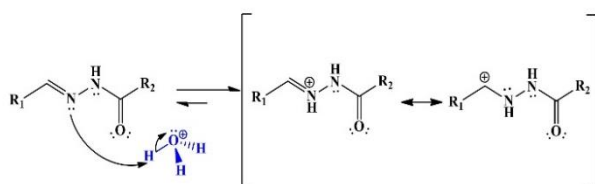


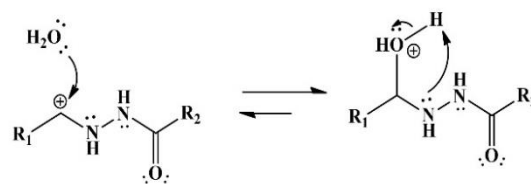
Figure 6. General mechanism for obtaining hydrazones from the condensation reaction.

Although the C=N bond provides stability to hydrazones, it is known that hydrolysis can occur when they are in solution, causing hydrazones to revert to their starting materials. Hydrolysis may be favored in protic solvents or depending on the structure of the hydrazones, which is why there are numerous reports in the literature and in our hydrazone group that demonstrate hydrazones capable of resisting hydrolysis and maintaining stability (Gamov *et al.*, 2023; Sahu *et al.*, 2023; Yang *et al.*, 2021). Figure 7 illustrates the mechanism of acid-catalyzed hydrolysis of a hydrazone, where the first step involves protonation of the azomethine nitrogen (Cukierman, 2021).

Step 1: Protonation



Step 2: Nucleophilic Attack



Step 3: Intramolecular Attack

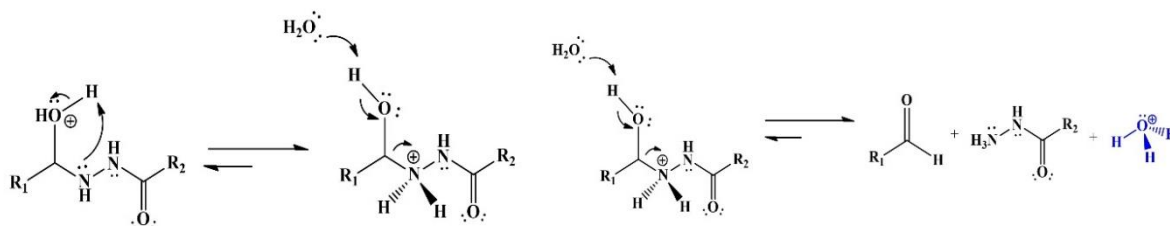


Figure 7. Mechanism of hydrolysis of hydrazones.

1.2.2 Biological activity of *N*-acylhydrazones

The discovery of new drugs is challenging because many fail in the early stages of clinical trials due to toxicity and lack of efficacy (Swinney & Anthony, 2011). Over the past two decades, the bioactive *N*-acylhydrazone group has been prominently featured in medicinal chemistry, identified in a large number of compounds targeting various molecular targets (Thota *et al.*, 2018). In recent years, several studies have been published on the chemistry and biological activity of *N*-acylhydrazones, making this topic crucial in the development of new therapeutically useful bioactive compounds (Pinheiro *et al.*, 2018; Thota *et al.*, 2018).

While many *N*-acylhydrazones have been reported in the literature with biological activity, few have been approved for clinical use, notable among them are the semicarbazones: nitrofurazone and nitrofurantoin (Figure 8) (Guay, 2001; Pinheiro *et al.*, 2018; Thota *et al.*, 2018). These two compounds are primarily used to combat bacterial infections. Nitrofurazone (1) is used as a topical antibacterial agent, and nitrofurantoin (2) is used orally to treat infections in the genitourinary tract (Guay, 2001; Thota *et al.*, 2018). The mechanism of action of these drugs is believed to be associated with the generation of highly reactive

electrophiles following reduction of nitrofurans by bacterial enzymes (nitroreductases), followed by reaction with nucleophiles (Pinheiro *et al.*, 2018).

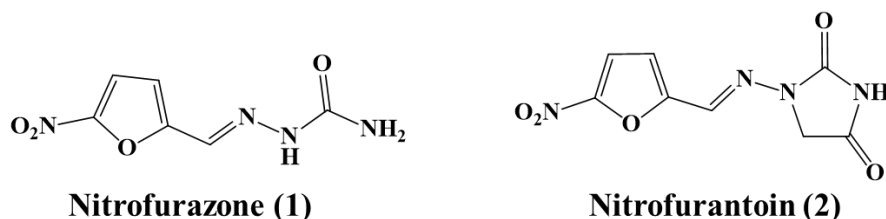


Figure 8. Structures of some *N*-acylhydrazones approved for clinical use.

Many anticancer drugs are undergoing clinical trials, and the intense search for new anticancer agents has led to the discovery of several hydrazones with antitumor activity (Rollas & Güniz Küçükgüzel, 2007). A recent study demonstrated that 5-bromo-1-methyl-*N'*-[(*E*)-(1-methyl-1*H*-indol-3-yl)methylidene]-1*H*-indole-3-carbohydrazide (Figure 9) exhibits antitumor activity in breast, cervical, and colon cancer cell lines, inducing cellular apoptosis. This action is mediated through adenosine monophosphate-dependent protein kinase A (cAMP), p53 protein, and stimulation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) and nitric oxide (NO) generation (Sreenivasulu *et al.*, 2019). Researchers also showed that (*E*)-1-(4-methoxybenzyl)-*N'*-(7-methyl-2-oxoindolin-3-ylidene)-1*H*-1,2,3-triazole-4-carbohydrazide inhibits a kinase involved in the cell replication process, exerting an antiproliferative effect concurrently with increased ROS production, inducing apoptosis in cancer cell lines (Sreenivasulu *et al.*, 2019).

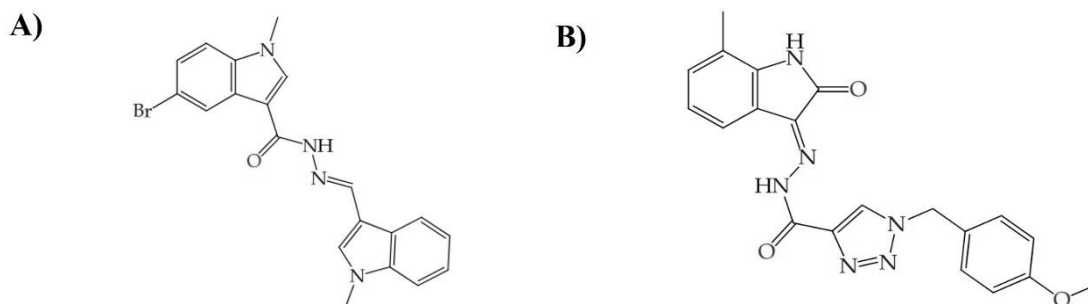


Figure 9. Structure of **A)** 5-bromo-1-methyl-*N'*-[(*E*)-(1-methyl-1*H*-indol-3-yl)methylidene]-1*H*-indole-3-carbohydrazide **B)** (*E*)-1-(4-methoxybenzyl)-*N'*-(7-methyl-2-oxoindolin-3-ylidene)-1*H*-1,2,3-triazole-4-carbohydrazide with antitumor action.

Numerous *N*-acylhydrazones have been reported as intermediates in heterocyclic reactions, owing to their structural variability which allows for the synthesis of compounds with diverse therapeutic indications (such as cytotoxic, antibacterial, antifungal, antiviral, antioxidant, antiparasitic, anti-inflammatory, anticonvulsant, and antihypertensive properties). Motivated by these and other studies, our research group has been dedicated over the past fifteen years to investigating the biological activities of different families of hydrazones, particularly in the context of managing Alzheimer's disease, Parkinson's disease, and cytotoxic activity. Additionally, we study the interaction of these molecules with various metal ions, whether in the formation of isolated coordination compounds or in solution studies (Cukierman, 2021; Cukierman *et al.*, 2018; Cukierman *et al.*, 2020; Cukierman *et al.*, 2017; Moura *et al.*, 2023; Rada *et al.*, 2019; Rada *et al.*, 2020).

1.3 Metals in Medicine

Some metal ions are vital for many functions in living organisms. Over the last few decades, metals have increasingly become important as diagnostic and therapeutic tools evolve to study and treat a variety of pathologies. Metals can easily become positively charged ions by losing electrons, allowing them to interact with biological molecules. The roles that metals play in biological systems are diverse, including oxygen transport, metabolism regulation, and serving as essential components of metalloenzymes. Metal ions also have structural roles, assisting biomolecules in achieving their functional conformation (Franz & Metzler-Nolte, 2019).

The literature reports that different coordination compounds have been used to control or treat various pathologies. Silver and antimony complexes have been employed as anti-infective agents: silver sulfadiazine is used as an antimicrobial, and both meglumine antimoniate and sodium stibogluconate are utilized for treating leishmaniasis. On the other hand, the iron chelator deferoxamine is used to treat malaria (Franz & Metzler-Nolte, 2019; Housecroft & Sharpe, 2005; Morrison *et al.*, 2020; 2022). Some iron and manganese coordination compounds derived from macrocyclic ligands (such as porphyrins) have been synthesized and evaluated by researchers, as they can potentially serve as superoxide scavengers, mimicking the enzyme superoxide dismutase (Roat-Malone, 2007).

Chemotherapy has been one of the main forms of cancer treatment. Chemotherapeutic agents induce a cytotoxic event that inhibits tumor progression. Chemotherapy aims for selective attack on tumor cells while preserving healthy cells; however, many chemotherapeutic agents damage healthy cells in addition to tumor cells (Roat-Malone, 2007).

In the 1960s, the anticancer activity of cisplatin (Figure 10) was discovered, marking it as one of the first coordination compounds used for cancer treatment. Cisplatin is responsible for curing more than 90% of testicular cancer cases and plays a pivotal role in treating ovarian, head and neck, bladder, cervical, melanoma, and lymphoma tumors (Chen *et al.*, 2009; de Oliveira Santos *et al.*, 2023; Lippard & Berg, 1994). The mechanism of action of cisplatin involves binding to DNA and subsequent interference with DNA replication. Following intravenous administration to the patient, cisplatin rapidly diffuses into tissues and strongly binds to plasma proteins, particularly albumin. Cisplatin's interactions with DNA can trigger cytotoxic processes leading to the death of both cancerous and healthy cells, indicating that cisplatin is less selective than other antitumor agents (Rosenberg *et al.*, 1967; Rosenberg *et al.*, 1965).

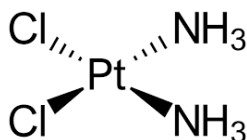


Figure 10. Cisplatin structure, *cis*-diamminodichloroplatinum(II).

Although cisplatin remains one of the most widely used treatments for cancer patients, often combined with other drugs, there are many reported side effects due to its low biocompatibility, as platinum is not a physiological metal. Besides nephrotoxicity and neurotoxicity associated with its use, damage to gastrointestinal mucosa is expected, and in many cases, the development of cellular resistance to the compound limits its use in cancer treatment. The metabolism of the drug by sulfur-containing proteins and peptides in the plasma and the repair of damaged DNA are some factors related to acquired resistance to cisplatin. Consequently, many new coordination compounds with anticancer activity, preferably less toxic and more selective than cisplatin, have been investigated (McMurray *et al.*, 2008; Montagner *et al.*, 2015; Rada *et al.*, 2019; Rada *et al.*, 2020). The literature reports a significant increase in the search for

new metal-based anticancer agents following the discovery of cisplatin's anticancer activity. However, few inorganic antineoplastic drugs have entered clinical study in recent decades, primarily due to issues of toxicity associated with lack of selectivity (Rada *et al.*, 2019; Rada *et al.*, 2020).

1.4 The bioinorganic chemistry of copper: An inorganic perspective on biological systems

When analyzing a biological system, there exists a clear boundary between organic and inorganic systems. On one side, essential elements for life include C, H, N, and O, along with Na, Mg, K, Ca, Cl, P, and S. Among these, C, H, N, and O are responsible for the constitution of biomolecules such as lipids, amino acids, peptides, carbohydrates, proteins, and nucleic acids. P is important for ATP and DNA, and S allows for coordination capability in cysteine residues within proteins. On the other side, less abundant elements like Na, K, and Cl enable osmotic control and nervous action. Mg^{2+} is present in chlorophyll, and enzymes containing Mg^{2+} are involved in phosphate hydrolysis. The Ca^{2+} ion is crucial for structural functions such as bones, teeth, shells, and muscles, while the Fe^{2+} ion serves as the active site in hemoglobin, facilitating the transport of oxygen to cells (Housecroft & Sharpe, 2005).

In addition to the aforementioned elements, certain others known as trace metals (V, Cr, Mn, Fe, Co, Ni, Cu, Zn e Mo.) and trace non-metals (B, Si, Se, F, and I) hold significant relevance in biological systems. These elements constitute a minute fraction within living organisms (Housecroft & Sharpe, 2005). For some authors, Bevers *et al.* (2009); Hille (2002), tungsten (W) is also considered biologically relevant because some metalloenzymes have this element in their active site.

1.4.1 Introduction to Bioinorganic Chemistry

Bioinorganic chemistry involves the study of metal species in biological systems. The essentiality of metal ions has been defined by several criteria:

- a. Physiological deficiency occurs when the element is removed from the diet;
- b. Deficiency is alleviated by adding the element back into the diet;
- c. Specific biological functions are associated with the element;
- d. High doses of these metal ions can cause toxic effects in the organism, eventually leading to lethality.

Beyond availability, physical-chemical properties such as ionic charge, ionic radius, ligand preferences, coordination geometry preferences, systemic kinetic control, and chemical reactivity justify the inclusion of these elements in biological systems (Housecroft & Sharpe, 2005; Lippard & Berg, 1994; Roat-Malone, 2007).

In general, the roles of metal ions in biological systems vary:

- Group 1 and 2 metals act as structural elements and in maintaining charge and osmotic balance.
- Transition metal ions occurring in a single oxidation state, such as Zn(II), function in superoxide dismutase and zinc fingers.
- Transition metals occurring in multiple oxidation states serve as electron carriers—e.g., iron ions in cytochromes or iron-sulfur clusters of the nitrogenase enzyme—and facilitate oxygen transport—e.g., iron ions in hemoglobin or copper ions in hemocyanin—and act as catalytic sites in enzyme catalysis—e.g., copper ions in superoxide dismutase or iron and molybdenum ions in nitrogenase (Housecroft & Sharpe, 2005; Lippard & Berg, 1994; Roat-Malone, 2007).

Table 1. List of essential metals and summary of where they can be found and their functions in biological systems Housecroft & Sharpe (2005).

Metal	Biological function
V	Enzymes (nitrogenases, haloperoxidases)
Cr	Essential in glucose metabolism in higher mammals (not yet proven)
Mn	Enzymes (phosphatases, mitochondrial superoxide dismutase, glycosyl transferase); photoredox activity
Fe	Electron transfer systems (Fe-S proteins, cytochromes); storage and transport of oxygen (hemoglobin, myoglobin, hemerythrin); Fe storage (ferritin, transferritin); Fe transport proteins (siderophores); in enzymes (e.g. nitrogenases, hydrogenases, oxidases, reductases)
Co	Vitamin B ₁₂ coenzyme
Ni	Enzymes (urease, some hydrogenases)
Cu	Electron transfer systems (blue copper proteins); storage and transport of oxygen (hemocyanin); Cu transport proteins (ceruloplasmin)
Zn	Acts as a Lewis acid (for example, in hydrolysis processes involving carboxypeptidase, carbonic anhydrase)
Mo	Enzymes (nitrogenases, reductases, hydroxylases)

1.4.2 The Bioinorganic Chemistry of Copper

Copper has a variety of applications in bioinorganic chemistry, owing to its status as a transition metal with multiple oxidation states that facilitate a range of redox reactions, particularly relevant in biological systems. Copper's primary roles include electron transfer systems, such as those involving blue copper proteins, as well as the storage and transport of dioxygen (O₂) via hemocyanin. Ceruloplasmin is involved in the copper transport process within the body (Housecroft & Sharpe, 2005).

a) Blue copper proteins

Blue copper proteins constitute an important group of proteins involved in redox processes in biological systems. The ligands coordinated to copper ions modulate the ease with which the system can be oxidized or reduced. The Cu(I) ion is soft and prefers ligands containing sulfur (found in cysteine residues) or unsaturated ligands such as o-phenanthroline and 2,2'-bipyridine, which have large polarizable electron clouds. The Cu(II) ion, relatively hard or borderline, prefers ligands containing nitrogen (found in histidine residues), which are harder atoms. Typically, copper enzymes involved in redox reactions feature both types of ligands, allowing the metal centers to readily exist in both oxidation states (Roat-Malone, 2007). There are three classes of copper centers in blue copper proteins (Housecroft & Sharpe, 2005; Karlin & Tyeklar, 2012):

- i) Type 1 center is characterized by intense absorption in the electronic spectrum with $\lambda_{\text{max}} \approx 600$ nm, and $\epsilon_{\text{max}} \approx 100$ times greater than that of the aqueous Cu^{2+} ion, attributed to charge transfer from a coordinated cysteine to Cu^{2+} .
- ii) Type 2 center exhibits typical electronic spectroscopy characteristics of the Cu^{2+} ion.
- iii) Type 3 center shows absorption with $\lambda_{\text{max}} \approx 330$ nm, existing as a pair of antiferromagnetically coupled Cu(II) centers providing a diamagnetic system. The Cu_2 unit can function as a two-electron transfer center and is involved in O_2 reduction.

Blue copper proteins contain at least one Type 1 copper metal center, including plastocyanins and azurins. Plastocyanins are found in higher plants and blue-green algae. Azurins occur in some bacteria and are involved in electron transfer converting $[\text{NO}_3]^-$ to N_2 (Housecroft & Sharpe, 2005; Lippard & Berg, 1994; Roat-Malone, 2007). Type 1 enzymes sometimes have a distorted tetrahedral center, especially when the enzyme contains Cu(II) ions. In azurin, however, the Cu(II) ion adopts a trigonal bipyramidal geometry, while in both azurin and plastocyanin, copper(I) metal centers adopt trigonal geometry. For Type 2 and Type 3 copper centers, certain ligands may or may not bond with the metal center, depending on the metalloprotein and the oxidation state of the copper ion (Roat-Malone, 2007). Although blue copper proteins are involved in

electron transfer processes, the Franck-Condon principle ensures that no nuclear movement occurs during the electronic transition; thus, the geometry of the species before and after electron transfer is little changed. Consequently, the geometry of the active site of a redox metalloenzyme should approach the appropriate transition state for electron transfer (Housecroft & Sharpe, 2005; Lippard & Berg, 1994; Roat-Malone, 2007).

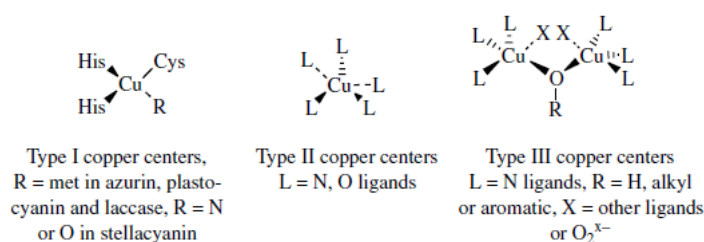


Figure 11. Type I, II, and III copper center geometries. Dotted lines indicate possible ligands.

b) Hemocyanin

Hemocyanins are copper-containing proteins that transport O_2 in mollusks and arthropods. Hemocyanin is a large multimeric protein (molar mass 4×10^5 to 9×10^6 Da) that binds molecular oxygen at Type III dinuclear copper sites (Housecroft & Sharpe, 2005; Roat-Malone, 2007). This metalloprotein transports O_2 by binding molecular oxygen as a peroxide ion at a dinuclear copper site, concomitantly oxidizing copper(I) to copper(II). The presence of Cu(II) in oxyhemocyanin imparts a blue color to species that utilize this metalloenzyme as their oxygen carrier. Oxyhemocyanin exhibits an intense optical transition at 340 nm and a weaker transition at 580 nm, both attributed to ligand-to-metal charge transfer bands (Lippard & Berg, 1994; Roat-Malone, 2007).

The deoxy form of hemocyanin is colorless and contains Cu(I), while oxygen binding results in the blue Cu(II) form. In deoxyhemocyanin, two Cu(I) ions, with variable internuclear distances depending on the species studied, are each trigonally coordinated by three histidines. A cavity exists between the two copper ions to accommodate the oxygen molecule (Housecroft & Sharpe, 2005; Roat-Malone, 2007).

Oxyhemocyanin features the $\text{Cu}_2(\text{His})_6$ unit resembling the deoxy form. The O_2 unit is bound in a bridging mode with an O–O bond length of 140 pm, typical of that found in peroxide complexes. The O_2 binding site is formulated as $\text{Cu(II)}\text{--}[\text{O}_2]^{2-}\text{--Cu(II)}$, indicating that electron transfer accompanies O_2 binding (Housecroft & Sharpe, 2005). Many model complexes have been studied in an effort to understand O_2 binding in hemocyanin; frequently, these model complexes involve imidazole or pyrazole derivatives to mimic histidine residues. One of the models closely resembling oxyhemocyanin is the dicopper(II) peroxide complex.

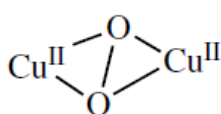
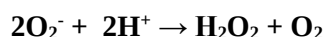


Figure 12. $[\text{Cu}_2\text{--}\mu\text{--}\eta^2\text{:}\eta^2\text{O}_2]$ peroxo binding mode found in hemocyanin.

c) Superoxide Dismutase

Superoxide dismutase enzymes are functional dimers with a molecular weight of approximately 32 kDa. Each enzyme contains one copper ion and one zinc ion per subunit. These metalloenzymes catalyze the dismutation reaction of the biologically harmful superoxide radical ion, as described by the following reaction (Karlin & Tyeklar, 2012; Lippard & Berg, 1994; Roat-Malone, 2007):



The product of this reaction, H_2O_2 , is also potentially harmful to the organism. Hydrogen peroxide is removed by the action of the metalloenzyme catalase, which contains an iron site, through the reaction:



In prokaryotes, it has been discovered that superoxide dismutases (SOD) exhibit redox activity from active sites containing manganese or iron, whereas those found in eukaryotes and some bacterial species feature copper-zinc active sites. This enzyme, predominantly located in mammalian liver, blood cells, and brain tissue, consists of two identical subunits, each containing one copper and one zinc atom. The primary role of SOD is believed to be the removal of the superoxide radical ion from the cytosol. In this capacity, SOD acts as an antioxidant, inhibiting aging and carcinogenesis (Karlin & Tyeklar, 2012; Lippard & Berg, 1994; Roat-Malone, 2007). Imbalances in SOD have been experimentally linked to various types of cancer, such as hepatocellular carcinoma (Huang *et al.*,

2000; Oberley & Buettner, 1979).

1.4.3 Copper(II) complexes with antitumor activity

Copper is a metal with unique properties, exhibiting different coordination numbers and capable of forming complexes with diverse geometric structures. Given its status as an important trace element in biological processes, copper complexes with antitumor activity are expected to reduce side effects compared to widely used platinum-based compounds (Hu *et al.*, 2017). Moreover, due to fundamental differences in the chemistry between copper and platinum complexes, diverse mechanisms of action can also be anticipated. These characteristics make copper complexes promising candidates for the discovery of new active compounds against tumors. The use of these metal complexes as a potential new therapeutic class for various diseases, including cancer, has been extensively discussed in the scientific community (Moura *et al.*, 2023; Rada *et al.*, 2019; Rada *et al.*, 2020).

The Casiopeínas®, developed in Mexico by the research group led by Prof. Dr. Lena Ruiz Azuara, represent a series of promising mononuclear copper(II) ternary complexes. These compounds have recently entered clinical phase testing for cancer, being the first copper-based complexes to reach such an advanced stage of development. This family of copper(II) coordination compounds was initially designed to target DNA damage induction. Consequently, the molecules were engineered with ligands positioned in the equatorial plane of the metal center to facilitate intercalation interactions with DNA. The design incorporated a copper atom, which, as an endogenous metal atom, was intended to mitigate the compound's toxicity. Another potential objective is the development of small cationic molecules to enhance solubility in biological environments. Additionally, the research explores whether the redox properties of the metal might be relevant in tumor cells. The research group prioritized the synthesis and characterization of these compounds, and it was in the 1990s that the name Casiopeínas® was adopted and preclinical studies commenced (Aguilar-Jiménez *et al.*, 2023; Ruiz-Azuara *et al.*, 2014).

The complex depicted in Figure 13, designated Cas III-ia, exemplifies this series. This complex has been shown to induce cell death via apoptosis and autophagy in the C6 glioma cell line in rats. Post-treatment with this complex, C6 glioma cells exhibited morphological features indicative of autophagy, accompanied by intracellular generation of reactive oxygen species (ROS), suggesting a significant role of these species in cell death (Aguilar-Jiménez *et al.*, 2023; Ruiz-Azuara *et al.*, 2014; Tan *et al.*, 2014).

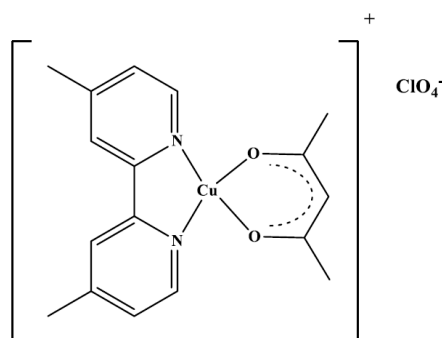


Figure 13. Structure of the mononuclear Cas III-ia complex.

Mononuclear complexes containing *N*-acylhydrazone ligands with antitumor activity have also been reported in the literature, with several studies published by Prof. Dr. Ignacio E. León's research group (Balsa *et al.*, 2021; Balsa, L. M. *et al.*, 2023; Balsa *et al.*, 2020; Balsa, M. L. *et al.*, 2023; Burgos-Lopez *et al.*, 2019). Figure 14 illustrates one of these promising compounds investigated by the group.

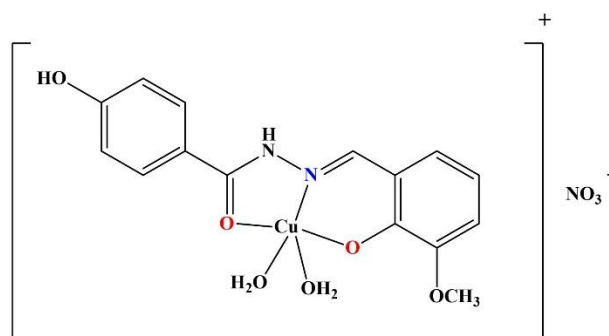


Figure 14. Mononuclear copper(II) complex derived from an *N*-acylhydrazone ligand with antitumor activity.

The complex depicted in Figure 14 inhibits the viability of five human cancer cell lines, demonstrating greater potency than that observed for the free ligand and Cu(II) ion. The anticancer activity of this complex against the tested cells exceeds that reported for the reference metallodrug cisplatin. These findings

underscore the significant impact of coordination on the bioactivity of the complex (Burgos-Lopez *et al.*, 2019).

Binuclear copper(II) complexes have exhibited significant cytotoxic activity *in vitro*; in some cases, even better than cisplatin. Comparisons of the cytotoxic activity of copper(II) complexes with other derivatives containing cobalt, nickel, or zinc indicate that copper complexes show superior DNA cleavage activity. Furthermore, the addition of copper(II) ion to the ligands commonly enhances the antiproliferative activity compared to the free ligand (Fekri *et al.*, 2019; Ferreira *et al.*, 2016; Rossi *et al.*, 2005; Rossi *et al.*, 2002). Copper(II) coordination compounds, both mono- and binuclear, with ligands derived from coumarin, *N*-acylhydrazones, *N*-heterocycles, benzimidazoles, and Schiff bases have been extensively investigated and described. Some of them have demonstrated significant capability to induce apoptotic cell death (Liu *et al.*, 2022; Santini *et al.*, 2014).

1.5 Human Serum Albumin Protein (HSA)

Many drugs are low molecular weight chemical compounds, molecules that can be used in the treatment of various diseases. However, these drugs have some disadvantages such as rapid degradation, short circulation time, quick clearance, nonspecific distribution, and toxic accumulation in specific organ(s) (Sun & H Coy, 2011; Sun *et al.*, 2008). In diseases like cancer and immune disorders, disturbances often occur in specific tissues or organs. These characteristics demand that the drug used acts specifically, being delivered to a particular site selectively (Sun & H Coy, 2011; Sun *et al.*, 2008). Therefore, various strategies have been employed to target nonspecific low molecular weight drugs for site-specific delivery. One approach involves conjugating these drugs with monoclonal antibodies, peptides, and proteins. These carriers can achieve the goal of delivering drugs to the body more selectively. One such carrier is human serum albumin (HSA), which has been widely used for clinical treatments and drug delivery (Wang *et al.*, 2020).

The human albumin gene is located on the long arm of chromosome 4. HSA is produced in human hepatocytes and is the most dominant protein component of blood, constituting approximately 50% of all serum proteins (Bern *et al.*, 2015; Leblanc *et al.*, 2019). HSA serves multiple biological functions, exhibits antioxidant properties, regulates osmotic blood pressure, and can transport various hydrophobic endogenous or exogenous ligands, binding to fatty acids, amino acids, hormones, ions such as Ca^{2+} , Na^{+} , and K^{+} , water, and others (Wang *et al.*, 2020). HSA can transport drugs through covalent bonds, peptides/proteins, by fusing them to its C and N terminals (Larsen *et al.*, 2016; Wang *et al.*, 2020)

Human serum albumin (HSA) is a single chain consisting of 609 amino acids with a molecular weight of 66.5 kDa, as depicted in Figure 15. Its primary structure comprises an N-terminal, a C-terminal, and three homologous domains named domain I, II, and III (Wang *et al.*, 2020). Each of these domains has two helical subdomains (IA and IB, IIA and IIB, IIIA and IIIB), each containing 4 to 6 α -helices (Bern *et al.*, 2015; Wang *et al.*, 2020). These six subdomains form a three-dimensional structure. Unlike other blood proteins, HSA is not glycosylated. Additionally, HSA is highly soluble in water due to its negatively charged surface and is very stable in blood with a half-life of approximately 19 days, owing to its ability to diffuse in and out of blood vessels (Bern *et al.*, 2015; Foss *et al.*, 2016).

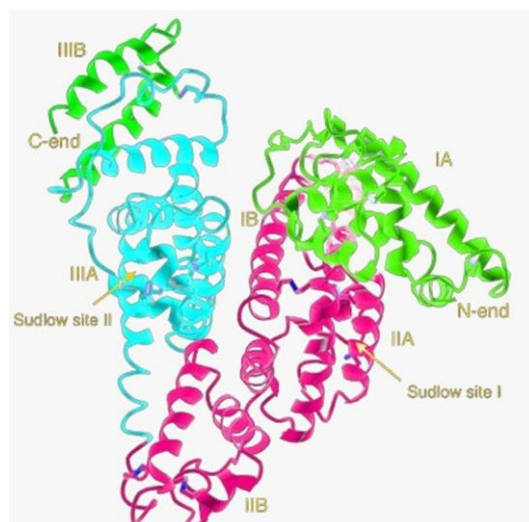


Figure 15. The crystal structure of human serum albumin (HSA) (PDB ID: 1AO6, MMDB ID:47931). The primary structure of HSA consists of one N-terminus, one C-terminus and three homologous domains (domain I, II, and III). Each of these domains has two subdomains (IA and IB, IIA and IIB, IIIA and IIIB), respectively and contains 4 to 6 α -helices, as well with both Sudlow site I and Sudlow site I/II shown. Figure modified from (Wang *et al.*, 2020).

Human serum albumin has an exceptional capacity to transport various ligands, primarily due to its hydrophobic pockets, which provides potential applications in drug delivery. According to Sudlow's nomenclature for albumin, there are two critical binding regions, as illustrated in Figure 15 (Sudlow site I and Sudlow site II), which represent two primary drug-binding sites in the 3D structure of albumin. Both Sudlow site I and Sudlow site II are located in the hydrophobic cavities of subdomain IIA and subdomain IIIA, respectively (Larsen *et al.*, 2016; Leblanc *et al.*, 2019). This unique structure of HSA provides key binding sites for various drugs. Voluminous heterocyclic anions (charged molecules) and dicarboxylic acids preferentially bind to Sudlow sites (Foss *et al.*, 2016).

The literature reports a number of studies demonstrating the use of HSA as a drug delivery vehicle in the body, due to its characteristics of long half-life, recirculation, accumulation in tumor tissues, and ease of diffusion through the epithelium (Foss *et al.*, 2016; Sand *et al.*, 2015). Albumin can pass through leakage from tumor blood vessels, and this characteristic allows albumin to transport anticancer agents to localized tumor regions. Thus, understanding the interaction of a new biologically active compound with HSA is strategically important (Foss *et al.*, 2016; Larsen *et al.*, 2016).

2. Work proposal and justification

The limitations and side effects associated with cisplatin have motivated the development of new chemotherapeutic agents with alternative mechanisms of action. *N*-acylhydrazone derivatives and their copper(II) complexes have been proposed as promising candidates to achieve this goal. Copper complexes offer several advantages over cisplatin. The copper is an essential metal to the human body and exhibits interesting properties, including multiple coordination numbers and very rich stereochemistry. Moreover, various mono- and dinuclear copper(II) complexes synthesized recently have demonstrated cytotoxic activity against cancer cells, positioning them as a new generation of potential chemotherapeutics. The literature reports some dinuclear copper(II) complexes capable of inducing apoptosis in cancer cells and exhibiting *in vitro* activity superior to cisplatin across different tumor cell lines (Aguilar-Jiménez *et al.*, 2023; Balsa *et al.*, 2021; Balsa, L. M. *et al.*, 2023; Balsa *et al.*, 2020; Burgos-Lopez *et al.*, 2019; Rada *et al.*, 2019; Rada *et al.*, 2020; Ruiz-Azuara *et al.*, 2014). Additionally, ONO-donor *N*-acylhydrazonic ligands, both free and in their coordinated form, have shown biological activity as anticancer agents. This has motivated the design of a new generation of similar ligands to enhance antitumor activity (Almeida *et al.*, 2005).

The design of the four bioinspired ligands was based on different criteria. The ligand **H₂L1**, which contains a pyridine substituent, was derived from isoniazid, a drug already used in the treatment of tuberculosis (Gegia *et al.*, 2017; LoBue & Moser, 2003). Heterocyclic aromatic rings with five members are of significant biological relevance, as reported in the literature (Alizadeh *et al.*, 2018; Gibson *et al.*, 1996); therefore, the furan substituent was incorporated into the structure of the ligand **H₂L2**. The 3-phenyl-isoxazole substituent was incorporated into the structure of ligand **H₂L3** due to the significant interaction with biomolecules and antiproliferative activity observed in complexes derived from similar ligands containing the same substituent, which have been previously synthesized by the group (Rada *et al.*, 2020). Additionally, the biological relevance of this substituent has been documented in the literature (Kumar & Jayaroopa, 2013; Walunj *et al.*, 2021). The methyl-imidazole substituent was incorporated into the structure of ligand **H₂L4** due to the presence of the imidazole group in the amino acid histidine.

This study encompasses the investigation of the reactivity, spectroscopic, electrochemical, and antiproliferative properties of a group of new mononuclear and dinuclear copper(II) complexes derived from phenol-based *N*-acylhydrazonic ligands. Different coordination compounds can be obtained from various starting salts. Therefore, in addition to synthesizing a new family of *N*-acylhydrazones, we aim to produce distinct copper complexes by varying the starting salts to observe possible structural modifications these compounds might undergo.

Following the syntheses, characterization, and reactivity studies for all the compounds toward the HSA, as well as their spectroscopic and electrochemical properties, the cytotoxicity of the compounds will be evaluated against human tumor and normal cell lines. The different ligands will be synthesized according to the literature (Rada *et al.*, 2019; Rada *et al.*, 2021; Rada *et al.*, 2020) from a commercial aldehyde and various (commercial or not) hydrazides, generating a new family of *N*-acylhydrazones (Figure 16), which will then be used as ligands in the synthesis of the copper(II) complexes.

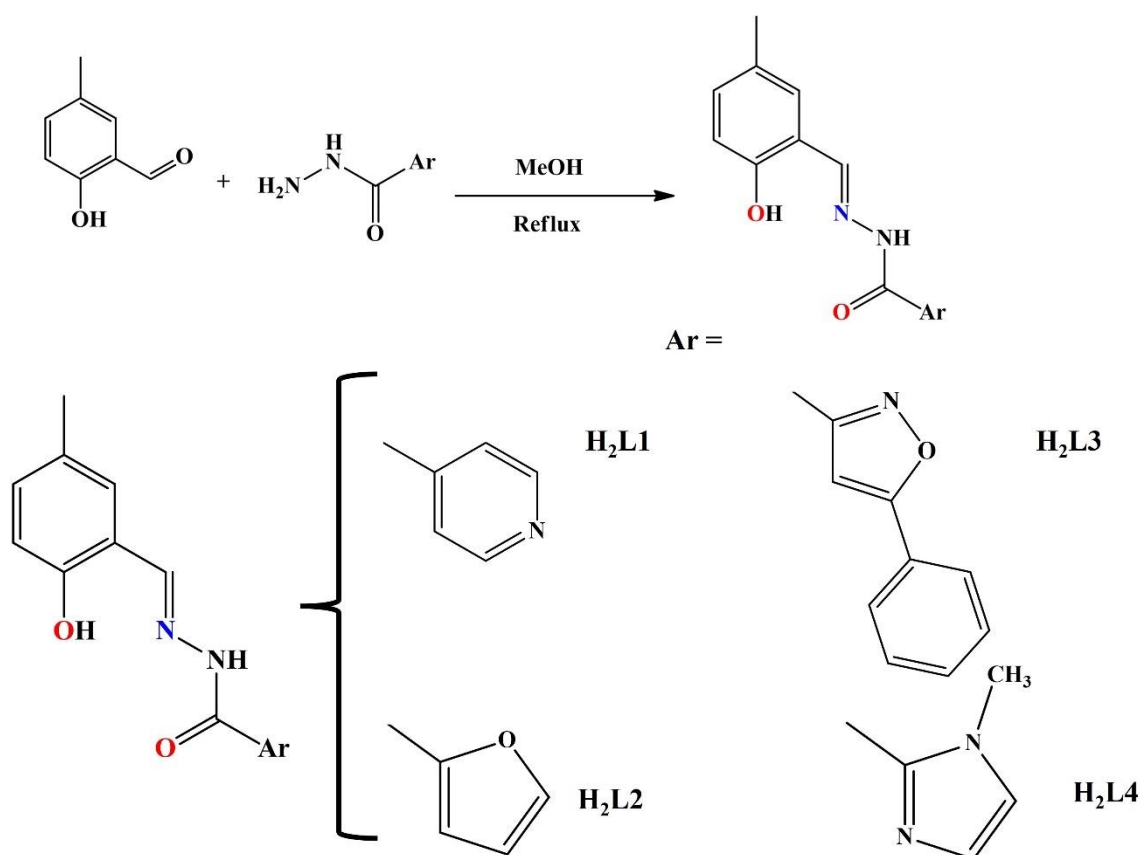


Figure 16. General scheme for the synthesis of the proposed phenol-based, tridentate *N*-acylhydrazonic ligands substituted with different Ar = aryl groups.

3. Objectives

3.1 General objective

The primary objective of this study is to synthesize and characterize new *N*-acylhydrazonic ligands and their corresponding copper(II) complexes, as well as to explore their spectroscopic and electrochemical properties, their *in vitro* interaction with HSA and their cytotoxicity toward human tumor cell lines.

Additionally, the study aims to correlate structural and physicochemical properties of these compounds with the results obtained.

3.2. Specific objectives

- Design and synthesize a new group of bioinspired *N*-acylhydrazones and their Cu²⁺ complexes;
- Evaluate the various Cu²⁺ coordination compounds that can be obtained from the starting salts copper(II) chloride dihydrate, copper(II) perchlorate hexahydrate, and copper(II) nitrate trihydrate;
- Characterize the new ligands and their complexes through spectroscopic, electrochemical, and thermogravimetric techniques;
- Study the formation of the different complexes in solution and correlate these results with those obtained for the complexes in the solid state;
- Determine the pK_a values of the new synthesized ligands using electronic spectroscopy in the UV-Vis region;
- Investigate the interaction of ligands and complexes with the blood protein HSA *via* electronic spectroscopy in the UV-Vis region;
- Assess the cytotoxicity of the prepared compounds against both tumor and healthy human cells, comparing their activity with the one of cisplatin;
- Perform theoretical calculations to correlate the spectroscopic properties of the ligands and complexes with their chemical structures.

4. Methodology

4.1 Reagents and Solvents

Acetone, acetonitrile (MeCN), diethyl ether (Et₂O), dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO), dimethylformamide (DMF), ethanol (EtOH), methanol (MeOH), isopropyl alcohol (*i*-PrOH), hydrochloric acid, barium sulfate, silver nitrate, monobasic sodium phosphate, potassium hydroxide, sodium hydroxide, potassium bromide, the supporting electrolyte tetrabutylammonium hexafluorophosphate, copper(II) perchlorate hexahydrate, copper(II) chloride dihydrate and copper(II) nitrate trihydrate, precursor 5-methylsalicylaldehyde (Hmb), 5-phenylisoxazole-3-carbohydrazide and human serum albumin (HSA) were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich; sodium chloride was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich / VWR PROLABO; furan-2-carbohydrazide and pyridine-2-carbohydrazide were obtained from Acros Organics and Sigma-Aldrich, respectively. All these chemicals were used without any type of treatment or further purification. The precursor 1-methylimidazole-2-carbohydrazide, on the other hand, was synthesized from the respective ester by the PhD student Hécio Marcondes, under supervision of our collaborator, Prof. Cláudio Donnici (Departamento de Química – UFMG).

4.2 Synthesis of ligands

4.2.1 Ligand H₂L1

This ligand was synthesized by adding dropwise a methanolic solution (~15 mL) of 5-methylsalicylaldehyde (408 mg, 3 mmol) to 412 mg (3 mmol) of isoniazid dissolved in MeOH (15 mL). The mixture was stirred and refluxed for ~3 h. After the solution reached room temperature, the pH was evaluated at around 5-6. Yellow crystals suitable for XRD analysis were obtained from the stock solution after 2 days. The data regarding characterization agrees with analogous compounds already reported in the literature by the group.

M.p. = 209 ± 2 °C, yield = 708 mg (2.7 mmol, 92%). Elemental analysis (%) – calculated for C₁₄H₁₃O₂N₃ (255.29 g mol⁻¹): C – 65.8, H – 5.1, N – 16.5; found: C – 65.0, H – 5.0, N – 16.6. ¹H NMR (DMSO-*d*₆, ppm): 12.26 (s, 1H, –NH–); 10.81 (s, 1H, –OH); 8.80 (dd, 2H,); 8.63 (s, 1H); 7.83 (dd, 2H,); 7.40 (d, 1H,); 7.13 (dd, 1H); 6.85 (d, 1H); 2.25 (s, 3H).

4.2.2 Ligand H₂L₂

This ligand was prepared by adding dropwise a methanolic solution (about 15 mL) of 5-methylsalicylaldehyde (408 mg, 3 mmol) to 378 mg (3 mmol) of furan-2-carboxyhydrazide dissolved in MeOH (15 mL). The mixture was stirred and refluxed for ~3 h. After the solution reached room temperature, the pH was evaluated at around 5-6. Yellow crystals suitable for XRD analysis were obtained from the stock solution after 2 days. The data regarding characterization agrees with analogous compounds already reported in the literature.

M.p. = 150 ± 2 °C, yield = 657 mg (2.5 mmol, 83%). Elemental analysis (%) – calculated for C₁₃H₁₂O₃N₂·H₂O (262.29 g mol⁻¹): C – 59.5, H – 5.4, N – 10.7; found: C – 59.0, H – 5.3, N – 10.6. ¹H NMR (DMSO-*d*₆, ppm): 12.08 (s, 1H, –NH–); 10.88 (s, 1H, –OH); 8.60 (s, 1H, *H*7); 7.96 (*dd*, 1H, *H*12); 7.34 (*bs*, 1H, *H*5); 7.31 (*d*, 1H, *H*10); 7.10 (*dd*, 1H, *H*3); 6.83 (*d*, 1H, *H*2); 6.71 (*dd*, 1H, *H*11); 2.24 (s, 3H, *H*13). TGA: a two-step weight loss of approximately 6.7% (calcd 6.9%) is observed between 60 and 160 °C, consistent with one hydration water molecule.

4.2.3 Ligand H₂L₃

This ligand was synthesized by adding dropwise a methanolic solution (~15 mL) of 5-methylsalicylaldehyde (408 mg, 3 mmol) to 378 mg (3 mmol) of 5-phenylisoxazole-3-carbohydrazide dissolved in MeOH (15 mL). The mixture was stirred and refluxed for ~3 h. After the solution reached room temperature, the pH was evaluated at around 5-6. White crystals suitable for XRD analysis were obtained from the stock solution after 4 days. The data regarding characterization agrees with analogous compounds already reported in the literature by the group.

M.p. = 190 ± 2 °C, yield = 832 mg (2.5 mmol, 81%). Elemental analysis (%) – calculated for C₁₈H₁₅O₃N₃ (321.34 g mol⁻¹): C – 67.2, H – 4.7, N – 13.1; found: C – 65.9, H – 4.6, N – 12.8. ¹H NMR (DMSO-*d*₆, ppm): 12.54 (s, 1H, –NH–); 10.76 (s, 1H, –OH); 8.70 (s, 1H); 7.98 (*dd*, 2H); 7.50 (*dd*, 3H); 7.14 (*dd*, 1H); 7.10 (*dd*, 1H); 6.85 (*d*, 1H); 6.83 (*d*, 1H); 2.24 (s, 3H).

4.2.4 Ligand H₂L4

This ligand was prepared by adding dropwise a methanolic solution (about 15 mL) of 5-methylsalicylaldehyde (136 mg, 1 mmol) to 140 mg (1 mmol) of 1-methyl-imidazole-2-carbohydrazide dissolved in MeOH (15 mL). The mixture was stirred and refluxed for ~3 h. After the solution reached room temperature, the pH was evaluated at around 5-6. Yellowish crystals suitable for XRD analysis were obtained from the stock solution after 8 days. Characterization data agree with analogous compounds already reported in the literature by the group.

M.p. = 189 ± 2 °C, yield = 219.5 mg (0.85 mmol, 85%). Elemental analysis (%) – calculated for C₁₃H₁₄O₂N₄ (258.28 g mol⁻¹): C – 60.4, H – 5.5, N – 21.7; found: C – 60.6, H – 5.3, N – 21.7. ¹H NMR (DMSO-*d*₆, ppm): 12.31 (s, 1H, –NH–); 11.12 (s, 1H, –OH); 8.66 (s, 1H); 7.45 (*dd*, 1H); 7.23 (*d*, 1H); 7.11 (*dd*, 2H); 6.83 (*d*, 1H); 3.99 (s, 3H); 2.24 (s, 3H).

4.3 Syntheses of copper(II) complexes

4.3.1 Copper(II) complexes derived from H₂L1

Attention!

Perchlorate salts of metal complexes containing organic ligands are potentially explosive and must be handled with care. Small quantities must be prepared.

Complexes **1A**, **1B** and **1C** were prepared from **H₂L1**, respectively, with the starting salts: copper(II) chloride dihydrate, copper(II) perchlorate hexahydrate and copper(II) nitrate trihydrate.

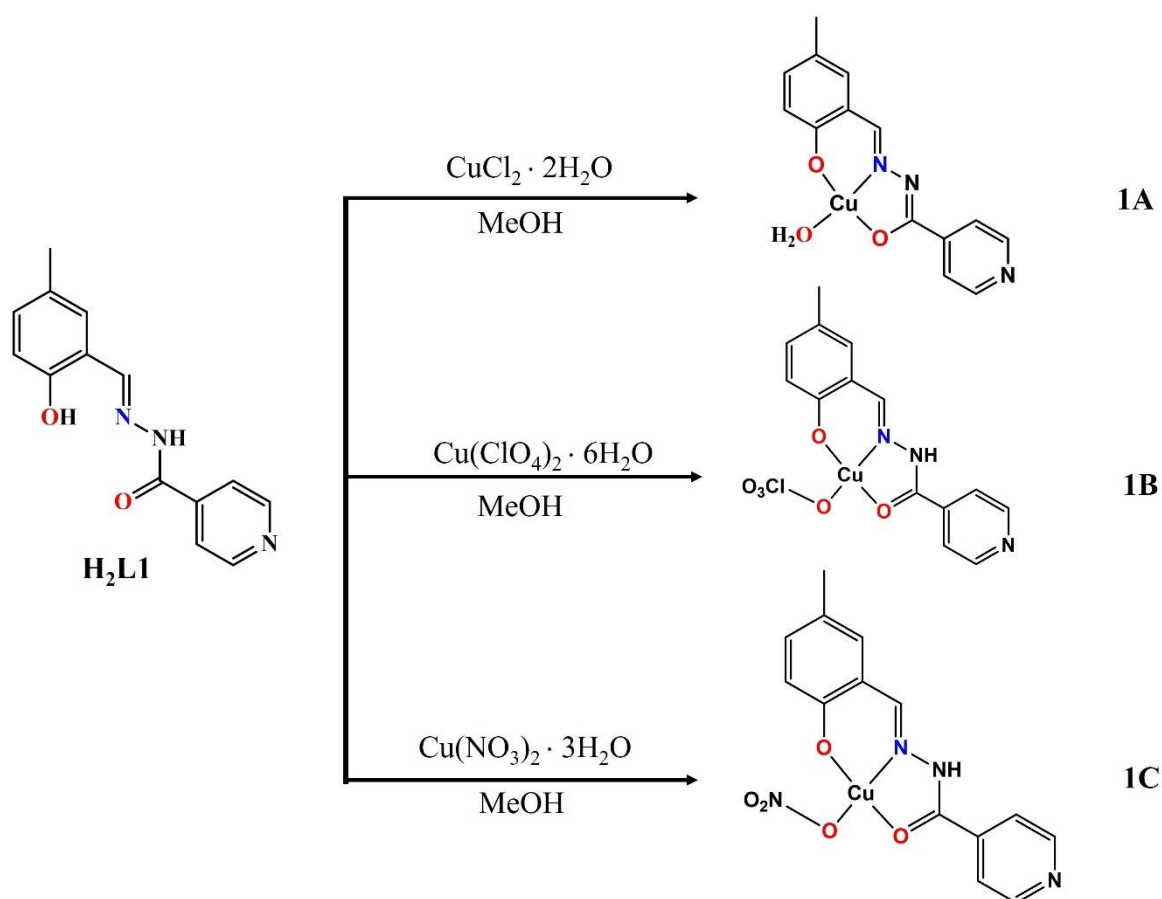


Figure 17. Synthetic scheme for complexes **1A**, **1B** and **1C**.

Complex **1A** was synthesized by dissolving 1 mmol (250 mg) of **H₂L1** in 15 mL of MeOH, then adding 1 mmol (170 mg) of copper(II) chloride dihydrate. The mixture was stirred for 1 h at room temperature. A reddish precipitate was obtained. After 4 days, with slow evaporation of the solvent, a reddish powder was isolated. Figure 17 illustrates the synthesis of complex **1A**.

Yield = 290 mg (0.8 mmol, 82%). ICP-OES (% of metal) – calculated for $[\text{Cu}(\text{C}_{14}\text{H}_{11}\text{O}_2\text{N}_3)(\text{OH}_2)]$ (334.83 g mol⁻¹): Cu – 19.0; found: Cu – 19.4 ; TGA: Around 300 °C there is a loss of mass of 72.5%, this loss is related to the organic fraction of the complex and water molecule. The 27.5% residue is suggested as copper(II) oxide, corresponding to 22.8% copper. With an error of 3.8% for the percentage of copper calculated for the suggested structure of the complex.

Complex **1B** was synthesized by dissolving 1 mmol (250 mg) of **H₂L1** in 15 mL of MeOH, then adding 1 mmol (370 mg) of copper(II) perchlorate hexahydrate. The mixture was stirred for 1 h at room temperature. A reddish precipitate was obtained. After 3 days, with slow evaporation of the solvent, a

reddish powder was isolated. Figure 17 illustrates the synthesis of complex **1B**.

Yield = 295 mg (0.4 mmol, 40%). ICP-OES (% of metal) – calculated for $[\text{Cu}(\text{C}_{14}\text{H}_{12}\text{O}_2\text{N}_3)\text{ClO}_4]$ ($417.26 \text{ g mol}^{-1}$): Cu – 15.2; found: Cu – 16.6; TGA: The experiment was not carried out because the sample contains perchlorate.

Complex **1C** was synthesized by dissolving 1 mmol (250 mg) of **H₂L1** in 15 mL of MeOH, then adding 1 mmol (240 mg) of copper(II) nitrate trihydrate. The mixture was stirred for 1 h at room temperature. A reddish precipitate was obtained. After 4 days, with slow evaporation of the solvent, a reddish powder was isolated. Figure 17 illustrates the synthesis of complex **1C**.

Yield = 302 mg (0.43 mmol, 43%). ICP-OES (% of metal) – calculated for $[\text{Cu}(\text{C}_{14}\text{H}_{12}\text{O}_2\text{N}_3)\text{NO}_3]$ ($379.81 \text{ g mol}^{-1}$): Cu – 16.73; found: Cu – 16.9; TGA: For complex **1C**, it was possible to observe a loss of mass of approximately 77% at around 380 °C, this loss is related to the organic fraction of the complex. The 23.30% residue is probably copper(II) oxide, corresponding to 18.63% copper. This is in accordance with the structure suggested for the complex and close to that obtained through ICP-OES.

4.3.2 Copper(II) complexes derived from the **H₂L2**

Attention!

Perchlorate salts of metal complexes containing organic ligands are potentially explosive and must be handled with care. Small quantities must be prepared.

Complexes **2A**, **2B** and **2C** were prepared from **H₂L2**, respectively, with the starting salts: copper(II) chloride dihydrate, copper(II) perchlorate hexahydrate and copper(II) nitrate trihydrate.

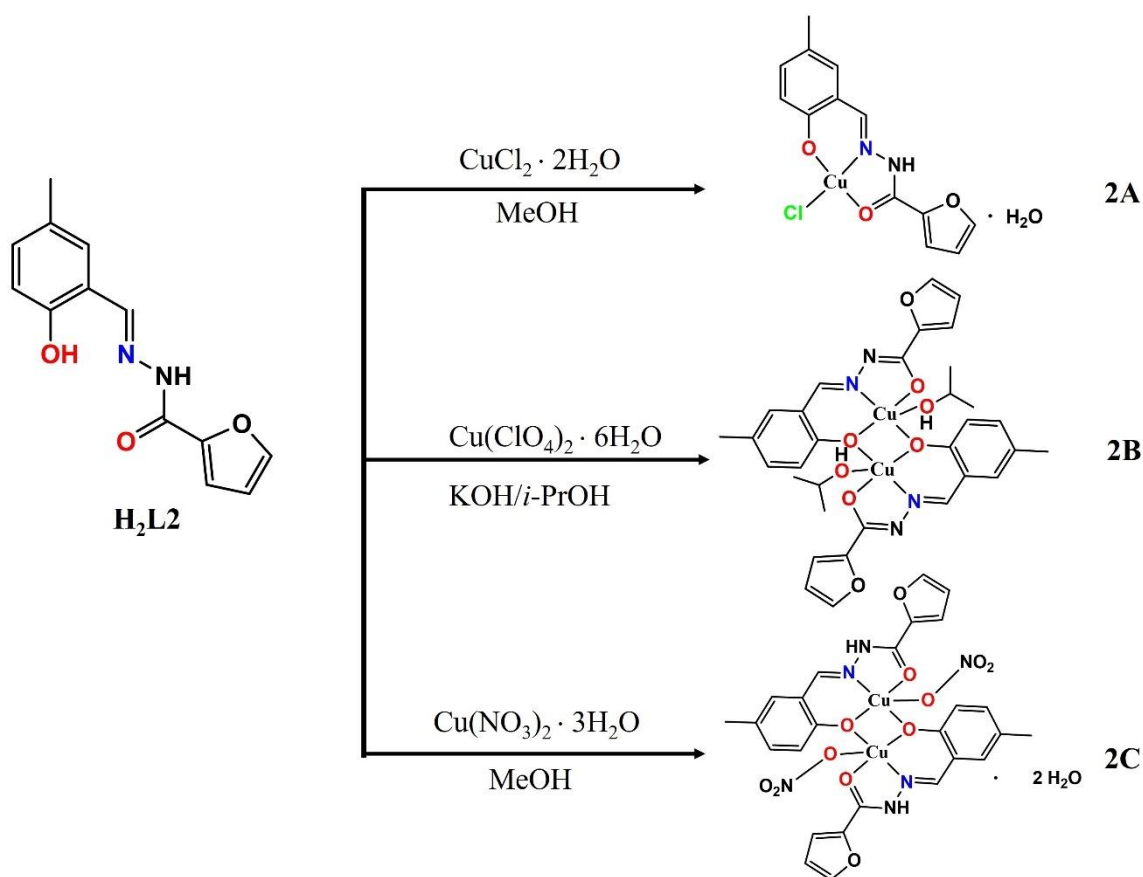


Figure 18. Scheme of the synthesis of complexes **2A**, **2B** and **2C**.

Complex **2A** was synthesized by dissolving 0.2 mmol (52 mg) of **H₂L2** in 10 mL of MeOH, then adding 0.2 mmol (34 mg) of copper(II) chloride dihydrate. The reactants were stirred at room temperature for 1 h, affording a dark green solution. After a few days, dark green crystals suitable for XRD analysis were isolated. Figure 18 illustrates the synthesis of complex **2A**.

Yield = 59.0 mg (0.16 mmol, 80%). Elemental analysis (%) – calculated for $[\text{Cu}(\text{C}_{13}\text{H}_{11}\text{O}_3\text{N}_2)\text{Cl}] \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$ (360.28 g mol⁻¹): C – 43.3, H – 3.6, N – 7.8; found: C – 43.6, H – 3.7, N – 7.8. ICP-OES (%) – calculated: Cu – 17.6; found: Cu – 17.9. TGA: a weight loss of approximately 4.2% (calcd 5.0%) between 80 and 150 °C, roughly agreeing with one hydration water molecule. Molar conductivity in DMF: 25.9 ohm⁻¹ cm² mol⁻¹, consistent with the presence of a mixture of the neutral complex **2A** and its solvent-substituted derivative $[\text{Cu}(\text{HL})\text{DMF}]\text{Cl}$ (1:1).

Complex **2B** was prepared by dissolving 1.0 mmol (378 mg) of copper(II) perchlorate hexahydrate in 10 mL of methanol, then adding 1.0 mmol (262 mg) of **H₂L2** in 15 mL of MeOH. The reactants were stirred at room temperature for 1 h, resulting in a green solution. After a few days, a green solid was obtained, which, upon recrystallization in *i*-PrOH alkalized with KOH, gave light green crystals suitable for XRD analysis. Figure 18 illustrates the synthesis of complex **2B**.

Yield = 330 mg (0.45 mmol, 45%). Elemental analysis (%) – calculated for [Cu₂(C₂₆H₂₂O₆N₄)(C₃H₈O)₂] (731.75 g mol⁻¹): C – 52.5, H – 5.0, N – 7.7; found: C – 52.4, H – 4.8, N – 7.8. ICP-OES (%) – calculated: Cu – 17.4; found: Cu – 18.2. TGA: a weight loss of ~15.8% (calcd 16.4%) between 90-140 °C, consistent with the removal of two isopropanol molecules. Molar conductivity in DMF: 2.68 ohm⁻¹ cm² mol⁻¹, in accordance with a non-electrolyte system.

Complex **2C** was prepared by dissolving 1.0 mmol (242 mg) of copper(II) nitrate trihydrate in 10 mL of MeOH, then adding 1.0 mmol (262 mg) of **H₂L2** in 15 mL of methanol. Reactants were stirred at room temperature for 1 h, resulting in a green solution. After a few days, green crystals suitable for XRD analysis were isolated. Figure 18 illustrates the synthesis of complex **2C**.

Yield = 310 mg (0.4 mmol, 80% for dimer). Elemental analysis (%) – calculated for [Cu₂(C₁₃H₁₁O₃N₂)₂(NO₃)₂·2H₂O] (773.60 g mol⁻¹): C – 40.4, H – 3.4, N – 10.9; found: C – 39.9, H – 3.0, N – 10.6. ICP-OES (%) – calculated: Cu – 16.4; found: Cu – 16.2. TGA: It is possible to observe three thermal events before the decomposition of the organic fraction of **2C**. In the region 100-160 °C, a loss of 5.79% of mass is noted, suggesting that in this range the complex loses water and O₂ molecules derived from the thermal decomposition of the nitrate ion. The solid residue obtained corresponds to 20.8%, considering that this residue is CuO, it is calculated that the amount of copper in the sample is 16.6%. Molar conductivity in DMF: 160.41 ohm⁻¹ cm² mol⁻¹, in accordance with a 2:1-type electrolyte, [Cu₂(HL2)₂(DMF)₂](NO₃)₂ (2:1).

4.3.3 Copper(II) complexes derived from the H₂L3

The complex **3A** was prepared from the ligand **H₂L3**, using the starting salts copper(II) chloride dihydrate and copper(II) nitrate trihydrate. It was not possible to obtain a copper(II) complex from the starting salt copper(II) perchlorate hexahydrate.

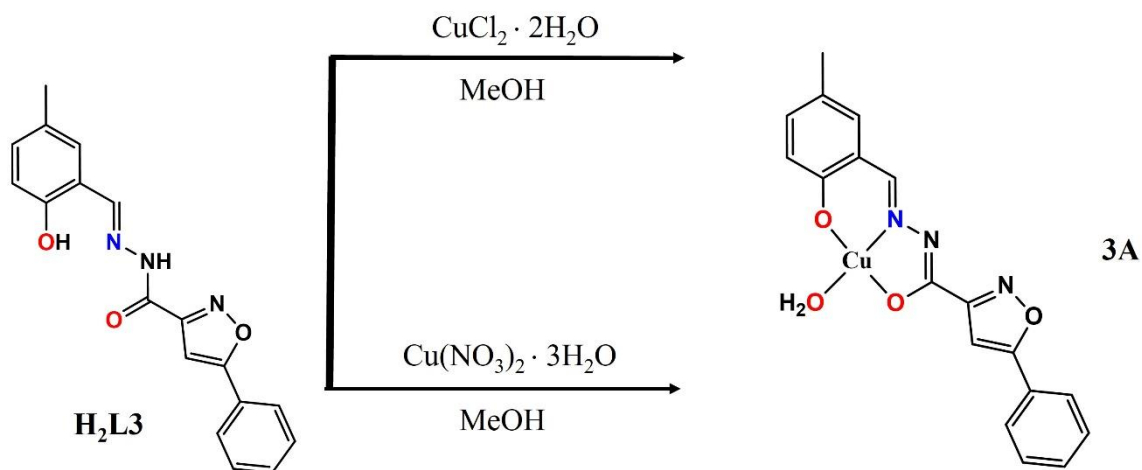


Figure 19. Synthetic scheme for complex **3A**.

The complex **3A** was synthesized *via* two analogous routes using different starting salts. In one route, 0.2 mmol (64.3 mg) of the ligand **H₂L3** was dissolved in 10 mL of MeOH, followed by the addition of 0.2 mmol (34.1 mg) of copper(II) chloride dihydrate. In the other synthetic route, the same quantities of **H₂L3** and methanol were mixed with 0.2 mmol (48.5 mg) of copper(II) nitrate trihydrate. The reactants were stirred at room temperature for 1 h, yielding a green solution. After 3 days, the complex precipitated and was isolated as an amorphous green solid. Figure 19 illustrates the synthesis of complex **3A**.

Yield = 46.0 mg (0.11 mmol, 55%). Elemental analysis (%) – calculated for $[\text{Cu}(\text{C}_{18}\text{H}_{13}\text{O}_3\text{N}_3)(\text{OH}_2)]$ (400.88 g mol⁻¹): ICP-OES (%) – calculated: Cu – 15.8; found: Cu – 16.1. TGA: At approximately 270 °C, there was a loss of water corresponding to 3.2% (calc. 4.5%). Given the high temperature at which this thermal event occurs, it can be inferred that the water molecule was complexed, supporting the proposed structure. Residual mass corresponds to 20.6% copper(II) oxide, which indicates 16.6% copper, aligning with the percentage obtained from ICP-OES. This consistency suggests that the proposed structure is accurate. Molar conductivity in DMF: 3.2 ohm⁻¹ cm² mol⁻¹, indicating a non-electrolytic complex, which is consistent with the suggested structure.

4.3.4 Copper(II) complexes derived from the H₂L4

Attention!

Perchlorate salts of metal complexes containing organic ligands are potentially explosive and must be handled with care. Small quantities should be prepared.

Complexes **4A**, **4B** and **4C** were prepared from **H₂L4**, respectively, with the starting salts: copper(II) chloride dihydrate, copper(II) perchlorate hexahydrate and copper(II) nitrate trihydrate.

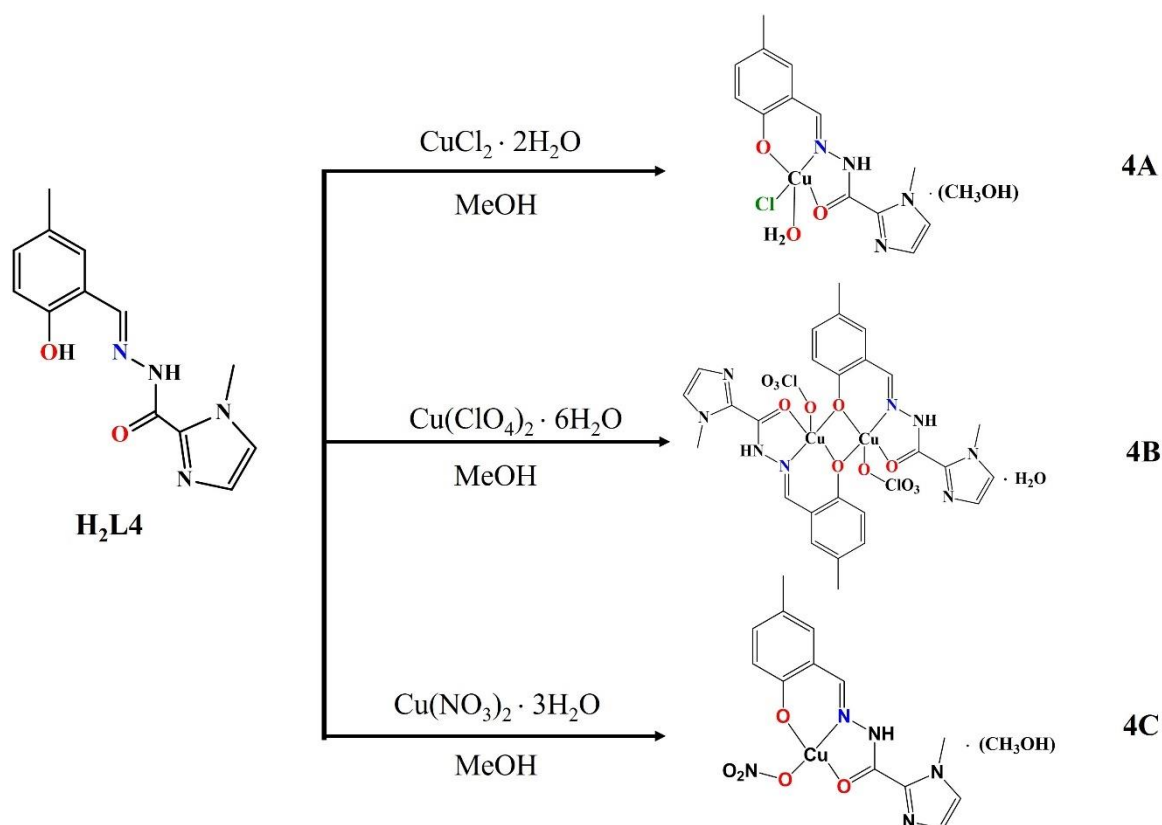


Figure 20. Synthetic scheme for complexes **4A**, **4B** and **4C**.

Complex **4A** was synthesized by dissolving 0.2 mmol (51.7 mg) of **H₂L4** in 10 mL of methanol, and then adding 0.2 mmol (34.1 mg) of copper(II) chloride dihydrate. Reactants were stirred at room temperature for 1 h. Along the synthesis, the complex precipitated and was isolated as an amorphous light green solid. Figure 20 illustrates the synthesis of complex **4A**.

Yield = 48.0 mg (0.11 mmol, 59%). ICP-OES (% of metal) – calculated for $[\text{Cu}(\text{C}_{13}\text{H}_{13}\text{O}_2\text{N}_4)(\text{Cl})(\text{H}_2\text{O})] \cdot \text{CH}_3\text{OH}$ (406.32 g mol⁻¹): Cu – 15.6; found: Cu – 16.4. TGA: between 30-250 °C there is one thermal event at around 220 °C, which involves a mass loss of 10.6% (Corresponding to methanol, which is present as a

crystallization solvent, and a coordinated water molecule). The residual mass corresponds to 16.2% of metallic copper, in line with the percentage obtained through ICP-OES, indicating that the suggested structure is coherent. Molar conductivity in DMF: $65.3 \text{ ohm}^{-1} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ mol}^{-1}$, in good agreement with the suggested structure since it indicates a 1:1-type electrolyte complex, probably $[\text{Cu}(\text{HL4})\text{DMF}]\text{Cl}$ (1:1).

Complex **4B** was prepared by dissolving 1.0 mmol (375 mg) of copper(II) perchlorate hexahydrate in 10 mL of methanol, then adding 1.0 mmol (258 mg) of **H₂L4** in 15 mL of MeOH. The reactants were stirred at room temperature for 1 h. During the synthesis, the complex precipitated and was isolated as dark green solid. Figure 20 illustrates the synthesis of complex **4B**.

Yield = 532 mg (0.68 mmol, 68%). Elemental analysis (%) – calculated for $[\text{Cu}_2(\text{C}_{13}\text{H}_{13}\text{O}_2\text{N}_4)_2(\text{ClO}_4)_2 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}]$ ($858.54 \text{ g mol}^{-1}$): C – 36.4, H – 3.3, N – 13.0; found: C – 36.6, H – 3.1, N – 12.6. ICP-OES (%) – calculated: Cu – 14.8; found: Cu – 14.7. TGA: The experiment was not carried out because the sample contains perchlorate. Molar conductivity in DMF: $144.8 \text{ ohm}^{-1} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ mol}^{-1}$, in good accordance with a 1:2-type electrolyte system, $[\text{Cu}_2(\text{HL4})_2(\text{DMF})_2](\text{ClO}_4)_2$.

Complex **4C** was prepared by dissolving 1.0 mmol (242 mg) of copper(II) nitrate trihydrate in 10 mL of methanol, then adding 1.0 mmol (258 mg) of **H₂L4** in 15 mL of MeOH. The reactants were stirred at room temperature for 1 h. Along the synthesis, the complex precipitated and was isolated as light green solid. Figure 20 illustrates the synthesis of complex **4C**.

Yield = 250 mg (0.60 mmol, 60%). Elemental analysis (%) – calculated for $[\text{Cu}(\text{C}_{13}\text{H}_{13}\text{O}_2\text{N}_4)\text{NO}_3] \cdot \text{CH}_3\text{OH}$ ($414.86 \text{ g mol}^{-1}$): C – 40.5, H – 4.1, N – 16.9; found: C – 40.6, H – 3.5, N – 16.7. ICP-OES (%) – calculated: Cu – 15.3; found: Cu – 15.8. TGA: Three thermal events are observed in the range 30-400 °C, the first (~30 °C) with 7.4%, probably related to the loss of methanol and remaining moisture in the solid (7.7%). Another mass loss, of 8.4%, occurs at 170 °C, and is possibly related to the loss of O₂ resulting from the thermal decomposition of nitrate (calcd. 7.7%). The loss at 310 °C, of 28.8%, is related to the loss of NO_x from the decomposition of nitrate and part of the organic fraction. According to thermogravimetric analysis, 15.7% of solid residue was obtained for metallic Cu, in line with the percentage calculated from ICP-OES, indicating that the suggested structure is coherent in relation to elements' content. Molar conductivity in DMF:

55.2 $\text{ohm}^{-1} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ mol}^{-1}$, consistent with the suggested structure indicating a 1:1-type electrolyte complex: $[\text{Cu}(\text{HL4})\text{DMF}]\text{NO}_3$ (1:1).

4.4 Physical Characterization Methods

4.4.1 Spectroscopic Studies

Absorption spectra over the wavelength range 800-250 nm were recorded in a Cary 100 (Agilent) spectrophotometer with a temperature-controlled module. Softwares were provided by the manufacturers.

The electronic spectra in the UV-VIS region of the compounds, in the solid state, were obtained by diffuse reflectance in a UV-Vis spectrophotometer, Shimadzu, model 2450, in diffuse reflectance mode (DRIFTS- Diffuse Reflectance Infrared Fourier Transform Spectroscopy) on barium sulfate tablets. barium, in the region of 250-850 nm. The analyzes were carried out in the instruments and research Laboratory of the Inorganic Chemistry Department - IQ-UFRJ in laboratory A628.

The ligands were characterized by 1D nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy (NMR). The spectra were recorded on a Bruker Avance III HD-400, Bruker Avance III nanobay 400 or Bruker Avance III nanobay 300 spectrometers and calibrated in reference to the residual peaks for DMSO- d_6 at 2.50 ppm (^1H). Coupling constants (J) are given in Hz and chemical shifts are reported in ppm. Spectra were processed by using the TopSpin 6.0 and MestReNova softwares.

Mid-infrared (MIR) spectra were acquired on a Perkin-Elmer Spectrum 400 FTIR spectrophotometer, at room temperature, in KBr pellets, with a resolution of 4 cm^{-1} in the 4000-400 cm^{-1} range. The spectra were processed by using the Perkin-Elmer Spectrum 10.03.09 software.

The EPR spectra of the studied complexes were recorded at 300 K (room temperature, solid state) or 77 K (liquid nitrogen, DMF solution) on a CW-Bruker EMX-Plus spectrometer with X-band cavity (9.5 GHz), employing microwave powers of 10 mW. Spectra were fitted through the OriginPro program using an Easyspin45 MATLAB routine. The tests were carried out at CBPF (Brazilian Center for Physical Research).

4.4.2 X-ray crystallography of single crystals

Crystallographic measurements for ligands **H₂L₂**, **H₂L₄** and complexes **2A** and **2C** were carried out in collaboration with Dr. Renata Diniz, from the Chemistry Department of the Federal University of Minas Gerais, Brazil. The crystallographic measurements for ligands **H₂L₁**, **H₂L₃** and complex **2B** were carried out in collaboration with Dra. Carolina Bastos Pereira Ligiero, from the Chemistry Institute of the Fluminense Federal University, Brazil. Single crystal data of ligands **H₂L₂**, **H₂L₄** and complexes **2A** and **2C** were collected with Mo $K\alpha$ radiation ($\lambda = 0.71073 \text{ \AA}$) in a Bruker D8 Venture diffractometer at 296 K, by the area detector Photon III. They were integrated with a narrow-frame algorithm in SAINT Bruker software, version V8.40B (Bruker, 1999). Absorption was corrected with the multi-scan method in SADABS, version 2016/2 (Krause *et al.*, 2015). The structure was solved using direct methods with ShelxS (Sheldrick, 2008) and refined with full-matrix least-square in ShelxL, (Sheldrick, 2015) both implemented in WinGX (Farrugia, 2012) and ShelxLE (Hubschle *et al.*, 2011) systems. Non-H atoms were located from the electron density map and anisotropically refined. Carbon-bound hydrogen atoms were ridden on their parent C with $U_{\text{iso}}(\text{H}) = 1.2$ or $1.5 U_{\text{eq}}$. Hydrogens bound to oxygen atoms were refined freely and ridden on their parent atoms with $U_{\text{iso}}(\text{H}) = 1.5 U_{\text{eq}}$. On the other hand, the data regarding ligands **H₂L₁**, **H₂L₃** and complex **2B** were collected in a Rigaku-Oxford-Diffraction Sinergy equipment also using Mo $K\alpha$ radiation, at 293 K. Data collection, cell refinement and data reduction were performed using the CRYALISPRO (CrysAlisPro, 2015) software. The structure was resolved by direct methods and refined by ShelxL (Sheldrick, 2015) program using OLEX2 (Dolomanov *et al.*, 2009) system, and all non-hydrogen atoms were refined with anisotropic thermal parameters. H atoms connected to carbon atoms were placed in idealized positions and treated by rigid model, with $U_{\text{iso}}(\text{H}) = 1.2 U_{\text{eq}}$ (aromatic, CH and NH), and $U_{\text{iso}}(\text{H}) = 1.5 U_{\text{eq}}$ (methyl group). Figures and data tables were prepared with Platon (Spek, 2009). Symmetry codes and data deviation were obtained by using the PLATON software. Distance and angles were calculated with MERCURY software.

4.4.3 Elemental Analysis CHNS and ICP-OES

Elemental analysis was performed to determine the CHNS content in ligands and complexes on a Thermo-Electron analyser equipment, model Flash EA 1112. Copper content in complexes was estimated with an inductively coupled plasma optical emission ICP-OES spectrometer Perkin-Elmer Optima 7300 DV. Samples were treated with nitric acid and diluted in water. Measurements were performed with the dye laser pulsed in the 324.7 nm line.

4.4.4 Thermogravimetric Analysis, Melting Point and Molar Conductivity Studies

Thermogravimetric curves were acquired in a Thermogravimetric Analyzer Perkin Elmer, Pyris 1 TGA. TGA scans were performed from 25 to 900 °C at a heating rate of 10 °C min⁻¹, under flowing dry air atmosphere. Curve optimization and calculations processed in the Pyris v 8.0.0.0172 software and simultaneous TGA/DTA equipment SHIMADZU model DGT-60, with a heating rate of 10 °C min⁻¹, in a range of 25 to 900 °C and carrier gas flow of 50 mL/min. As a reference material, alumina was used in the analyzes in an argon atmosphere in the instruments and research Laboratory of the Inorganic Chemistry Department - IQ-UFRJ, laboratory A628.

Attention: *Although no problems were observed in the syntheses with complexes derived from copper(II) perchlorate hexahydrate, precautions should always be taken when handling perchlorate salts, as they are potentially explosive. For this reason, no complex containing perchlorate in its structure was subjected to thermogravimetric analysis.*

The conductivity measurements were performed at room temperature in an electrical conductivity 650MA Analyser. In order to obtain a final concentration of 1×10^{-3} mol L⁻¹, the copper(II) complexes were dissolved in DMF.

The determinations of the melting points of the organic ligands were performed in a Fisatom model 431 apparatus, in triplicate.

4.4.5 Cyclic Voltammetry

Cyclic voltammetry experiments were performed at room temperature in a BASi Epsilon™ EC potentiostat/galvanostat. Experiments were carried out in DMF solution containing 0.1 mol L^{-1} TBAPF₆ as supporting electrolyte, under nitrogen atmosphere and at 25 °C, in a three-electrode cell. A 3.0 mm diameter Glassy Carbon Electrode was employed as the working electrode. Reference was the BASi MF-2052 Ag/AgCl (3 M NaCl) electrode, while the counter-electrode consisted of a platinum wire.

4.4.6 Complexation Studies

The assays involving the complexation study were monitored by UV-Vis under different conditions. All compounds were synthesized in methanol; therefore, complexation studies were carried out with the same solvent and conditions analogous to those of synthesis.

It was not possible to carry out the complexation study for the complexes derived from **H₂L1** due to the low solubility showed by them. The other systems, on the other hand, showed good solubility under the conditions evaluated.

For the complexes derived from **H₂L2**, a methanolic solution of the ligand with a concentration of $2 \times 10^{-5} \text{ mol L}^{-1}$ was used with successive additions of 0.05 equivalents of the respective Cu salts [copper(II) chloride dihydrate, copper(II) perchlorate hexahydrate and copper(II) nitrate trihydrate] in methanolic solution of concentration $3 \times 10^{-4} \text{ mol L}^{-1}$. Especially in the case of the complexation study of complex **2B**, the $4 \times 10^{-5} \text{ mol L}^{-1}$ ligand solution was diluted with a methanolic sodium hydroxide solution of the same concentration in an attempt to simulate the synthesis conditions in which compound **2B** was obtained. The complexes derived from the **H₂L3** and **H₂L4** ligands had their complexation studies carried out under the same conditions as the complexes derived from the **H₂L2** ligand.

4.4.7 Determination of the Ligand's pK_a

The ligands had their pK_a values determined by UV-Vis measurements in different proportions of organic solvent and water. Solutions of the ligands **H₂L1**, **H₂L2** and **H₂L4** were prepared in a mixture of 10% methanol in deionized water with a concentration of 2×10^{-5} mol L⁻¹. The mixtures underwent pH variations with diluted hydrochloric acid and sodium hydroxide solutions. The **H₂L3** ligand had its pK_a evaluated in 30% DMF:water mixture (concentration: 2×10^{-5} mol L⁻¹).

4.4.8 Interaction Studies with HSA

Experimental interaction between HSA and the ligands **H₂L2** and **H₂L4** and their respective complexes were confirmed by UV-Vis spectroscopy (Cary 100). Solutions of the compounds were prepared at 2×10^{-5} mol L⁻¹. **H₂L2** and **2A** were dissolved in 1% MeOH/PBS (5×10^{-2} mol L⁻¹, pH 7.4), while the complexes **2B** and **2C**, in 2% MeOH/PBS. On the other hand, HSA stock solution (3×10^{-4} mol L⁻¹) was prepared in pure PBS. 3.0 mL of compound (ligand or complex) solution were placed in the cuvette and equal amounts (10 μ L) of HSA were added at each titration point, followed by the obtainment of an UV-Vis spectrum. All measurements were carried out at room temperature (25 °C).

4.4.9 Computational Methods

The computational calculations involving the ligand **H₂L2** and complexes **2A** and **2B** were conducted in collaboration with Prof. Dr. Nelson H. Morgon, from the Chemistry Institute, Campinas State University, Campinas, Brazil. The molecular geometries of the ligand, complexes **2A** and **2B** were fully optimized both in the gas phase and for a water solution, without symmetry constraints, using density functional theory (DFT). B3LYP exchange-correlation functional, along with the Pople 6-311++G(2d,p) basis set, was employed. Solvent effects were described implicitly using the SMD model. The D3 version of Grimme's dispersion corrections with Becke-Johnson damping was added. Methodology, in this case, referred to as B3LYP-GD3(BJ)/6-311++G(2d,p)/SMD(Water), calculation of UHF open-layer configuration. Energy minima were characterized by calculating harmonic vibrational frequencies, and corresponding infrared spectra were obtained at the previously described calculation level. The UV-Vis electronic spectra, in the previously obtained molecular geometries for the water

medium, were calculated through the TD-PBE0/6-311++G(3df,2p)-GD3(BJ)/SMD(Water) theory, considering 30 electronic states. All the electronic and molecular calculations were performed using the Gaussian16 program Frisch & Clemente .

4.4.10 Docking Studies on HSA

Molecular docking studies were conducted in collaboration with Dr. Maurício Yoguim and Prof. Dr. Aguinaldo de Souza (Department of Chemistry, Sao Paulo State University (UNESP), Bauru, Brazil). Initial molecular docking investigations focused on the three drug interaction sites (DS), located in regions IIA (DS1), IIIA (DS2), and IB (DS3). Additionally, studies were extended to the FA6 region, a site associated with fatty acids.

The crystallographic structures chosen for this study are similar to those present in the experimental conditions, i.e., HSA not containing fatty acids. All selections were obtained from the Protein Database (PDB). Thus, PDB 2bxe (Ghuman *et al.*, 2005) presents the structure of diflunisal (a nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drug) in the DS1, DS2 and FA6 sites, with a resolution of 2.95 Å. The second structure chosen for this study was PDB 2bx8 (Ghuman *et al.*, 2005) which has the nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drug azapropazone at DS1 and DS3 sites, with a resolution of 2.70 Å. The third selected structure was PDB 2vue, (Zunszain *et al.*, 2008) which shows a bilirubin molecule in the DS3 site and has a resolution of 2.42 Å.

The structures of **H₂L2** and its complexes **2A** and **2B** were obtained through the GaussView 6 software (Dennington *et al.*, 2019) and analysed in the Discovery Studio Visualizer 2021 program (Systemes, 2021) to verify if the input reading was correct, and then proceeded to the molecular docking studies.

Molecular docking was performed using GOLD 2022.3.0 software. This program executes ten runs using the chemscore_kinase calculation parameters, with a Goldscore scoring function based on **Equation 1**, where S (hb_ext) represents the energy of H bonds in the binding protein; S (vdw_ext), the energy of van der Waals protein-ligand or protein-complex interactions; and S (int) is a penalty for not taking into account the internal interactions of the ligand or coordination compound (Johnson *et al.*, 2010; Kozuch & Martin, 2013). In addition to determining the conditions of the function parameters, it is possible to

vary the study radius of the ligand or complex and also, when possible, change conditions such as protonation state, rotation or flexibilization of the amino acids involved in the interactions.

$$\text{Fit function} = S(\text{hb_ext}) + 1.3750 \times S(\text{vdw_ext}) + S(\text{int})$$

(Equation 1)

Results were analyzed in the software Discovery Studio Visualizer 2021 software, (Sysèmes, 2021) being examination initially performed visually in relation to the poses obtained in the calculations. Then, they were correlated with the energetic values obtained for the different conformers. After that, in the same software, the possible interactions of a chosen conformer in the protein region were determined.

4.4.11 Antiproliferative Activity Studies

Cytotoxicity studies were conducted in collaboration with the Prof. Dr. Ignacio E. León's research group at the CEQUINOR, Faculty of Exact Sciences, National University of La Plata, Argentina.

Cytotoxicity was assessed using the MTT assay for the ligand **H₂L2** and the complexes **2A**, **2B**, and **2C** in MDA-MB-231 cells (triple-negative breast adenocarcinoma). The clinically established agent cisplatin (CDDP) was used as a reference for antiproliferative activity, along with the clinical drug doxorubicin.

5. Results and discussion

5.1 Ligands

5.1.1 ^1H NMR

Ligands were firstly characterized by ^1H NMR spectroscopy in $\text{DMSO-}d_6$ solution. Hydrazones are a highly versatile group, finding applications in diverse fields, and exhibiting rich chemistry. Literature reports that hydrazones can exist in solution as a mixture of (*E*)/(*Z*) stereoisomers relative to the azomethine group, *anti*/*syn* conformations relative to the amide bond and, also associated with this latter group, undergo tautomerization, forming dynamic amido-iminol equilibria, as depicted in the Figure 21 (R stands for a generic substituent):

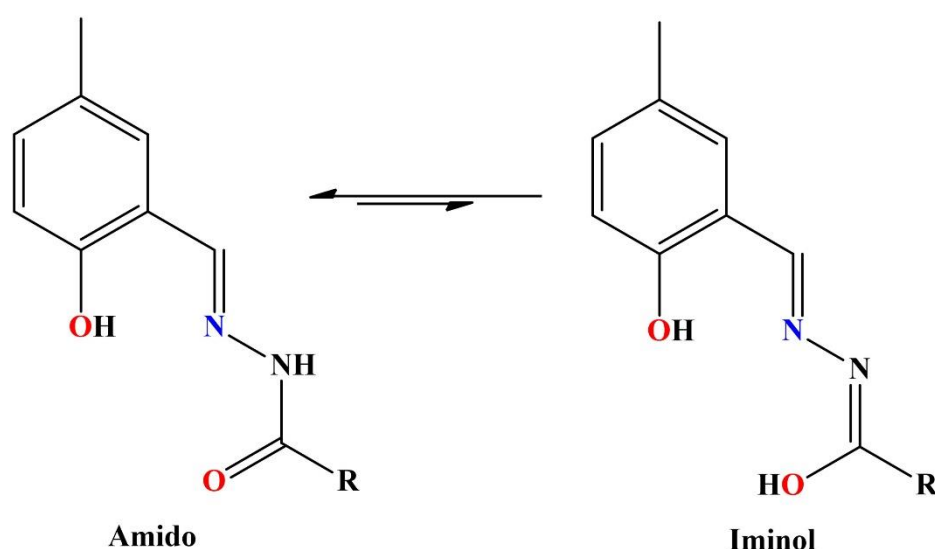


Figure 21. Scheme of the amido-iminol tautomerism present in the synthesized ligands.

In addition to the tautomers formed, and as stated above, the formation of (*E*) and (*Z*) stereoisomers can occur due to restricted rotation around the $\text{C}=\text{N}$ bond. However, for the ligands studied, only the (*E*) isomer was obtained. In this configuration, the azomethine nitrogen can form an intramolecular hydrogen bond with the phenolic hydroxyl in the *para* position, thereby enhancing the stability of the (*E*) isomer compared to the (*Z*) isomer (Figure 22).

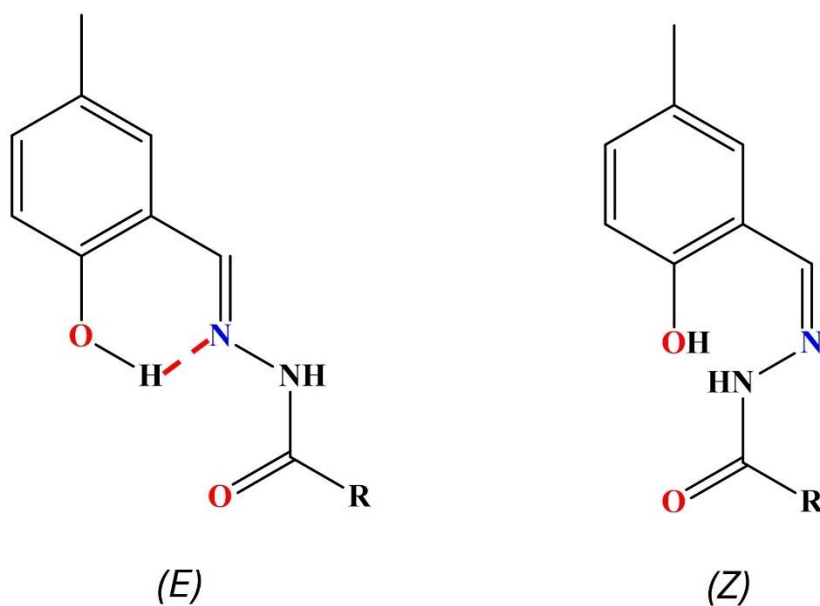


Figure 22. General structure of the stereoisomers (*E*) and (*Z*), with the possibility of hydrogen bonding, for the synthesized ligands.

Figures 23-26 correspond to the ^1H NMR spectra of the ligands obtained. To assign their chemical shifts, the starting compounds already widely reported in the literature as well as the **H₂L2** ligand, the first to be published by us of this series, were employed (Broussy *et al.*, 2003; Eid *et al.*, 2021; Liang *et al.*, 2012; Manonmani *et al.*, 2000; Moura *et al.*, 2023; Yogeeswari *et al.*, 2011). The numbering of the hydrogen atoms does not correspond exactly to the numbering designated from the X-ray diffraction analysis.

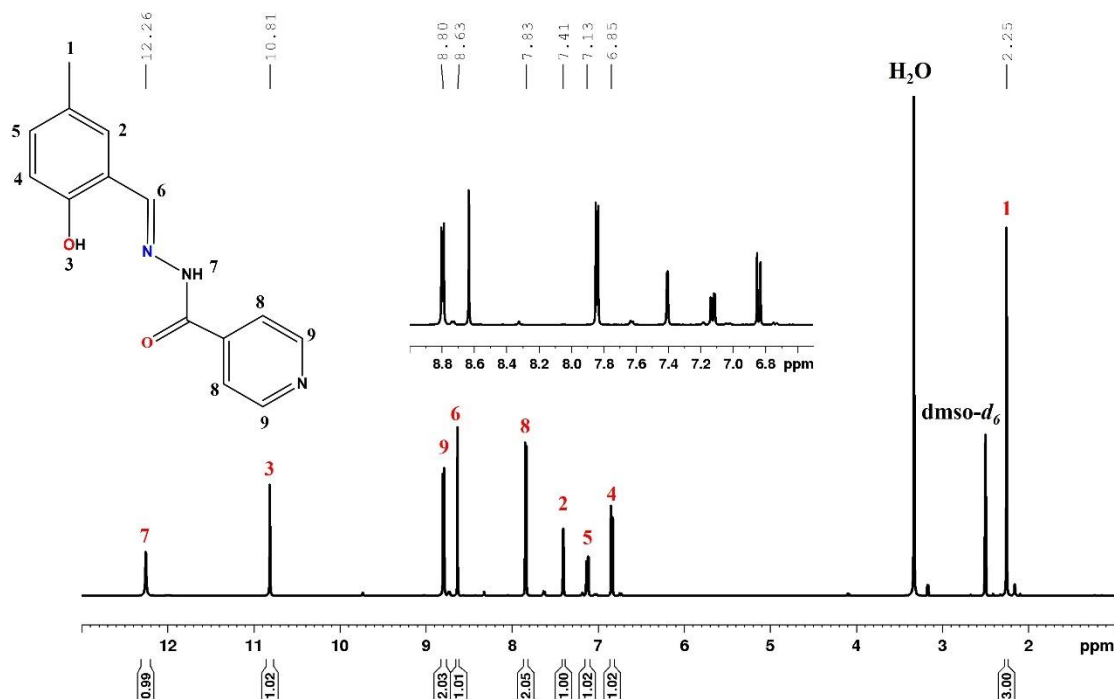


Figure 23. ^1H NMR spectra (400 MHz) of **H₂L1** in $\text{DMSO}-d_6$ at room temperature.

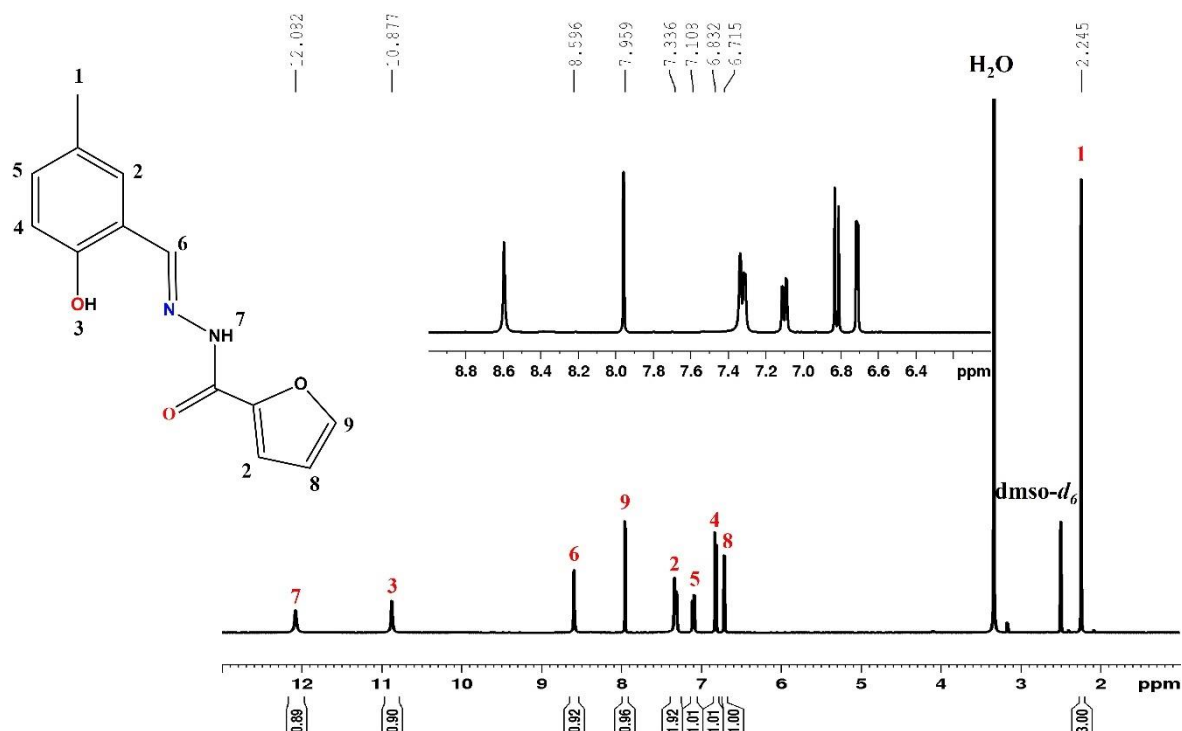


Figure 24. ¹H NMR spectra (400 MHz) of **H₂L2** in DMSO-*d*₆ at room temperature.

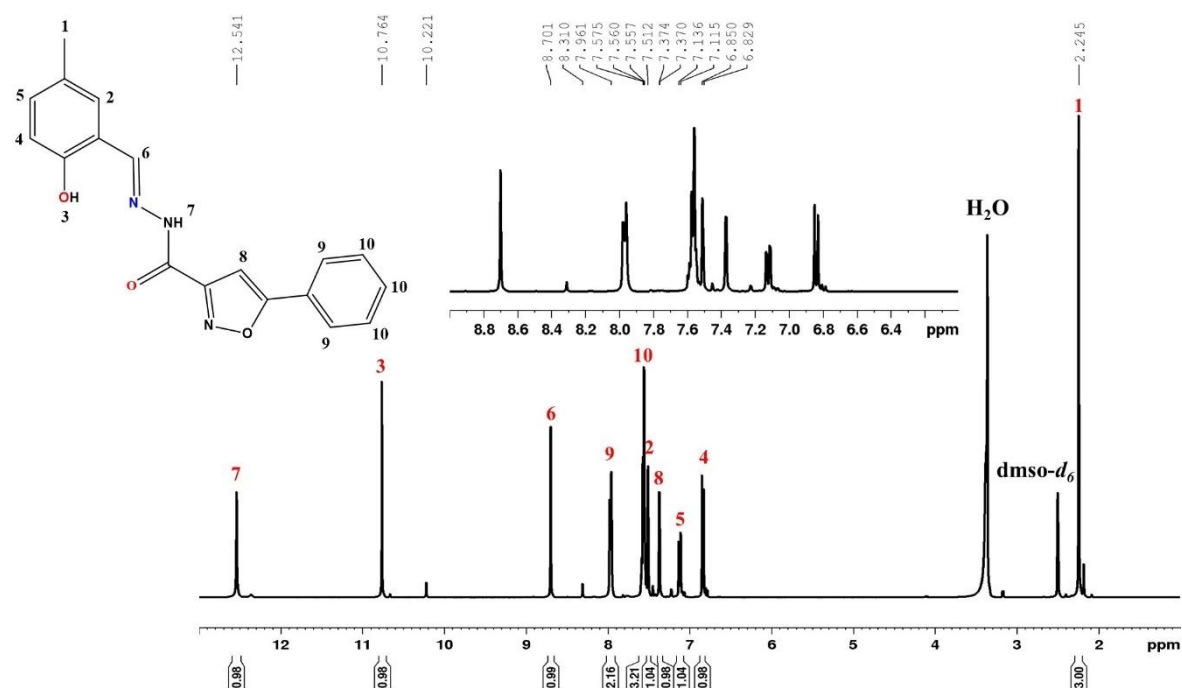


Figure 25. ¹H NMR spectra (400 MHz) of **H₂L3** in DMSO-*d*₆ at room temperature.

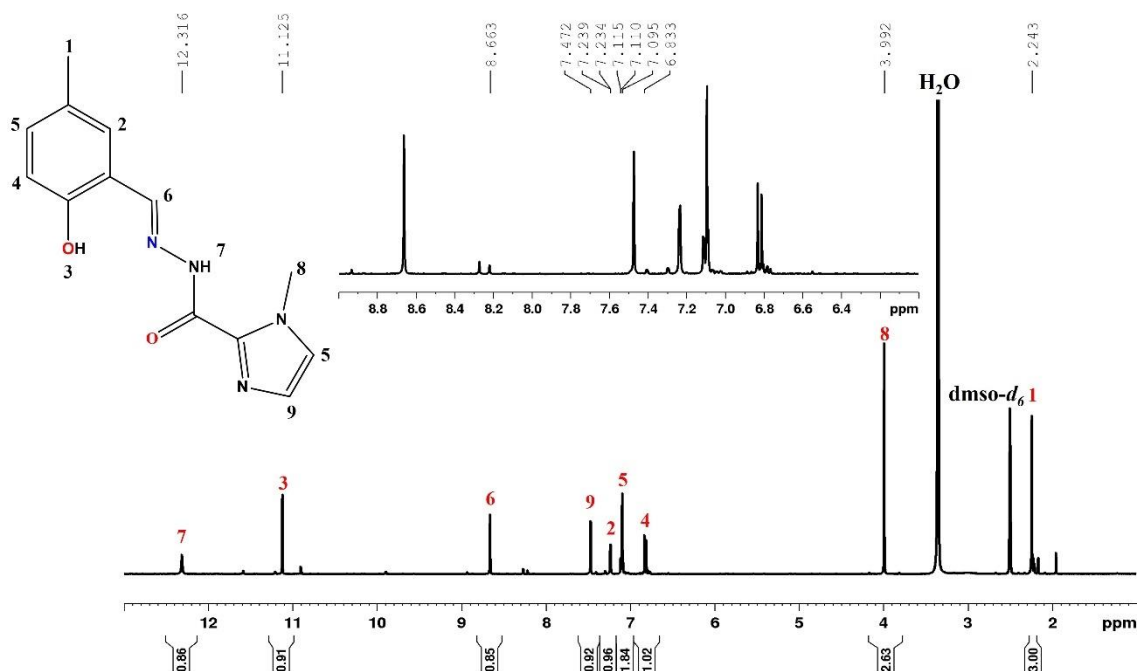


Figure 26. ^1H NMR spectra (400 MHz) of **H₂L4** in $\text{DMSO}-d_6$ at room temperature.

The ^1H NMR spectra obtained for the ligands confirm that the compounds predominantly exist in the amido tautomeric form, as evidenced by the observed chemical shift of the $\text{HN}-\text{C}=\text{O}$ hydrogen. Table 2 correlates chemical shift values found with their respective assignments, along with the integrated areas obtained.

Table 2. ^1H (400 MHz) data for compounds **H₂L1**, **H₂L2**, **H₂L3** and **H₂L4** in $\text{DMSO}-d_6$ at room temperature.

H	H₂L1 <i>δ (ppm)</i>	H₂L2 <i>δ (ppm)</i>	H₂L3 <i>δ (ppm)</i>	H₂L4 <i>δ (ppm)</i>
1	2.25 (s, 3H)	2.24 (s, 3H)	2.24 (s, 3H)	2.24 (s, 3H)
2	7.40 (d, 1H)	7.34 (bs, 2H)	6.83 (d, 1H)	7.23 (d, 1H)
3	10.81 (s, 1H)	10.88 (s, 1H)	10.76 (s, 1H)	11.12 (s, 1H)
4	6.85 (d, 1H)	6.83 (d, 1H)	6.85 (d, 1H)	6.83 (d, 1H)
5	7.13 (dd, 1H)	7.10 (dd, 1H)	7.51 (dd, 1H)	7.11 (dd, 2H)
6	8.63 (s, 1H)	8.60 (s, 1H)	8.70 (s, 1H)	8.66 (s, 1H)
7	12.26 (s, 1H)	12.08 (s, 1H)	12.54 (s, 1H)	12.31 (s, 1H)
8	7.83 (dd, 2H)	6.71 (dd, 1H)	7.14 (dd, 1H)	3.99 (s, 3H)
9	8.80 (dd, 2H)	7.96 (dd, 1H)	7.98 (dd, 2H)	7.45 (dd, 1H)
10	----	----	7.57 (dd, 3H)	----

s: singlet, d: doublet, dd: doublet of doublets, bs: broad singlet

5.1.2 CHN Elemental Analysis

Elemental analyses were carried out with crystalline samples of the ligands isolated. The results obtained are listed in Table 3.

Table 3. Calculated and experimental elemental analyses of ligands **H₂L1**, **H₂L2**, **H₂L3** and **H₂L4**.

<u>Ligands</u>	<u>%C</u>		<u>%H</u>		<u>%N</u>	
	<u>calculated</u>	<u>found</u>	<u>calculated</u>	<u>found</u>	<u>calculated</u>	<u>found</u>
<u>H₂L1</u>	65.87	65.06	5.13	5.03	16.46	16.61
<u>H₂L2</u>	59.54	58.84	5.38	5.26	10.68	10.57
<u>H₂L3</u>	67.28	65.94	4.71	4.59	13.08	13.08
<u>H₂L4</u>	60.40	60.60	5.50	5.30	21.70	21.70

5.1.3 Melting Points

Melting points of the ligands were determined using crystalline samples, and there was no degradation of any of them. For **H₂L2**, it was possible to observe a slight change in the color of the ligand at around 100-110 °C, possibly due to the loss of the hydration water molecule present in the structure. Table 4 displays the melting points obtained for the ligands studied.

Table 4. Melting points determined for the ligands studied.

Ligands	H₂L1	H₂L2	H₂L3	H₂L4
Melting Point (°C)	209 ± 1	150 ± 2	190 ± 2	189 ± 2

5.1.4 Crystal Structure of Ligands by Single Crystal XRD

The crystallographic experimental details for the studied ligands, as well as the conclusions that can be drawn from their respective structures, are provided below:

Table 5. Experimental crystallographic details for ligands **H₂L1**, **H₂L2**, **H₂L3** and **H₂L4**.

Crystal	H ₂ L1	H ₂ L2	H ₂ L3	H ₂ L4
Chemical formula	C ₁₄ H ₁₃ N ₃ O ₂	C ₁₃ H ₁₄ O ₄ N ₂	C ₁₈ H ₁₅ N ₃ O ₃	C ₁₃ H ₁₄ O ₂ N ₄
Mr (g mol ⁻¹)	226.27	262.26	321.33	258.28
Crystal system, space group	Monoclinic, <i>P</i> 2 ₁ / <i>n</i>	Orthorhombic, <i>P</i> 2 ₁ 2 ₁ 2 ₁	Monoclinic, <i>P</i> 2 ₁ / <i>n</i>	Monoclinic, <i>P</i> 2 ₁ / <i>c</i>
Temperature (K)	293	296	293	293
<i>a</i> , <i>b</i> , <i>c</i> (Å)	8.5360(19), 16.005(3), 9.4686(19)	4.9316(2), 12.4514(5), 20.7391(9)	15.8412(7) 4.6432(2) 16.2474(7)	11.5982(6) 13.9605(7) 16.3869(7)
<i>V</i> (Å ³)	1261.6(4)	1273.49(9)	1558.50(11)	2648.3(2)
<i>Z</i>	4	4	4	8
Radiation type	Mo <i>K</i> α	Mo <i>K</i> α	Mo <i>K</i> α	Mo <i>K</i> α
μ (mm ⁻¹)	0.622	0.103	0.096	0.091
Crystal size (mm)	0.20 × 0.24 × 0.68	0.72 × 0.14 × 0.12	0.10 × 0.20 × 0.66	0.47 × 0.38 × 0.17
<i>R</i> _{int}	0.050	0.043	0.135	0.0598
<i>R</i> [<i>F</i> ² > 2σ(<i>F</i> ²)], <i>wR</i> (<i>F</i> ²), <i>S</i>	0.0494, 0.1369, 1.07	0.040, 0.126, 1.09	0.0650, 0.105, 1.04	0.0576, 0.1217, 1.016
Nº. of parameters	175	231	225	350
Δρ _{max} , Δρ _{min} (e Å ⁻³)	-0.15, 0.20	0.147, -0.150	-0.25, 0.16	0.166, -0.170

Single crystals of the ligands suitable for X-ray diffraction were obtained. All of them were obtained in the (*E*)-isomeric form, displaying an *antiperiplanar* configuration stabilized by an intramolecular hydrogen bond between the phenolic group and the azomethine nitrogen, –HC=N–. The bond lengths and angles data obtained for the ligands can be found in the appendix (Appendix Table 1).

The ligand **H₂L1** crystallizes in a monoclinic system, space group $P2_1/n$, with four ligands *per* unit cell. The structure of **H₂L1** is depicted in Figure 27. It was obtained in its anhydrous state. An intramolecular hydrogen bond is observed between the phenolic hydrogen (O1–H) and the nitrogen (N1) of the azomethine group (HC=N). Figure 28 illustrates the intermolecular H bonds in the network of **H₂L1** and Table 6 exhibit H-bonding parameter. Each molecule can form two intermolecular hydrogen bonds, involving the hydrogen attached to N2, the amide nitrogen (HNCO), and pyridine nitrogen N3 of a neighboring molecule as the hydrogen acceptor, resulting in a zigzag chain that runs parallel to the *b* crystallographic axis.

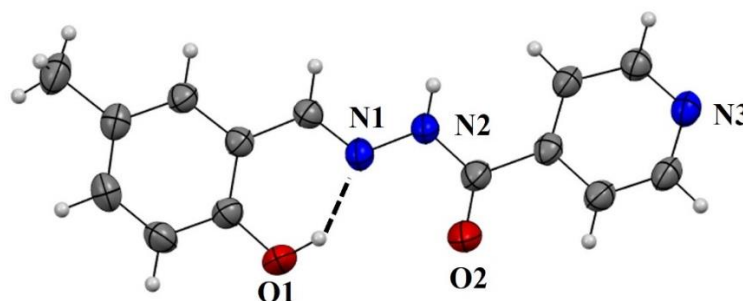


Figure 27. Crystal structure representation of **H₂L1**. For the sake of simplicity, only the atoms more important for the discussion are labeled. Ellipsoids drawn at the 50% probability level.

Table 6. H-bonding geometric parameters for **H₂L1**.

H₂L1				
D–H···A	D–H (Å)	H···A (Å)	D···A (Å)	D–H···A (°)
O1–H1···N1 ^a	0.87(2)	1.826(18)	2.5852(19)	111.3(14)
N2–H2···N3 ^b	0.86	2.1900	3.023(2)	165.00

Symmetry code: a: x,y,z; b: -1/2+x,1.5-y,-1/2+z

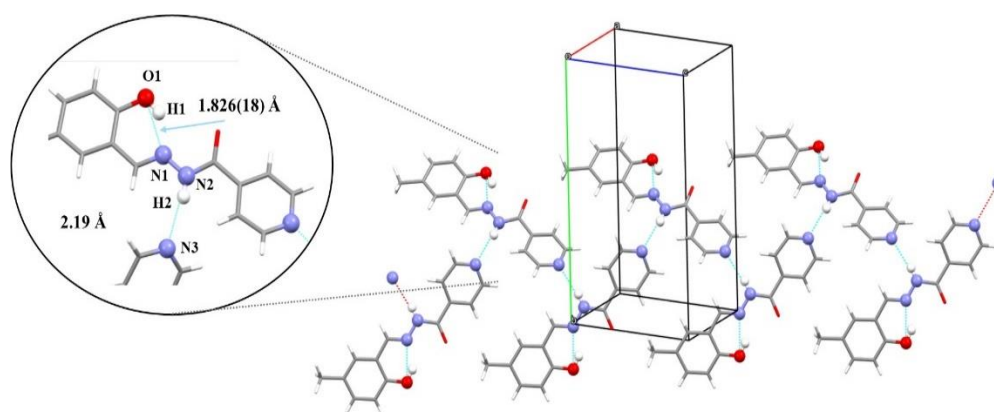


Figure 28. Hydrogen bond interactions in the crystal networks of compound **H₂L1**.

The *N*-acylhydrazone **H₂L2** crystallizes in the orthorhombic system, space group P2₁2₁2₁, with four molecules in the unit cell. The corresponding ORTEP structure view is shown in Figure 29.

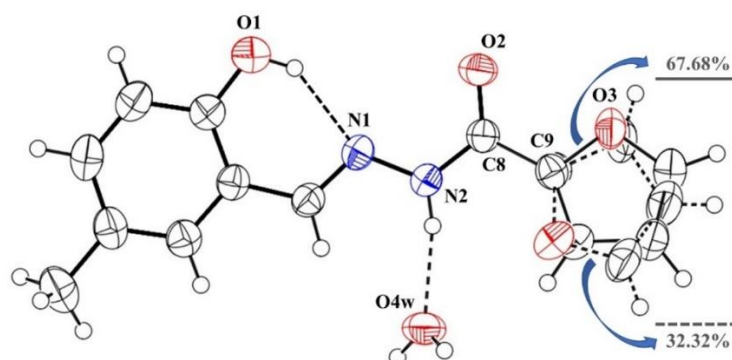


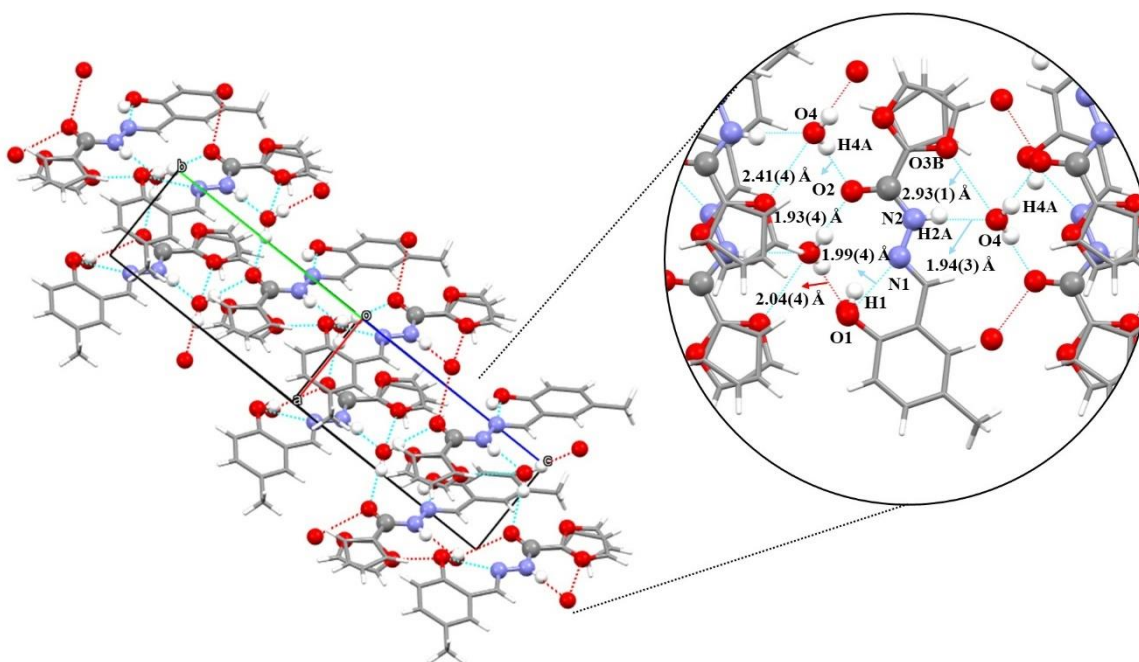
Figure 29. Crystal structure representation of **H₂L2**. For clarity, only the atoms more important for the discussion are labeled. Ellipsoids drawn at the 50% probability level.

Each molecule contains one hydration water molecule, with water oxygen engaged in intermolecular H bonding with the hydrogen of the N–H bond in the hydrazone. A positional disorder in the furan ring is observed, resulting from free rotation around the C8–C9 bond, a characteristic previously noted by our research group in a copper complex of a hydrazone ligand containing the furan ring as well (Cukierman *et al.*, 2023). The hydrogen bonds present in the **H₂L2** ligand occur between the crystallization water molecules (Figure 30). These bonds connect to another **H₂L2** molecule, forming a chain linkage in a lamellar arrangement that extends parallel along the crystallographic *a*-*b* axis. The hydrazone oxygen (O2) forms two bifurcated hydrogen bonds with different water molecules (H4A and H4B from distinct water molecules), while the hydrogen atom opposite the furan oxygen (O3B) engages in conventional hydrogen bonds with water molecules, the table 7 exhibit H-bonding parameters. The major fraction (67.7%) exhibits the oxygen O3 pointing in the same direction as O2, while the minor component (32.3%) shows O3 pointing in the opposite direction. In both cases, the ring is nearly coplanar with the molecular structure.

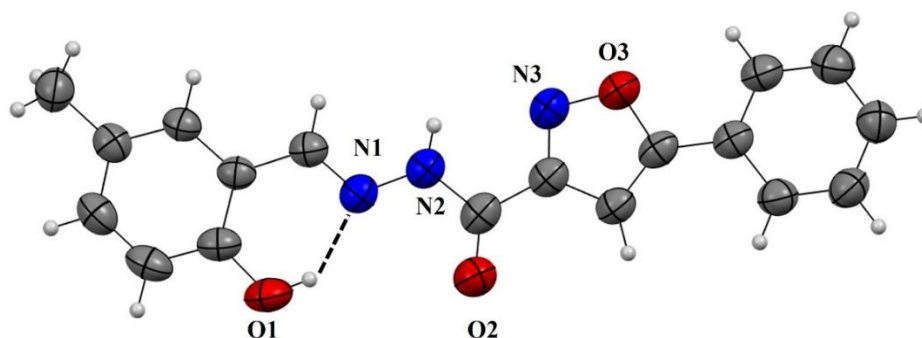
Table 7. H-bonding geometric parameters for **H₂L2**.

H₂L2				
D–H···A	D–H (Å)	H···A (Å)	D···A (Å)	D–H···A (°)
N2–H2A···O4 ^a	0.86(3)	1.94(3)	2.786(3)	167.26(4)
O4–H4A···O2 ^b	0.835(4)	2.041(4)	2.86(3)	166.72(4)
O4–H4B···O2 ^b	0.87(4)	1.93(4)	2.789(3)	168.09(4)
O1–H1···N1 ^a	0.85(4)	1.99(4)	2.722(3)	143.88(3)
O3B–H10A···O4 ^a	0.86	2.93(1)	2.93(1)	50.81

Symmetry code: a: x,y,z; b: -x,1/2+y,1/2-z

**Figure 30.** Hydrogen bond interactions in the crystal networks of compound **H₂L2**.

The ligand **H₂L3**, was crystallizes in the monoclinic system, space group $P2_1/n$, with four ligand molecules *per* unit cell. The crystal structure of this compound is shown in Figure 31.

**Figure 31.** Crystal structure representation of **H₂L3**. For the sake of simplicity, only the atoms more important for the discussion are labeled. Ellipsoids drawn at the 50% probability level.

H₂L3 was obtained in its anhydrous form. The intramolecular interaction between the phenolic hydrogen (O1–H) and the nitrogen (N1) of the azomethine group (HC=N), with a distance of 2.610(3) Å (Figure 31). π - π stacking interactions could not be observed; however, ligand **H₂L3** exhibits non-conventional H bonds: O2···H10, where H10 is bonded to the isoxazole carbon C10, with a distance of 2.560(4) Å and a symmetry code of $[-x, 1-y, -z]$; O1···H14, where H14 is bonded to the phenyl carbon C14, with a distance of 2.480(4) Å and a symmetry code of $[-x, 1-y, -z]$; and an non-conventional intramolecular hydrogen bond between O3···H17, where H17 is bonded to the phenyl carbon C17, with a distance of 2.460(4) Å, table 8 exhibit H-bonding parameters.

Table 8. H-bonding geometric parameters for **H₂L3**.

H₂L3				
D–H···A	D–H (Å)	H···A (Å)	D···A (Å)	D–H···A (°)
O1–H1···N1 ^a	0.84(3)	1.91(3)	2.610(3)	141(3)
N2–H2···N3 ^a	0.846(19)	2.23(2)	2.642(3)	109.7(17)
C10–H10···O2 ^b	0.93(1)	2.5600(4)	3.451(3)	160(4)
C14–H14···O1 ^b	0.93(1)	2.4800(4)	3.288(3)	145(3)
C17–H17···O3 ^a	0.93(1)	2.4600(4)	2.776(3)	100(2)

Symmetry code: a: x,y,z; b: -x,1-y,-z

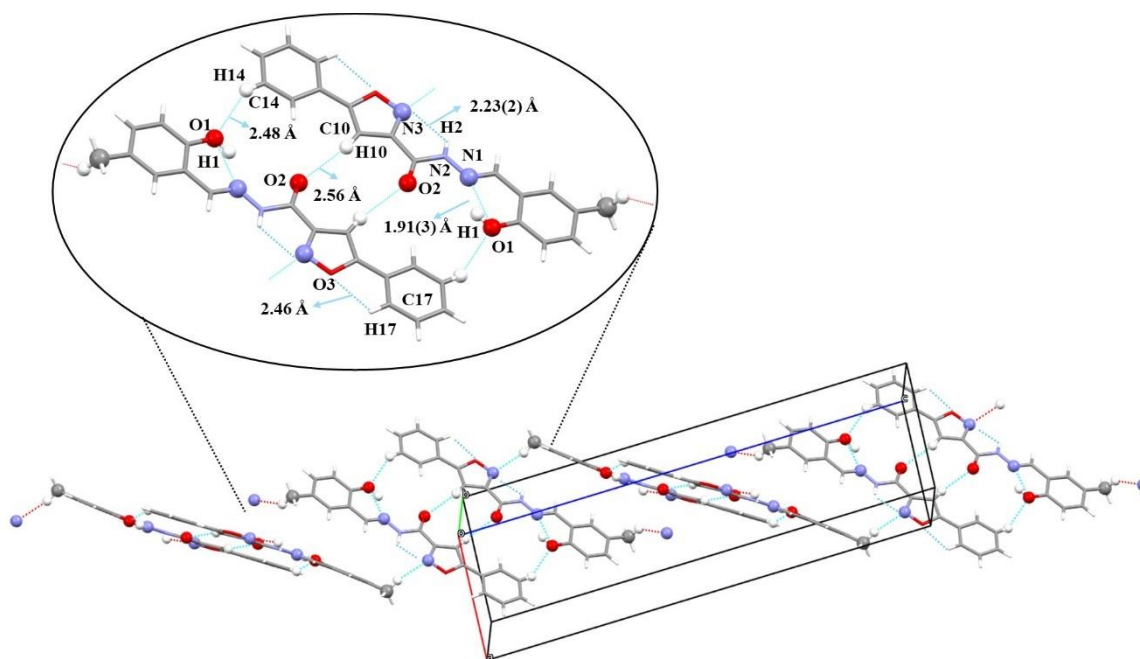


Figure 32. Hydrogen bond interactions in the crystal networks of compound **H₂L3**.

The ligand **H₂L4** crystallizes in the monoclinic system, space group $P2_1/c$, with eight ligand units arranged into dimers constituted by independent molecules *via* hydrogen bonding *per* cell. However, just one **H₂L4** molecular unit is depicted in Figure 33. **H₂L4** is anhydrous, as **H₂L1** and **H₂L3**.

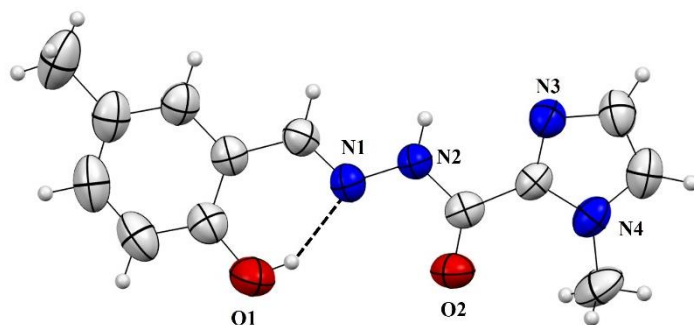


Figure 33. Crystal structure representation of **H₂L4**. For the sake of simplicity, only the atoms more important for the discussion are labeled. Ellipsoids drawn at the 50% probability level.

In addition to the observed intramolecular hydrogen bond, intermolecular cross H bonds are formed between the imidazole nitrogen N3 (H-acceptor) and the amide nitrogen N2 (H-donor), as in Figure 34A and 35. π - π stacking interactions were also observed between **H₂L4** molecules with a centroid of 8.343(2) Å, with the main difference between them being the torsion angle between the phenol and imidazole rings: 5.65° for the red molecules and 13.29° for the green ones (Figure 34B). Table 9 exhibit H-bonding parameters.

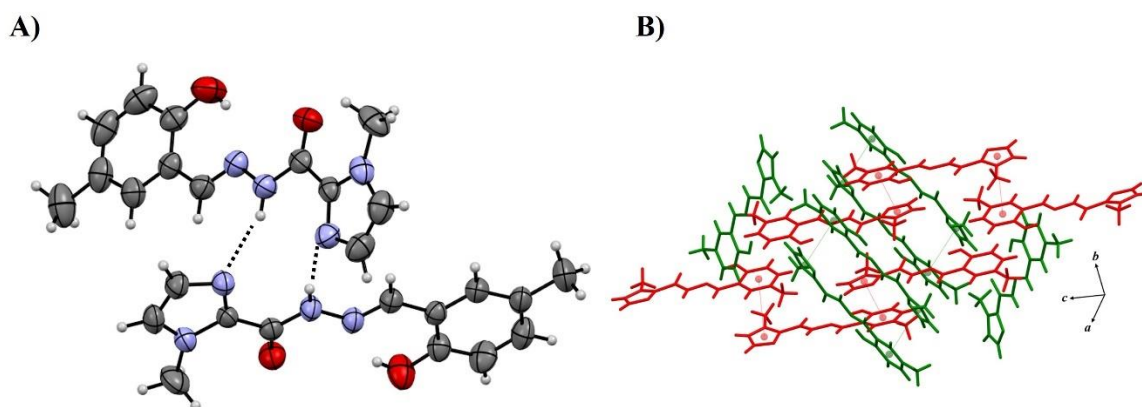
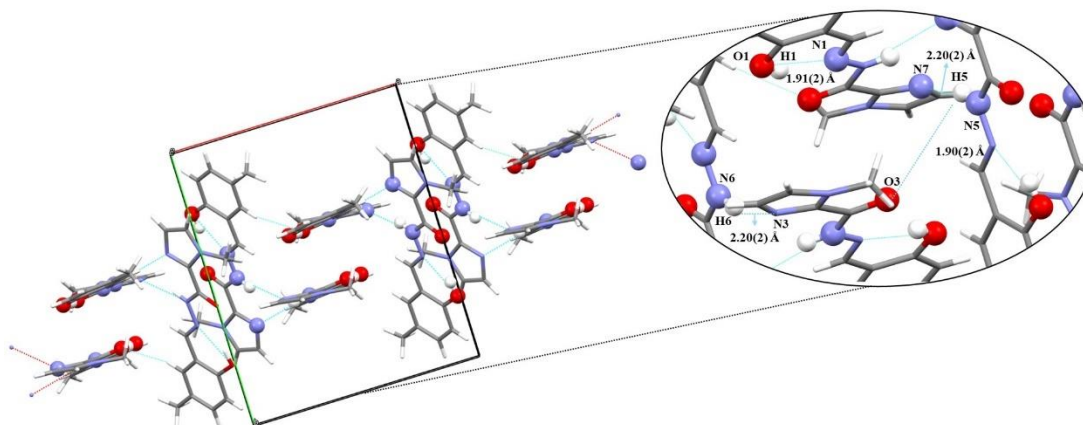


Figure 34. A) Simplified hydrogen bond interactions in **H₂L4**. B) π - π stacking interactions in **H₂L4**.

Table 9. H-bonding geometric parameters for **H₂L4**.

H₂L4				
D–H···A	D–H (Å)	H···A (Å)	D···A (Å)	D–H···A (°)
O1–H1···N1 ^a	0.82(2)	1.91(3)	2.626(2)	146.0(2)
O3–H3···N5 ^a	0.82(2)	1.90(2)	2.614(2)	145.0(2)
N2–H2···N7 ^a	0.86(2)	2.20(2)	3.018(2)	159.0(2)
C14–H14···O1 ^a	0.86(3)	2.20(2)	3.036(2)	164.0(4)

Symmetry code: a: x,y,z;

**Figure 35.** Hydrogen bond interactions in the crystal networks of compound **H₂L4**.

5.1.5 Determination of the Ligands' pK_a by Spectrophotometric Titration

All the synthesized *N*-acylhydrazonic ligands possess two common acidic sites: the phenolic O–H group and the N–H group of the amide group. Therefore, it is important to determine the pH range at which the ligand is predominantly deprotonated, as the ligand will act as a Lewis base both in the protonation and the complexation processes. It will coordinate the metal, which acts as a Lewis acid. The more deprotonated the ligand is, the more effective the complexation will be.

Although there are two acidic sites in the ligands considered, it was not feasible to titrate the two ionizable hydrogens separately. This is due to phenols having pK_a values around 8–10 and *N*-acylhydrazones having nearby pK_a values, of around 10–11 (Vitório *et al.*, 2015; Wu *et al.*, 2007). Therefore, both ionizable protons were titrated together, resulting in the determination of an apparent pK_a.

The pK_as of these *N*-acylhydrazones were obtained *via* spectrophotometric titration. Solutions containing 5% MeOH were prepared for ligands **H₂L1**, **H₂L2**, and **H₂L4** in ultrapure water, with a concentration of 2×10^{-5} mol L⁻¹. For **H₂L3**,

due to its lower water solubility, the pK_a was evaluated in a solution containing 30% DMF in ultrapure water, also at of $2 \times 10^{-5} \text{ mol L}^{-1}$. Solutions 0.1 mol L^{-1} and 0.01 mol L^{-1} of HCl and NaOH were prepared for pH adjustments.

As the pH values increased, an intensification in the absorbance at around 400 nm was observed. This band corresponds to the deprotonation of the phenol group to phenolate, promoting a charge transfer from the basic oxygenated site to the ring, enhancing conjugation and therefore increasing absorbance. Moreover, the N–H group of the hydrazone moiety can also undergo deprotonation, further contributing to electronic density delocalization, which similarly contributes to the absorbance at around 400 nm for the different ligands evaluated. This band was then used to monitor ligand deprotonation and obtain the apparent pK_a values (as shown in Figures 36-39, in which the apparent pK_a values are denoted as pK'_a).

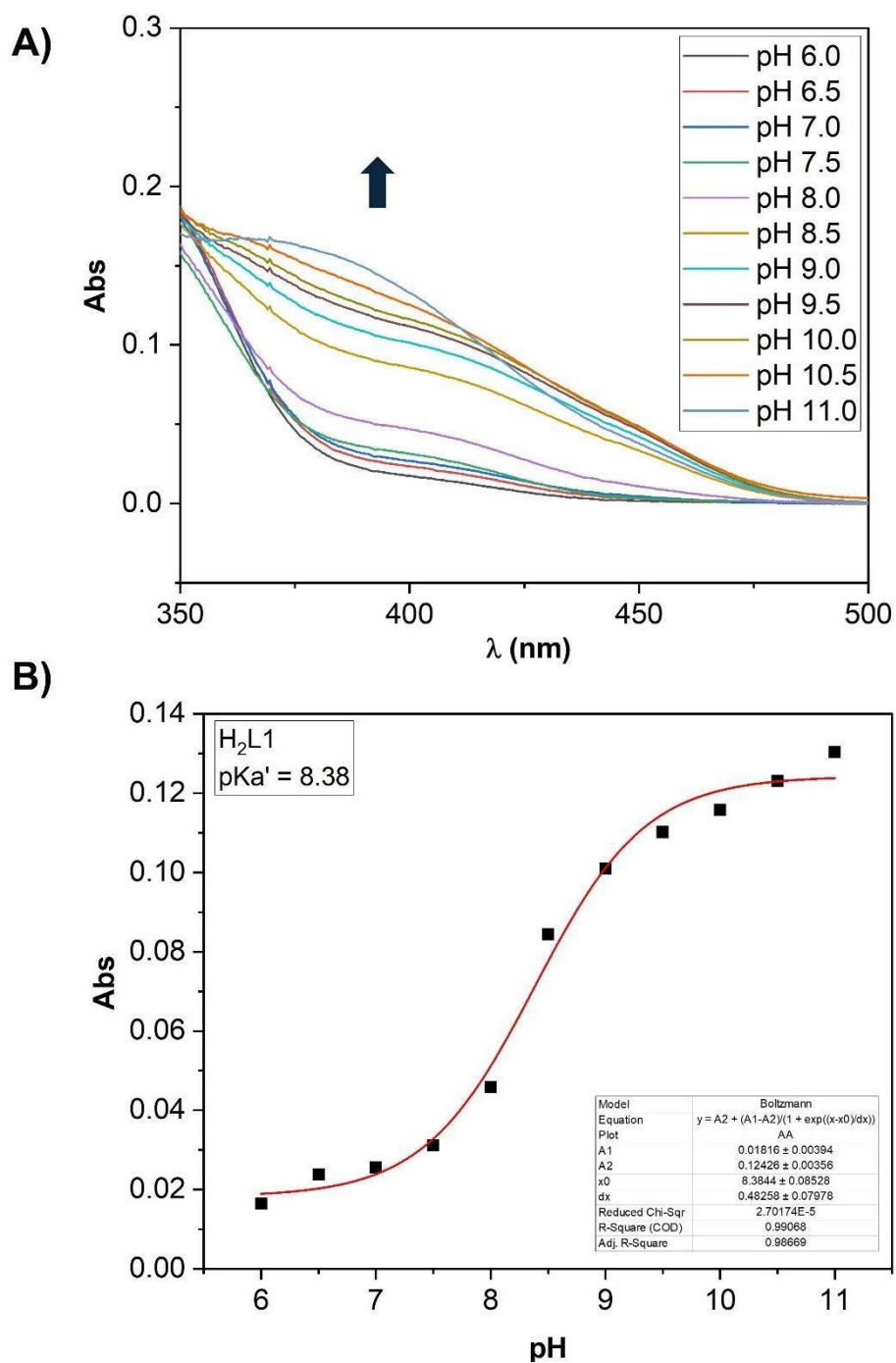


Figure 36. A) UV-Vis spectrum of the **H₂L1** ligand in 5% MeOH:H₂O at different pHs in the range of 350-500 nm with a concentration of 2×10^{-5} mol L⁻¹. **B)** Relationship of pH with the different absorbances of the 400 nm band.

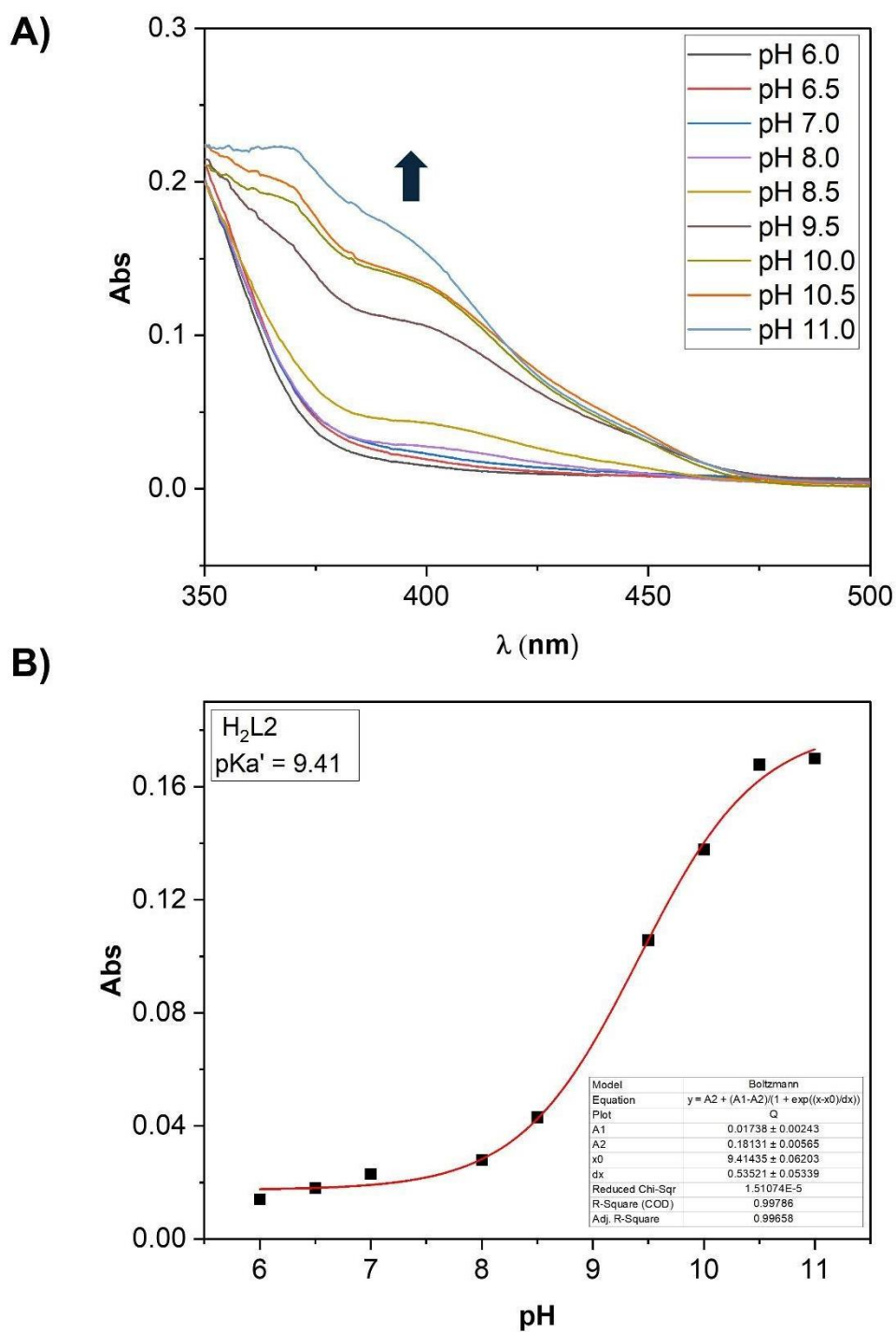


Figure 37. A) UV-Vis spectrum of the **H₂L2** ligand in 5% MeOH:H₂O at different pHs in the range of 350-500 nm with a concentration of 2×10^{-5} mol L⁻¹. **B)** Relationship of pH with the different absorbances of the 405 nm band.

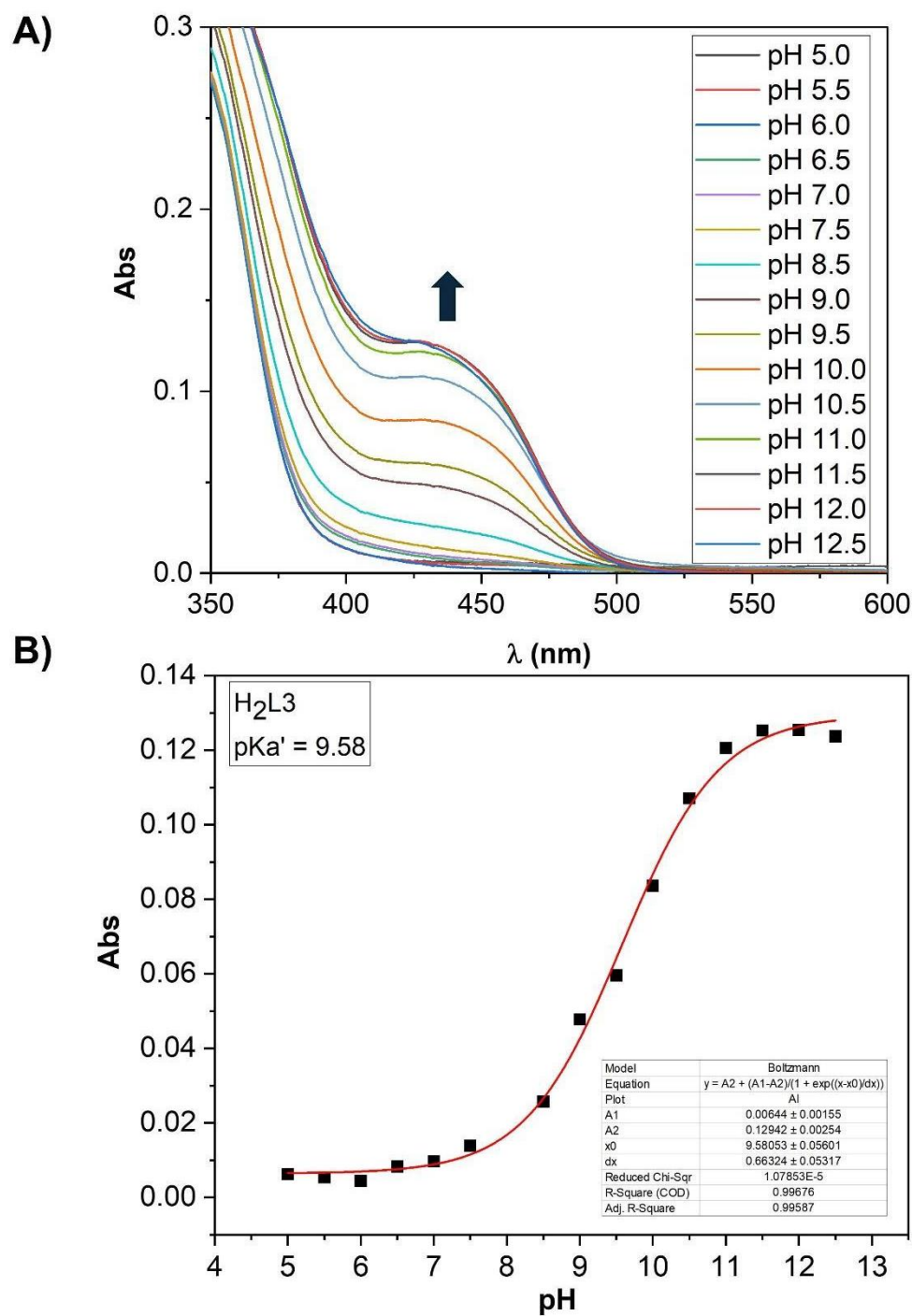


Figure 38. **A)** UV-Vis spectrum of the **H₂L3** ligand in 30% DMF:H₂O at different pHs in the range of 350-600 nm with a concentration of 2×10^{-5} mol L⁻¹. **B)** Relationship of pH with the different absorbances of the 430 nm band.

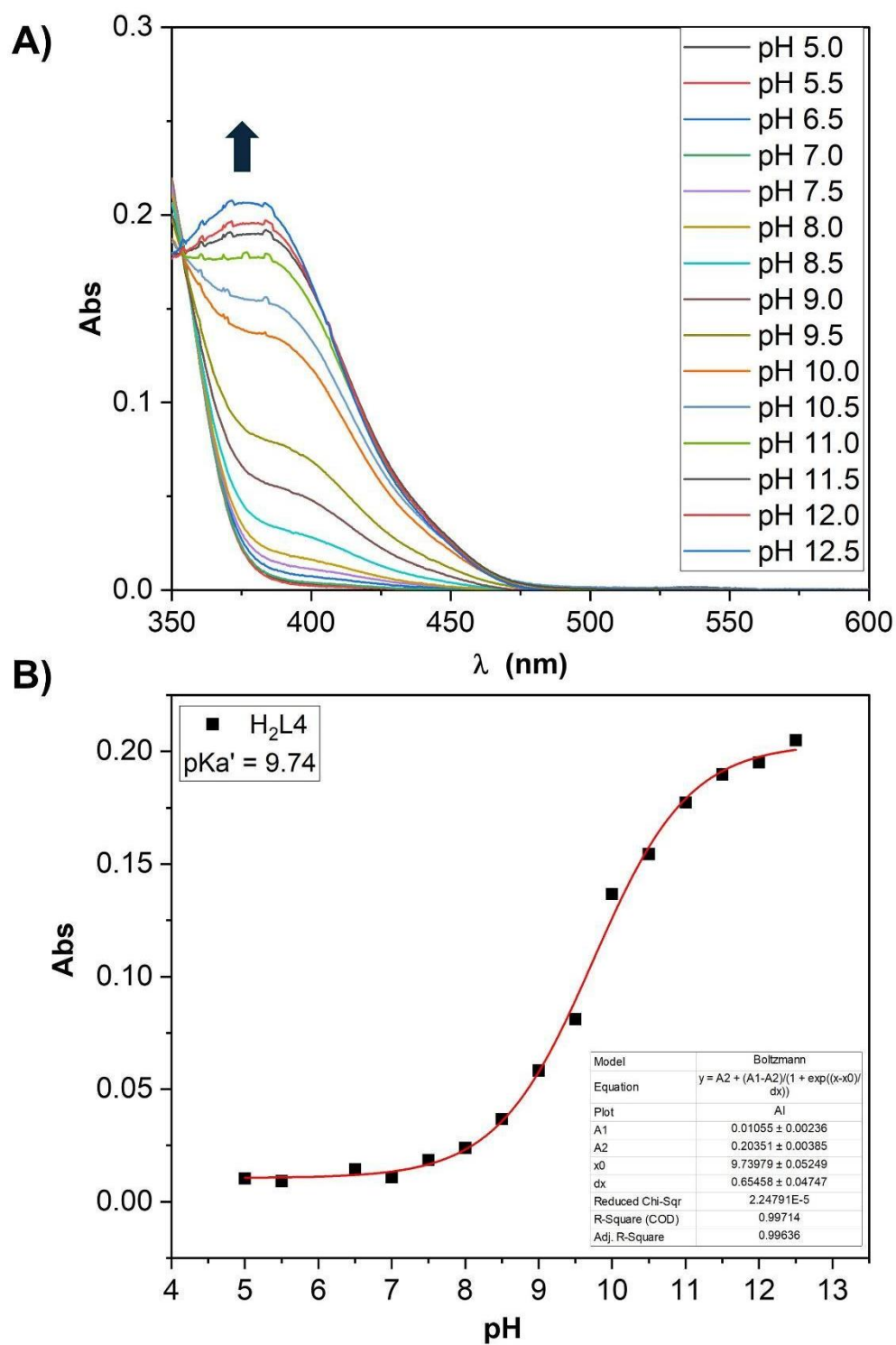


Figure 39. A) UV-Vis spectrum of the **H₂L4** ligand in 5% MeOH:H₂O at different pHs in the range of 350–600 nm with a concentration of 2×10^{-5} mol L⁻¹. **B)** Relationship of pH with the different absorbances of the 398 nm band.

According to the data obtained represented in Figures 36, 37, 38 and 39, the decreasing order of acidity for the ligands is **H₂L1** > **H₂L2** > **H₂L3** > **H₂L4**.

5.1.6 Electrochemical Behavior of Ligands

The chemistry of hydrazones is highly diverse and rich, offering numerous possibilities. In terms of electrochemistry, the redox processes are dependent on the Schiff base ($-\text{C}=\text{N}$) or on the substituent group, if it exhibits redox activity (Lawrence *et al.*, 2019). Literature reports indicate that HOMO-LUMO orbitals of free hydrazones are influenced by the functionality of the iminic group (Bakir & Brown, 2011; Bakir *et al.*, 2017; Bakir *et al.*, 2015).

Electrochemical studies demonstrate that in non-aqueous media, the cyclic voltammetry profile of hydrazones exhibits an irreversible wave. The behavior of hydrazones is analogous to that observed in imines / Schiff bases (Lawrence *et al.*, 2019). Most authors attribute the first cathodic peak to the reduction of the $-\text{C}=\text{N}$ fraction. Electron transfer can proceed *via* a rapid chemical reaction that may lead to the cleavage of the N–N bond in the hydrazone, resulting in a $\text{C}=\text{N}^{\bullet-}$ radical anion. Other reductions may involve proton coupling, potentially leading to the formation of amines (from the complete reduction of the $\text{C}=\text{N}$ bond) and various species, depending on the nature of the substituent group (Bakir *et al.*, 2016; D Özel *et al.*, 2009; Tropol'skaya *et al.*, 1979).

Figure 40 presents the proposed general mechanism for the electrochemical reduction of hydrazones, suggesting that the mechanism may involve one or two electrons.

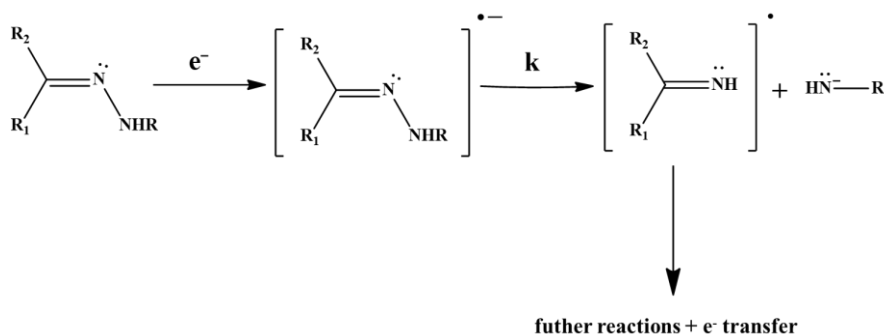


Figure 40. General mechanism of electrochemical reduction of hydrazones. Modified from Lawrence *et al.* (2019).

From the voltammograms of the obtained ligands and some correlations, it is possible to derive electrochemical parameters that can indicate the number of involved electrons (n), the redox mechanism, the transport process, and even the transfer coefficient (α) (Abbar & Nandibewoor, 2012).

The relationship between the square root of the scan rate and the peak current provides information about the type of transport process acting in cyclic voltammetry (Abbar & Nandibewoor, 2012). Analyzing this relationship for the studied ligands reveals a linear correlation, indicating that the system is diffusion-controlled (Abbar & Nandibewoor, 2012; Gosser, 1993). Also corroborated by the linear relationship between the logarithm of the potential and the logarithm of the scan rate, where the value of the slope coefficient being less than or almost equal to 0.5 suggests diffusion-controlled processes (Laviron *et al.*, 1980).

Table 10 presents the electrochemical parameters obtained for the studied complexes. The transfer coefficient (α) can be experimentally determined from a Tafel plot. The Tafel plot utilizes the relationship $\log I_p$ versus E_p , at a scan rate of $100 \text{ mV}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$, for the determination of electrochemical parameters (Compton & Banks, 2007; Muhammad *et al.*, 2016; van der Heijden *et al.*, 2024). The obtained slope can be related to the transfer coefficient (α) by the following relationship (Compton & Banks, 2007; Muhammad *et al.*, 2016):

$$|slope| = \left| \frac{\alpha F}{2.3RT} \right|$$

Where F = Faraday constant

R = Ideal gas constant

T = Temperature (K)

The number of electrons (n) can be estimated, once the transfer coefficient is known, from the relationship:

$$|E_p - E_{p/2}| = \frac{0,048}{\alpha n}$$

Where E_p = Potential of the analyzed peak

$E_{p/2}$ = Corresponds to the potential at which current is the half peak value

n = Number of electrons involved in the redox process

α = Transfer coefficient

Table 10. Estimated electrochemical parameters for the studied ligands. **H₂L2** is non-electroactive.

Ligands	H₂L1	H₂L2	H₂L3	H₂L4
E_{pc} (V vs Ag/AgCl)	−1.44	---	−1.71	−1.45
$E_{pc\frac{1}{2}}$ (V vs Ag/AgCl)	−1.29	---	−1.59	−1.35
α_c	0.15	---	0.18	0.86
n_c	2.08	---	2.10	0.59

Figures 42 and 43 (A and C, respectively) present cyclic voltammograms of ligands **H₂L1** and **H₂L3**, showing an irreversible profile, suggesting that the cathodic peaks observed at the potentials of −1.44 V and −1.71 V vs. Ag/AgCl, correspondingly, are associated with the reduction of the imine (C=N) present in *N*-acylhydrazonic ligands (Lawrence *et al.*, 2019).

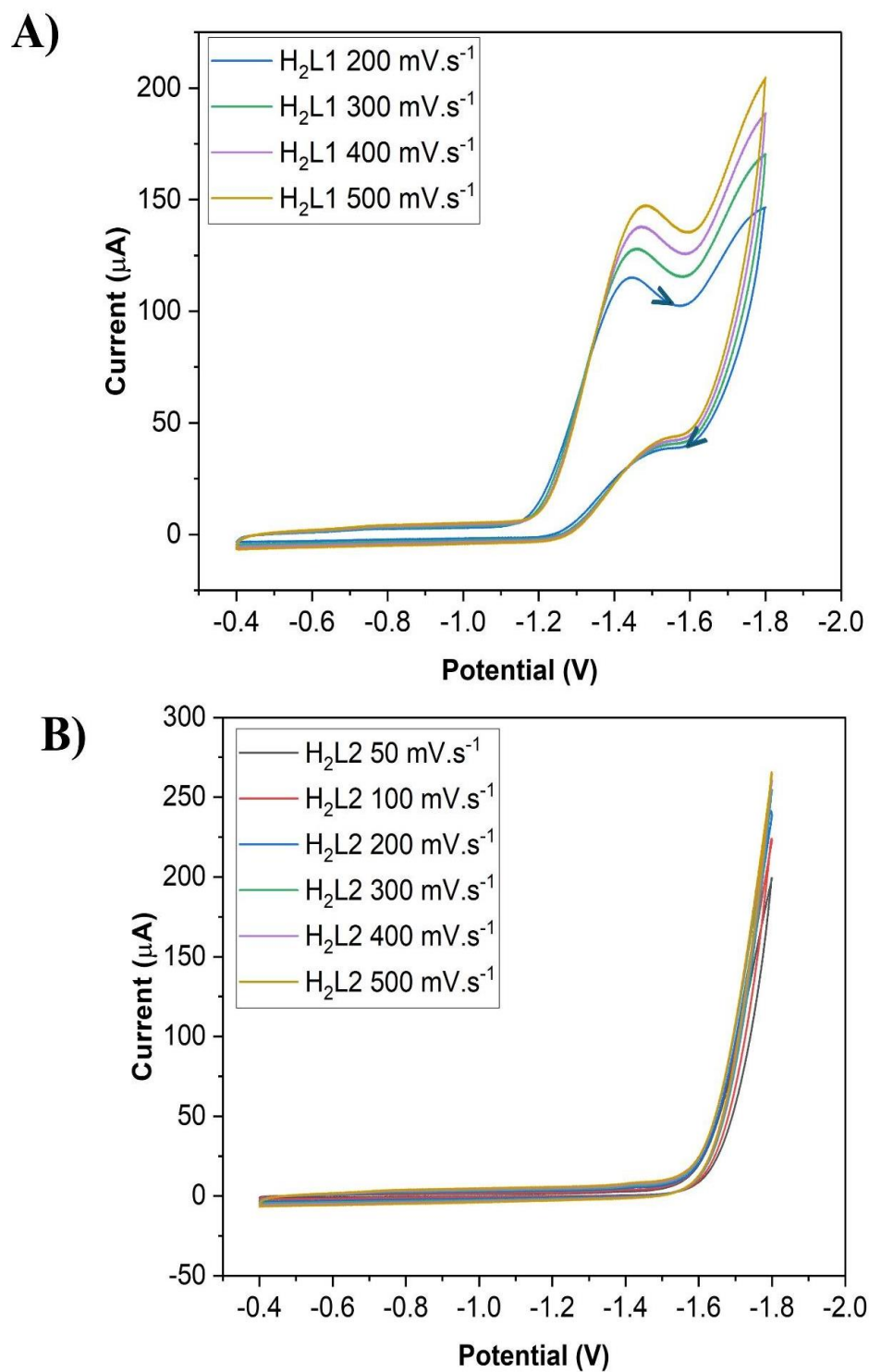


Figure 41. Representative cyclic voltammograms of ligands **(A) $\text{H}_2\text{L1}$** and **(B) $\text{H}_2\text{L2}$** at different scan rates, measured in $\text{DMF}/0.1 \text{ mol L}^{-1} \text{ TBAPF}_6$ (25 $^\circ\text{C}$), using a GCE as the working electrode.

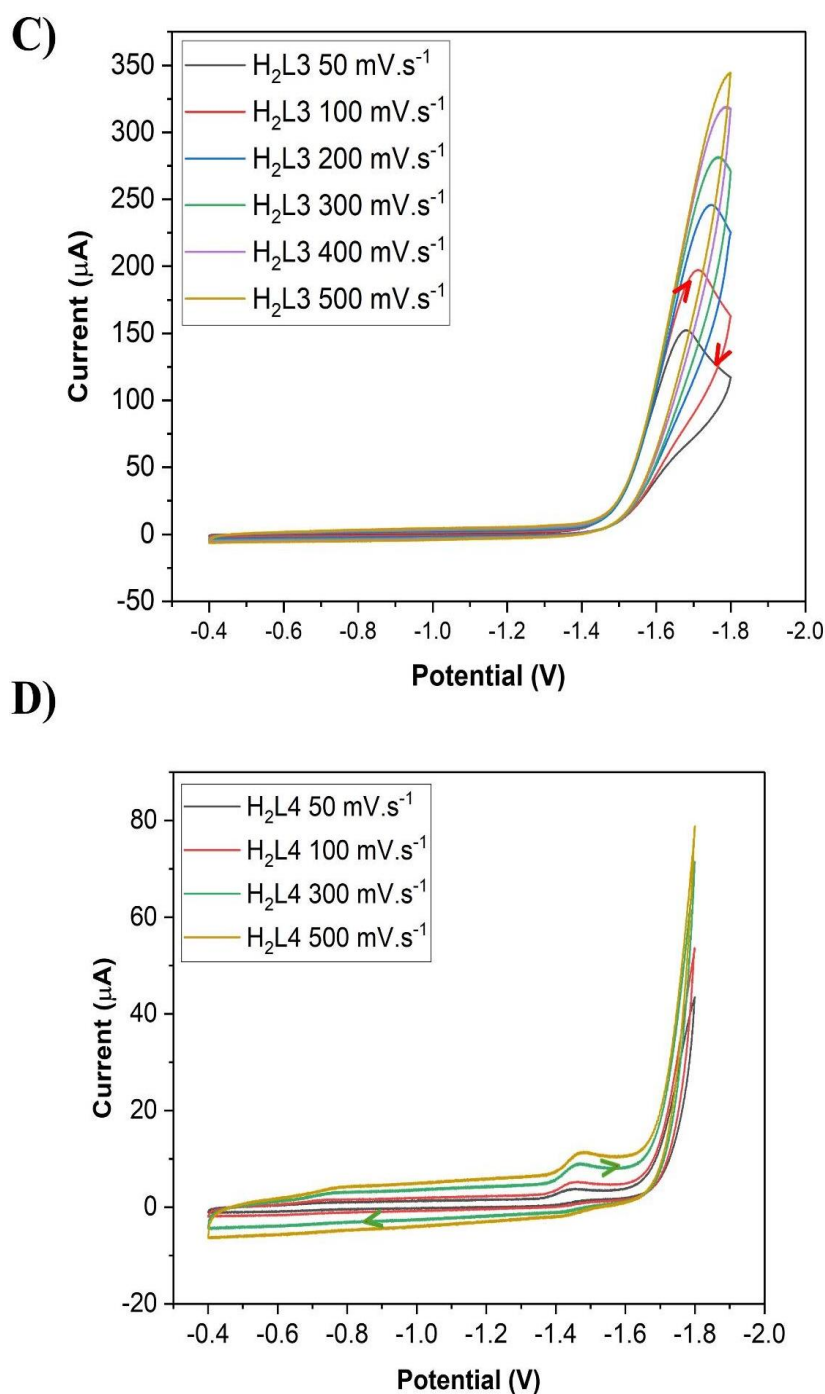


Figure 42. Representative cyclic voltammograms of ligands **(C) H₂L3** and **(D) H₂L4** at different scan rates, measured in DMF/0.1 mol L⁻¹ TBAPF₆ (25 °C), using a GCE as the working electrode.

Electrochemical studies conducted on ligands **H₂L1** and **H₂L3** indicate a two-electron reduction process, implying that the C=N group may be reduced to an amine on the electrode surface. The observed current values in the assay are significantly high for both ligands, which is consistent with the proposal that two electrons are involved in the reduction process.

Figure 41B displays the cyclic voltammogram of ligand **H₂L2**, where the ligand appears to be non-electroactive as no cathodic or anodic waves are seen within the studied potential range.

Figure 42D, on the other hand, shows the cyclic voltammogram of ligand **H₂L4**, which also exhibits an irreversible profile. The cathodic peak observed at the potential -1.45 V suggests reduction of the iminic group ($C=N$) in the studied ligand (Lawrence *et al.*, 2019). Electrochemical studies on ligand **H₂L4** (Figure 42D) indicate a single-electron reduction process, implying partial reduction of the $C=N$ group on the electrode surface. This reduction *via* a single electron suggests the formation of a $C=N^{\bullet}$ radical rather than an amine on the electrode surface. The observed current values in the assay are considerably lower compared to those observed for **H₂L1** (Figure 41A) and **H₂L3** (Figure 42C), which is consistent with the suggestion of a single electron being involved in the reduction process.

5.2 H₂L1 Series

5.2.1 Synthesis of the Compounds belonging to the H₂L1 Series

The ligand was synthesized through a condensation reaction between 5-methylsalicylaldehyde and isoniazid with good yield. The complexes precipitated during the syntheses as reddish powders, with appreciable yield. Figure 43 depicts the synthesis scheme of the ligand and its respective complexes.

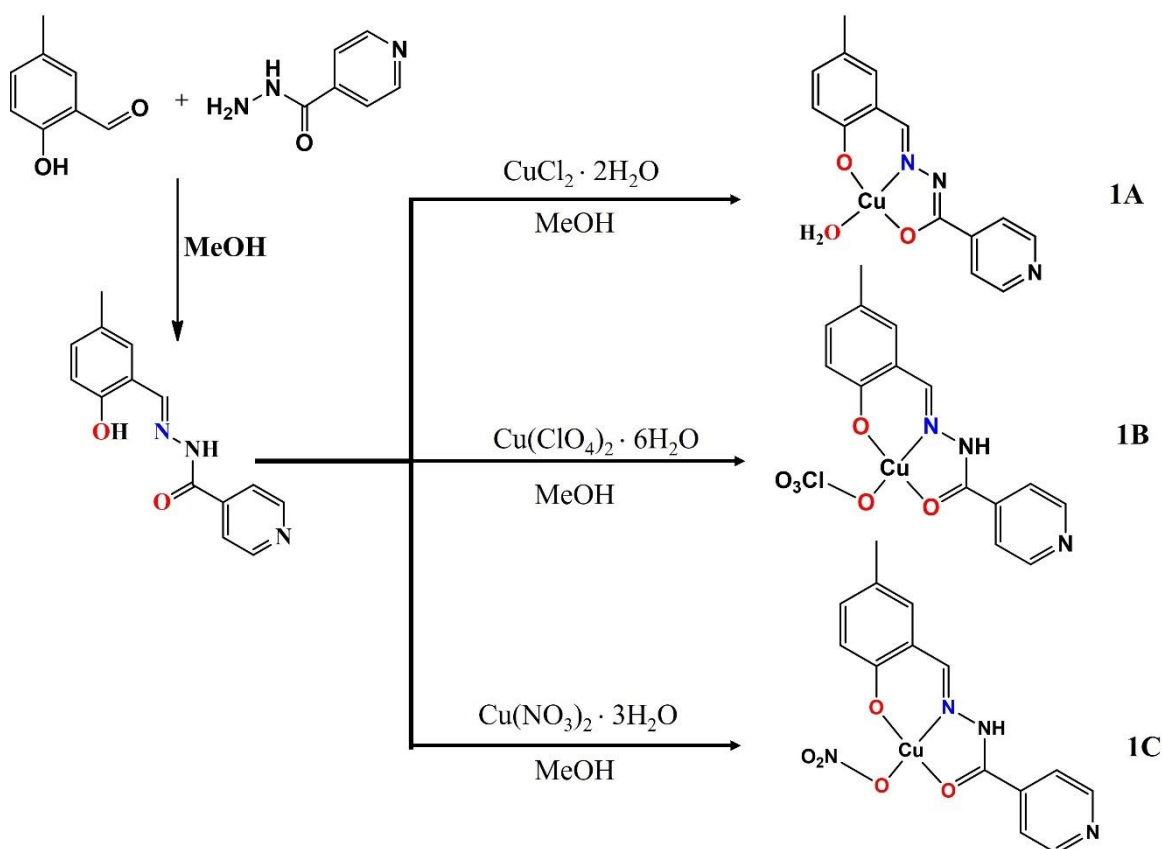


Figure 43. General synthetic scheme for the H₂L1 ligand and complexes **1A**, **1B** and **1C**.

In the TGA analysis of complex **1A** (Figure 44), a significant mass loss of approximately 72.5% is observed at around 350-400 °C, suggesting that within this range, the coordinated water molecule is lost along with the degradation of the organic fraction of **1A**. The remaining solid residue corresponds to 27.5%, and assuming it is CuO, we would have 22.8% of copper in complex **1A**.

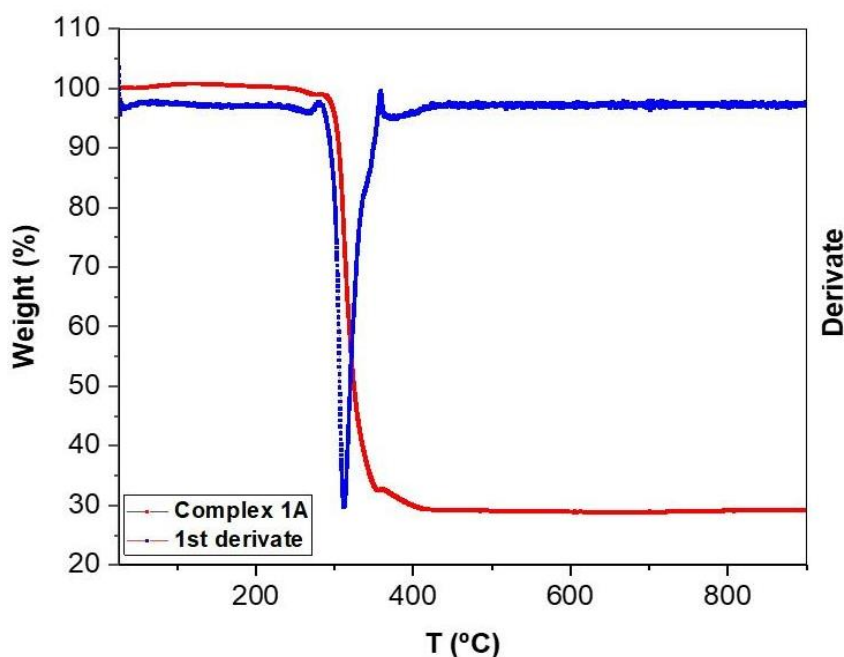


Figure 44. Thermogravimetric curve for the complex **1A**.

The obtained value of 22.8% of copper differs from the calculated value.

The absence of chloride ion in the coordination sphere of complex **1A** was confirmed through a test using a 1.0 mol L⁻¹ aqueous solution of silver nitrate. A mixture of **1A** in methanol was prepared, and the insoluble fraction was filtered out. Drops of the aqueous silver nitrate solution were added to the remaining solution, and no precipitation was observed, indicating that the chloride ion does not participate in the coordination sphere and is not present as a counterion.

In the TGA of complex **1C** (Figure 45), a mass loss of approximately 4.95% is observed starting at around 120 °C, suggesting that, within this range, the loss of the nitrate ion as NO_x occurs (Fei *et al.*, 2019). At 400 °C, degradation of the organic fraction is observed. The remaining solid residue, stable from 700 °C on, corresponds to 23.46%, and assuming it is CuO, we would have 18.74% of the copper in **1C**. The obtained value of 18.74% differs from the calculated value by approximately 2.0%, suggesting that the proposed structure is reasonable.

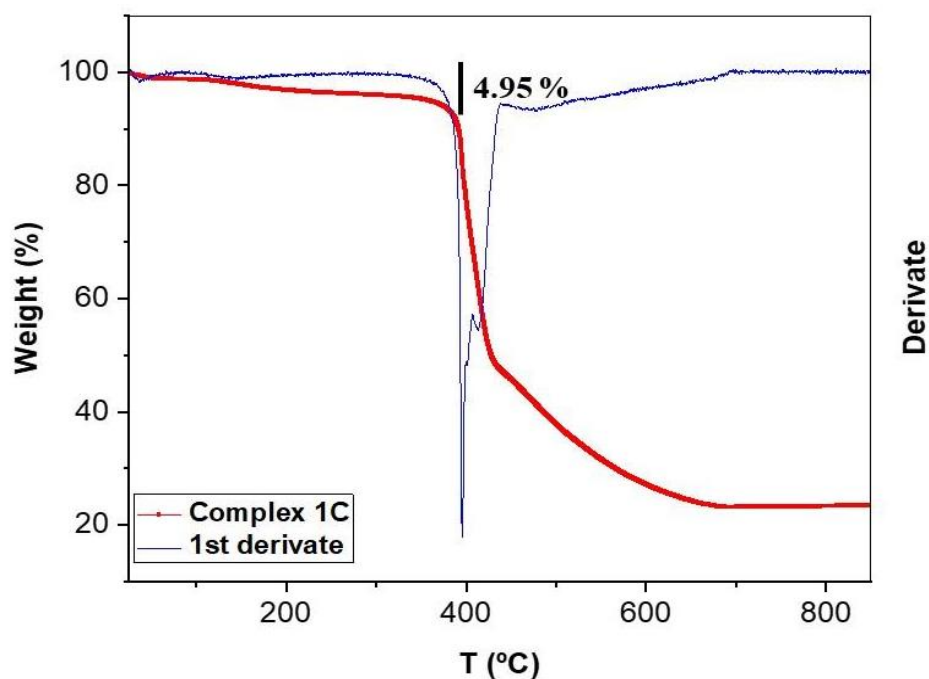


Figure 45. Thermogravimetric curve for the complex **1C**.

All the obtained complexes were highly insoluble in the tested solvents, including water, methanol, ethanol, isopropanol, acetone, acetonitrile, DMF, and DMSO. The low solubility of these compounds prevented any solution-based assays as well as the interaction studies with HSA.

5.2.1 Characterization of H₂L1 and their Complexes

5.2.1.1 Copper content (ICP-OES)

Assays using the ICP-OES were performed for all the complexes derived from **H₂L1**. The results are organized in Table 11.

Table 11. Relationship between the percentage of copper calculated and that found.

<u>Complexes</u>	<u>%Cu</u>	
	<u>calculated</u>	<u>found</u>
<u>1A</u>	19.0 %	19.4%
<u>1B</u>	15.2%	16.6 %
<u>1C</u>	16.7%	16.9 %

5.2.2.2 Infrared Vibrational Spectroscopy

The results obtained from infrared vibrational spectroscopy for compounds **1A**, **1B**, and **1C** were crucial in proposing a structure that aligns with the obtained data, as crystallization of these compounds was not achievable. Most of the bands present in the infrared spectrum of ligand **H₂L1** are still evident in its respective complexes. However, absorption shifts, band disappearances, and the appearance of new absorptions in the spectra of complexes **1A**, **1B**, and **1C** (Figures 46-48, respectively, and Table 12) suggest coordination.

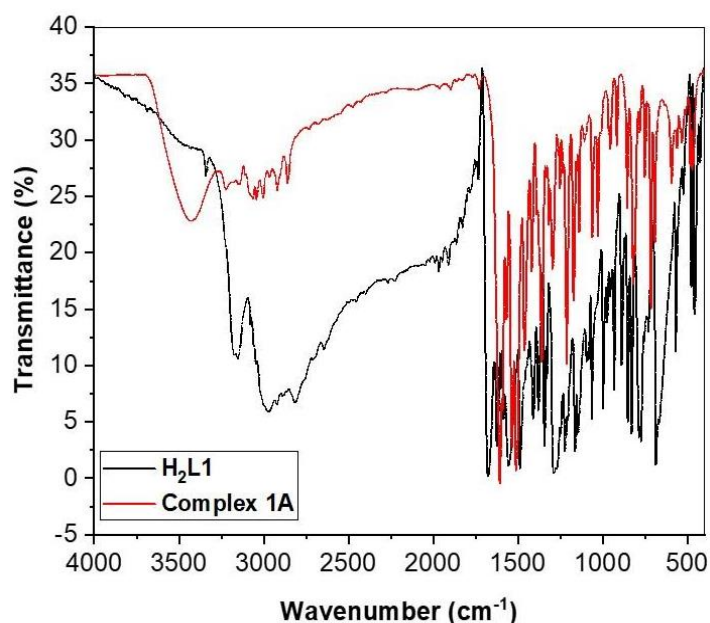


Figure 46. Overlapping of the mid-infrared spectra of **H₂L1** and **1A** in KBr, at room temperature.

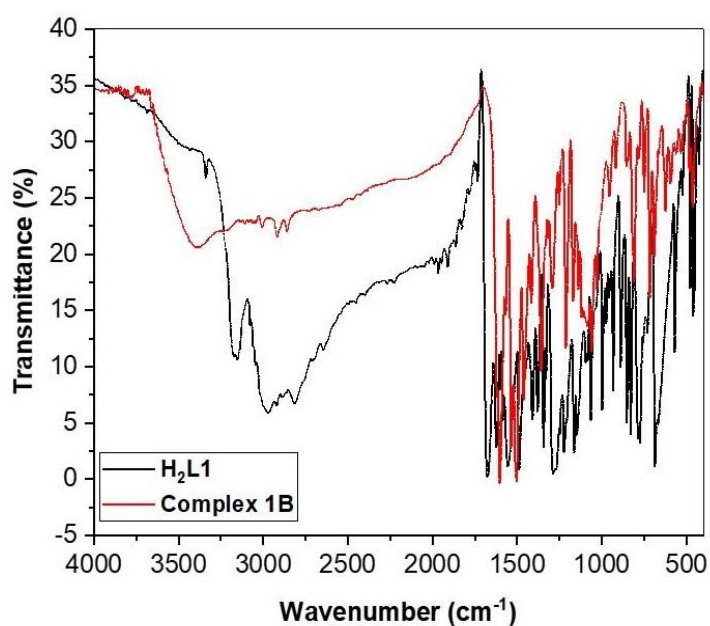


Figure 47. Overlapping of the mid-infrared spectra of **H₂L1** and **1B** in KBr, at room temperature.

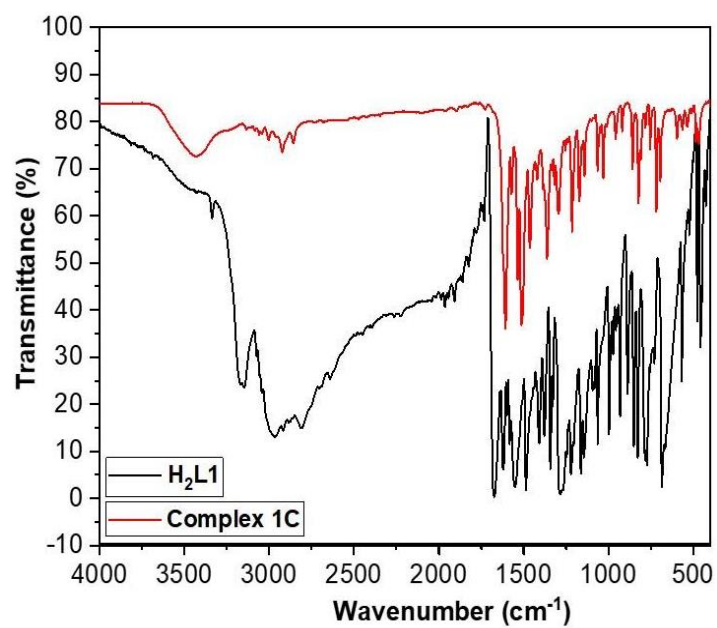


Figure 48. Overlapping of the mid-infrared spectra of H_2L1 and **1C** in KBr, at room temperature.

Table 12. Selected vibrational absorptions (cm⁻¹) for **H₂L1** and their copper(II) complexes.

Assignment	H ₂ L1	Complex 1A	Complex 1B	Complex 1C
$\nu\text{N-H}$	3175	-----	3212	3244
$\nu\text{O-H}_{\text{phenol}}$	3339	-----	-----	-----
$\nu\text{O-H}_{\text{water}}$	-----	3390	3384	3424
$\nu\text{C=O}$	1670	1514	1603	1607
$\nu\text{C=N}$	1623	1605	1603	1609
$\delta\text{C=N-H}$	1546	1566	1538	1537
$\delta\text{C-O-H}_{\text{phenol}}$	1485	-----	-----	-----
$\nu(\text{NO}_2)_{\text{ass}}$	-----	-----	-----	1370
$\nu\text{C=C}_{\text{arom}}$	1370	1366	1359	1356
$\delta\text{O-H}_{\text{phenol}}$	1377	-----	-----	-----
$\nu\text{C-O}_{\text{phenol}}$	1340	1300	1311	1317
$\nu(\text{NO}_2)_{\text{sym}}$	-----	-----	-----	1213
$\delta\text{C=C-H}_{\text{phenol}}$	1290	1218	1282	1283
$\nu\text{N-N}$	1160	1165	1160	1068
νNO	-----	-----	-----	1022
$\nu(\text{ClO}_4)_{\text{ass}}$	-----	-----	1105	-----
νClO_4	-----	-----	1028	-----
$\nu(\text{ClO}_4)_{\text{sym}}$	-----	-----	623	-----
$\nu\text{Cu-O}$	-----	591	589	591
$\nu\text{Cu-N}$	-----	529	529	553
$\delta\text{O-Cu-N}$	-----	472	465	460

When comparing the spectra of the ligand and its respective complexes, a shift of bands to lower energy values associated with common groups is observed. This pattern suggests coordination, and is accompanied by the disappearance of other bands, such as the O-H stretching of phenol, absent in the spectra of all the complexes, thus confirming deprotonation of the hydroxyl group.

Complexes **1B** and **1C** exhibit anions (perchlorate and nitrate) coordinated to the metal ion. Thus, it is expected that the N-H group of the hydrazone present in the ligand remains protonated in the complex, a fact confirmed by the $\nu(\text{N-H})$ bands present in the complexes at 3212 and 3244 cm⁻¹, respectively (Pavia *et al.*,

2015; Silverstein, 2000). For complex **1B**, bands related to the $\nu(\text{ClO}_4)_{\text{ass}}$ stretching vibration at 1105 cm^{-1} , νClO_4 at 1028 cm^{-1} , and $\nu(\text{ClO}_4)_{\text{sym}}$ at 623 cm^{-1} are observed, which are consistent with the monodentate binding of perchlorate to copper (Nakamoto, 1978; Rey, 2019). For complex **1C**, absorptions related to the $\nu(\text{NO}_2)_{\text{ass}}$ stretching, $\nu(\text{NO}_2)_{\text{sym}}$ stretching, and νNO stretching vibrations indicate that coordination of the nitrate ion occurs in a monodentate manner. Literature reports that if bands related to the nitrate ion are observed at around $1400\text{--}1300\text{ cm}^{-1}$, the ion acts as a monodentate ligand in the complex (Jaafar *et al.*, 2024; Nakamoto, 1978).

The stretching vibration $\nu(\text{C}=\text{N})$ of the azomethine group is observed at 1623 cm^{-1} in the free ligand. In complexes **1A**, **1B**, and **1C**, this band is shifted to 1605 , 1603 , and 1609 cm^{-1} , respectively, suggesting coordination *via* this group. Additionally, the band related to the $\nu(\text{C}=\text{O})$ stretching vibration overlaps, in **1C**, with the $\nu(\text{C}=\text{N})$ stretching, possibly due to coordination involving this group, placing it very close to the $\nu(\text{C}=\text{N})$ stretching (Nakamoto, 1978; Pavia *et al.*, 2015; Silverstein, 2000).

In addition to these ligand-related bands, some metal-ligand vibrations were identified in the spectra of complexes. These include absorptions at around 590 cm^{-1} associated to the $\nu(\text{Cu}=\text{O}1)$ stretching vibration, bands at approximately $530\text{--}550\text{ cm}^{-1}$ related to the $\nu(\text{Cu}=\text{O}2)$ stretching vibration, and an absorption at around $460\text{--}470\text{ cm}^{-1}$ related to the $\delta(\text{O}=\text{Cu}=\text{N})$ bending (Moura *et al.*, 2023; Nakamoto, 1978).

5.2.2.3 Electronic Spectroscopy in UV-Vis

The synthesized complexes could not be studied in solution due to their low solubility in common solvents. In contrast, ligand **H₂L1** was characterized by UV-Vis electronic spectroscopy in DMF at different concentrations.

Figure 49 illustrates the electronic spectra of **H₂L1** and its precursors. This *N*-acylhydrazone exhibits four main absorptions in the range of $250\text{ to }500\text{ nm}$, comprising two bands and two shoulders. Upon comparing the spectrum of the ligand with its precursors, it is observed that two of the absorptions are present in the precursors, corresponding to transitions of the phenol and/or pyridine rings. Among the four main absorptions, an intense band centered at 292.5 nm [molar

absorptivity (ϵ) equal to $19,441 \pm 203 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$] and a shoulder at $\sim 304 \text{ nm}$ ($17,213 \pm 190 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$) are strictly related to *N*-acylhydrazone processes, as they are absent in the spectra of precursors. The broad band observed at 341.5 nm ($15,343 \pm 138 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$) exists in the spectrum of 5-methylsalicylaldehyde, and undergoes a bathochromic shift in the hydrazone.

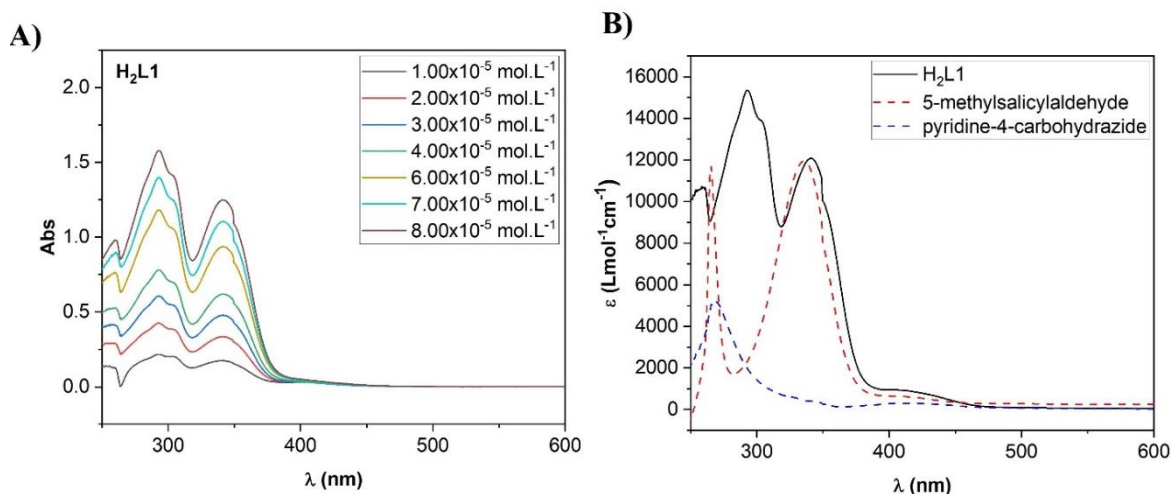


Figure 49. A) UV-Vis electronic spectrum of **H₂L1** at different concentrations in DMF solution.

B) UV-Vis electronic spectra of **H₂L1** and its precursors ($5.0 \times 10^{-5} \text{ mol L}^{-1}$) in DMF solution.

5.2.2.4 Diffuse Reflectance

The diffuse reflectance technique was chosen due to the low solubility shown by the complexes synthesized from **H₂L1**. Throughout this work, much will be discussed regarding the spectroscopy of the copper(II) ion because the electronic properties of these complexes are highly influenced by stereochemistry.

The free copper(II) ion has a d^9 electronic configuration, with 9 electrons distributed over five degenerate d orbitals. In the presence of a ligand field, these d orbitals lose their degeneracy and split into different energy levels according to the symmetries presented by these orbitals (Figure 50). This splitting allows for electronic transitions between the orbitals, known as $d-d$ transitions. The energy difference between these split orbitals is strongly influenced by the nature of the ligands (according to the spectrochemical series) and the geometry of the metal center (Huheey, 1972; Miessler & Tarr, 2004).

Copper(II) complexes in octahedral environments are highly distorted (due to the Jahn-Teller effect), with tetragonal elongation along the z-axis being the most common distortion (Hathaway & Billing, 1970). Generally, these complexes exhibit three absorption bands, although they may not always be well resolved, sometimes appearing as a single broad band around 600-700 nm (Lever, 1984).

On the other hand, copper(II) complexes with a coordination number 5 can typically be found in two stereochemical limits: trigonal bipyramidal and square pyramidal. However, intermediates between these two boundaries are often found (Lever, 1984). The electronic spectra of trigonal bipyramidal complexes usually exhibit a less intense band at higher energies and a more intense band at lower energies. In contrast, electronic spectra of square pyramidal complexes often show a more intense absorption band in the higher energy region and a less intense one at lower energy. The less intense bands may sometimes be obscured or appear as shoulders (Lever, 1984; Manonmani *et al.*, 2000; Vaidyanathan *et al.*, 1998).

Tetracoordinate copper(II) complexes can be found at the stereochemical limits of tetrahedral and square planar geometries, being the latter more common. Tetrahedral copper(II) complexes are invariably distorted, typically showing four absorptions, three of which are related to *d-d* transitions and the fourth absorption band attributed to distortions (Lever, 1984). Tetrahedral copper(II) complexes are favored by weak field or bulky ligands, whereas the ligands reported in this study are strong field ligands; consequently, for a tetracoordinate complex, the favored stereochemistry would be square planar. Many square-planar copper(II) complexes are reddish and exhibit weak absorption bands around 440-560 nm. The literature reports that square planar copper(II) complexes containing Schiff bases show absorption bands across a broad wavelength range: 500 to 769 nm (Lever, 1984). In summary, the electronic spectra of copper(II) coordination compounds provide valuable information about coordination sphere and molecular geometry.

Figure 50 recapitulates the orbital splitting patterns that *d* orbitals of the metal can undergo in different symmetries.

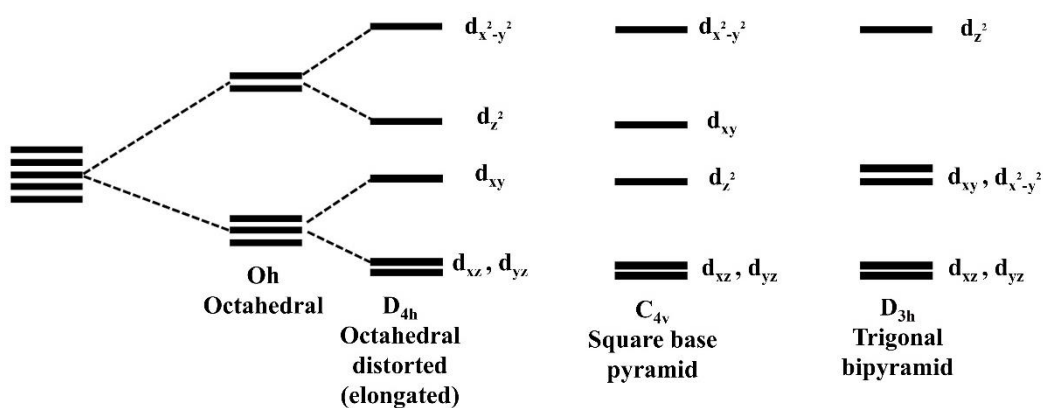


Figure 50. Diagram of the splitting of energy levels of d orbitals in different symmetries.

Figure 51 presents the diffuse reflectance electronic spectrum of complex **1A** diluted in barium sulfate, along with the deconvoluted bands. Five absorption bands were obtained between 250 nm and 800 nm using an absorption fitting. The component at 284.5 nm in complex **1A** may be related to the aromatic rings. The hydrazone-associated absorptions observed at 292.5 and 304 nm, as well as the phenol-centered band at 341.5 nm in the ligand are bathochromically shifted in **1A** (as already reported by us for similar systems (Rada *et al.*, 2019)), being assigned to the components at ~342 nm hydrazone-associated absorptions and ~442 nm the phenol-centered band. The latter has, in fact, two contributing constituents, being the second one probably related to a LMCT transition from the phenolate ion to copper(II). Finally, an extended band centered at around 647.5 nm is connected to $d-d$ transitions. This value is within the common range for copper(II) complexes, as previously mentioned (Hathaway & Billing, 1970; Lever, 1984). Indeed, the work by Rodríguez *et al.* (2021) describes $d-d$ components at 637 and 715 nm for a hydrazone-derived copper(II) complex with the same coordination sphere (in terms of the donor atoms set) proposed by us for compound **1A**.

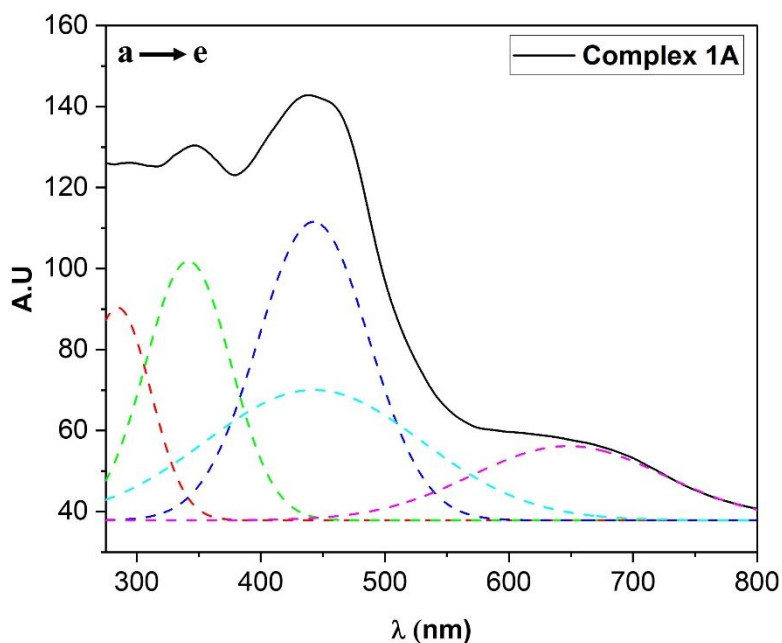


Figure 51. Electronic diffuse reflectance spectrum of **1A**, in black. Main components obtained by band fitting: a) 284.5 nm, b) 341.5 nm, c) 442.5 nm, d) 443 nm and e) 647.5 nm.

The diffuse reflectance electronic spectrum of complex **1B** is shown in Figure 52, along with the main absorption bands obtained by the band deconvolution method. The spectrum was deconvoluted into six absorption bands were obtained between 250 nm and 800 nm using an absorption fitting. The component at 271.7 nm in complex **1B** may be related to the aromatic rings. The ligand's band at 341.5 nm appears in the spectrum of complex **1B** at 347 nm and is also present in the precursors, related to transitions of the phenol and pyridine rings and the hydrazone-associated absorptions observed at 292.5 and 304 nm, as well as the phenol-centered band at 341.5 nm in the ligand are bathochromically shifted in **1B** being assigned to the components at ~342 and ~442 nm. Three bands are observed in the 400 nm region: 416 nm, 461 nm, and 461.5 nm. As discussed for complex **1A**, the band at 416 nm is possibly related the hydrazone-associated absorptions and the charge transfer from the phenolate ion to the Cu^{2+} ion, while the bands at 461 nm and 461.5 nm are related to $d-d$ transitions in a square planar system, as suggested for these **H₂L1** systems. The absorption band at 680 nm is essentially related to the $d-d$ transition in copper(II) complexes (Lever, 1984; Vaidyanathan *et al.*, 1998).

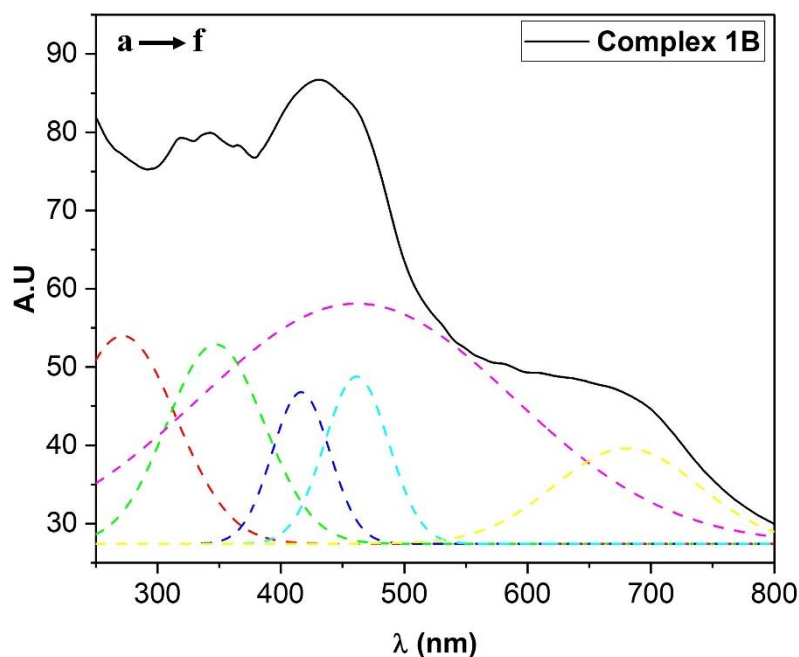


Figure 52. Electronic diffuse reflectance spectrum of **1B**, in black. Main components obtained by band fitting: a) 271.7 nm, b) 347 nm, c) 416 nm, d) 461 nm, e) 461.5 nm and f) 680 nm.

Complex **1C** exhibits (Figure 53) bands similar to those observed in the other complexes. The band around 270 nm shows a hypsochromic shift compared to the other complexes in the **H₂L1** series and the free ligand (which occurs around 291.5 nm) and is attributed to the aromatic rings. The hydrazone-associated absorptions observed at 292.5 and 304 nm, as well as the phenol-centered band at 341.5 nm in the ligand are bathochromically shifted in **1C** being assigned to the components at ~342 and ~442 nm (which occurs around 347 nm, 416 nm and 461 nm). The band at 630.7 nm is related to a *d-d* transition, and for complex **1C**, this band has a shorter wavelength, indicating higher energy in the electronic transition, suggesting that this complex may be more distorted than complexes **1A** and **1B**, which would justify greater splitting between its orbitals (Hathaway & Billing, 1970; Lever, 1984; Vaidyanathan *et al.*, 1998).

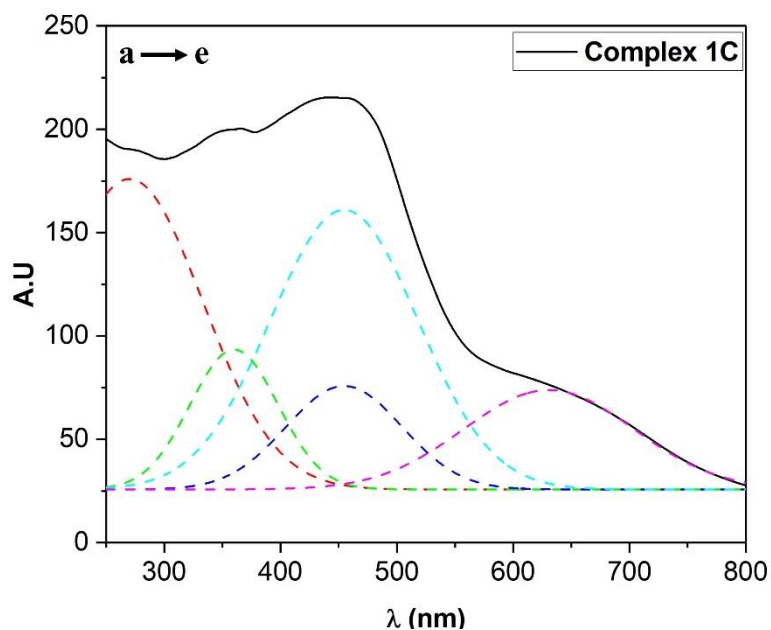


Figure 53. Electronic diffuse reflectance spectrum of **1C**, in black. Main components obtained by band fitting: a) 270 nm, b) 360 nm, c) 454 nm, d) 454.5 nm and e) 630.7 nm.

Although the complexes synthesized for the series of ligand **H₂L1** were not obtained in crystalline form, hindering a more detailed elucidation of their structures, the results obtained indicate a good correlation with the proposed structures. However, undoubtedly, further study with different techniques is necessary to better understand the structural nature and its influences on different properties of complexes **1A**, **1B**, and **1C**.

5.2.2.5 Electrochemical behavior - Cyclic Voltammetry

The electrochemical behavior of the complexes was evaluated by cyclic voltammetry using a three-electrode system under conditions analogous to those used for the respective ligand. Upon dissolution in a DMF solution containing TBAPF₆, the complexes precipitated. Therefore, the precipitate was filtered, and the remaining solution was evaluated. Complex **1C** exhibits much lower solubility in common solvents compared to **1A** and **1B**, rendering electrochemical studies impractical. The voltammograms of complexes **1A** and **1B** are shown in Figure 54 and were obtained at different scan rates.

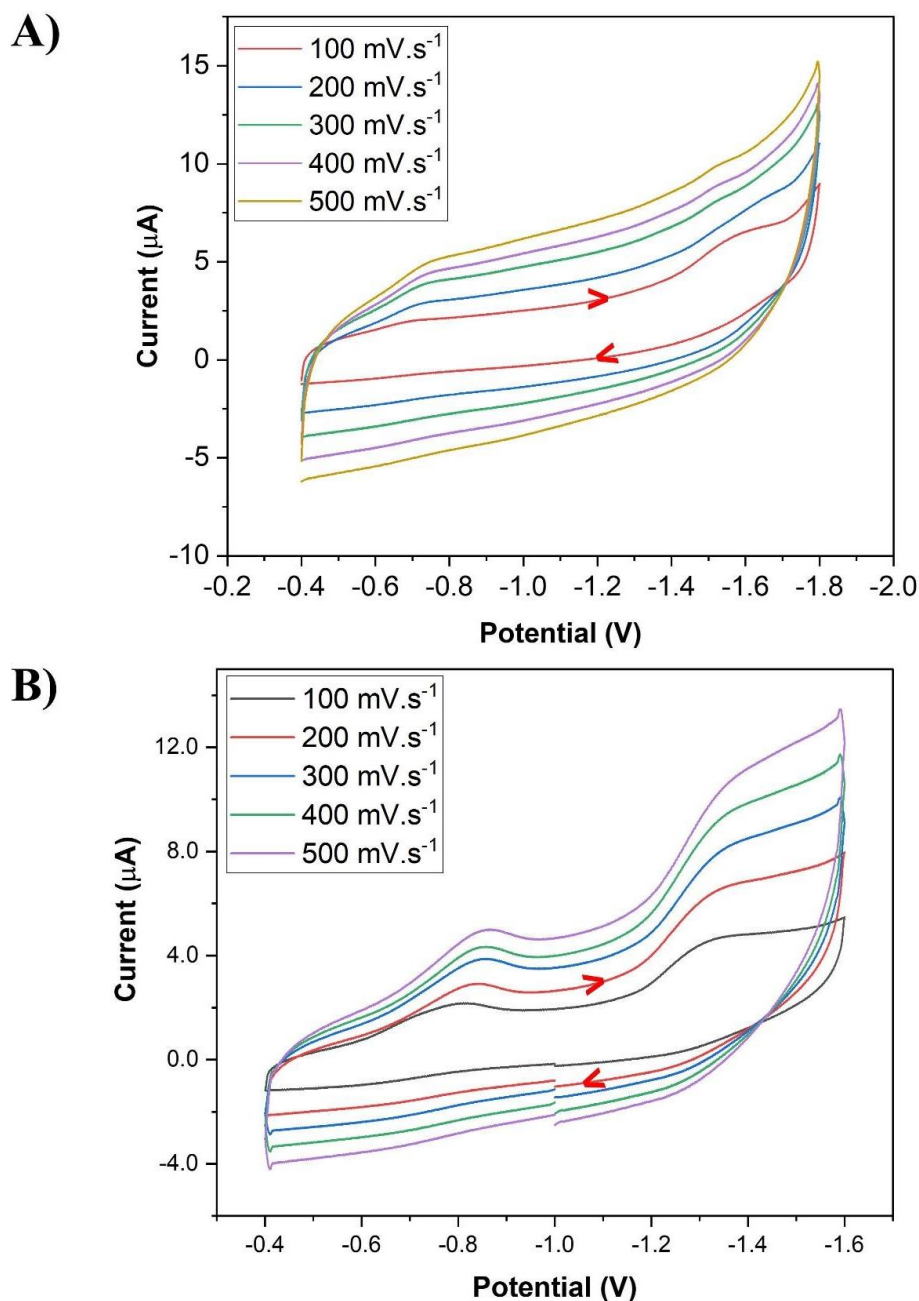


Figure 54. Representative cyclic voltammograms of complexes (A) **1A** and (B) **1B** at different scan rates, measured in DMF/ 0.1 mol L^{-1} TBAPF₆ (25 °C), using a GCE as the working electrode.

Figure 54A shows the cyclic voltammogram of complex **1A**, which due to its low solubility appears with low resolution, which impacts the reliability of electrochemical calculations. Nevertheless, some considerations can still be made from the analysis of this voltammogram. As previously discussed, the free ligand **H₂L1** itself is electroactive, indicating that the cathodic peak at around -1.57 V vs. Ag/AgCl is related to a reduction process inherent to the ligand. Conversely, the cathodic peak at -0.72 V vs. Ag/AgCl is possibly associated with the $\text{Cu}^{2+}/\text{Cu}^{+}$ redox couple, consistent with values in literature for similar complexes (Lawrence

et al., 2019; Moura *et al.*, 2023; Sangeetha *et al.*, 1999; Torelli *et al.*, 2000).

The voltammogram of complex **1B** (Figure 54B) exhibits better resolution, likely due to its higher solubility. In this voltammogram, two cathodic peaks can be clearly observed: the peak at -1.35 V vs. Ag/AgCl corresponds to the reduction of the C=N group in the ligand, while the peak around -0.81 V vs. Ag/AgCl was assigned to the $\text{Cu}^{2+}/\text{Cu}^{+}$ redox couple (Lawrence *et al.*, 2019; Moura *et al.*, 2023; Sangeetha *et al.*, 1999; Torelli *et al.*, 2000).

From the voltammograms of the complexes, and doing some correlations, it is possible to obtain electrochemical parameters that can indicate the number of electrons involved (n), the redox mechanism, the transport process and even the transfer coefficient (α) (Abbar & Nandibewoor, 2012). The table 13 exhibit the electrochemical parameters obtained to **H₂L1** series.

The relationship between the square root of the scan rate and the peak current provides insights into the type of transport process in cyclic voltammetry (Abbar & Nandibewoor, 2012). Analyzing this relationship for **1A** and **1B** reveals a linear correlation, indicating that the system is diffusion-controlled (Abbar & Nandibewoor, 2012; Gosser, 1993), which is further confirmed by the linearity of the association between the logarithms of the potential and of the scan rate, with slopes less than or approximately equal to 0.5 (Laviron *et al.*, 1980).

Table 13. Estimated electrochemical parameters for the studied complexes.

Complex	1A	1B
E_{pc1} (V vs Ag/AgCl)	-0.72	-0.81
$E_{pc1\frac{1}{2}}$ (V vs Ag/AgCl)	-0.53	-0.65
α_{c1}	0.37	0.38
n_{c1}	0.68	0.75
E_{pc2} (V vs Ag/AgCl)	---	-1.35
$E_{pc2\frac{1}{2}}$ (V vs Ag/AgCl)	---	-1.22
α_{c2}	---	0.27
n_{c2}	---	1.36

The structural differences between complexes **1A** and **1B** result in slightly shifted cathodic potential values, although they are still close. Furthermore, the cathodic potentials obtained for the complexes below 1.0 V vs. Ag/AgCl suggest the involvement of one electron in the process, likely associated with the $\text{Cu}^{2+}/\text{Cu}^+$ redox couple, which is consistent with its mononuclear nature (Moura *et al.*, 2023; Sangeetha *et al.*, 1999; Torelli *et al.*, 2000).

5.3 H₂L2 Series

5.3.1 Synthesis of the Compounds belonging to the H₂L2 Series

Crystals of **H₂L2** were obtained with good yields from the condensation between 5-methylsalicylaldehyde and furan-2-carboxyhydrazide. All its copper(II) complexes were obtained in crystalline form as well, and with an appreciable yield. Figure 55 shows the synthesis scheme of the ligand and its complexes.

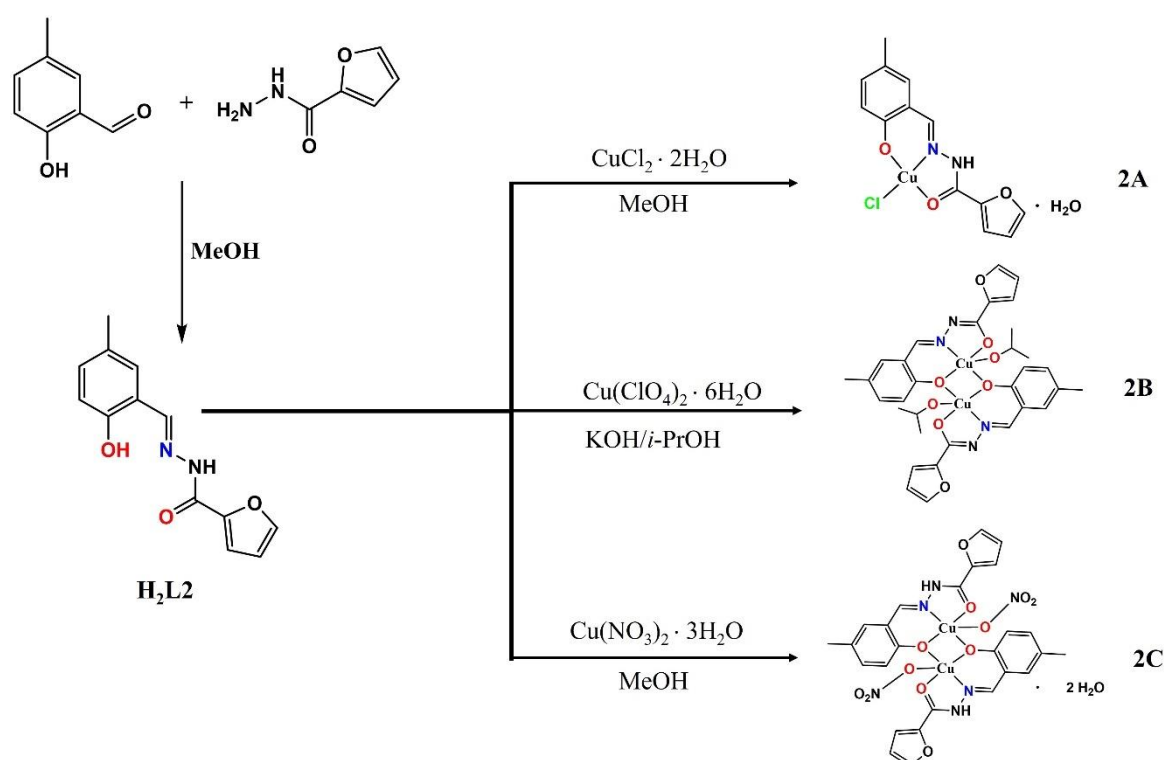


Figure 55. General scheme of the synthesis of the **H₂L2** ligand and complexes **2A**, **2B** and **2C**.

In the TGA analysis for the **H₂L2** ligand (Figure 56), it is possible to observe two thermal events in the region of 100-150 °C, corresponding to a mass loss of approximately 6.7%, suggesting the loss of a hydration water molecule.

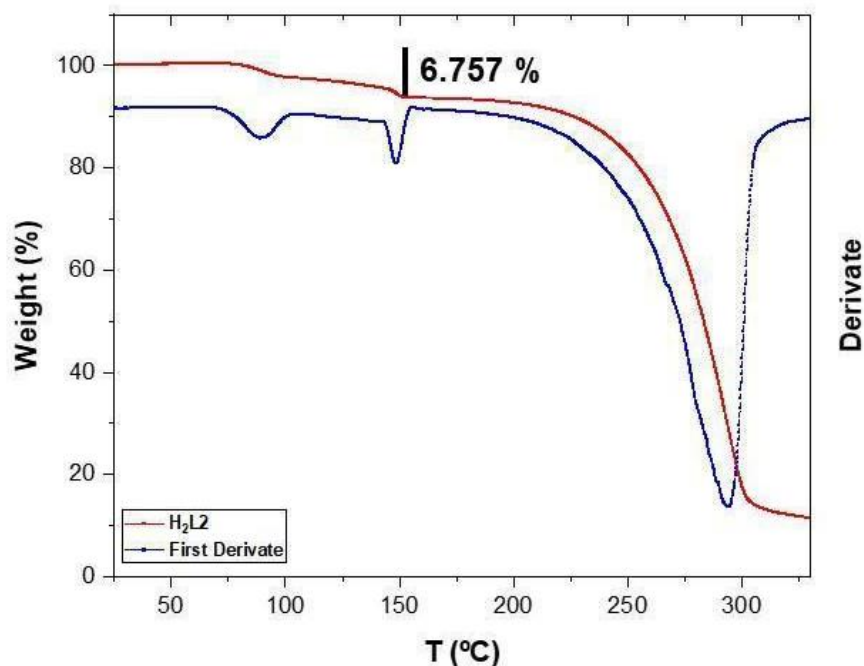


Figure 56. Thermogravimetric curve for the ligand **H₂L2**.

In the TGA analysis for complex **2A** (Figure 57), it is possible to observe a mass loss of approximately 4.2% at around 100-120 °C, corresponding to the removal of a hydration molecule. Between 260-300 °C another thermal event is observed with a mass loss of 15.4%, corresponding to the loss of the chloride ion in the form of HCl. The presence of the chloride ion could also be confirmed by AgCl precipitation, adding a few drops of 0.1 mol. L⁻¹ aqueous solution of silver nitrate to a 1x10⁻³ mol. L⁻¹ methanolic solution of complex **2A**. The remaining solid residue corresponds to 22.3%, considering that it is CuO, we will have 17.8% of the copper(II) ion in the complex **2A** sample.

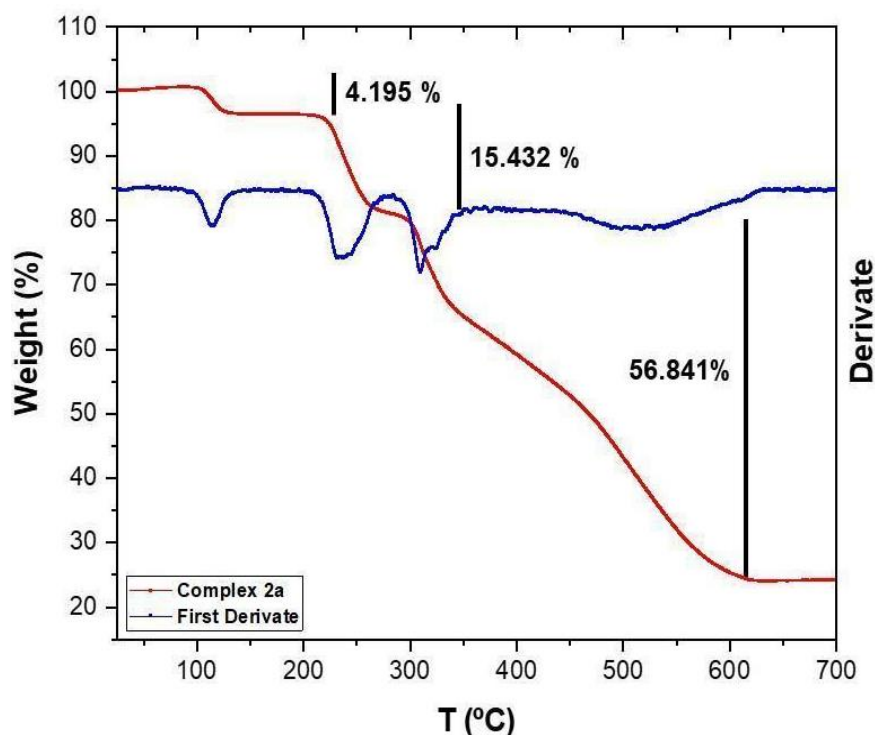


Figure 57. Thermogravimetric curve for complex 2A.

In the TGA analysis for complex **2B** (Figure 58), it is possible to observe a mass loss of approximately 13% at around 90-140 °C, corresponding to the loss of two isopropanol molecules. The solid residue obtained corresponds to 22.4%, considering that this residue is CuO, it is calculated that 17.9% of the copper(II) in the complex sample.

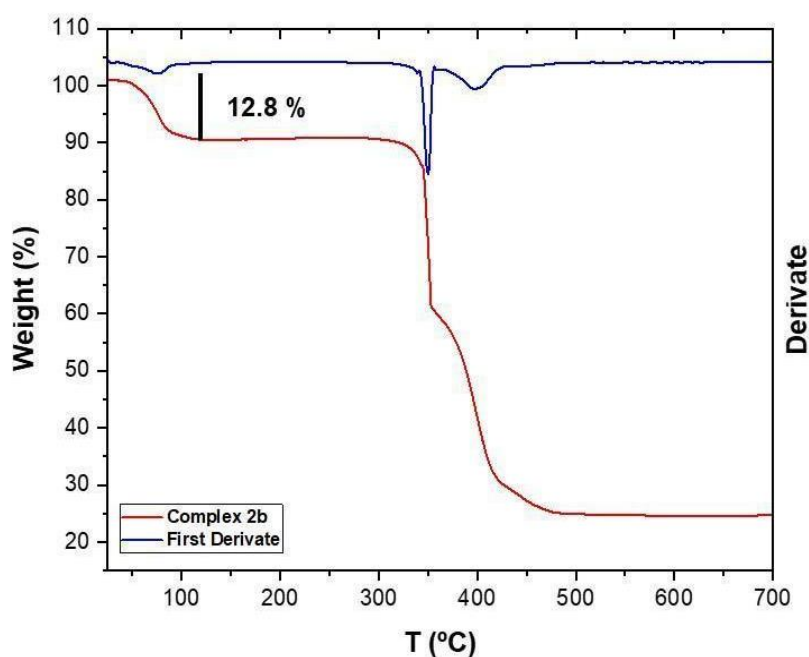


Figure 58. Thermogravimetric curve for complex 2B.

In the TGA analysis for complex **2C** (Figure 59), it was possible to observe three thermal events before the decomposition of the organic fraction of complex **2C**. In the region 100-160 °C, a loss of 5.79% of mass is noted, suggesting that in this range the complex loses 3/2 molecules of water and half a molecule of O₂ resulting from the decomposition of the nitrate ion. The sum of the losses from the two thermal events between 180-420 °C corresponds to 12.12% of mass, this loss may be related to the nitrogenous inorganic fraction in the form of two NO₂ molecules (calculated 11.9%) (Fei et al., 2019). The solid residue obtained corresponds to 20.8%, considering that this residue is CuO, it is calculated 16.6% of the copper(II) in the complex sample.

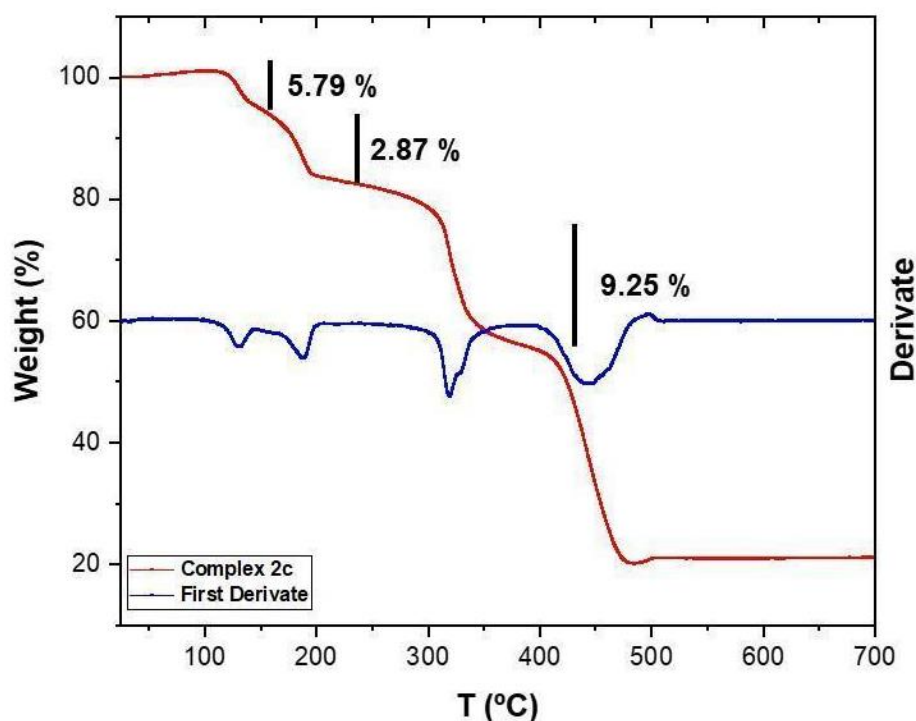


Figure 59. Thermogravimetric curve for complex **2C**.

5.3.2 Characterization the Compounds belonging to the H₂L2 Series

5.3.2.1 Elemental Analysis (CHNS) and Copper content (ICP-OES)

The elemental analysis tests were carried out with the samples in their crystalline form, the results obtained are listed in Table 14:

Table 14. Calculated and experimental elemental analyses of the complexes **2A**, **2B** and **2C**.

Complexes	%C		%H		%N		%Cu	
	<u>calculated</u>	<u>found</u>	<u>calculated</u>	<u>found</u>	<u>calculated</u>	<u>found</u>	<u>calculated</u>	<u>found</u>
2A	43.3	43.6	3.6	3.7	7.8	7.8	17.6	17.9
2B	52.5	52.4	5.0	4.8	7.7	7.8	17.4	18.2
2C	40.4	39.9	3.4	3.0	10.9	10.6	16.4	16.2

5.3.2.2 Molar conductivity studies

Conductivity is a physical property with broad applications in physicochemical processes. Comparing the conductivity of different solutions can be challenging due to its dependence on concentration. Conversely, molar conductivity is a characteristic property of chemical substances that remains independent of their concentrations (Ali *et al.*, 2013). The molar conductivity of the compounds was measured in DMF at concentrations of 1×10^{-3} mol L⁻¹. The obtained molar conductivity values for the studied complexes are consistent with similar complexes reported in the literature (Ali *et al.*, 2013; Geary, 1971; Santiago *et al.*, 2020).

Similar to other physicochemical methods, molar conductance has been utilized for the structural elucidation of newly synthesized metal complexes. Metal complexes exhibit varying molar conductance values that are characteristic features of their structures. These values often differ for the same complexes when studied in different solvents (Ali *et al.*, 2013; Geary, 1971).

Table 15 lists the obtained molar conductivity values for complexes **2A**, **2B**, and **2C**, along with various types of possible electrolytes in DMF, correlated with data obtained by Geary (1971).

Table 15. Relationship between the molar conductivity data obtained with the electrolyte system.

Complexes	2A	2B	2C
Molar conductance ($\Omega^{-1}\text{cm}^2\text{mol}^{-1}$)	25.9	2.68	160.4
Electrolyte	1:1	Non-electrolyte	1:2

Complex **2B** exhibits very low molar conductivity, indicating it behaves as a non-electrolyte species. This suggests that in solution, the complex remains in a dimeric form with only solvent exchange occurring at the axial coordination position. On the other hand, complex **2A** displays higher molar conductivity than complex **2B**, confirming its slightly electrolytic nature. Alternatively, it can be considered that some chloride ions may exchange with solvent molecules, allowing for an equilibrium between chloride-coordinated and solvent-coordinated forms. This justifies the higher molar conductivity of complex **2A** compared to complex **2B**, although it remains low when compared to other 1:1 electrolyte under the same conditions (Ali *et al.*, 2013; Geary, 1971).



Complex **2C** exhibits higher molar conductivity compared to complexes **2A** and **2B**, indicating it behaves as a 1:2 type electrolyte. The rationale behind this electrolytic behavior lies in the presence of nitrate ions in the structure, which dissociate upon dissolution in solution. The reaction below illustrates the dissociation process that occurs with complex **2C** in DMF solution:



5.3.2.3 Crystal Structure of Complexes by Single Crystal XRD

The complexes **2A**, **2B**, and **2C** were analyzed by single-crystal X-ray diffraction. Table 16 presents the obtained crystallographic parameters.

Table 16. Experimental crystallographic details for complexes **2A**, **2B** and **2C**.

Crystal	Complex 2A	Complex 2B	Complex 2C
Chemical formula	C ₁₃ H ₁₃ O ₄ N ₂ ClCu	C ₃₂ H ₃₆ O ₈ N ₄ Cu ₂	C ₁₃ H ₁₃ N ₃ O ₇ Cu (monomer)
Mr (g mol ⁻¹)	360.24	731.73	386.80
Crystal system, space group	Monoclinic, <i>P</i> 2 ₁ / <i>c</i>	Monoclinic, <i>P</i> 2 ₁ / <i>c</i>	Triclinic, <i>P</i> ₁
Temperature (K)	293	296	298
<i>a</i> , <i>b</i> , <i>c</i> (Å)	12.6740(4), 6.9206(2), 16.1553(5)	6.2379(5), 14.5843(10), 17.5885(11)	7.1609(1) 10.7439(2) 11.0077(3)
β (°)	91.109(3)	94.394(2)	84.989(2)
<i>V</i> (Å ³)	1416.74(7)	1595.39(2)	1774.5(2)
<i>Z</i>	4	2	2
Radiation type	Mo <i>K</i> α	Mo <i>K</i> α	Cu <i>K</i> α
μ (mm ⁻¹)	1.746	1.390	2.516
Crystal size (mm)	0.20 × 0.05 × 0.04	0.07 × 0.08 × 0.35	0.03 × 0.07 × 0.19

Complex **2A** crystallized in the monoclinic system, space group *P*2₁/*c*, with four molecules of the complex per unit cell. In the solid state, the complex contains one hydration water molecule per complex unit (Figure 60A).

In coordination chemistry and crystallography, the structural parameter (τ) is used to describe the geometry of coordination complexes. For complexes with a coordination number of 5, the Addison parameter (τ_5) is employed (Addison *et al.*, 1984). For complexes with a coordination number of 4, the parameter τ_4 is used (Yang *et al.*, 2007), which allows estimation of the geometry around the central atom. Copper(II) complexes with a coordination number of 4 can predominantly adopt either a square planar or tetrahedral geometry (Huheey, 1972). Ligand constraints often play a significant role and can induce unusual geometries in copper(I) and copper(II) centers (Yang *et al.*, 2007).

According to Addison *et al.* (1984), τ_5 can be obtained from the expression:

$$\tau_5 = \frac{\beta - \alpha}{60^\circ}$$

Where α and β are the two largest angles around the metal center. If the τ_5 value is closer to 1, the metal center will be closer to a trigonal bipyramidal geometry and D_{3h} symmetry. Conversely, if τ_5 is closer to 0, the metal center will be nearer to a square pyramidal geometry and C_{4v} symmetry (Addison *et al.*, 1984).

According to Yang *et al.* (2007) the parameter (τ_4) for complexes with a coordination number of 4 can be estimated using the following equation:

$$\tau_4 = \frac{360^\circ - (\alpha + \beta)}{141^\circ}$$

Where α and β are the two largest angles around the metal center. If the τ_4 value is closer to 1, the metal center is nearer to a tetrahedral geometry and T_d symmetry. Conversely, if τ_4 is closer to 0, the metal center is nearer to a square planar geometry and D_{4h} symmetry (Yang *et al.*, 2007).

The τ_4 value obtained for complex **2A** was 0.13, indicating that the geometry around the copper atom is nearly perfectly square planar, with a mean deviation from the plane of 0.075 Å. The copper(II) ion is coordinated by three donor atoms from the hydrazone ligand and one chloride. The ligand H_2L_2 is deprotonated at the phenolic oxygen O1, i.e., it is present in the HL^- form (Moura *et al.*, 2023).

Complex **2B** is the dimeric form of complex **2A** (Figure 60B), where chloride ions from a pair of mononuclear units are lost, and phenoxo bridges replace them, thus connecting the metal centers and resulting in a single species. This complex crystallizes in the monoclinic system, space group $P2_1/c$, with two dinuclear molecules per unit cell. The resulting dimer is essentially planar with an intermediate distance of 3.0153 Å. Unlike complex **2A**, the ligand is fully deprotonated, coordinated in its iminolated form B_2^{2-} . The average Cu-donor distance in the equatorial plane is 1.940 Å, and a molecule of isopropanol, derived from the recrystallization solvent, occupies a fifth coordination site in the axial position.

Due to the Jahn-Teller effect, the Cu–O4 distance is 2.416 Å. Thus, each copper center is pentacoordinate, exhibiting a distorted square pyramidal geometry with $\tau_5 = 0.22$ (Addison *et al.*, 1984; Moura *et al.*, 2023). The axial ligands on each metal ion point in opposite directions relative to the plane of the dimer. Sangeetha *et al.* (1999) and Gordon *et al.* (2008), reported crystal structures of double-bridged phenoxo dimers of copper(II) complexes containing fully deprotonated ONO *N*-acylhydrazone donor atoms. In these cases, two molecules occupy the axial positions similar to the isopropanol observed in complex **2B**. The intermediate distance found in these examples was 3.041 Å, which is very close to the distance observed for complex **2B**.

Complex **2C** crystallizes in the triclinic system, space group P_{-1} (Figure 60C), with two asymmetric units consisting of a partially deprotonated *N*-acylhydrazone ligand HL^- , a nitrate ion, a copper(II) center, and one water molecule per unit cell. The asymmetric units are organized into a dimeric structure.

Each metal site in the dimer is pentacoordinate, with each copper center exhibiting a slightly distorted square pyramidal geometry with $\tau_5 = 0.045$ (Addison *et al.*, 1984; Moura *et al.*, 2023). In the equatorial plane, the *N*-acylhydrazone ligand acts as a tridentate ligand, with the oxygen of the phenolate ion O3 bridging between the two copper(II) centers. Unlike complex **2B**, the Cu···Cu distance is shorter, with a value of 2.9846 Å. The average Cu-equatorial donor distance is 1.954 Å. An oxygen atom O5 from a nitrate ion occupies the fifth coordination site, bonded axially to each metal site, pointing in opposite directions relative to the dimer plane. The Cu–O5 distance is 2.314 Å, due to the Jahn-Teller effect.

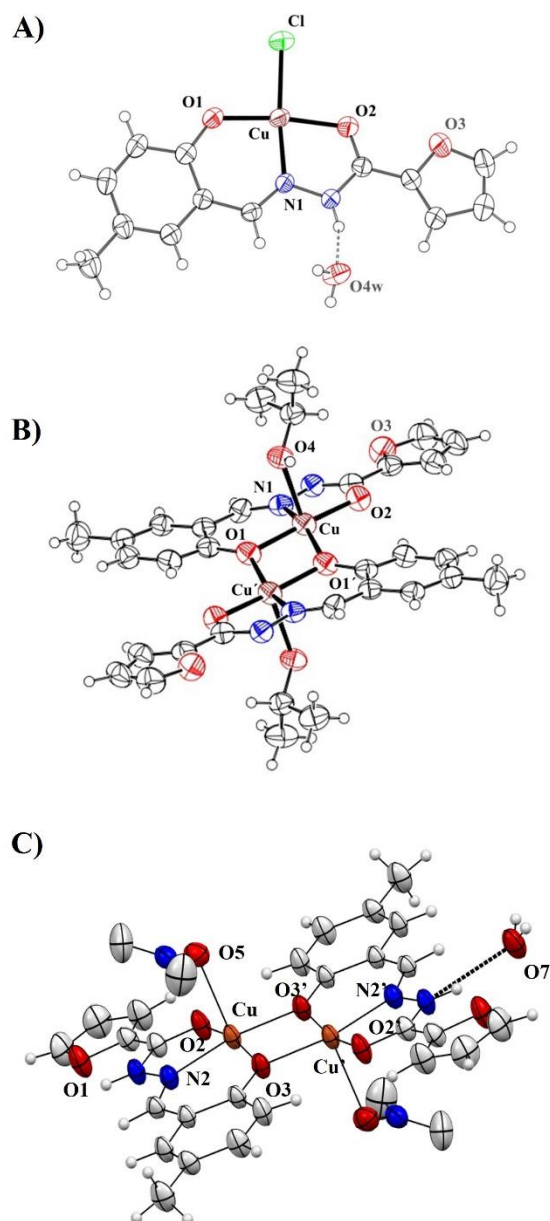


Figure 60. Crystal structure representation of **(A)** the mononuclear complex **2A**, **(B)** the dimeric form complex **2B** and **(C)** the dimeric form complex **2C**. Only the main atoms are labeled. Ellipsoids drawn at the 50% probability level.

Table 17. Select bond distances for **H₂L2** series complexes.

Complex	2A	2B	2C
Bonds	Bond distances / Å		
Cu–Cl	2.2078(6)	–	–
Cu–O1	1.8943(15)	1.944(3)	–
Cu–O1'	–	1.967(3)	–
Cu–O2	1.9694(14)	1.932(3)	1.976(5)
Cu–O4	–	2.416(4)	–
Cu–O3	–	–	1.941(4)
Cu–O3'	–	–	1.960(4)
Cu–O5	–	–	2.314(6)
Cu–N1	1.9359(17)	1.919(4)	–
Cu–N2	–	–	1.939(5)

Table 18. Select bond angles for **H₂L2** series complexes.

Complex	2A	2B	2C	Complex	2A	2B	2C
Angles	Bond angles / °			Angles	Bond angles / °		
O1–Cu–Cl	92.63(4)	–	–	O2–Cu–O3	–	–	167.0(2)
O2–Cu–Cl	94.59(5)	–	–	O2–Cu–O3'	–	–	105.44(19)
N1–Cu–Cl	169.63(5)	–	–	O2–Cu–O5	–	–	87.0(2)
O1–Cu–O2	172.21(6)	172.89(14)	–	O2–Cu–N2	–	–	81.0(2)
O1–Cu–O4	–	89.58(13)	–	O3–Cu–O3'	–	–	80.20(19)
O1–Cu–N1	92.61(6)	93.42(15)	–	O3–Cu–O5	–	–	87.0(2)
O2–Cu–O4	–	95.86(13)	–	O3–Cu–N2	–	–	91.9(2)
O2–Cu–N1	80.73(7)	81.56(15)	–	O5–Cu–O3'	–	–	94.1(2)
O1–Cu–O1'	–	79.11(15)	–	O5–Cu–N2	–	–	94.3(2)
O2–Cu–O1'	–	103.96(13)	–	N2–Cu–O3' ⁱ	–	–	169.7(2)
N1–Cu–O1'	–	159.88(15)	–	Cu–O3–Cu'	–	–	99.80(19)
N1–Cu–O4	–	95.12(14)	–				
O1'–Cu–O4	–	103.41(13)	–				

5.3.2.4 Infrared Vibrational Spectroscopy

Analyzing the infrared spectra obtained for the compounds, it is noted that most of the absorptions observed in the spectrum of the **H₂L2** ligand are still present in their respective complexes. However, some shifts and disappearances of bands, as well as the emergence of new absorptions, in the spectra of complexes **2A**, **2B** and **2C** suggest coordination (Figures 61-63).

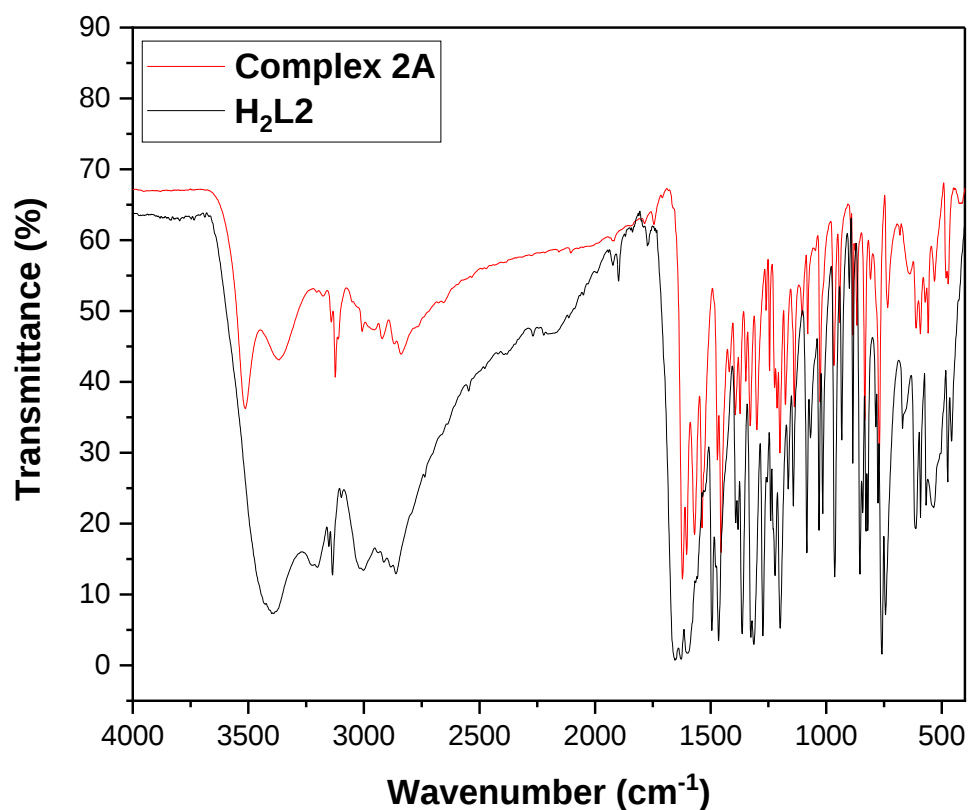


Figure 61. Overlapping of the mid-infrared spectra of **H₂L₂** and complex **2A** in KBr, at room temperature.

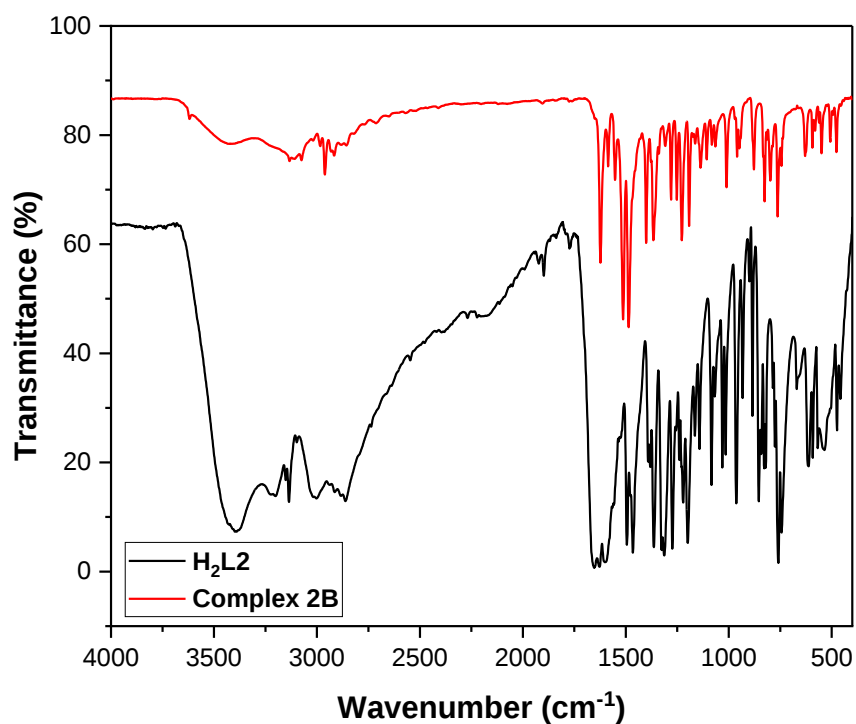


Figure 62. Overlapping of the mid-infrared spectra of H_2L2 and complex 2B in KBr, at room temperature.

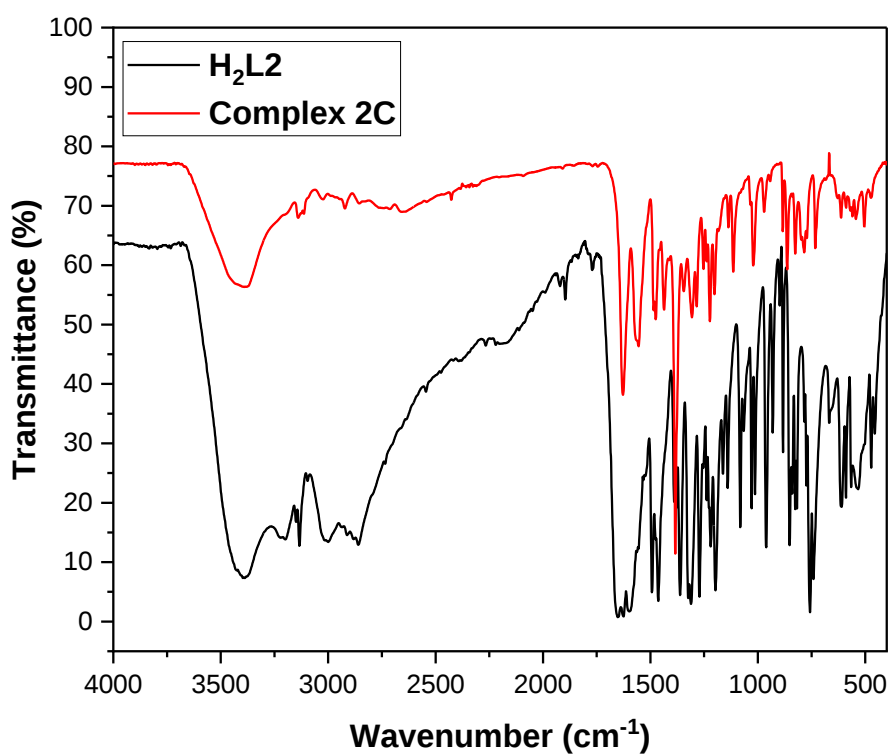


Figure 63. Overlapping of the mid-infrared spectra of H_2L2 and complex 2C in KBr, at room temperature.

Table 19. Selected vibrational absorptions (cm⁻¹) for **H₂L2** and their complexes.

Assignment	H ₂ L2	Complex 2A	Complex 2B	Complex 2C
ν N–H	3225	3514	-----	3404
ν O–H _{phenol}	3202	-----	-----	-----
ν C=O	1653	1622	1513	1630
ν C=N	1628	1604	1623	1610
δ C=N–H	1495	1394	-----	1568
δ C–O–H _{phenol}	1465	-----	-----	-----
ν (NO ₂) _{ass}	-----	-----	-----	1383
ν C=C _{arom}	1364	1245	1250	1349
ν C–O _{phenol}	1326	1373	1228	1345
ν (NO ₂) _{sym}	-----	-----	-----	1305
δ C=C–H _{phenol}	1313	1300	1228	1281
ν N–N	1164	1138	1065	1118
ν NO	-----	-----	-----	1020
ν Cu–O	-----	533	594	540
ν Cu–N	-----	593	-----	608
δ O–Cu–N	-----	473	-----	505

In general, a shift to lower energy bands related to common groups of the ligand with those of the complexes can be observed. This shift suggests coordination, as the ligand's rigidity decreases upon coordination, weakening its bonds and justifying the shift to lower energy values.

Complexes **2A** and **2C** feature ionic species (chloride and nitrate) coordinated to the metal ion. Therefore, it is expected that the N–H group of the hydrazone present in the ligand remains protonated in the complex as a counterion, confirmed by the bands ν N–H observed in the complexes at 3514 and 3404 cm⁻¹, respectively. For complex **2B**, the hydrazone band is not observed due to deprotonation.

The carbonyl absorption ν (C=O) shifts from 1653 cm⁻¹ in the ligand to 1622 cm⁻¹ in complex **2A**, 1513 cm⁻¹ in complex **2B**, and 1630 cm⁻¹ in complex **2C**. The band related to ν (C=O) in complex **2B** is typical of hydrazone coordination in the iminolato form. In addition to these ligand-based bands, some

metal-ligand vibrations were also identified in the spectra of the complexes. Among these, absorptions at 533 cm^{-1} [$\nu(\text{Cu-O})$], 594 cm^{-1} [$\nu(\text{Cu-O}_2)$], and 540 cm^{-1} were noted for the respective complexes (Moura *et al.*, 2023; Paiva *et al.*, 2024; Silverstein, 2000).

For complex **2C**, bands related to $\nu(\text{NO}_2)_{\text{ass}}$, $\nu(\text{NO}_2)_{\text{sym}}$, and νNO associated with the nitrate ion coordination can be observed. The literature reports that if bands related to the nitrate ion are around $1400\text{-}1300\text{ cm}^{-1}$, the ion is coordinated monodentate in the complex (Nakamoto, 1978). This fact is confirmed by X-ray structure analysis, allowing correlation with the obtained data.

5.3.2.5 Electronic Spectroscopy in UV-Vis

The ligand and the obtained complexes were analyzed by UV-Vis electronic spectroscopy at various concentrations using DMF as the solvent. The UV-Vis spectrum of ligand **H₂L2** (Figure 64) exhibits five main absorptions in the range of 250 to 500 nm, comprising four bands and one shoulder. Upon comparison with its precursors, three of these absorptions are observed in the precursors, associated with transitions of the phenol and/or furan rings. The intense absorptions observed at 292 nm ($248.50 \pm 150\text{ L mol}^{-1}\text{ cm}^{-1}$) and 304 nm ($25,700 \pm 150\text{ L mol}^{-1}\text{ cm}^{-1}$) are potentially related to processes strictly associated with *N*-acylhydrazone, as they are absent in the precursor spectra. On the other hand, the broad band observed at 336 nm ($16,500 \pm 100\text{ L mol}^{-1}\text{ cm}^{-1}$), although also present in the spectrum of 5-methylsalicylaldehyde, exhibits higher molar absorptivity in the ligand, suggesting it also involves contribution from the hydrazone bridge between the rings.

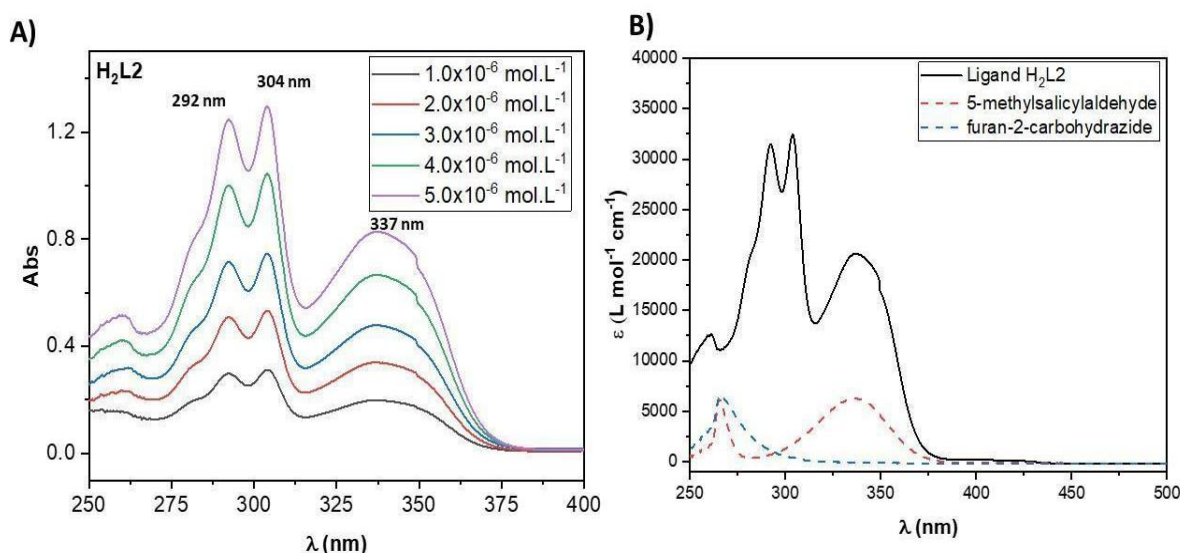


Figure 64. A) Electronic spectrum of the H_2L2 ligand in solution with DMF, at different concentrations. B) Electronic spectra of the ligand in solution with DMF 5×10^{-5} mol.L $^{-1}$ and its precursors under the same conditions.

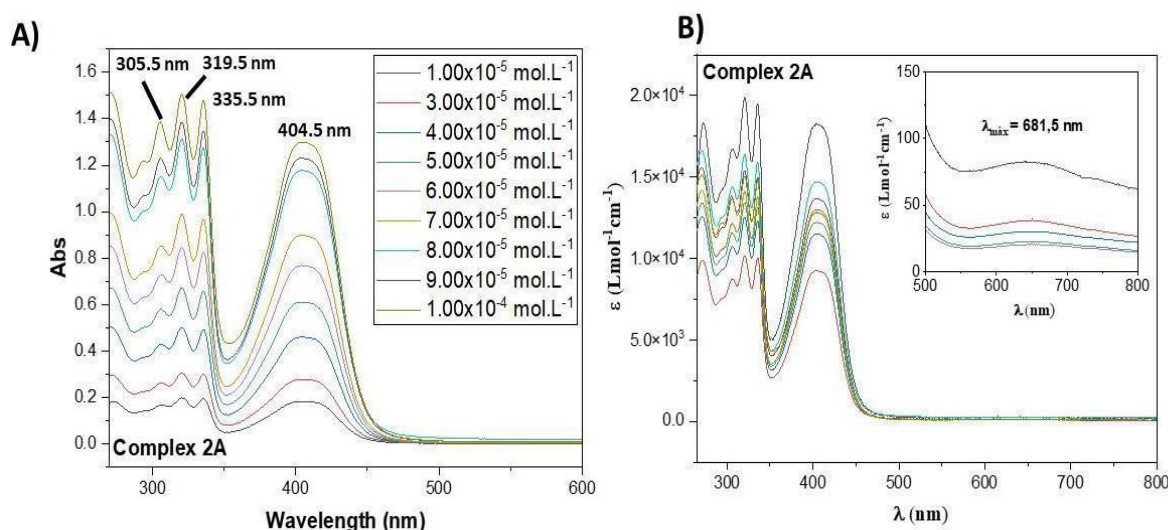


Figure 65. A) Electronic spectrum of complex 2A in solution with DMF, at different concentrations. B) Electronic spectra of complex 2A in solution with DMF as a function of molar absorptivity in the range of 300-800 nm.

Complex 2A displays six main absorptions in the range of 250 to 500 nm, consisting of five bands and one shoulder (Figure 65). Upon comparison of the complex spectrum with the ligand, it is evident that five of these absorptions are present in the ligand and three in its precursors, as discussed previously. The intense bands around 250, 305.5 ($14,045 \pm 788$ L mol $^{-1}$ cm $^{-1}$) nm, and 319.5 ($15,355 \pm 632$ L mol $^{-1}$ cm $^{-1}$), akin to those in the ligand, are likely associated with processes strictly related to *N*-acylhydrazone, as they are absent in the precursor spectra. The broad band observed at 335.5 ($15,126 \pm 606$ L mol $^{-1}$ cm $^{-1}$) nm,

although also present in the spectrum of 5-methylsalicylaldehyde, exhibits higher molar absorptivity in both the ligand and complex **2A**, suggesting involvement of the hydrazone bridge between the rings, similar to complexes **2B** and **2C**.

In contrast to the ligand spectrum, the complex **2A** (Figure 65) spectrum shows a broad and intense band around 404.5 ($13,413 \pm 522 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$) nm. (Figure 66). This band is attributed to charge transfer from the phenolate ion to the Cu^{2+} metal center. Such a band is present in all copper(II) complexes evaluated in this study and may indicate coordination, as the Cu^{2+} ion can deprotonate the ligand. The band at 681.5 ($85.94 \pm 1.92 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$) nm corresponds to a $d-d$ transition; its low molar absorptivity can be justified by the Laporte selection rule, which prohibits such electronic transitions, but they can occur due to vibrational states distorting the molecular geometry (vibronic coupling), thereby altering the system's symmetry and allowing the transition to proceed.

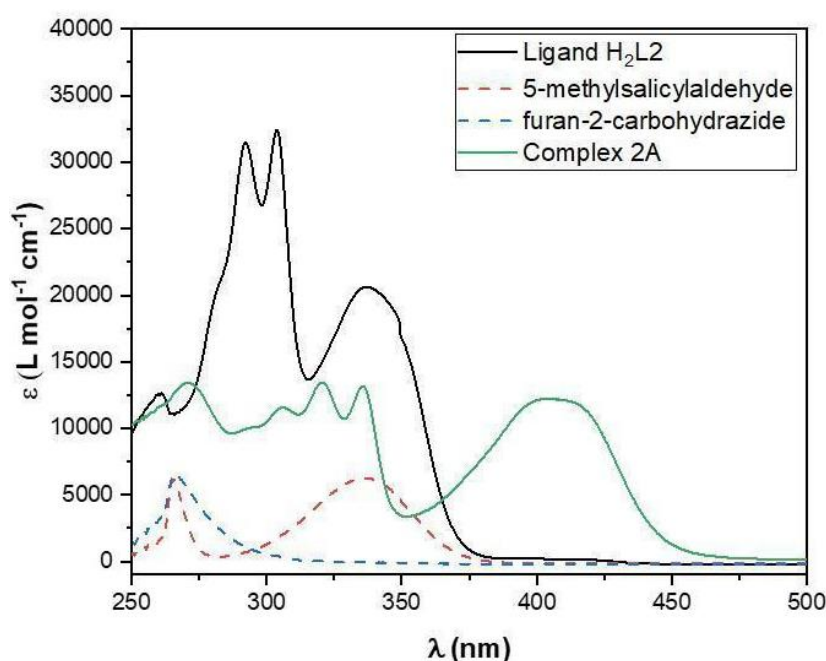


Figure 66. Electronic spectra of **2A**, **H₂L2** and precursors in solution with DMF $5 \times 10^{-5} \text{ mol L}^{-1}$.

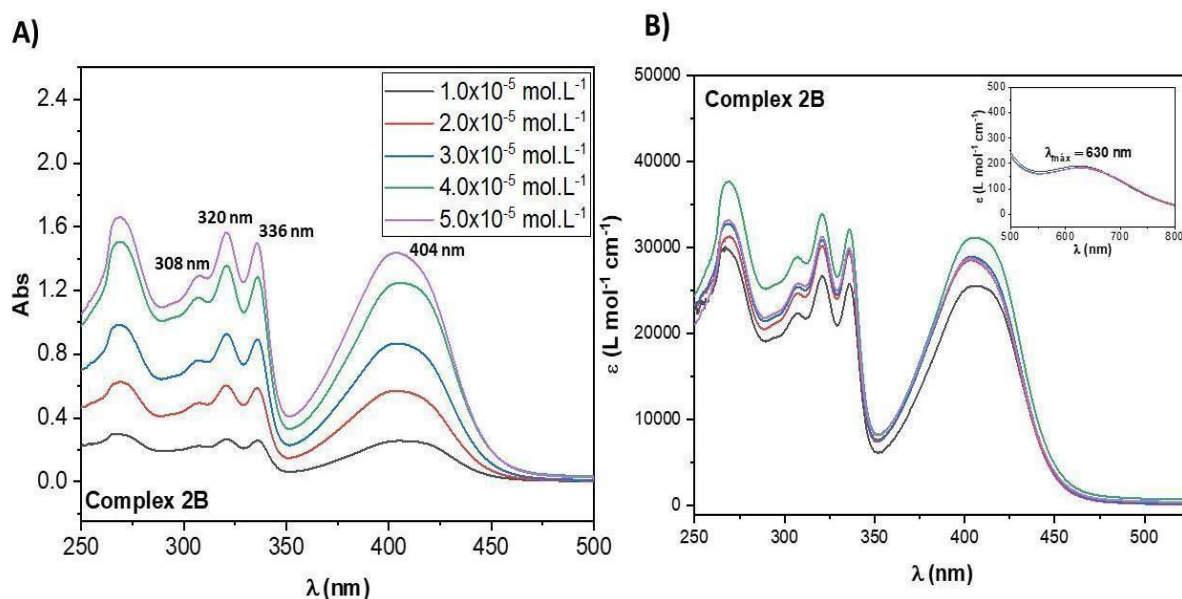


Figure 67. **A)** Electronic spectrum of complex **2B** in solution with DMF, at different concentrations. **B)** Electronic spectra of complex **2B** in solution with DMF as a function of molar absorptivity in the range of 250-800 nm.

Complex **2B**, like other derivatives derived from the ligand **H₂L2**, exhibits six main absorptions in the range of 250 to 500 nm, comprising five bands and one shoulder (Figure 67). The spectral profile of complex **2B** is similar to that of complex **2A**, given that complex **2B** is the dimeric form of complex **2A**. The intense bands around 270, 308 ($27,195 \pm 1,358 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$), and 320 ($32,445 \pm 1,215 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$) nm are likely associated with processes strictly related to *N*-acylhydrazone, as these bands are absent in the precursor spectra. The broad band observed at 336 ($31,081 \pm 1,015 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$) nm, also seen in the spectrum of 5-methylsalicylaldehyde, exhibits higher molar absorptivity in both the ligand and complex **2B**, suggesting involvement of the hydrazone bridge between the rings, a feature observed in other complexes of this series.

In addition to the aforementioned bands, there is a broad and intense band around 404 ($29,870 \pm 1,033 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$) nm, unlike what is observed in the ligand spectrum (Figure 68). This band is attributed to charge transfer from the phenolate ion to the Cu^{2+} metal center. The band at 630 ($183 \pm 0.91 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$) nm is related to a *d-d* transition.

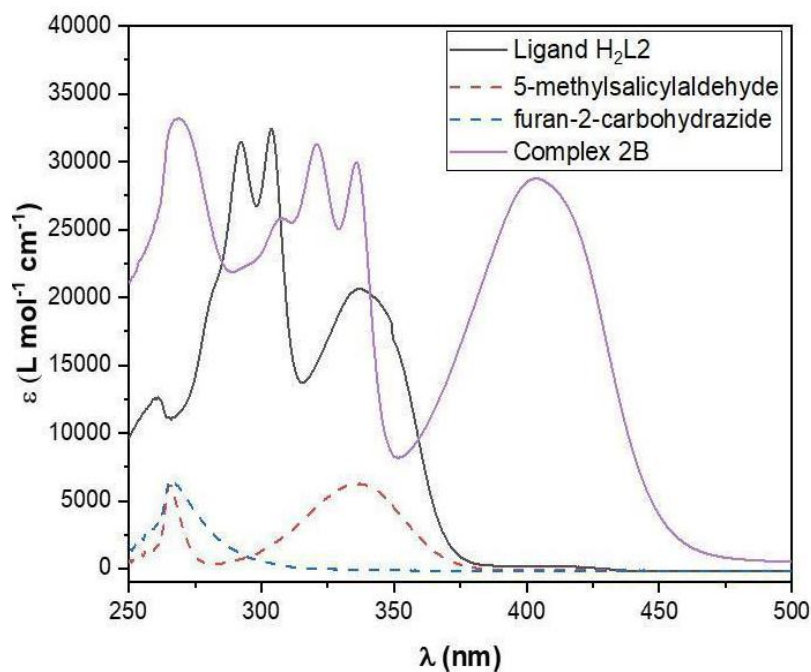


Figure 68. Electronic spectra of **2B**, **H₂L2** and precursors in solution with DMF $5 \times 10^{-5} \text{ mol L}^{-1}$.

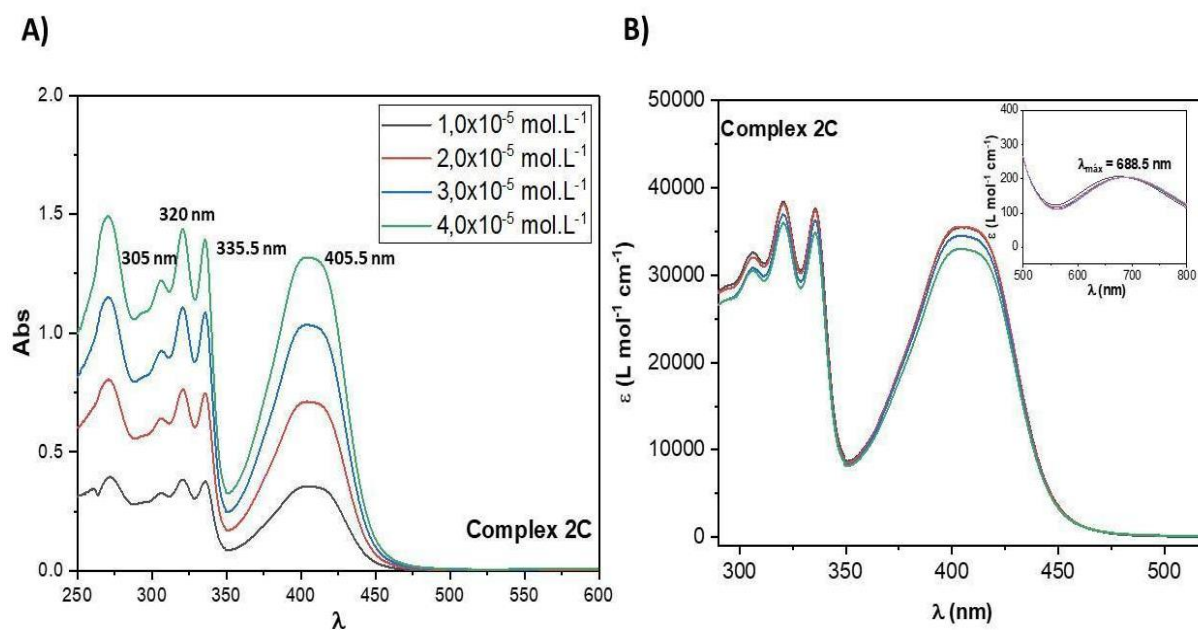


Figure 69. A) Electronic spectrum of **2C** in solution with DMF, at different concentrations.

B) Electronic spectra of **2C** in solution with DMF as a function of molar absorptivity in the range of 250-800 nm.

The electronic spectrum of the complex **2C** (Figure 69) exhibits six main absorptions in the range of 250 to 500 nm, comprising five bands and one shoulder. The spectral profile of complex **2C** is similar to that of other complexes in the **H₂L2** series. The intense bands around 270, 305 ($20,114 \pm 461 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$), and 320 ($35,905 \pm 698 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$), as discussed earlier, are likely associated with specific processes related to *N*-acylhydrazone, as they are absent in the precursors of the **H₂L2** ligand. The broad band observed at 335.5 ($34,985 \pm 848 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$) nm, also seen in the spectrum of 5-methylsalicylaldehyde, exhibits higher molar absorptivity in both the ligand and complex **2C**, suggesting involvement of the hydrazone bridge between the rings, consistent with other complexes in the series.

In addition to the aforementioned bands, there is a broad and intense band around 405.5 ($33,162 \pm 878 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$) nm, unlike what is observed in the ligand spectrum (Figure 70). This band is attributed to charge transfer from the phenolate ion to the Cu^{2+} metal center. The band at 688.5 ($204.45 \pm 0.53 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$) nm is related to a *d-d* transition.

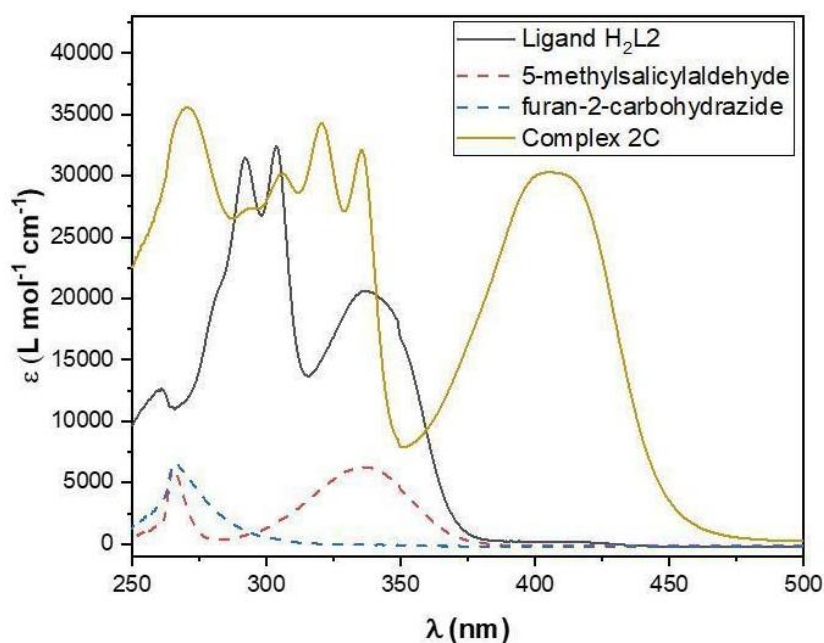


Figure 70. Electronic spectra of **2C**, **H₂L2** and precursors in solution with DMF $5 \times 10^{-5} \text{ mol L}^{-1}$.

Figure 71 displays the UV-Vis electronic spectra of the ligand and its respective complexes in the range of 250-500 nm. The spectra profiles of the complexes are quite similar in this region, differing in their molar absorptivity values, given that complexes **2B** and **2C** are dimers and, supposedly in solution, can dissociate into mononuclear forms similar to complex **2A**. Thus, the presence of the iminolate tautomeric form in the ligand **H₂L2** and in complex **2B**, and especially as dimers in complexes **2B** and **2C**, where the number of absorptive groups is doubled compared to complex **2A**, may explain the observed changes in molar absorptivity values. Bands related to ligand transitions undergo a bathochromic shift upon coordination.

The bands associated with *d-d* transitions are consistent with the presence of a square planar copper center in the mononuclear complex **2A** and two in the binuclear complexes **2B** and **2C**, indicating that the isopropanol ligands are likely lost upon dissolution of dimer **2B** in DMF, as well as the nitrate ligands in the dimer of complex **2C**. Differences in energy between complexes **2A**, **2B**, and **2C** are perceptible in this region due to the unequal coordination spheres of these complexes.

Literature reports indicate that the electronic spectrum in the solid state (Nujol-mull transmission) of mononuclear species [Cu(Hsa)Cl(OH₂)]·H₂O shows a maximum *d-d* absorption at 680 nm (Chan *et al.*, 1995). On the other hand, the electronic spectrum of the methanolic solution of the dimer [Cu(bhsNO₂)OH₂]₂ exhibits a weak band at 640 nm, which can be compared with complexes **2B** and **2C** (Sangeetha *et al.*, 1999). Additionally, the solid-state spectrum of the dinuclear complex [Cu(sb)]₂ has its maximum *d-d* absorption at 615 nm (Ainscough *et al.*, 1998). Data obtained from the literature for analogous complexes suggest that mononuclear square planar complexes have a maximum *d-d* absorption transition around 680 nm, whereas dinuclear square planar complexes have a maximum *d-d* absorption transition around 615-640 nm.

Analyzing the electronic spectra in the 500-800 nm range for the complexes, it is observed that complex **2A** exhibits a maximum *d-d* absorption at 681.5 nm, suggesting that even in solution, the complex maintains its square planar structure, where the chloride ligand can be substituted by a solvent molecule. Complex **2B** shows *d-d* absorption at 630 nm, indicating that the complex maintains its dimeric square planar structure. In contrast, complex **2C**,

which is a dimer in the solid state, shows *d-d* absorption at 688.5 nm, suggesting that the complex dissociates in solution, forming two mononuclear square planar species analogous to complex **2A**.

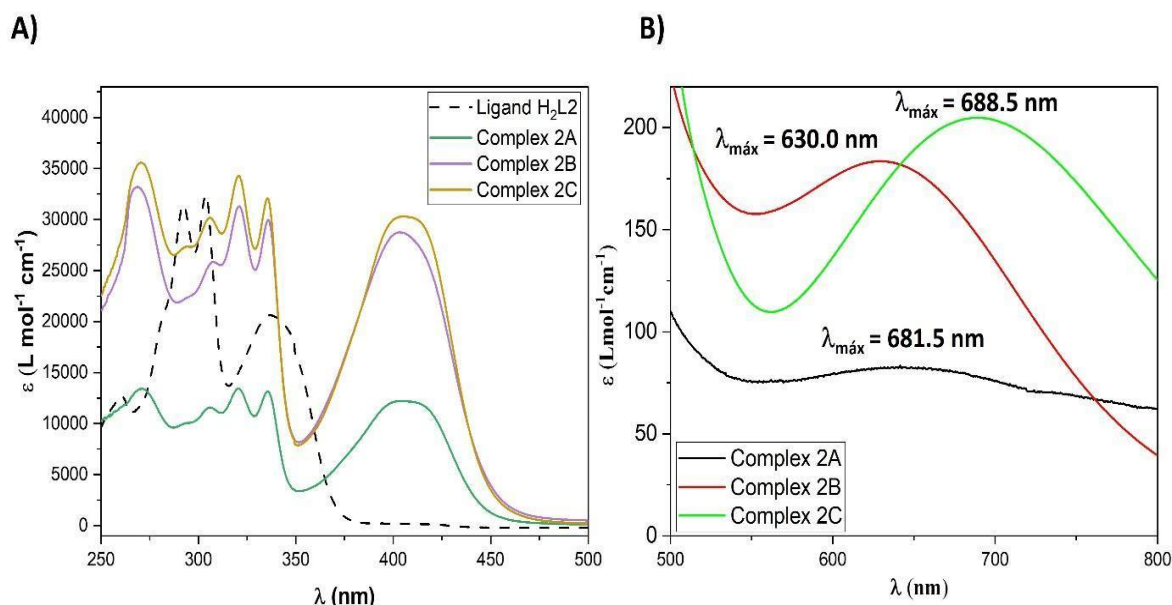


Figure 71. **A)** Electronic spectra of the ligand and its complexes in DMF solution $5 \times 10^{-5} \text{ mol L}^{-1}$ in the range 250-500 nm relating to molar absorptivity. **B)** Electronic spectra of complexes **2A**, **2B** and **2C** in DMF solution $5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ mol L}^{-1}$ in the range 500-600 nm relating to molar absorption.

5.3.2.6 Diffuse Reflectance

The data obtained through diffuse reflectance for the **H₂L2** series complexes enable the exploration of the structural modifications that these complexes may or may not undergo in solution. The complexes were diluted in barium sulfate.

Figure 72 presents the electronic spectrum obtained via diffuse reflectance of the **2A** complex. The spectrum reveals four absorption bands identified through band deconvolution. The band at 258 nm can be correlated with the band around 270 nm observed in the ligand and its precursors, potentially associated with conjugated bonds in the aromatic rings. The band at 319.5 nm is attributed to the *N*-acylhydrazone, as it is not observable in the electronic spectra of the precursors and ligand in solution, suggesting a charge transfer from the hydrazone to the Cu^{2+} metal ion. The characteristic charge transfer band from the phenolate ion to Cu^{2+} is observed at 397 nm, while the band related to the *d-d* transition is found at 716 nm.

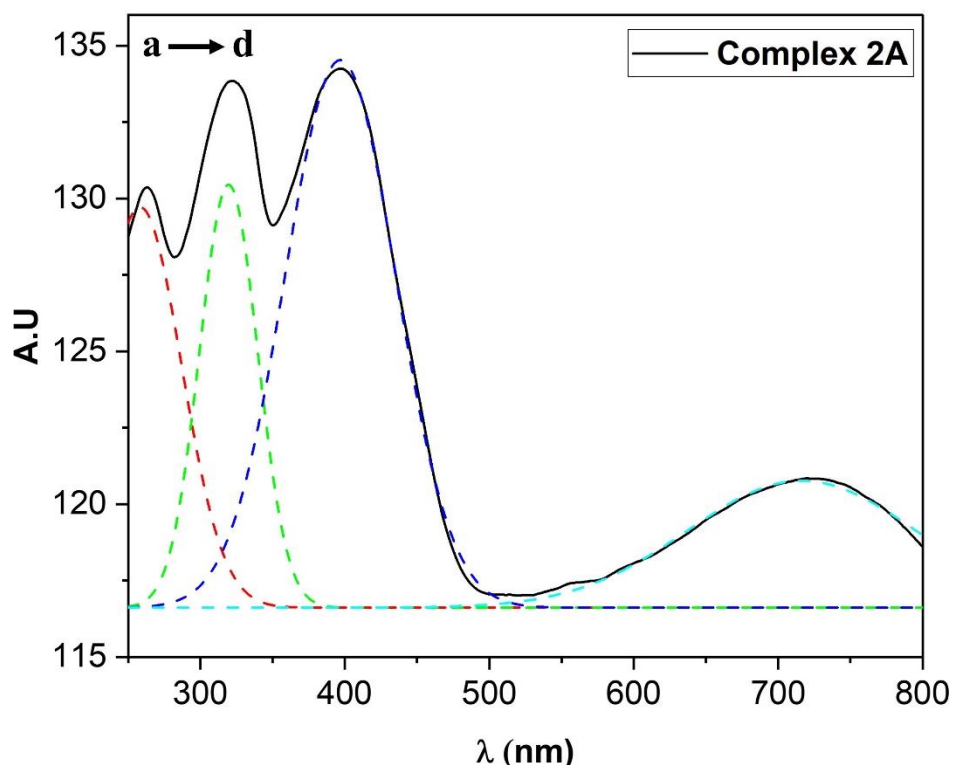


Figure 72. Electronic diffuse reflectance spectrum of **2A**, in black. Main components obtained by band fitting: a) 258 nm, b) 319.5 nm, c) 397 nm and d) 716 nm.

The electronic spectrum obtained via diffuse reflectance for the **2B** complex is shown in Figure 73, where five bands are observed through band deconvolution. Notably, the band at 255 nm can be correlated with the band at 270 nm observed for the ligand and its precursors. This band is likely associated with the conjugated double bonds present in the aromatic rings of phenol and furan. The bands at 312 and 332 nm are related solely to the hydrazone moiety. The band at 388 nm can be attributed to charge transfer from the phenolate ion to Cu^{2+} , while the band at 688 nm corresponds to the characteristic *d-d* transition.

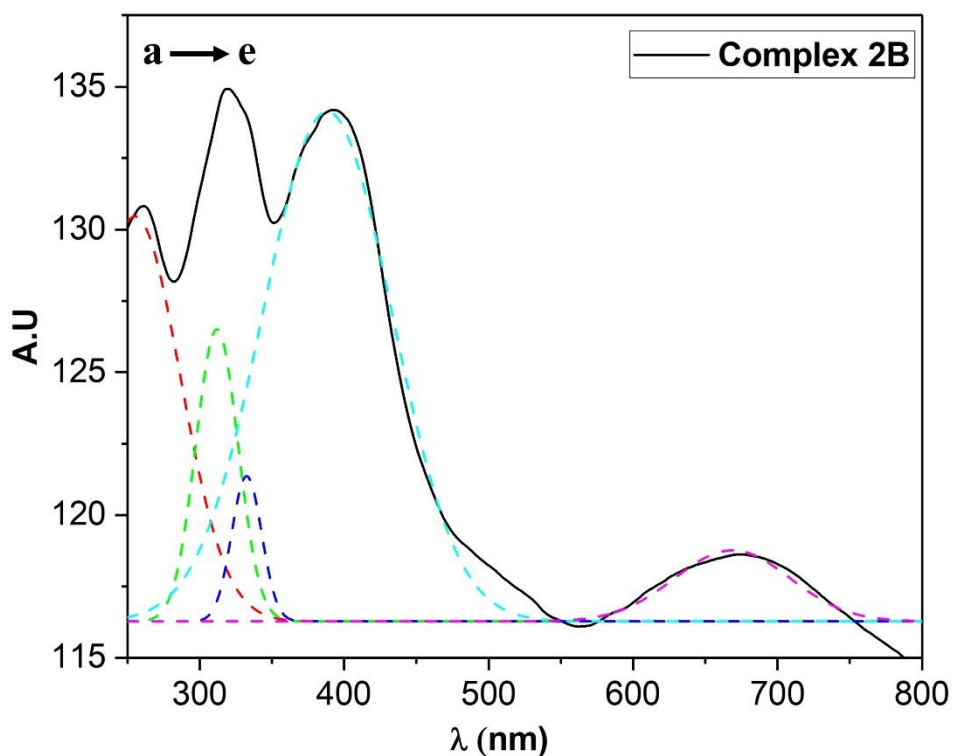


Figure 73. Electronic diffuse reflectance spectrum of **2B**, in black. Main components obtained by band fitting: a) 255 nm, b) 312 nm, c) 332.5 nm, d) 388 nm and e) 688 nm.

The electronic spectrum of the **2C** complex, obtained via diffuse reflectance and shown in Figure 74, reveals six bands identified through band deconvolution. Some of these bands are analogous to those previously discussed for the **2A** and **2B** complexes, such as the bands at 251, 311, and 398 nm, which are related to aromatic conjugated double bonds, the hydrazone bridge, and charge transfer from the phenolate ion to the Cu(II) metal ion, respectively. The bands observed at 507, 636, and 715 nm are associated with *d-d* transitions in the Cu(II) ion and are typically observed as a broad band in the range of 600-700 nm, rather than as distinct peaks.

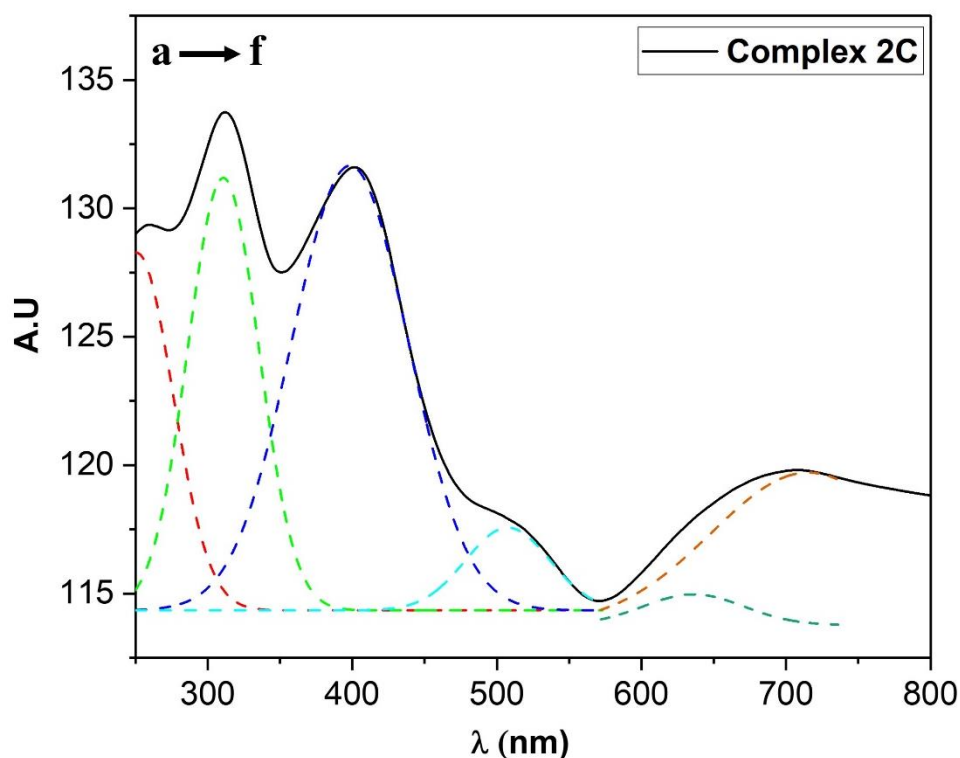


Figure 74. Electronic diffuse reflectance spectrum of **2C**, in black. Main components obtained by band fitting: a) 251 nm, b) 311 nm, c) 398 nm, d) 507 nm, e) 636 nm and f) 715 nm.

Table 20. Comparison of electronic spectra by diffuse reflectance with those obtained in solution for complexes of the **H₂L2** series.

Complexes	Transitions							
	precursors-related		<i>N</i> -acylhydrazone		Phenolate → Cu ²⁺		<i>d-d</i> transition	
	DRIFTS (nm)	UV-Vis (nm)	DRIFTS (nm)	UV-Vis (nm)	DRIFTS (nm)	UV-Vis (nm)	DRIFTS (nm)	UV-Vis (nm)
2A	258	250	319.5	319.5	397	404.5	716	681.5
2B	255	270	311	308	388	404.5	688	630
2C	251	270	312	305	398	405.5	715	688.5

The spectroscopic data presented in Table 20 correlate the λ_{max} values obtained from electronic spectra in solution and in the solid state via diffuse reflectance for the **H₂L2** series complexes. Analysis of the data reveals that some common bands exhibit significant shifts, particularly those associated with ligand-to-metal charge transfer and *d-d* transitions. These observations are consistent with similar complexes reported in the literature (Billing & Underhill, 1968; Calinescu *et al.*, 2008; Moura *et al.*, 2023; Sadhukhan *et al.*, 2019).

Bands related to double bonds in the aromatic ring (ILCT) show shifts; specifically, complex **2A** exhibits a bathochromic shift, whereas complexes **2B** and **2C** display hypsochromic shifts. Bands associated with the hydrazone bridge show a bathochromic shift, but no shift is observed in complex **2A**, suggesting that in solution, the energy of this band is the same as in the solid state. The characteristic charge transfer band from the phenolate ion to Cu(II) shows a considerable hypsochromic shift, indicating that charge transfer in solution occurs at lower energy.

The *d-d* transitions also exhibit shifts when comparing their diffuse reflectance spectra to those obtained in solution, suggesting a significant change in the coordination sphere of the Cu(II) ion, with complex **2B** showing the greatest variation. For complexes **2A** and **2C**, the values are close, confirming that complex **2C** does not maintain its dimeric integrity in solution, instead forming a monomeric species analogous to complex **2A** (Moura *et al.*, 2023).

5.3.2.7 EPR Spectroscopy

Electron Paramagnetic Resonance (EPR) is a branch of spectroscopy in the microwave region that allows the study of electromagnetic radiation absorption by materials containing atoms or molecules with an unpaired electron in the presence of external static magnetic fields. In this context, the total electronic spin angular momentum of the atoms or molecules is $S > 0$, and the material exhibits paramagnetic behavior. Energy absorption from the electromagnetic field occurs resonantly, inducing transitions between the Zeeman sublevels of the unpaired electrons. EPR does not occur in materials where all electrons are paired due to the Pauli Exclusion Principle. Therefore, substances active in EPR include free organic radicals, transition metal ions, metals, crystals with defects, and so on. Consequently, EPR provides insights into the structures of synthesized complexes: mononuclear complexes will be paramagnetic, while binuclear complexes will be diamagnetic and silent in EPR. Additionally, the technique offers information about the coordination sphere of complexes, aiding in the elucidation of the geometry around the metal ion (Bray, 1969; Eaton & Eaton, 1995; Pake, 1962).

The complexes were evaluated both in the solid state and in DMF solution (77K). In the solid state, complex **2B** (Figure 75A). is silent due to its dimeric nature, while complex **2A** is paramagnetic in both the solid state and in solution, exhibiting a characteristic axial spectrum with additional features of an unknown paramagnetic impurity (Figure 75B). This impedes the observation of hyperfine splitting under these conditions. Complex **2C** is virtually silent in the solid state (Figure 77); however, in DMF solution, it displays an axial spectrum with hyperfine splitting patterns related to copper, indicating that the dimer obtained in the solid state dissociates into its respective monomers upon dissolution in DMF. The EPR data are summarized in Table 21.

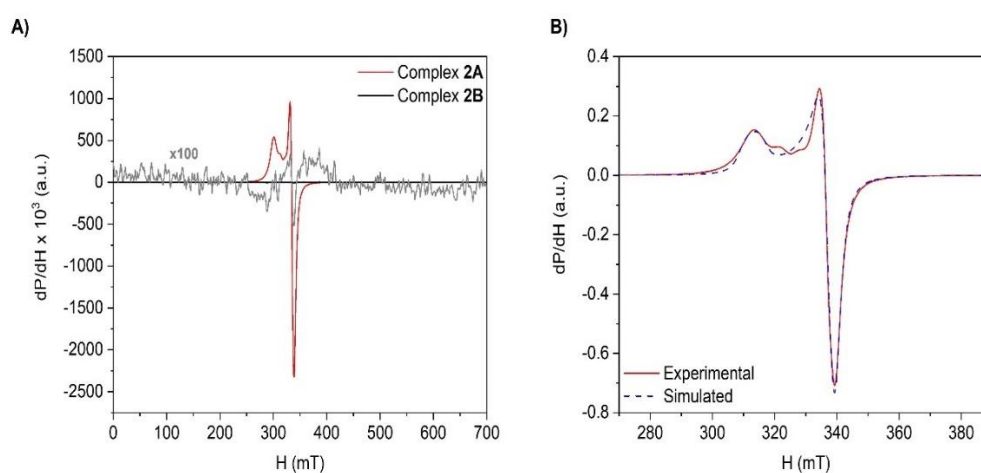


Figure 75. X-band EPR spectra in the solid state, at room temperature, of **(A)** complexes **2A** and **2B** (a 100x amplification of the spectrum of **2B** is included as a light gray curve for the sake of comparison) and **(B)** compound **2A** in a more detailed measurement, along with the simulated profile for the main set of peaks.

Table 21. EPR parameters for complexes **2A**, **2B** and **2C** in the solid state (r.t.) and in frozen (77 K) DMF solution.

Complexes	Component(s) A (copper-containing)			
	$g_{//}$	$g_{\perp}$	$A_{//}$ (10^{-4} cm^{-1})	$A_{\perp}$ (10^{-4} cm^{-1})
	Solid (r.t. – 300 K)			
2A	2.22	2.07	–	–
DMF solution (77 K)				
2A	2.21	2.06	182	12.0
2B	2.24	2.05	178	1.0
2C	2.26	2.05	165	11.7

EPR data can provide information on the ground states of the $d_{x^2-y^2}$ and d_{z^2} orbitals based on g -values. The g -value is a primary empirical parameter that characterizes the response of a paramagnetic species, providing a quantitative measure of the analyte's magnetic moment and being sensitive to electronic changes in the compound's structure.

The fact that $g_{//} > g_{\perp} > 2.0023$ indicates unpaired electron localization in the $d_{x^2-y^2}$ orbital of copper, suggesting tetragonal symmetry around the metal center, consistent with the crystal structure of complex **2A** (Anaconda *et al.*, 2015; Garribba & Micera, 2006). Conversely, when complex **2A** is dissolved in a frozen DMF solution, it exhibits an axial spectrum with the characteristic four-line pattern of copper. However, a more detailed analysis reveals at least two sets of peaks, suggesting the coexistence of a pair of species in the medium. Based on conductometric experiments, these peaks can be attributed to the original complex **2A** and to the solvent-exchanged complex $[\text{Cu}(\text{HL})\text{DMF}]^+$. The Sakaguchi ratio (Sakaguchi & Addison, 1979) $g_{//} / A_{//}$ was calculated to be 121 cm^{-1} , indicating that the square planar geometry is maintained after dissolution of complex **2A**. Moreover, the derivative obtained in DMF solution, $[\text{Cu}(\text{HL})\text{DMF}]^+$, shows a higher $g_{//}$ value, suggesting an NO_3 -type coordination.

The EPR spectrum of complex **2B** in DMF solution (Figure 76B) exhibits a profile very similar to that of complex **2A** (Figure 76A), albeit with lower intensity. This suggests that under these conditions, a fraction of the dimer is dissociated, yielding the EPR-active mononuclear species $[\text{Cu}(\text{L})\text{DMF}]$, for which $g_{//}$ and $g_{\perp}$ values of 2.24 and 2.05 were determined. A Sakaguchi ratio of 126 cm^{-1} was calculated, again indicating a square planar geometry. Conversely, it is likely that most of the EPR-silent dimer remains in equilibrium in solution.

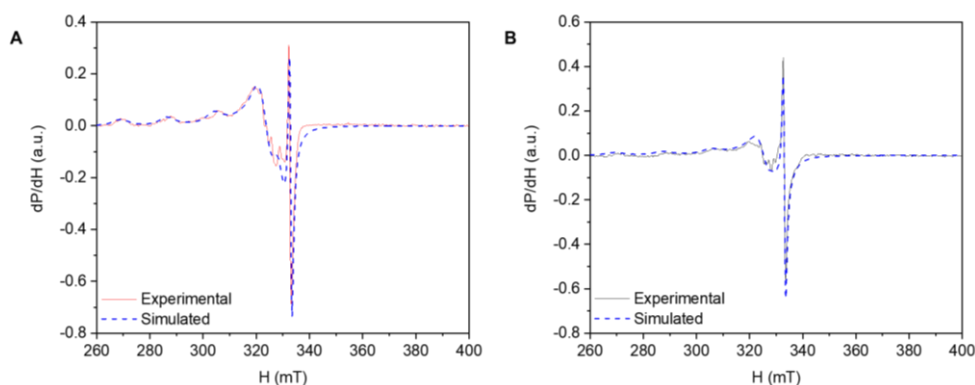


Figure 76. X-band EPR spectra in frozen DMF (77 K) of **(A)** complex **2A** and **(B)** complex **2B**. Simulated profiles are given as dashed blue lines.

For the EPR spectrum of complex **2C**, the observed $g_{\parallel} > g_{\perp} > 2.0023$ suggests the localization of unpaired electrons in the $d_{x^2-y^2}$ orbital of copper, indicating a strongly distorted tetragonal symmetry around the metal ion center, as the obtained Sakaguchi ratio is 137 cm^{-1} . The data suggest that in DMF solution, complex **2C** dissociates into its monomer $[\text{Cu}(\text{HL})\text{DMF}]^+$, which is isostructural with the species formed when complex **2A** is in DMF solution.

The covalency parameter (α^2) was estimated for the obtained complexes using the equation proposed by Kivelson and Neiman (Kivelson & Neiman, 1961).

$$\alpha^2 = \left(\frac{A_{\parallel}}{0.036} \right) + (g_{\parallel} - 2.0023) + \frac{3}{7}(g_{\perp} - 2.0023) + 0.04$$

If the value of α^2 is 0.5, it suggests complete covalent bonding, whereas a value of 1.0 indicates entirely ionic bonding. For complexes **2A**, **2B**, and **2C**, the following α^2 values were obtained: 0.77, 0.79, and 0.78, respectively, indicating that the metal-donor bonds in these complexes exhibit an intermediate covalent character.

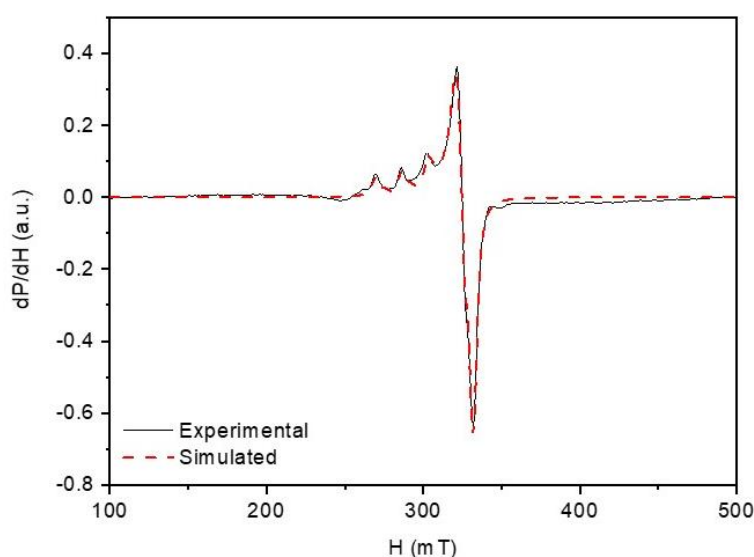


Figure 77. X-band EPR spectra of complex **2C** in frozen (77 K) solution of DMF.

5.3.2.8 Electrochemical behavior - Cyclic Voltammetry

The electrochemical behavior of the **H₂L2** system was evaluated by cyclic voltammetry, in a three-electrode system, in a DMF solution containing 0.1 mol/L of TBAPF₆ as supporting electrolyte in N₂ at room temperature. The voltammograms of the complexes and the **H₂L2** ligand are shown below and were

obtained at different scan rate.

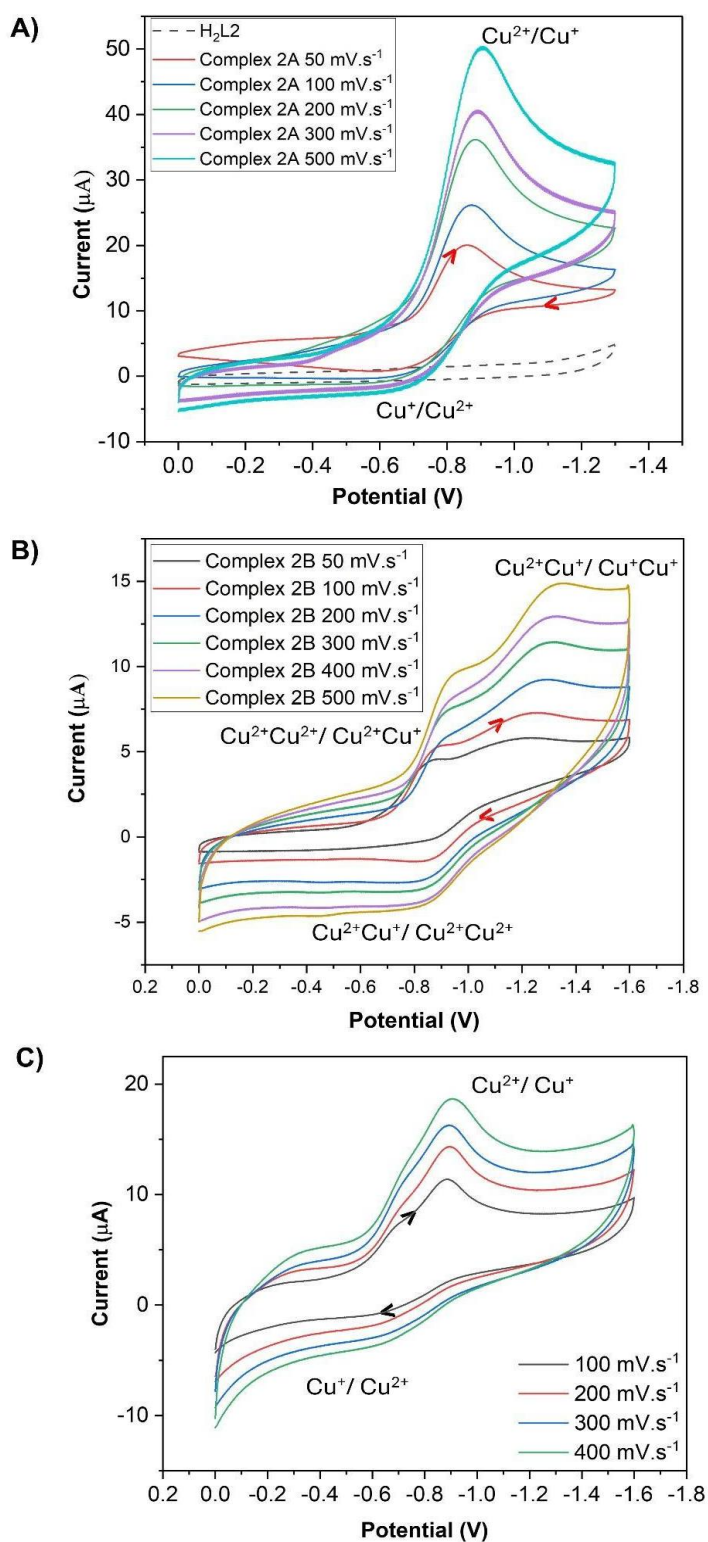


Figure 78. (A) Representative cyclic voltammograms of complex **2A**, at different scan rates, measured in DMF/ 0.1 mol L^{-1} TBAPF₆ (25 °C), using a GCE as the working electrode. The cyclic voltammogram of ligand **H₂L2** was included for the sake of comparison (black dashed curve). (B) Series of representative cyclic voltammograms of complex **2B**, at different scan rates, under the same conditions. (C) Series of representative cyclic voltammograms of complex **2C**, at different scan rates, under the same conditions.

From the voltammograms of the complexes obtained and some correlations, it is possible to obtain electrochemical parameters that can indicate the number of electrons involved (n), the redox mechanism involved, the transport process and even the transfer coefficient (α) (Abbar & Nandibewoor, 2012).

The relationship between the square root of the scan rate and the peak current provides insights into the type of transport process in cyclic voltammetry (Abbar & Nandibewoor, 2012). Analyzing this relationship for the studied ligands reveals a linear correlation, indicating that the system is diffusion-controlled (Abbar & Nandibewoor, 2012; Gosser, 1993). This is further confirmed by the linear relationship between the logarithm of the potential and the logarithm of the scan rate, where the slope coefficient value being less than or approximately equal to 0.5 suggests diffusion control (Laviron *et al.*, 1980).

Table 22. Estimated electrochemical parameters for the studied complexes.

Complex	2A	2B	2C
E_{pa} (V vs Ag/AgCl)	−0.60	−0.84	−0.61
$E_{pa1/2}$ (V vs Ag/AgCl)	---	−0.91	−0.66
α_a	---	0.66	1.19
n_a	---	1.33	0.80
E_{pc1} (V vs Ag/AgCl)	−0.87	−0.89	−0.70
$E_{pc1/2}$ (V vs Ag/AgCl)	−0.73	−0.75	---
α_{c1}	0.52	0.19	---
n_{c1}	0.65	1.89	---
E_{pc2} (V vs Ag/AgCl)	---	−1.25	−0.88
$E_{pc2/2}$ (V vs Ag/AgCl)	---	−0.80	−0.64
α_{c2}	---	0.19	0.62
n_{c2}	---	0.62	0.68

Analyzing graph, figure 78A, it is observed that the ligand is not electroactive within the evaluated potential range. Comparing the data obtained from Table 22 and Figure 78, a cathodic peak at −0.87 V vs Ag/AgCl and a poorly defined shoulder related to the anodic process around −0.60 V vs Ag/AgCl are observed, suggesting an irreversible process. The cathodic potential was analyzed, suggesting the involvement of one electron in the process, possibly related to the

$\text{Cu}^{2+}/\text{Cu}^+$ redox pair, consistent with its mononuclear nature.

In the voltammograms of complexes **2B** and **2C** in Figures 78B and 78C, multiple redox processes are observed. In complex **2B**, two cathodic peaks are evident at -0.89 and -1.25 V vs Ag/AgCl. By comparing electrochemical parameters, it can be suggested that the first cathodic peak involves two electrons in the process. One of these electrons is likely associated with the reduction of the azomethine group, which may occur at a potential close to when the ligand is coordinated, while the other electron is involved in the redox process related to the $\text{Cu}^{2+}/\text{Cu}^+$ couple. For the second cathodic process, occurring around -1.25 V, one electron is estimated to be involved, possibly related to the redox couple $\text{Cu}^{2+}/\text{Cu}^+$ and Cu^+/Cu^0 . The second cathodic process, occurring around -1.25 V, involves one electron, likely related to the $\text{Cu}^{2+}/\text{Cu}^+$ redox pair. This process is completely irreversible, suggesting rapid decomposition of the fully reduced form of the complex, as reported by Torelli *et al.* (2000) for a similar dicopper compound (Torelli *et al.*, 2000). This provides clear evidence that complex **2B** largely preserves its dimeric nature after dissolution in DMF. Sangeetha *et al.* (1999) reported, for the dimer $[\text{Cu}(\text{bhsNO}_2)\text{OH}_2]_2$, a pair of consecutive reduction responses at -0.63 and -1.25 V vs Ag/AgCl attributed to the processes $\text{Cu}^{2+}\text{Cu}^{2+}/\text{Cu}^{2+}\text{Cu}^+$ and $\text{Cu}^{2+}\text{Cu}^+/\text{Cu}^+\text{Cu}^+$ (Sangeetha *et al.*, 1999). In the anodic part, only an electrochemical signal with an anodic peak around -0.85 V vs Ag/AgCl can be observed, possibly related to the $\text{Cu}^+\text{Cu}^+/\text{Cu}^{2+}\text{Cu}^{2+}$ redox couple. Obtaining only one anodic peak agrees with analogous complexes synthesized in the literature (Sangeetha *et al.*, 1999; Torelli *et al.*, 2000).

Complex **2C** also exhibits two cathodic peaks similar to those of complex **2B**. However, the cathodic peak around -0.70 V vs Ag/AgCl is poorly defined, unlike complex **2B**. Thus, the reliability of this peak is low, precluding Tafel plot analysis. Nonetheless, its presence may indicate that complex **2C** does not remain in its dimeric form in DMF solution, potentially dissociating into two parts akin to complex **2A**. The second cathodic peak, well-defined at around -0.88 V vs Ag/AgCl, involves one electron in the redox process, possibly related to the $\text{Cu}^{2+}/\text{Cu}^+$ pair, assuming the complex does not maintain its dimeric integrity.

Comparing the obtained data reveals that both complexes **2A** and **2B**, as well as **2C**, exhibit a redox event around -0.85 V related to the $\text{Cu}^{2+}/\text{Cu}^{+}$ redox pair. Figure 78A shows a poorly defined shoulder related to anodic process around -0.61 V vs Ag/AgCl, suggesting an irreversible process like that observed for complex **2A**. The reduction and oxidation potentials for complexes **2A** and **2C** are very close, indicating that the dimeric nature of complex **2C** is lost due to dissociation in DMF solution. Due to similarities in their coordination spheres, the studied complexes undergo the first reduction step at nearly the same potential (Abbar & Nandibewoor, 2012; Sangeetha *et al.*, 1999; Torelli *et al.*, 2000).

5.3.2.9 Complexation Studies

The complexation study for the **H₂L2** series complexes was conducted to replicate conditions closely resembling their synthesis. Thus, analyses were carried out in methanol, with the addition of drops of a sodium hydroxide solution equimolar to that of the ligand for complex **2B**.

Solutions of the ligand at a concentration of 4×10^{-5} mol L⁻¹ were prepared, as well as solutions of starting salts (copper(II) chloride dihydrate, copper(II) perchlorate hexahydrate, and copper(II) nitrate trihydrate) at 3×10^{-4} mol L⁻¹. The ligand solutions for copper(II) chloride dihydrate and copper(II) nitrate trihydrate salts were diluted to 2×10^{-5} mol L⁻¹, while for copper(II) perchlorate hexahydrate salt, the solution was diluted by adding an equal volume of a sodium hydroxide solution at 4×10^{-5} mol.L⁻¹. Successive additions of 0.05 equivalent of the starting salt solution were then made to the ligand solution.

By adding equivalent amounts of the starting salts to the ligand solution, changes were monitored using UV-Vis electronic spectroscopy. The band around 400 nm, associated with the phenol functional group, was closely monitored as a reliable indicator of complexation. With successive additions of the starting salt equivalents, an increase in absorbance of this band was observed, indicating the transfer of charge from the phenolate ion to the central copper(II) ion. In addition to the increased absorbance of the band around 400 nm, the formation of different isosbestic points was also observed, indicating the presence of at least two species in equilibrium in solution.

Figure 79 depicts the increase in absorbance of the band around 400 nm with successive additions of copper(II) chloride to the **H₂L2** ligand solution. The study was conducted in triplicate, and thus, the values were averaged with respect to the added equivalent of Cu²⁺. The curve shows a saturation trend near 1 equivalent of copper(II) ion, suggesting that the stoichiometry of the mononuclear complex formed in solution is 1:1, consistent with the structure of the obtained complex.

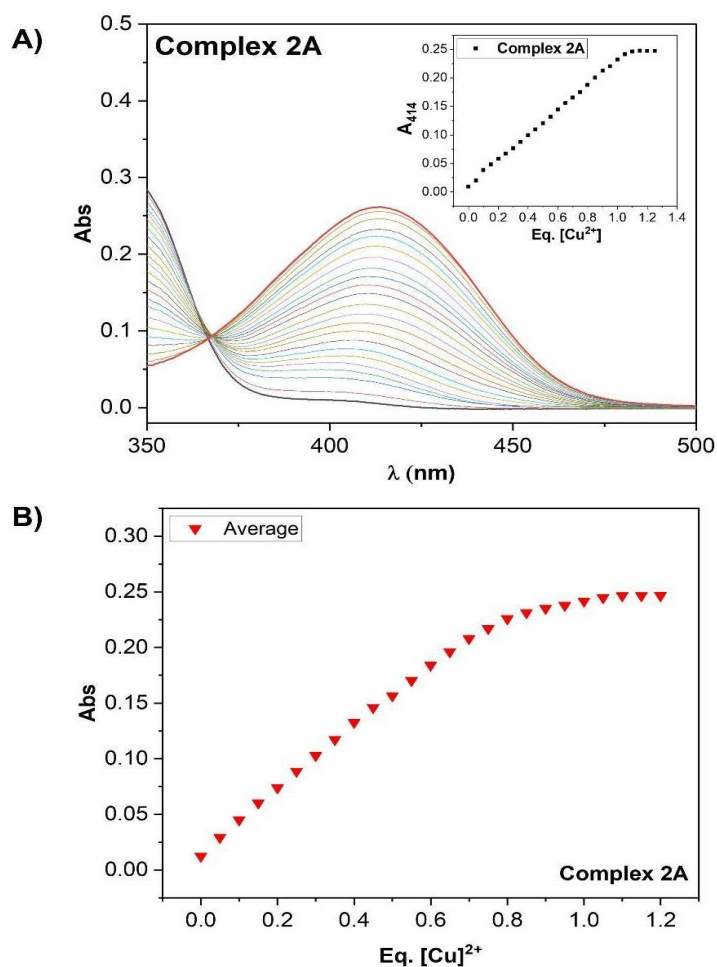


Figure 79. A) Study of complexation of complex **2A** and the relationship between absorbance and the number of Cu²⁺ equivalents. **B)** Result of the average of triplicates of the complexation study of complex **2A**.

Similar to what was observed for complex **2A**, Figure 80 demonstrates that the addition of equivalents of Cu²⁺ from copper(II) perchlorate hexahydrate to the **H₂L2** ligand solution leads to an increase in absorbance of the band around 400 nm. The study was conducted in triplicate, and thus, values were averaged with respect to the added equivalent of Cu²⁺ to the methanolic solution equilibrated

with sodium hydroxide. The curve shows a saturation trend near 1 equivalent of copper(II) ion, suggesting that the stoichiometry of the complex formed in solution is 1:1. Despite the complex being dinuclear in the solid state, the stoichiometry in solution is 1:1.

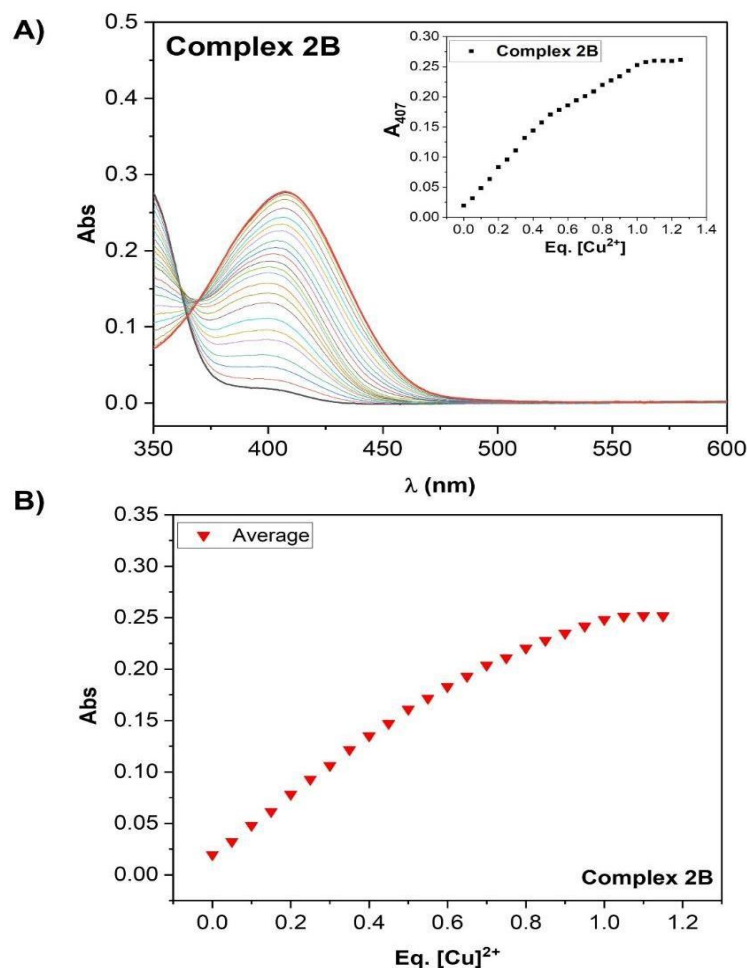


Figure 80. A) Study of complexation of complex **2B** and the relationship between absorbance and the number of Cu^{2+} equivalents. **B)** Result of the average of triplicates of the complexation study of complex **2B**.

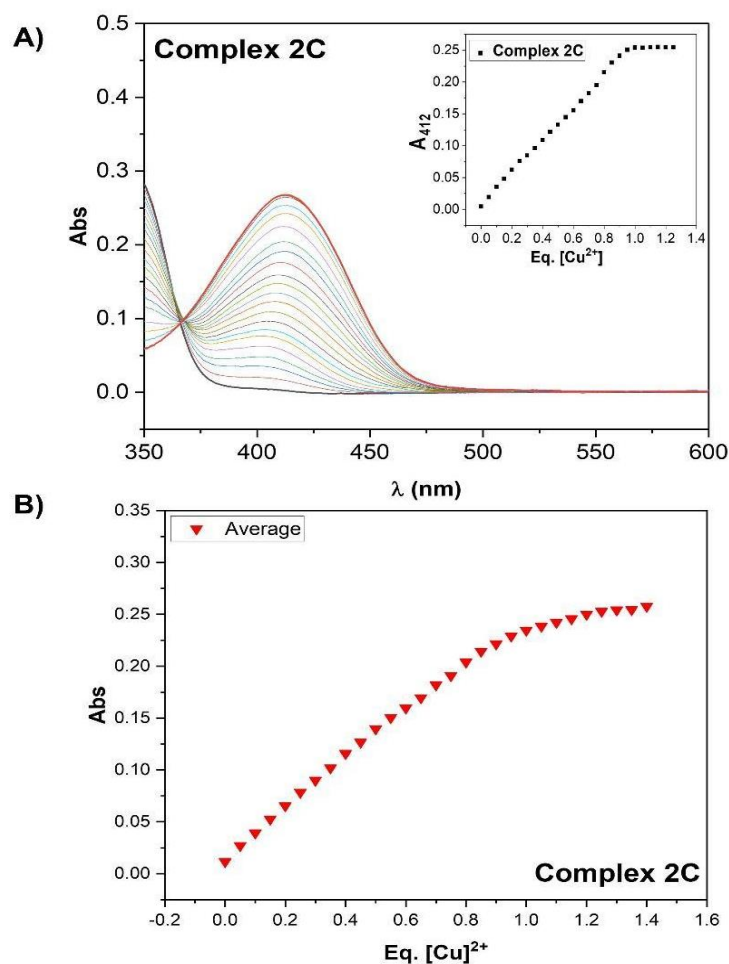


Figure 81. A) Study of complexation of complex 2C and the relationship between absorbance and the number of Cu^{2+} equivalents. B) Result of the average of triplicates of the complexation study of complex 2C.

Similarly to what was observed for the other complexes, the addition of equivalents of copper(II) nitrate trihydrate increases the absorbance of the analyzed band around 400 nm (Figure 81). The study was conducted in triplicate, allowing for the averaging of values with respect to the added equivalent of Cu^{2+} to the methanolic solution. The curve shows a saturation trend near 1 equivalent of copper(II) ion, suggesting that the stoichiometry of the complex formed in solution is 1:1. Similar to complex 2B, the stoichiometry of the binuclear complex 2C is also 1:1.

For complexes derived from the studied **H₂L2** ligand, the complexation study neither refutes nor confirms the number of metal centers present in the complexes in methanolic solution, but indicates the favored stoichiometry type in

solution under conditions similar to those used in their synthesis (Padnya *et al.*, 2021).

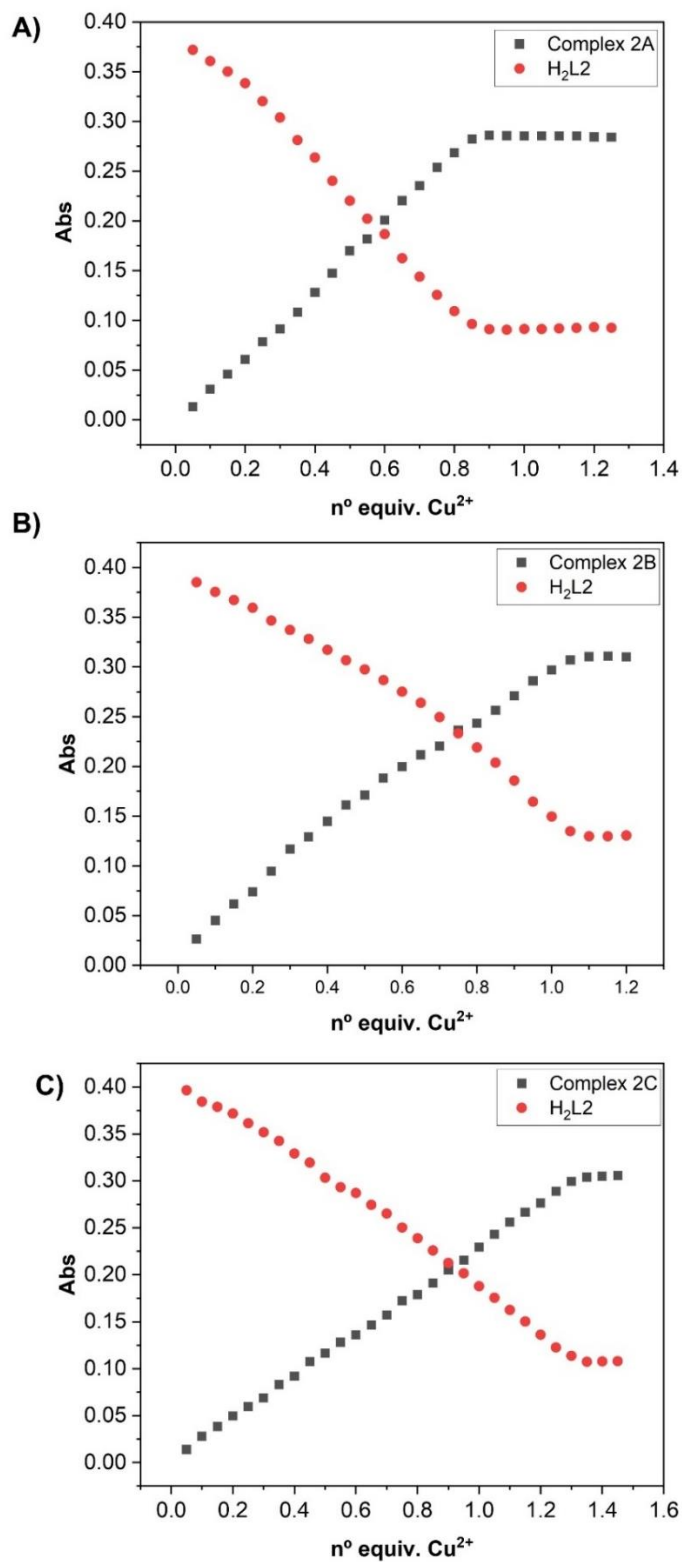


Figure 82. Qualitative graph that illustrates the variation of ligand species and their respective complexes based on the absorbance and number of equivalents of the salts used. A) **2A**, B) **2B** and C) **2C**.

Figure 82 enables an indirect analysis of species concentration variation through changes in absorbance of the ligand bands (around 330 nm) and the obtained complexes (around 400 nm). Comparing the graphs in figure 82, it is observed that when the equivalent reaches 1, the absorbance becomes constant, indicating a potential equilibrium between the free ligand and the formed complex. (Abdelrahman *et al.*, 2021).

5.3.2.10 Interaction studies with HSA and molecular docking

Molecular docking studies were conducted for the complexes **2A** and **2B**, as well as for the ligand **H₂L2**. The data obtained are part of the work published in the journal Dalton Transactions in 2023 (Moura *et al.*, 2023). The molecular docking studies were initially focused on three drug interaction sites (DS), located in regions IIA (DS1), IIIA (DS2), and IB (DS3). Additionally, the studies were extended to include the FA6 region, a site associated with fatty acids.

The crystallographic structures selected for this study are analogous to those under experimental conditions, specifically HSA devoid of fatty acids. All selections were sourced from the Protein Data Bank (PDB). The PDB entry 2bxex features the structure of diflunisal (a nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drug) bound to sites DS1, DS2, and FA6, with a resolution of 2.95 Å. The second structure chosen for this study was PDB 2bxey, which includes the nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drug azapropazone bound to sites DS1 and DS3, with a resolution of 2.70 Å. The third selected structure was PDB 2vue, which presents a bilirubin molecule at site DS3 and has a resolution of 2.42 Å.

Under more physiological conditions (i.e., 1 or 2% MeOH/PBS, pH 7.4), which were employed in the interaction studies with HSA, the spectral profiles of the compounds exhibit some modifications. Electronic transitions were theoretically calculated using a continuous solvation model to simulate the spectra of **H₂L2** and its complexes (**2A** and **2B**) in aqueous solution, thereby simplifying the assignment of bands used to monitor these interactions. Figure 83 illustrates the involved molecular orbitals displays the absorption profile of the ligand in 1% MeOH/PBS, with the spectrum in DMF (at the same concentration) included as a reference. The primary difference between them is related to the relative intensities of the bands. The calculated wavelength for the HOMO-LUMO transition, 337 nm, matches the experimental value precisely.

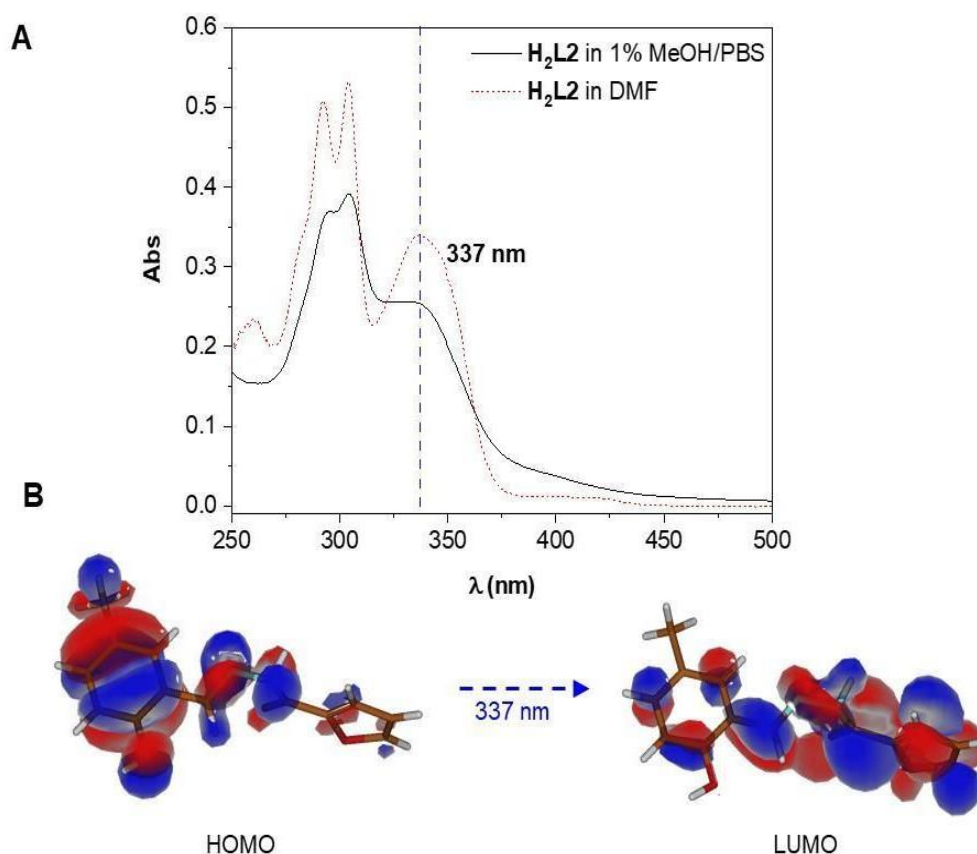


Figure 83. (A) UV-Vis spectra of ligand H_2L2 ($2.0 \times 10^{-5} \text{ mol L}^{-1}$) in 1% MeOH / PBS, pH 7.4 (black solid curve) and in DMF (red dotted curve), at r.t. Position of the HOMO-LUMO calculated transition is given as a dashed blue line **(B)** Frontier orbitals that take part in the process.

Figure 84 (A) displays the UV-Vis spectra of complex **2A** in 1% MeOH/PBS (left) and complex **2** in 2% MeOH/PBS (right). For comparison purposes, the corresponding spectra in DMF (at the same concentration) are also shown. A clear hypsochromic shift is observed in both systems when transitioning from DMF to an aqueous-rich medium.

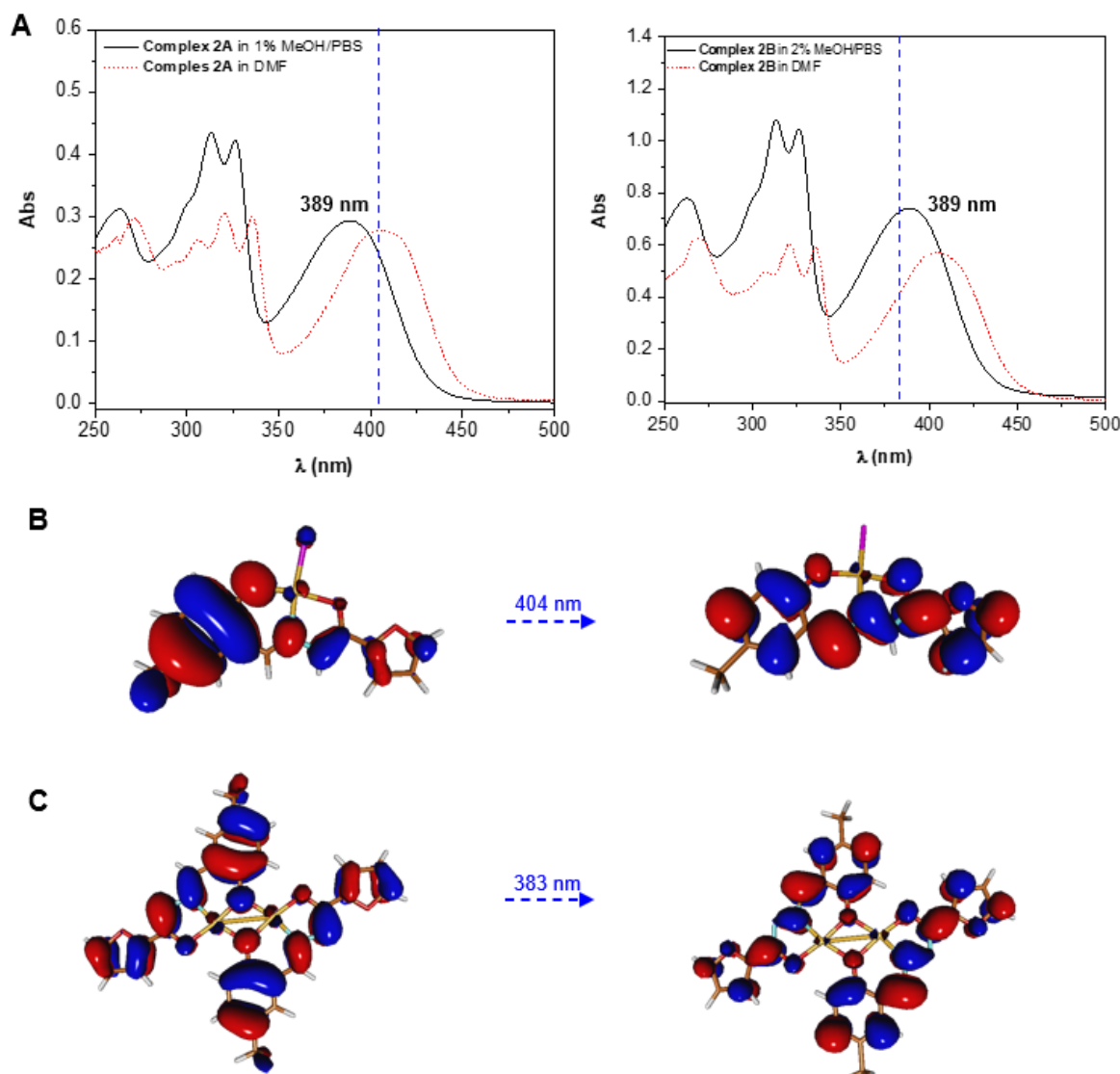


Figure 84. (A) Left: UV-Vis spectra of complex **2A** (2.0×10^{-5} mol L⁻¹) in 1% MeOH / PBS, pH 7.4 (black solid curve) and in DMF (red dotted curve), at r.t. Right: UV-Vis spectra of complex **2B** (2.0×10^{-5} mol L⁻¹) in 2% MeOH / PBS, pH 7.4 (black solid curve) and in DMF (red dotted curve), at r.t. Positions of the calcd transitions are given in both cases as blue dashed lines. (B) Orbitals of complex **2A** involved in the process at 389 nm. (C) Orbitals of complex **2B** involved in the process at 389 nm.

The calculated electronic transitions align well with those observed experimentally, particularly for complex **2B**. The ~20 nm discrepancy between the empirical and predicted wavelength values for the 389 nm band in the spectrum of complex **2A** is likely attributed to the partial replacement of chloride by a water molecule in the copper coordination sphere. Balsa, L. M. *et al.* (2023) reported an absorption centered at 387 nm for the [Cu(HL)OH₂]⁺ cation, involving the 3-methoxysalicylaldehyde 2-thienylhydrazone ligand in PBS (Balsa, L. M. *et al.*, 2023; Balsa, M. L. *et al.*, 2023). Figure 84(B) illustrates the molecular orbitals

involved in this absorption, calculated at 404 nm. Conversely, Figure 84(C) depicts the molecular orbitals involved in the equivalent transition for complex **2B**, estimated at 383 nm (experimental: 389 nm). As shown, in both cases, orbitals distributed across the entire molecules participate in these transitions.

No theoretical molecular docking study was performed for complex **2C**; however, the results obtained for complexes **2A** and **2B** are consistent with those for complex **2C**. When comparing the electronic spectrum of complex **2C** in DMF with that under physiological conditions, a hypsochromic shift similar to that observed for the spectra of complexes **2A** and **2B** is noted. Furthermore, the electronic transition observed at 389 nm for complexes **2A** and **2B** is also present in the electronic spectrum of complex **2C** in 2% MeOH/PBS, suggesting that this may be the same electronic transition involving similar orbitals. This observation implies that complex **2C** may not maintain its dimeric integrity in solution, undergoing dissociation to form complex **2A**.

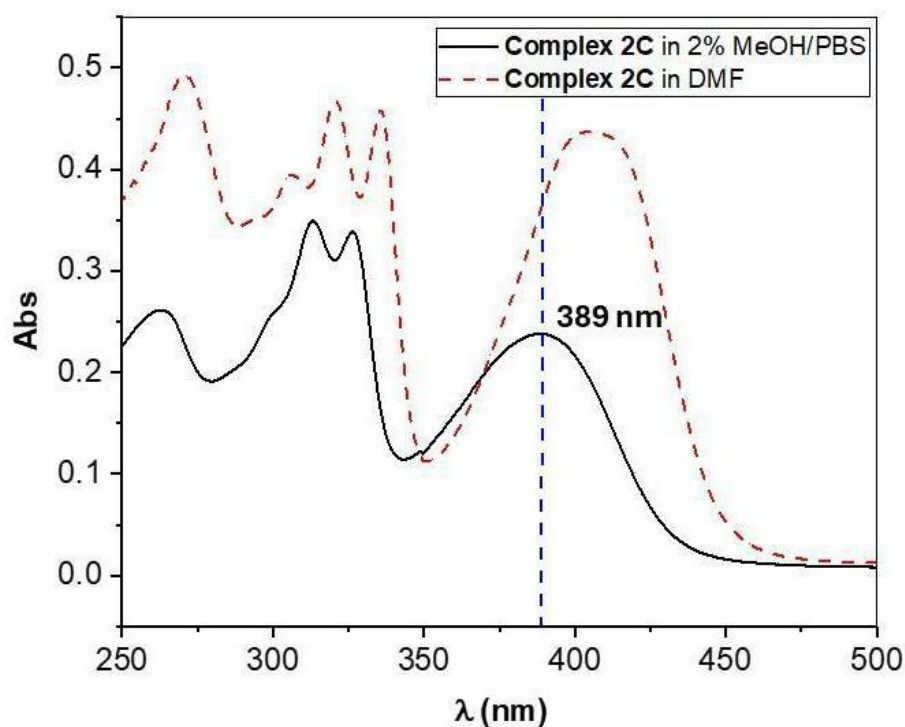


Figure 85. UV-Vis spectra of complex **2C** (2.0×10^{-5} mol L⁻¹) in 2% MeOH / PBS, pH 7.4 (black solid curve) and in DMF (red dotted curve), at r.t.

Human serum albumin (HSA) is a 66.35 kDa globular protein synthesized by the liver. Globular proteins are characterized by their intermediate solubility in aqueous solutions, forming colloidal solutions, which distinguishes them from fibrous proteins (the other principal type), which are virtually insoluble. HSA is composed of 585 amino acids along a single chain, features a high cysteine content, a significant proportion of negatively charged amino acids, and is typically non-glycosylated. As the most abundant protein in plasma, HSA exhibits an extraordinary capacity for binding both endogenous and exogenous ligands. It serves as the primary carrier of fatty acids, influences the pharmacokinetics of many drugs, facilitates the metabolic modification of certain substances, and neutralizes potential toxins (Fanali *et al.*, 2012). For these reasons, studying the interactions between this protein and the **H₂L2** compounds and their complexes is of intrinsic interest.

Figure 86 (A) illustrates the spectral changes in the 300-500 nm range resulting from the successive addition of HSA to a solution of **H₂L2** at 2×10^{-5} mol L⁻¹. The absorbance at 400 nm increases while the absorbance around 340 nm decreases as the titration progresses. An isosbestic point is clearly identified at 350 nm, indicating the presence of only two absorbing species in equilibrium: free **H₂L2** and bound **H₂L2**. Plotting the absorbance at 400 nm against the equivalents of HSA (Figure 86 (A), *inset*) produces a sigmoid curve that stabilizes when $[\text{HSA}]/[\text{H}_2\text{L2}] = 0.50$, suggesting that HSA can accommodate up to two molecules of ligand. The detection of an isosbestic point, along with the sigmoid shape rather than hyperbolic of the curve in the *inset*, suggests that a cooperative process is occurring. Monitoring the absorption band at 337 nm was strategic, as it corresponds to the complete HOMO-LUMO transition of the molecule (Figure 84 (B)), where the electron density in an orbital centered on the phenol ring is excited to an empty orbital located over the furan. Therefore, any interaction between **H₂L2** and HSA would be detected.

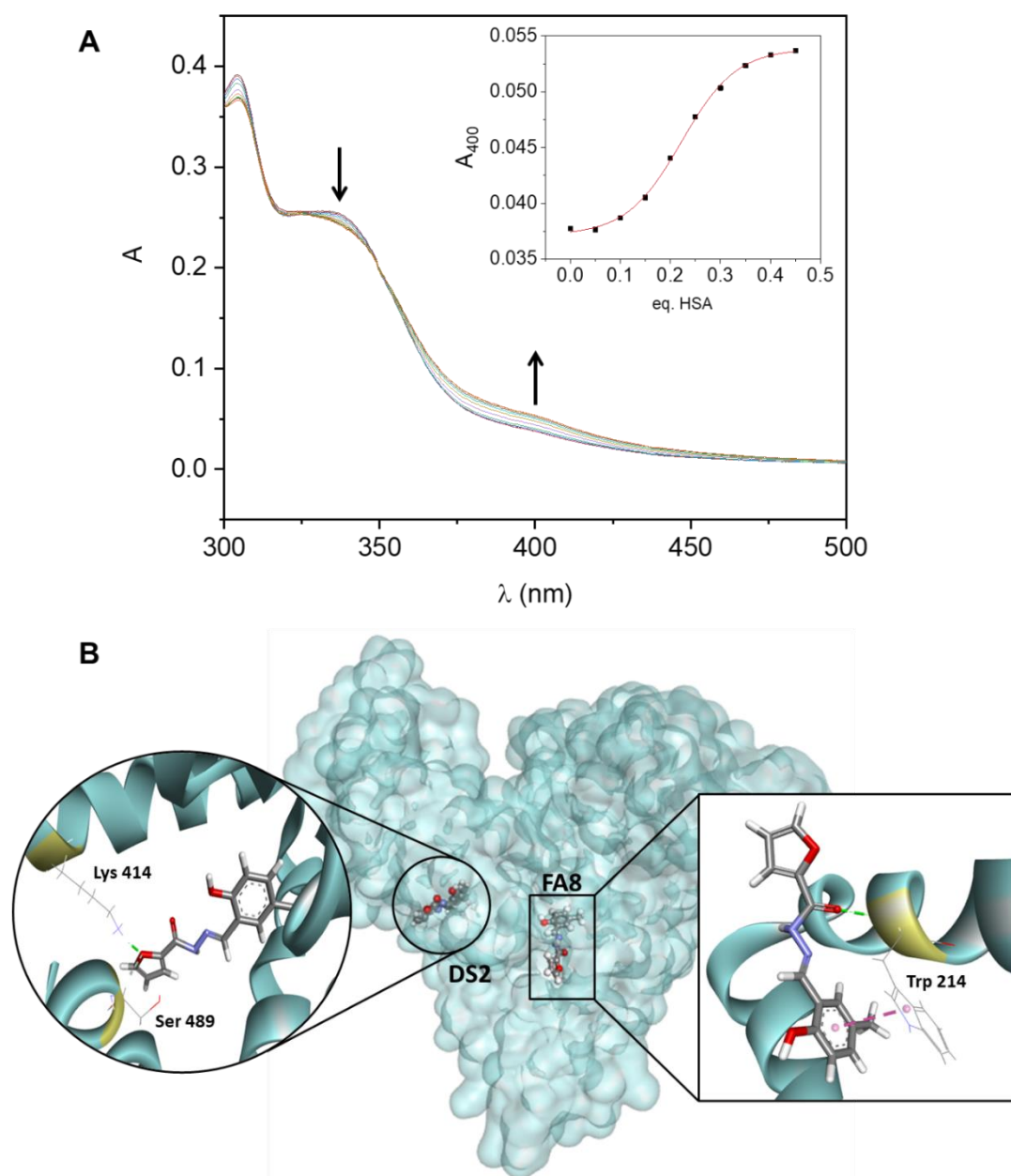


Figure 86. (A) UV-Vis titration of a 2×10^{-5} mol L⁻¹ **H₂L2** solution (1% MeOH / PBS, pH 7.4) with HSA at 25 °C. *Inset*: absorbance at 400 nm as a function of HSA equivalents; data were fitted using a sigmoidal function. (B) **H₂L2** conformers obtained through molecular docking for DS2 and FA8 sites and representation of the possible interactions with amino acids presents in each site.

Molecular docking simulations were conducted to identify different binding sites on HSA concerning its interactions and potential affinity for **H₂L2**. HSA comprises three homologous domains (I, II, and III), each divided into subdomains A and B, with common structural motifs (Fanali *et al.*, 2012; Merlot *et al.*, 2014). The studies initially focused on the three drug interaction sites (DS), located in regions IIA (DS1), IIIA (DS2), and IB (DS3), and were subsequently

extended to the FA6 region. Optimal interactions were observed around the DS2 site (with a study radius of 10 Å) and the FA6 site (9 Å). However, an unusual behavior was noted at the FA6 site, where the ligand shifted from the studied region to a nearby region known as FA8. The energy values obtained were $-48.05 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ (DS2) and $-48.66 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ (FA8). Figure 86 (B) illustrates the position and sites where **H₂L2** was most effectively located, thereby supporting the experimental ligand-protein stoichiometry of 2:1.

When a solution of complex **2A** ($2 \times 10^{-5} \text{ mol L}^{-1}$) is titrated with HSA, a different behavior is observed (Figure 87 (A)): the absorption originally present at 388 nm is bathochromically shifted to 394 nm as the protein concentration increases. Isosbestic points can be easily identified around 330, 345, and 404 nm during the initial additions of HSA, indicating once again that only two absorbing species (free and bound forms of the complex) are initially in equilibrium. Subsequently, a stabilization appears to occur, although the isosbestic points are not as well-defined as at the beginning of the titration. Plotting the absorbance at 430 nm as a function of HSA equivalents (Figure 87(A), *inset*) yields a sigmoid curve that stabilizes around $[\text{HSA}]/[\text{2A}] = 0.25$, suggesting that HSA can accommodate up to four units of the mononuclear complex. Cooperative binding likely occurs again in this study (Yoguim *et al.*, 2022).

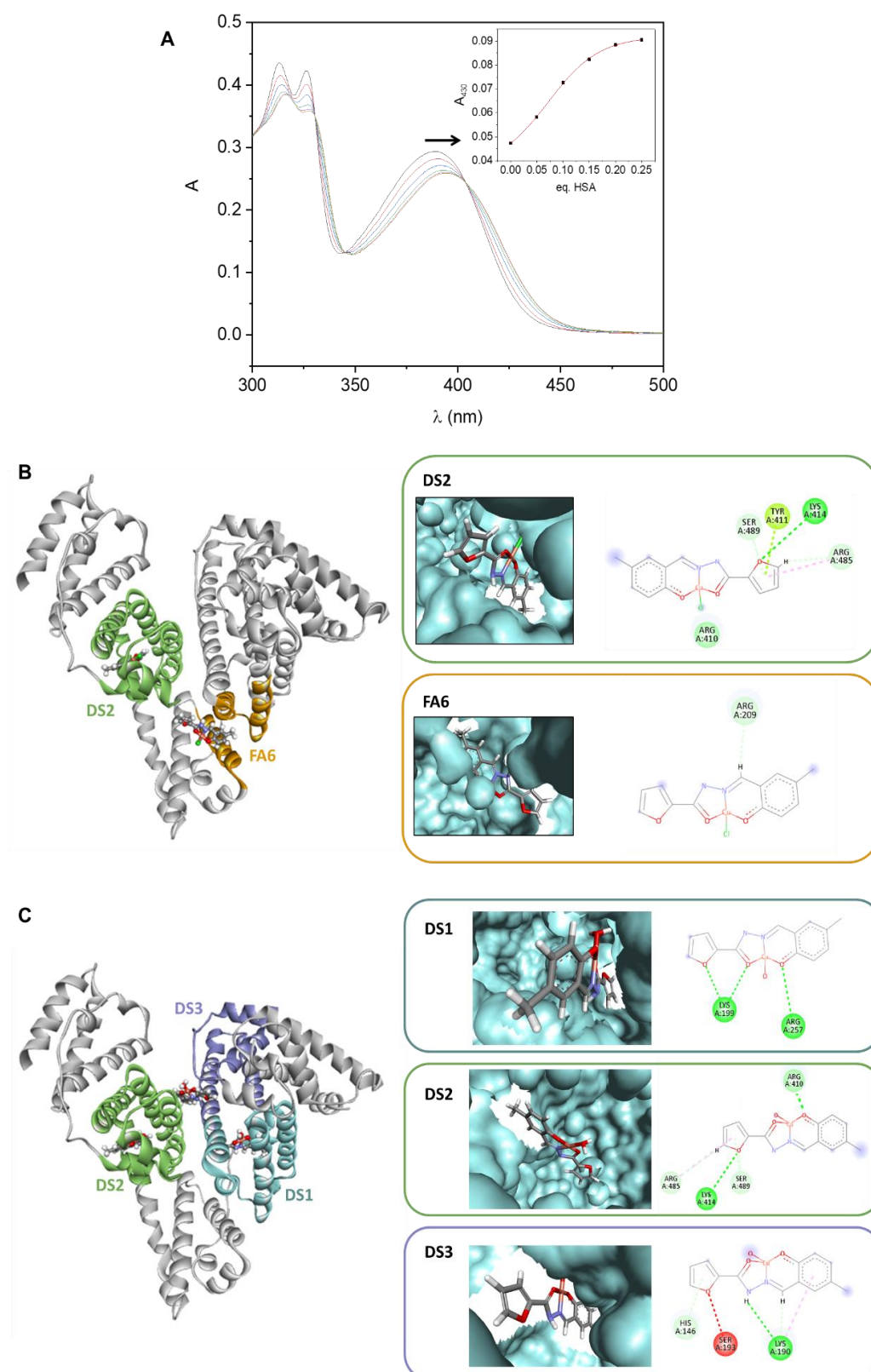


Figure 87. (A) UV-Vis titration of a 2×10^{-5} mol L⁻¹ complex 2A solution (1% MeOH / PBS, pH 7.4) with HSA at 25 °C. *Inset*: absorbance at 430 nm as a function of HSA equivalents; data fitted with a sigmoidal function. **(B)** Molecular docking results with indication of the pose and most probable interactions of **2A** at DS2 and FA6 sites and **(C)** Its aquated derivate **2A⁺** at DS1, DS2 and DS3 sites.

During the docking simulation phase, it was important to consider the likely replacement of water, at least to some extent, by the chloride ligand following the dissolution of complex **2A** in PBS, generating the cationic species $[\text{Cu}(\text{C}_{13}\text{H}_{11}\text{O}_3\text{N}_2)\text{OH}_2]^+$ (complex **2A**⁺). This can be inferred, for example, from the conductivity measurements discussed earlier. Consequently, interactions with HSA were evaluated for both the neutral complex **2A** and its cationic derivative **2A**⁺. The calculations suggest that the unmodified compound has an affinity for the DS2 and FA6 sites, while its cationic derivative **2A**⁺ interacts well with the DS1, DS2, and DS3 sites. Given that the solution of complex **2A** consists of a mixture of unmodified and modified complexes in water, it is anticipated that four sites on HSA might be involved in the interaction: DS1 (**2A**⁺), DS2 (**2A** and **2A**⁺), DS3 (**2A**⁺), and FA6 (**2A**). This helps to elucidate the apparent 4:1 stoichiometry of the complex to the protein observed. Figures 87 B and C present the results obtained from molecular docking studies for complexes **2A** and **2A**⁺. The parameters used for complex **2A** were: DS2 - radius 9 Å and flexibility of asparagine-391; FA6 - radius 6 Å with no amino acid substitution required. For complex **2A**⁺, the parameters were: DS1 - radius 8 Å and flexibility of arginine-222; DS2 - radius 9 Å and flexibility of asparagine-391; DS3 - radius 11 Å and protonation of histidine-146. The energetic results for **2A** are $-58.05 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ for DS2 and $-43.82 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ for FA6, indicating that the DS2 site has a lower energy value, suggesting a possible preferential region. For complex **2A**⁺, the energetic values were quite similar for DS1 ($-57.63 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$) and DS2 ($-57.49 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$), whereas for DS3, the value was $-41.07 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$. Analysis of the docking results for this derivative does not propose a preferential region.

On the other hand, titration of a $2 \times 10^{-5} \text{ mol L}^{-1}$ solution of complex **2B** with HSA results in the spectral changes presented in Figure 88(A). Overall, the observed profile is quite similar to that described for complex **2A**, with a bathochromic shift of the band originally centered at 388 nm to 398 nm as the protein concentration increases. However, the saturation profile is markedly different: plotting the absorbance at 430 nm against the equivalents of HSA yields an irregular pattern, apparently involving multiple stages, which only stabilizes around $[\text{HSA}]/[\text{2B}] = 1.00$ (Figure 88 (A)). This is likely related to the partial breakdown of the dimer into $[\text{Cu}(\text{L2})\text{DMF}]$ monomers, as previously discussed. Due to this peculiarity, no specific function was fitted to the experimental curve

obtained.

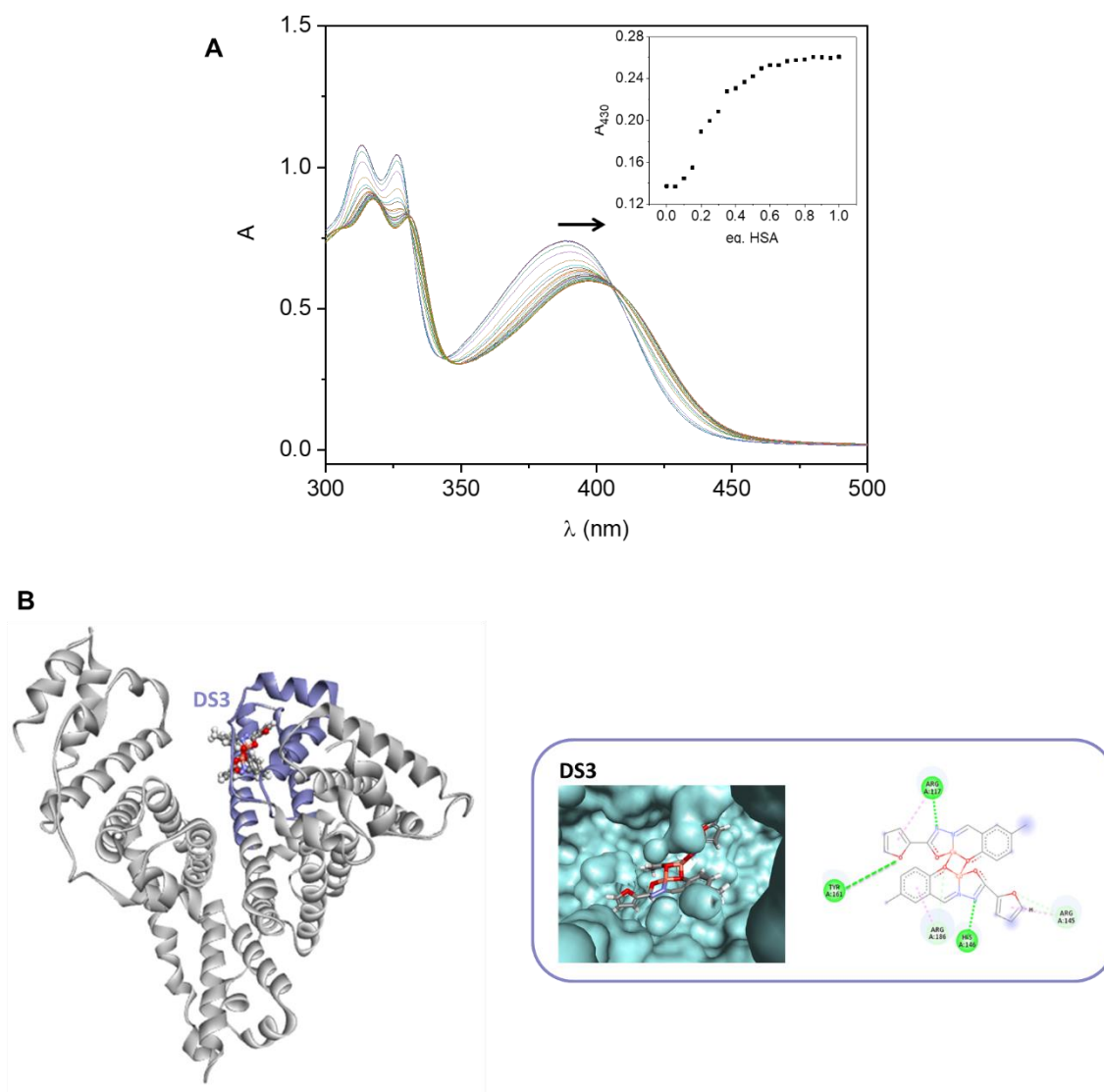


Figure 88. (A) UV-Vis titration of a 2×10^{-5} mol L⁻¹ solution of **2B** (2% MeOH / PBS, pH 7.4) with HSA at 25 °C. *Inset:* absorbance at 430 nm as a function of HSA equivalents. **(B)** Molecular docking results with indication of pose and most probable interactions of the neutral, dimeric complex **2B** at the DS3 site.

Due to the dimensions of the dimeric species, molecular docking simulations were conducted only for the DS3 site, as it features a large entry aperture and there are no literature reports of structures containing species of this size interacting with DS1, DS2, and FA6. The optimal condition was achieved using a radius of 9 Å with the protonation of histidine-146 (Figure 88 (B)). An interaction energy value of -73.15 kcal mol⁻¹ was calculated. Stabilization at the site involves both unconventional and conventional hydrogen bonds with residues Arg, His, and Tyr.

Although the saturation profile around 430 nm indicates an irregular pattern, complicating a specific fit to the experimental curve, it is evident that saturation occurs at $[HSA]/[2B] = 1.00$, indicating that the stoichiometry of the protein-complex **2B** interaction is 1:1. This stoichiometry is consistent when considering the size of complex **2B**, which is significantly larger than the ligand **H₂L2** and complex **2A**, making it difficult for one protein unit to interact with more than one unit of complex **2B**.

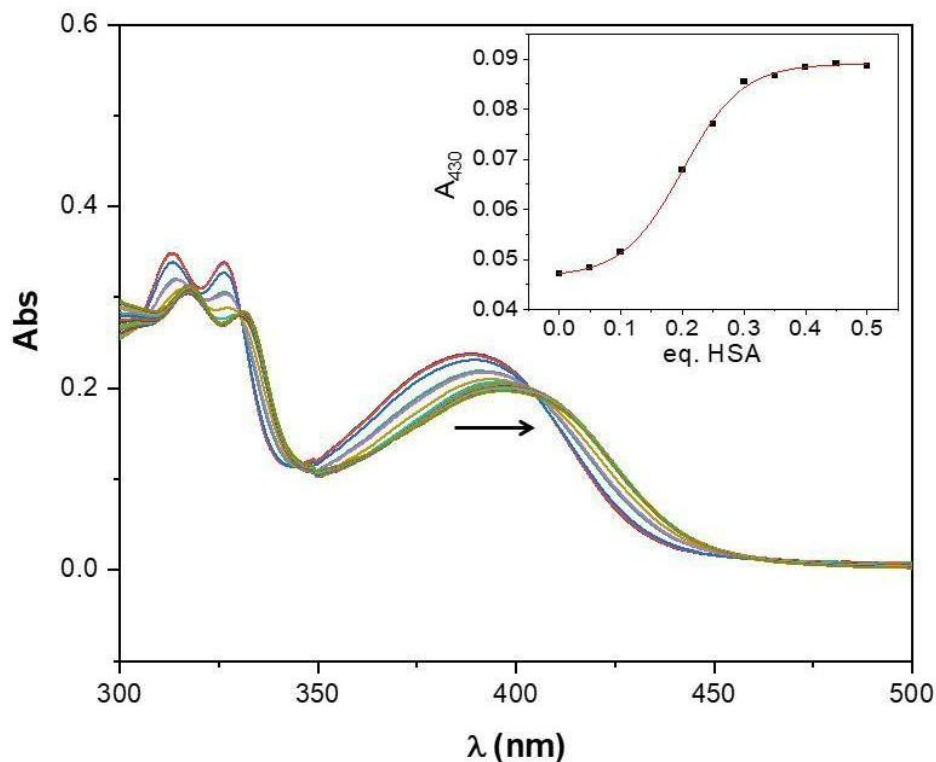


Figure 89. UV-Vis titration of a 2×10^{-5} mol L⁻¹ solution of complex **2C** (2% MeOH / PBS, pH 7.4) with HSA at 25 °C. *Inset:* absorbance at 430 nm as a function of HSA equivalents.

Molecular docking simulations were not performed for complex **2C**, but its interaction with HSA was evaluated. A titration of a 2×10^{-5} mol L⁻¹ solution of complex **2C** with HSA was conducted, resulting in the spectral modifications presented in Figure 89. Generally, the observed profile is quite similar to that described for complexes **2A** and **2B**, with a bathochromic shift of the band originally centered around 388 nm to 404 nm as the protein concentration increases. Isosbestic points can be easily identified around 330, 345, and 404 nm during the initial additions of HSA, indicating once again that only two absorbing species (free and bound forms of the complex) are initially in equilibrium. Notably, the isosbestic points observed for complex **2C** are identical to those for complex **2A**, reinforcing the possibility that complex **2C** in solution does not

maintain its dimeric integrity and converts to the mononuclear complex **2A**. Subsequently, a stabilization appears to occur, although the isosbestic points are not as well defined as at the beginning of the titration. Plotting the absorbance at 430 nm versus the equivalents of HSA (Figure 89 *inset*) yields a sigmoidal curve that stabilizes around $[HSA]/[2C] = 0.50$, indicating that HSA can accommodate up to two molecules of the complex. Cooperative binding likely occurs again in this study.

Comparing the HSA interaction results for complex **2A** and complex **2C** reveals that, although the profiles are identical, the stabilization differs. In complex **2A**, one protein molecule can accommodate four molecules of complex **2A** in both its neutral and charged forms. In contrast, in complex **2C**, one protein molecule can accommodate two molecules of the complex. This result is consistent with the fact that each **2C** molecule can generate two **2A** molecules, as the calculation of equivalents is performed for the complex in its dimeric form.

5.3.2.11 Cytotoxicity and antiproliferative activity studies

Cytotoxicity studies were conducted for **H₂L2** and its complexes **2A**, **2B**, and **2C**; the parameter was assessed using the MTT assay in MDA-MB-231 cells (triple-negative breast adenocarcinoma). The clinical agent cisplatin (CDDP) was employed as an inorganic reference of antiproliferative activity, in addition to the clinical (organic) drug doxorubicin.

Table 23. IC_{50} [μ M] values of the N-acylhydrazonic ligand **H₂L2**, its copper(II) complexes **2A**, **2B** and **2C**, **CDDP** and **DOX** clinical references on MDA-MB-231 cells after 24 h of incubation.

Compound	IC_{50} [μ M]
H₂L2	>50
Cu(NO₃)₂·3H₂O	>50
Complex 2A	2.0 ± 0.1
Complex 2B	1.3 ± 0.1
Complex 2C	1.2 ± 0.1
CDDP	131 ± 18 Balsa <i>et al.</i> (2021)
DOX	1.3 Ayoub <i>et al.</i> (2017)

The results presented in Table 23 indicate that all complexes were capable of reducing cell viability in the sub micromolar concentration range (0.5-2.5 μM), with similar IC_{50} values for both dimers (complexes **2B** and **2C**, approximately 1.25 μM) and a slightly higher value of 2.0 μM for complex **2A**. Although **2C** is ionic in nature, this does not prevent it from entering the cell, suggesting that some transporter may be involved in the process. Additionally, the fact that the antiproliferative activity of this compound, considering the standard deviation involved, is twice that observed for complex **2A** reinforces the possibility that complex **2C** undergoes dissociation in solution. The antiproliferative activity of the studied complexes is greater than that of cisplatin (CDDP), which has an IC_{50} value of 131 μM in MDA-MB-231 cells. Furthermore, the IC_{50} values obtained for the **H₂L2** series of complexes against MDA-MB-231 cells are comparable to those of the clinical reference drug doxorubicin (DOX) (Ayoub *et al.*, 2017).

In contrast, the IC_{50} values for **H₂L2** itself and free Cu^{2+} (metal cation) exceed 50 μM in the MDA-MB-231 cell line, highlighting the critical role of coordination in modulating the anticancer activity of copper complexes containing hydrazonic ligands. This effect has been reported for other copper(II) complexes (Balsa *et al.*, 2021; Balsa, L. M. *et al.*, 2023; Balsa, M. L. *et al.*, 2023; Rada *et al.*, 2019; Rada *et al.*, 2020).

5.4. H₂L3 Series

5.4.1 Synthesis of the Compounds belonging to the H₂L3 Series

The ligand was synthesized *via* condensation reaction, using the precursors 5-methylsalicylaldehyde and 5-phenylisoxazole-3-carbohydrazide. Suitable yields were obtained. Reacting **H₂L3** with copper(II) chloride dihydrate or copper(II) nitrate trihydrate afforded the same product, **3A**, which was obtained as a powder with satisfactory yields. Figure 90 illustrates the synthesis of the ligand and **3A**.

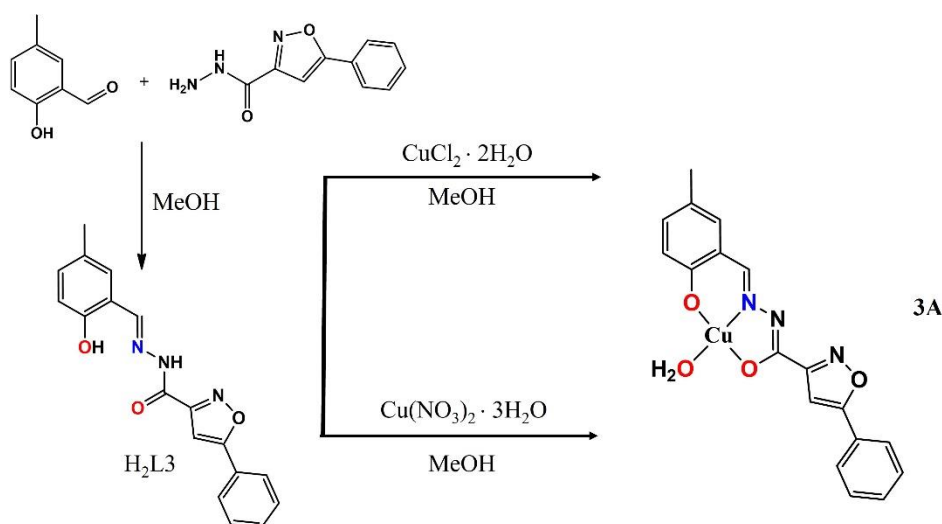


Figure 90. General scheme of the synthesis of the **H₂L3** ligand and complex **3A**.

The absence of chloride ions in the coordination sphere was confirmed using a 0.1 mol L⁻¹ silver nitrate solution. Successive additions of silver nitrate to the complex solution demonstrated that no chloride ions were present in the coordination sphere, nor were they present as counterions, as evidenced by the absence of silver chloride precipitation.

The thermogravimetric analysis of complex **3A** (Figure 91), on the other hand, shows a thermal event at around 270 °C, corresponding to a weight loss of 3.2%, suggesting that it is associated with the coordinated water molecule (calc. 4.5%). Above 300 °C, significant mass losses are observed, which are attributed to the organic fraction present in the ligand. Complex **3A** exhibited a residual mass of 20.62%, likely corresponding to copper(II) oxide, indicating 16.6% of copper in the sample. This is consistent with the percentage obtained from ICP-OES (16.1%), suggesting that the proposed structure for this complex is coherent.

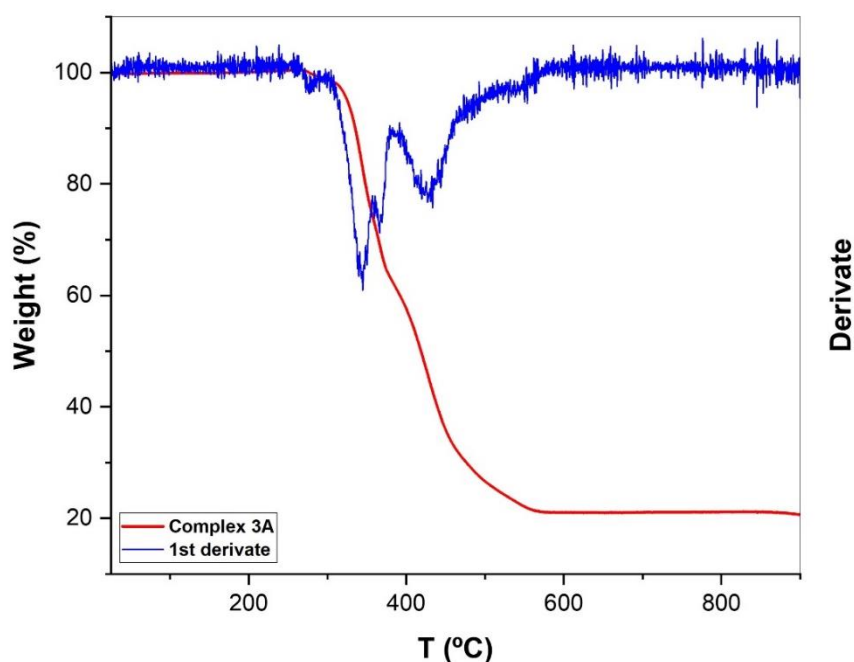


Figure 91. Thermogravimetric curve for complex **3A**.

Although soluble in pure organic solvents, the aqueous solution assays for interaction studies with HSA were not feasible. Both the complex and the ligand were highly insoluble in PBS buffer mixtures with many tested solvents, including methanol, ethanol, isopropanol, acetone, acetonitrile, DMF, and DMSO.

5.4.2 Characterization of ligand H₂L3 and its complex **3A**

5.4.2.1 Copper content (ICP-OES)

Cu analysis was performed on a complex sample following purification by recrystallization in methanol. The obtained result is in Table 24:

Table 24. Relationship between the percentage of copper calculated and that found.

<u>Complex</u>	<u>%Cu</u>	
	<u>calculated</u>	<u>found</u>
<u>3A</u>	15.8	16.1

5.4.2.2 Molar conductivity studies

Table 25 correlates the obtained molar conductivity value for **3A** with the type of electrolyte in DMF, compared with the data reported by Geary (1971).

Table 25. Relationship between the molar conductivity data obtained with the electrolyte system.

Complex	3A
Molar conductance ($\Omega^{-1}\text{cm}^2\text{mol}^{-1}$)	3.20
Electrolyte	Non-electrolyte

Complex **3A** behaves as a non-electrolyte in DMF solution, suggesting that the proposed structure is consistent. Under this condition, the water molecule may be replaced by DMF molecules without altering the non-electrolytic nature of the complex. Additionally, DMF molecules can occupy axial positions, binding in a weaker way to the metal ion due to the Jahn-Teller effect.

5.4.2.3 Infrared Vibrational Spectroscopy

Analysis of the infrared vibrational spectrum of complex **3A** and ligand **H₂L3** (Figure 92) reveals shifts in certain bands associated with the stretching of characteristic functional groups, as well as the appearance and disappearance of specific bands. These factors can indicate coordination.

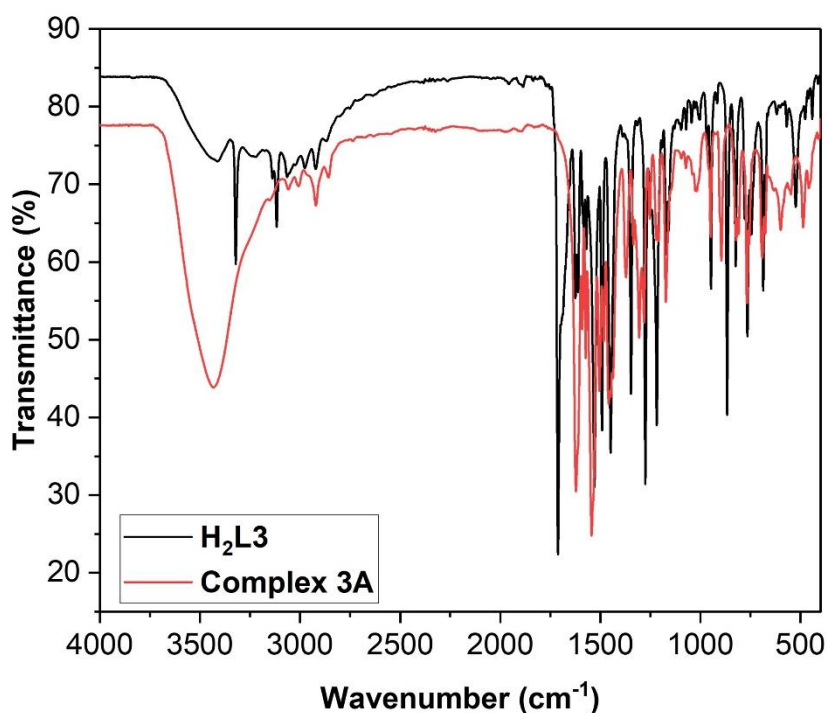


Figure 92. Overlapping of the mid-infrared spectra of **H₂L3** and complex **3A** in KBr, at room temperature.

Table 26. Selected vibrational absorptions (cm⁻¹) for **H₂L3** and complex **3A**.

Assingment	H ₂ L3	Complex 3A
$\nu\text{N-H}$	3150	-----
$\nu\text{O-H}_{\text{phenol}}$	3315	-----
$\nu\text{O-H}_{\text{water}}$	----	3435
$\nu\text{C=O}$	1672	1570
$\nu\text{C=N}$	1623	1618
$\delta\text{C-O-H}_{\text{phenol}}$	1479	-----
$\nu\text{C=C}_{\text{arom}}$	1345	1307
$\nu\text{C-O}_{\text{phenol}}$	1273	1281
$\delta\text{C=C-H}_{\text{phenol}}$	1217	1207
$\nu\text{N-N}$	1170	1170
$\nu\text{Cu-O}$	-----	544
$\nu\text{Cu-N}$	-----	600
$\delta\text{O-Cu-N}$	-----	485

The infrared vibrational spectrum of the complex exhibited several characteristic bands also observed in the ligand spectrum, albeit shifted, suggesting the coordination of the ligand to the copper(II) ion. The absence of the N–H stretching vibration in the complex supports the proposed structure and the obtained molar conductivity, indicating that the coordinated ligand is in the iminolato form, as observed in complex **2B**. The stretching bands of C=O and C=N were shifted to lower wavenumbers compared to those of the free ligand, suggesting coordination of the metal ion by the donor atoms of these functional groups. The C=O stretching band is significantly shifted, a characteristic of the iminolato form, where electronic delocalization with the hydrazone portion decreases the bond's vibrational frequency, justifying the shift to lower energy values (Moura *et al.*, 2023; Rada *et al.*, 2019). The absence of the O–H stretching band in the complex confirms the formation of the phenolate ion in the coordination, as evidenced by the $\nu\text{C-O}$ band of the phenol. Additionally, some metal-ligand vibrations were identified in the complex spectrum, including absorptions at 544 cm⁻¹ [$\nu(\text{Cu-O})$] and 600 cm⁻¹ [$\nu(\text{Cu-N})$] for complex **3A** (Moura *et al.*, 2023).

Figure 93 shows the vibrational spectra of ligand **H₂L3** and **3A** obtained from different copper salts: copper(II) chloride dihydrate and copper(II) nitrate trihydrate. The results clearly demonstrate the overlapping bands of complex **3A** obtained via different routes, suggesting that the compound can be synthesized from different starting salts and, thus, that counter-ions are not present.

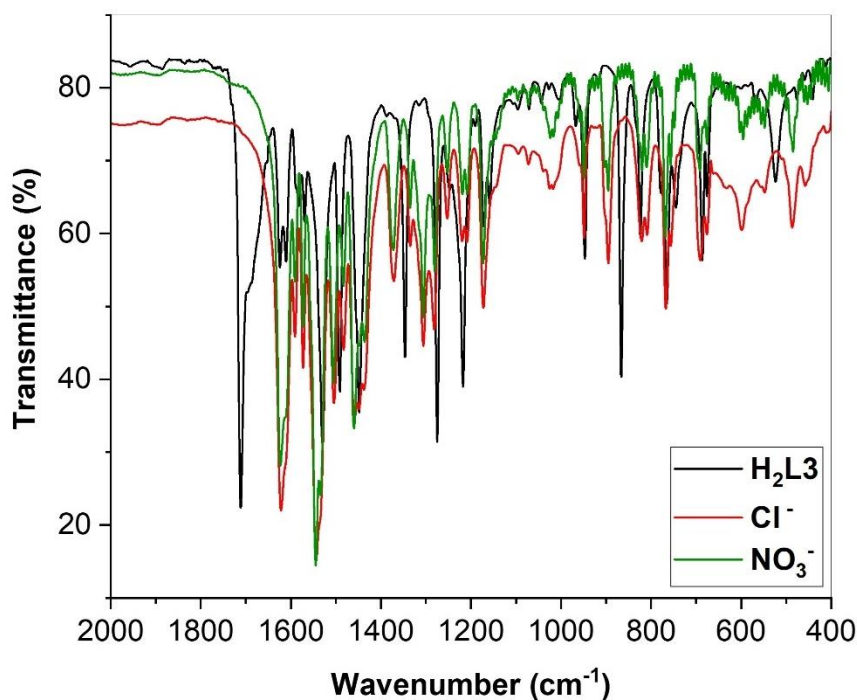


Figure 93. Comparison of infrared vibrational spectra of the ligand **H₂L3** and complex **3A** obtained by different starting salts.

5.4.2.4 Electronic Spectroscopy in UV-Vis and Diffuse Reflectance

The ligand and the obtained complex were analyzed by UV-Vis electronic spectroscopy at various concentrations using DMF as the solvent. The spectrum of **H₂L3** displays five main absorptions in the range 250-500 nm, comprising three bands and two shoulders (at around 270 and 300 nm), according to Figure 94A. Comparison of the spectrum with those of its precursors (Figure 94B) reveals that two of these absorptions come from them, being related to transitions within the phenol and phenylisoxazole rings. The intense bands observed at 281 nm ($29,139 \pm 671 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$) and 289.5 nm ($30,120 \pm 684 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$), along with the shoulder at around 300 nm, are likely associated with *N*-acylhydrazone-derived processes, as these are absent in precursors' spectra. Conversely, the broad band centered at 338.5 nm ($13,524 \pm 161 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$), although also present in the spectrum of the precursor 5-methylsalicylaldehyde, may additionally reflect the contribution of the *N*-acylhydrazonic bridge between the rings, as it exhibits a bathochromic shift compared to the precursor.

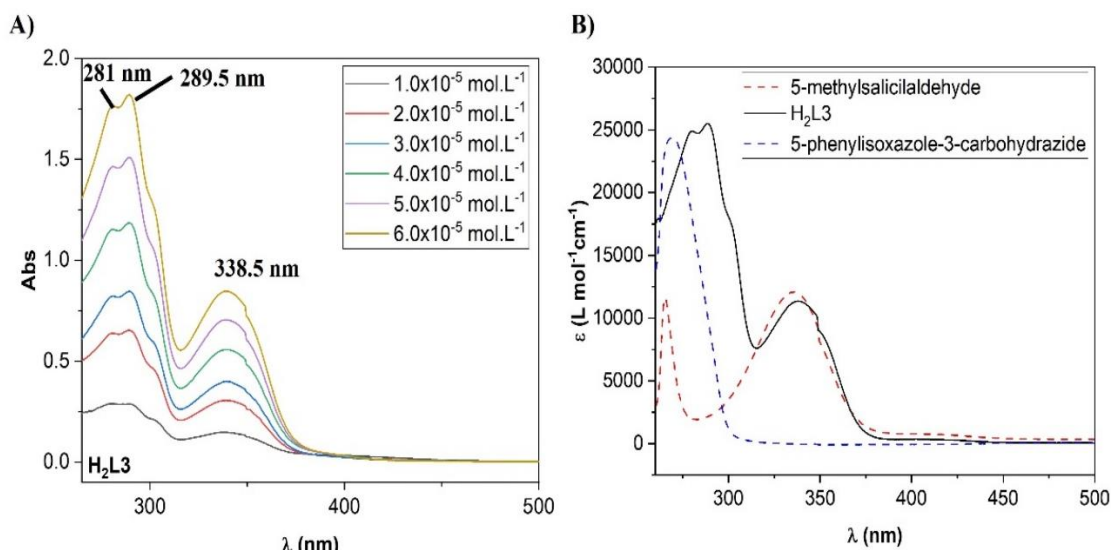


Figure 94. A) Electronic spectrum of H_2L3 in DMF solution, at different concentrations. B) Electronic spectra of the ligand and precursors in DMF solution (5×10^{-5} mol L $^{-1}$).

Complex **3A** exhibits four main absorptions in the range of 250 to 600 nm (Figure 95). Comparison of this spectrum with that of the ligand reveals that three of the absorptions are present in it, as previously discussed. The intense bands around 303.5 nm ($12,941 \pm 61$ L mol $^{-1}$ cm $^{-1}$) and 319.5 nm ($13,409 \pm 77$ L mol $^{-1}$ cm $^{-1}$) can be observed in the ligand at 281 and 289.5 nm, but with a bathochromic shift, indicating that coordination lowers the transition energy of these bands. This supports the hypothesis that these bands are likely related to processes involving the *N*-acylhydrazone, given that they are absent in the spectra of the precursors and that coordination affects their energy. Additionally, the electronic transitions observed in this region are related to the conjugated bonds within the aromatic fraction of the ligand (Eid *et al.*, 2021; Rada *et al.*, 2019; Rada *et al.*, 2020).

The broad band observed at 335.5 nm ($11,127 \pm 68$ L mol $^{-1}$ cm $^{-1}$) is present in the spectrum of 5-methylsalicylaldehyde, suggesting that this band also has a contribution from the hydrazone bridge between the rings, as seen in the **H₂L2** series complexes. Unlike the ligand spectrum, the spectrum of complex **3A** displays an intense and broad band at around 406 nm ($11,119 \pm 78$ L mol $^{-1}$ cm $^{-1}$). This absorption is attributed to the charge transfer from the phenolate ion to the Cu $^{2+}$ metal center. This band is absent in the spectra of the free ligands evaluated in this study and may indicate coordination, as the presence of the Cu $^{2+}$ ion may lead to ligand deprotonation. The band at 633 nm (97.71 ± 1.57 L mol $^{-1}$ cm $^{-1}$) is associated with *d-d* transitions, with low molar absorptivity justifiable by the fact that such electronic transitions are Laporte-forbidden, as previously discussed.

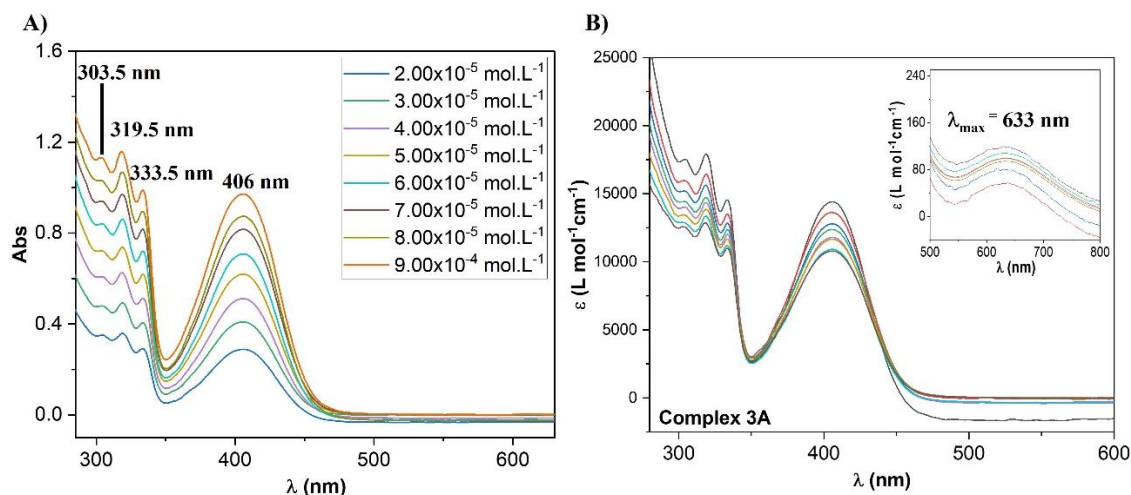


Figure 95. **A)** Electronic spectra of **3A** in DMF solution, at different concentrations. **B)** The same spectra as a function of molar absorptivity.

Figure 96 displays the diffuse reflectance electronic spectrum of complex **3A**, along with the main components obtained through band deconvolution. The spectrum was deconvoluted into four absorptions. One of them, at around 257 nm, corresponds to the shifted band present in the ligand at approximately 281 nm, associated with the conjugated bonds in the aromatic portion of **H₂L3**. The band observed at 322 nm in the diffuse reflectance spectrum correlates with the one appearing at 333.5 nm in the solution spectrum and may be related to transitions involving the *N*-acylhydrazone moiety. On the other hand, the LM charge transfer band from phenolate to copper(II) is observed at 421 nm. The *d-d* transition was centered at 691 nm, which means a bathochromic shift of around 60 nm in relation to the corresponding band in DMF solution.

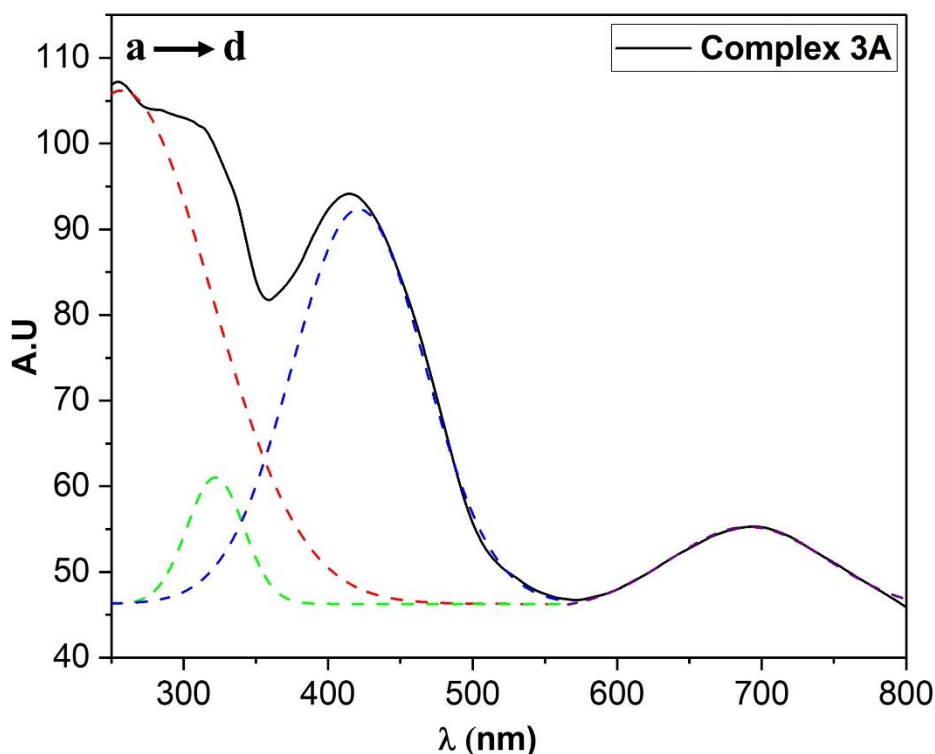


Figure 96. Electronic diffuse reflectance spectrum of **3A**, in black. Main components obtained by band fitting: a) 257 nm, b) 322 nm, c) 421 nm and d) 691 nm.

Table 27 correlates the obtained λ_{max} values for the electronic spectra of complex **3A** in DMF solution and in the solid state (diffuse reflectance). Analysis of the results reveals similar bands, albeit with shifts. The bands centered at 257 and 322 nm are associated with electronic transitions in the ligand portion, while the band at 421 nm is related to LMCT transitions from the phenolate ion to the copper(II) center, but exhibits a significant bathochromic shift. This shift suggests that in solution, the coordination sphere of the metal may undergo modifications, influencing the energy of this band. A similar observation can be made for the band at 691 nm, related to the $d-d$ transition. The bathochromic shift in this band compared to the electronic spectrum in DMF solution indicates a change in the stereochemistry of the complex once it is dissolved. In solution, solvent molecules may axially coordinate to the copper(II) ion, causing tetragonal distortion due to the Jahn-Teller effect, which accounts for the energy shift of the $d-d$ transitions (Hathaway & Billing, 1970; Lever, 1984; Moura *et al.*, 2023).

Table 27. Comparison of electronic spectra by diffuse reflectance with those obtained in solution for complex **3A**.

Complex	Transitions							
	precursors-related		N-acylhydrazone		Phenolate $\rightarrow$ Cu ²⁺		d-d transition	
	DRIFTS (nm)	UV-Vis (nm)	DRIFTS (nm)	UV-Vis (nm)	DRIFTS (nm)	UV-Vis (nm)	DRIFTS (nm)	UV-Vis (nm)
3A	257	281	322	333.5	421	406	691	633

Table 27 correlates the obtained $\lambda_{\max}$ values for the electronic spectrum of complex **3A** in DMF solution and by diffuse reflectance diluted with barium sulfate. Analysis of the results reveals similar bands, albeit with shifts. The bands at 257 and 322 nm are associated with electronic transitions in the ligand portion, while the band at 421 nm is related to charge transfer from the phenolate ion to the copper(II) ion but exhibits a significant bathochromic shift. This shift suggests that in solution, the coordination sphere of the metal ion may undergo modifications, influencing the energy of this band. A similar observation can be made for the band at 691 nm, related to the d-d transition. The bathochromic shift in this band compared to the electronic spectrum in solution indicates a change in the stereochemistry of the complex in solution. In solution, solvent molecules may axially coordinate to the copper(II) ion, causing tetragonal distortion due to the Jahn-Teller effect, which accounts for the energy shift of the d-d transition due to the different distortions experienced by the d orbitals when the metal ion is coordinated with axial solvent molecules (Hathaway & Billing, 1970; Lever, 1984; Moura *et al.*, 2023).

5.4.2.5 Electrochemical Behavior - Cyclic Voltammetry

The electrochemical behavior of **3A** was evaluated by cyclic voltammetry using a three-electrode system, under conditions analogous to those used for its ligand. The complexes obtained from chloride and nitrate salts were dissolved in a DMF solution with TBAPF₆ as the supporting electrolyte, under N₂ atmosphere, without prior control of the analyte concentrations. From the voltammograms of the complexes (Figure 98), electrochemical parameters were obtained (Table 28).

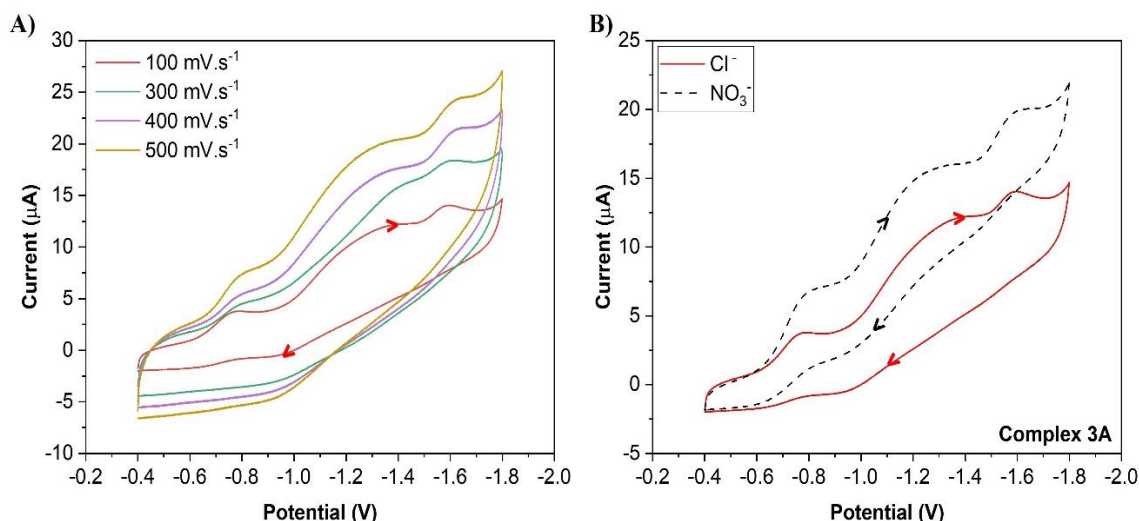


Figure 97. (A) Representative cyclic voltammograms of **3A**, at different scan rates, measured in DMF/0.1 mol L⁻¹ TBAPF6 (25 °C), using a GCE as the working electrode. (B) Comparison of cyclic voltammograms for complex **3A** samples obtained from different starting salts, with a scan rate of 100 mV s⁻¹ and under the same experimental conditions.

Figure 97A shows cyclic voltammograms of complex **3A**, indicating no evidence of anodic (oxidation) processes, which along with potential dependence on scan rate can confirm the irreversible nature of redox processes (Compton & Banks, 2007; Jayamani *et al.*, 2014; Jayamani *et al.*, 2015; Laviron *et al.*, 1980). Two well-resolved cathodic peaks and a broad cathodic wave, which lowers the reliability regarding the number of electrons involved, can be observed. The peak at -0.76 V vs. Ag/AgCl corresponds to the $\text{Cu}^{2+}/\text{Cu}^+$ redox couple, consistent with the potential range of other synthesized complexes involving this redox pair. The cathodic peak around -1.38 V vs. Ag/AgCl is less defined, probably indicating the involvement of multiple species in equilibrium. The peak at -0.76 V vs. Ag/AgCl likely relates to a species coordinated with water molecules, given its potential aligns with other complexes possibly coordinated similarly. Conversely, the broad cathodic peak at around -1.38 V vs. Ag/AgCl may involve species of the complex coordinated with DMF solvent molecules, which suggests a different coordination environment from water-coordinated species. The ligand **H₂L3** is electroactive, showing a cathodic peak at the potential of -1.71 V vs. Ag/AgCl. For this reason, the peak detected at -1.60 V vs. Ag/AgCl was assigned to the coordinated ligand's reduction process. The shift of the cathodic potential towards less negative values suggests that the positive charge of the metal ion facilitates the reduction of the azomethine group. Other reduced species such as copper(I) and phenoxyl radicals

are not expected in this potential range (Manzur *et al.*, 2009).

Figure 97B compares the cyclic voltammograms of complex **3A** obtained from different copper(II) salts. Observed current intensities differ due to variations in solution concentrations, influencing the observed current values. However, the electrochemical behavior of the compounds is remarkably similar, with almost the same cathodic potential values. This reaffirms the concept that complex **3A** can be obtained *via* different synthetic routes starting from different precursor salts.

Table 28. Estimated electrochemical parameters for the studied complexes.

Complex	3A		
E_{pc1} (V vs Ag/AgCl)	−0.76	E_{pc3} (V vs Ag/AgCl)	−1.60
$E_{pc1\frac{1}{2}}$ (V vs Ag/AgCl)	−0.59	$E_{pc3\frac{1}{2}}$ (V vs Ag/AgCl)	−1.28
α_{c1}	0.24	α_{c3}	0.20
n_{c1}	1.16	n_{c3}	0.75

The relationship between the square root of scan rate and peak current provides information about the type of transport process in cyclic voltammetry (Abbar & Nandibewoor, 2012). Analyzing this relationship for the studied ligands reveals a linear correlation, indicating a diffusion-controlled behavior (Abbar & Nandibewoor, 2012; Gosser, 1993), a hypothesis further supported by the linear relationship between the logarithms of the potential and of scan rate, with slope less than or nearly equal to 0.5 (Compton & Banks, 2007; Laviron *et al.*, 1980). Both processes seem to involve only one electron each.

5.4.2.6 Complexation Studies

The complexation study for the **H₂L3**-derived series of complexes was conducted in order to closely replicate the synthetic conditions. Therefore, the analyses were carried out in methanol. Solutions of the ligand were prepared at a concentration of 4×10^{-5} mol L^{−1}, while both solutions containing the starting salts [copper(II) chloride dihydrate and copper(II) nitrate trihydrate] at 3×10^{-4} mol L^{−1}.

Upon adding equivalents of the starting salt to the ligand solution, changes were monitored using UV-Vis electronic spectroscopy. The band around 405 nm, associated with the LMCT transition from the phenolate ion to the cupric center, was tracked as an indicator of complexation. Successive additions of the starting salts led to an increase in the absorbance of this band. In addition, some isosbestic

points were observed, suggesting the presence of only two absorbing species in the solution equilibrium, i.e., free and coordinated ligand.

Figure 98A illustrates the spectral profile observed during the titration of **H₂L3** with copper(II) chloride solution. The study was performed in triplicate, and the average absorbance values were plotted against the equivalents of Cu²⁺ added (Figure 98B). The curve shows a saturation trend near 1 equivalent of copper, suggesting that the stoichiometry of the complex formed in solution is 1:1, which is consistent with the structure proposed for the complex isolated in the synthesis.

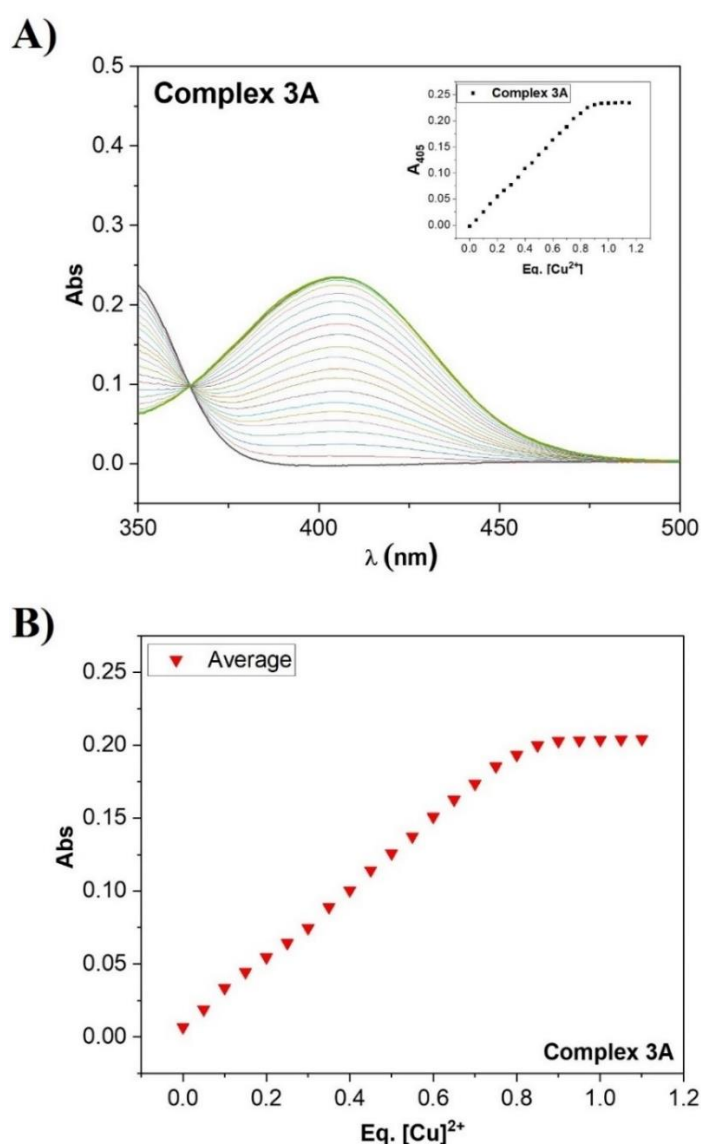


Figure 98. **A)** Study of complexation of **3A** and the relationship between absorbance and the number of Cu²⁺ equivalents. **B)** Result of the average of triplicates of the complexation study of **3A**.

Figure 99 presents a comparison of the electronic spectral profiles for the

H₂L3-derived complexes formed from different starting copper(II) salts (chloride and nitrate). A comparison of the electronic spectra for the copper(II) complexes obtained from different starting salts suggests that the species formed in solution are virtually the same. So we can conclude that the complex **3A** obtained from copper(II) chloride is identical to that obtained from copper(II) nitrate, in solution and in the solid state, as also observed in the infrared spectrum analysis. It is possible that the bulky phenylisoxazole substituent present in **H₂L3** may limit the structural variability of the complexes derived from this ligand.

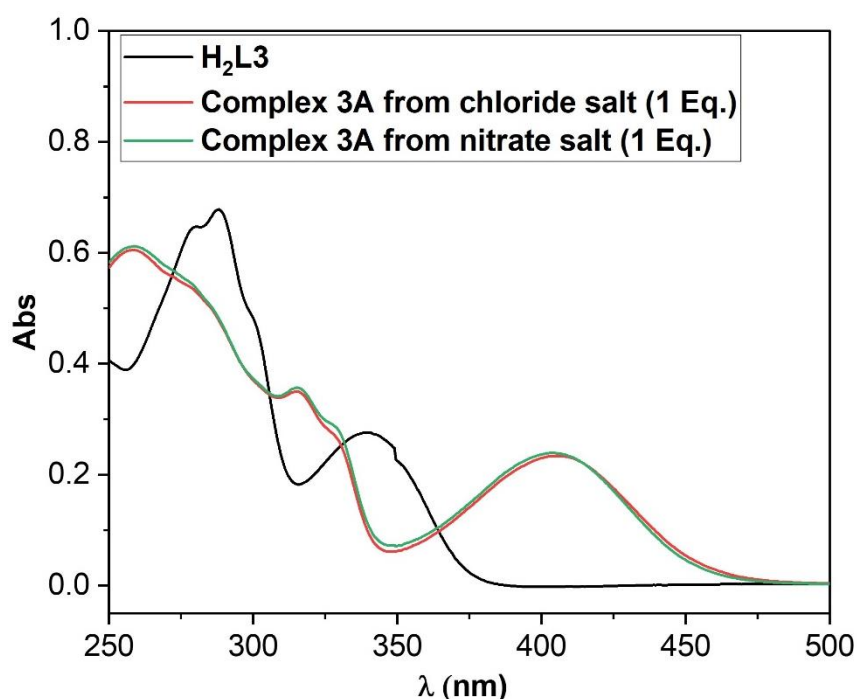


Figure 99. Comparison of the electronic spectra, in MeOH, of the free ligand **H₂L3** (4×10^{-5} mol L⁻¹) and the copper(II) complex formed by the addition of 1 eq the respective chloride and nitrate salts.

Figure 100, on the other hand, enables an indirect analysis of the species (free ligand and complex) concentration changes along titration by simultaneously monitoring the absorbance of a ligand (at 339 nm) and a complex (405 nm) band. Once again, absorbance stabilizes at around 1 equivalent of copper, suggesting an equilibrium condition between the free ligand and **3A**.

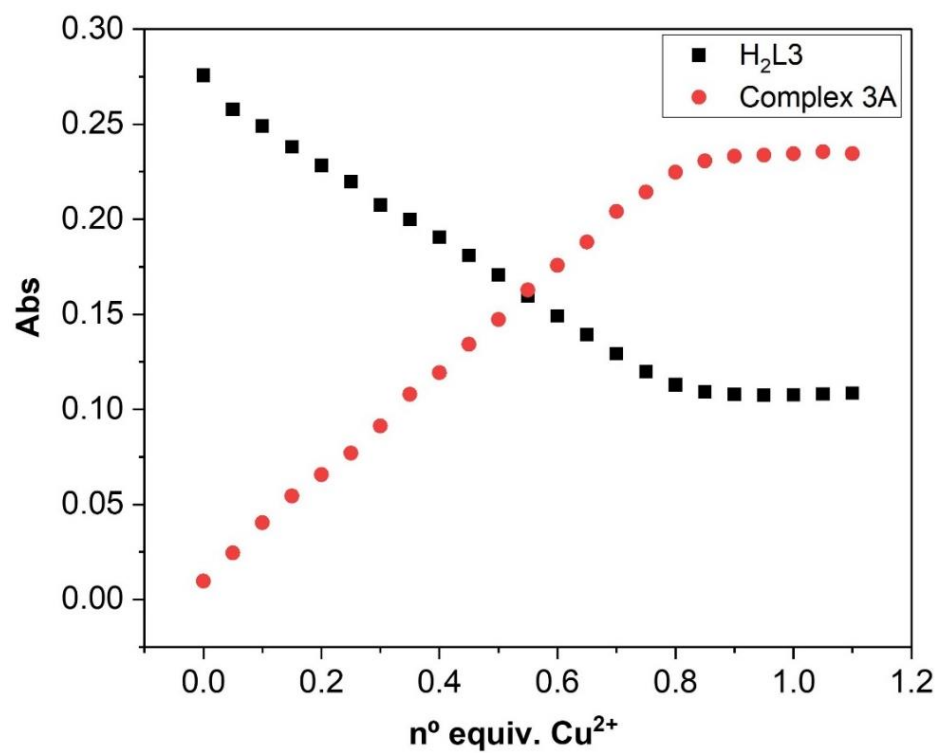


Figure 100. Qualitative graph that illustrates the variation of ligand species and their respective 3A based on the absorption and number of equivalents of the salts used.

5.5 H₂L4 Series

5.5.1 Synthesis of the Compounds belonging to the H₂L4 Series

The ligand **H₂L4** was synthesized via a condensation reaction between 5-methylsalicylaldehyde and 1-methyl-imidazole-2-carbohydrazide, the latter being prepared from the respective ester by our collaborators Hécio Marcondes and Prof. Claudio Donnici (UFMG), with a good yield. The complexes were obtained as powders under the same conditions and with appreciable yields. Figure 101 illustrates the whole synthesis scheme within this series.

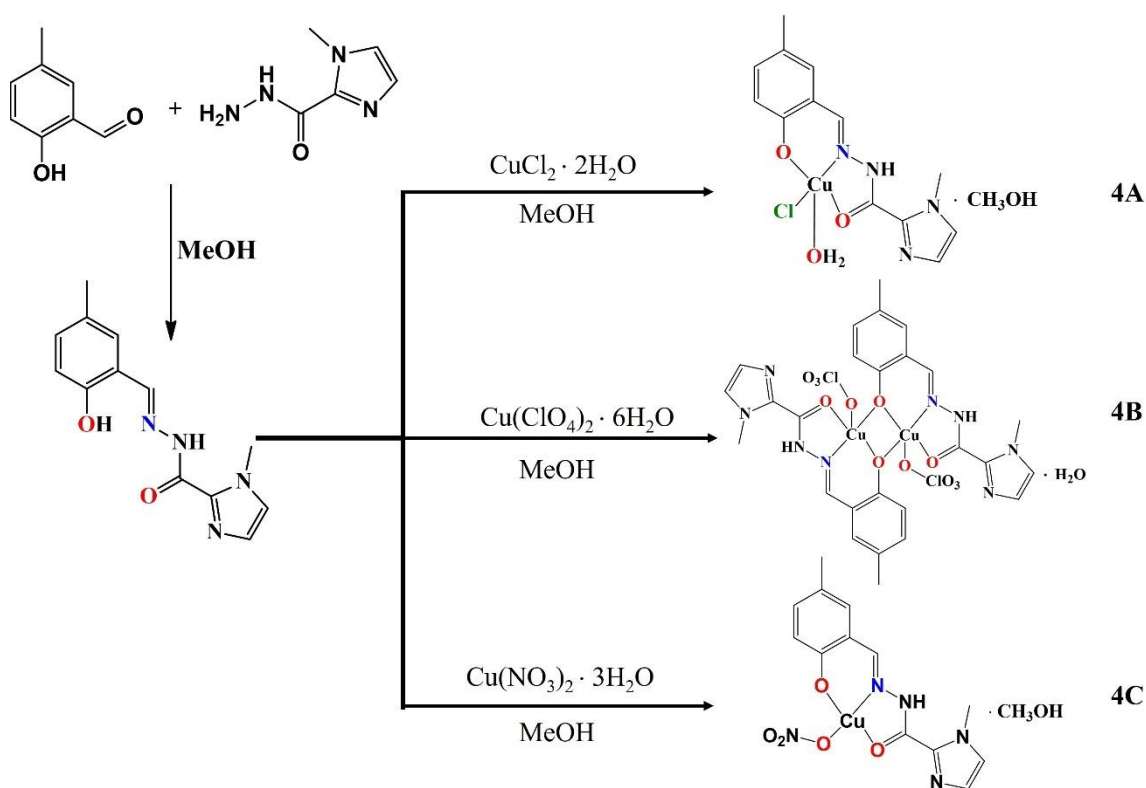


Figure 101. General scheme of the synthesis of the **H₂L4** and complexes **4A**, **4B** and **4C**.

The thermogravimetric analysis of complex **4A** (Figure 102) reveals two thermal events between 30-250 °C. The first event, starting at around 40 °C with a mass loss of 6.42%, is indicative of the removal of a component that is not part of the coordination sphere, such as moisture or a residual solvent from the synthesis; in this case, methanol. The second mass loss, starting at around 200 °C, is likely related to the removal of a coordinated water molecule and hydration methanol, with a loss of 10.55% (calculated: 10.1%). Finally, the residual mass is 16.2%,

and given that the analysis was conducted in an argon atmosphere, it is probable that this residue is in the form of metallic copper. This is in agreement with the 16.6% found by ICP-OES. Since the copper percentage for the suggested structure is calculated to be 15.6%, this supports the consistency of the proposed structure with the results obtained from both the thermogravimetric and copper elemental analyses. Complex **4B**, which contains a coordinated perchlorate ion, could not be analyzed by thermogravimetry due to its potential explosive nature.

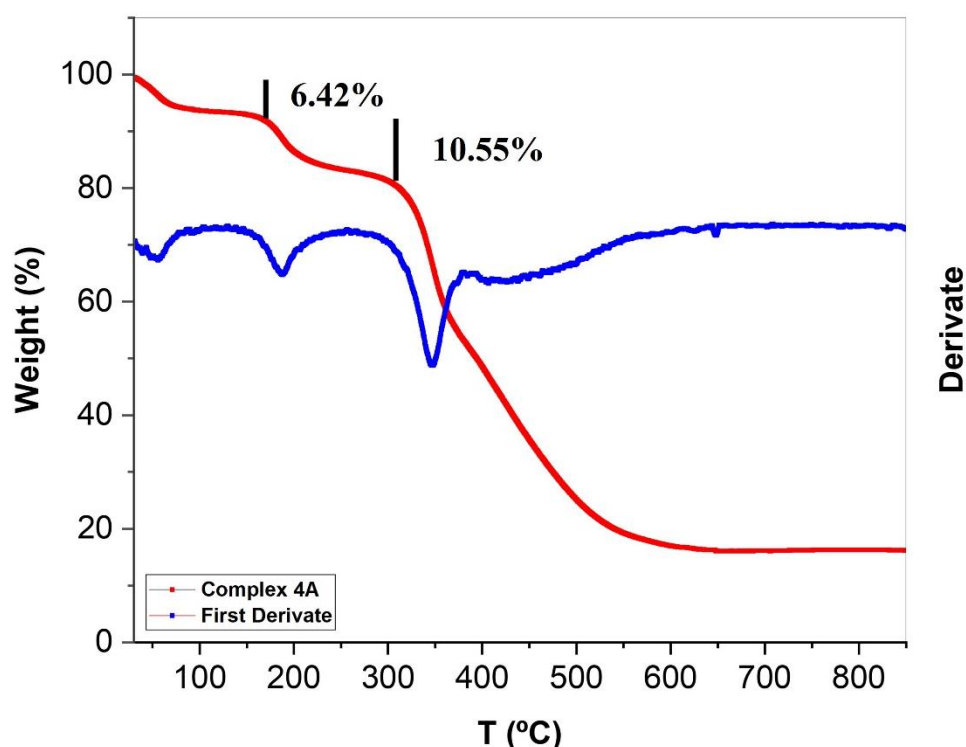


Figure 102. Thermogravimetric curve for complex **4A**.

The thermogravimetric curve for complex **4C** (Figure 103) displays three thermal events between 30-400 °C. The first event, starting at around 30 °C, shows a mass loss of 7.40%, which is likely related to the loss of moisture and residual solvent molecules (methanol), as observed for compound **4A**. Another mass loss of 8.35% occurs at around 170 °C, possibly associated with the loss of a molecule of O₂ from the thermal decomposition of the nitrate ion (calculated: 7.70%) (Fei *et al.*, 2019). A thermal event at 310 °C shows a mass loss of 28.8%, suggesting that this loss is related to the inorganic residual fraction of the nitrate ion in the form of NO_x and the organic fraction relative to the ligand.

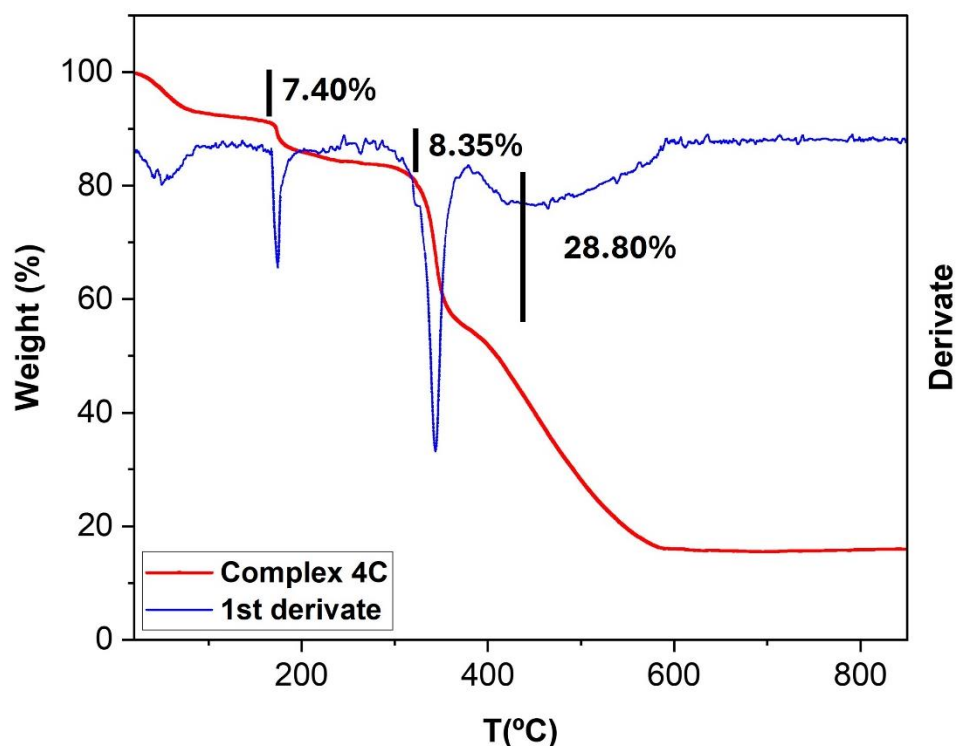


Figure 103. Thermogravimetric curve for complex **4C**.

5.5.2 Characterization of ligand H₂L4 and their complexes

5.5.2.1 Elemental Analysis (CHN) and Copper content (ICP-OES)

Elemental analysis tests were conducted on the samples following purification by recrystallization in methanol. The obtained results are listed in Table 29.

Table 29. Calculated and experimental elemental analyses of the complexes **4A**, **4B** and **4C**.

<u>Complexes</u>	<u>%C</u>		<u>%H</u>		<u>%N</u>		<u>%Cu</u>	
	<u>calculated</u>	<u>found</u>	<u>calculated</u>	<u>found</u>	<u>calculated</u>	<u>found</u>	<u>calculated</u>	<u>found</u>
4A	41.4	---	4.7	---	13.8	---	15.6	16.4
4B	36.4	36.6	3.3	3.1	13.0	12.6	14.8	14.7
4C	40.5	40.6	4.1	3.5	16.9	16.7	15.3	15.8

5.5.2.2 Molar conductivity studies

Table 30 lists the molar conductivity values obtained for complexes **4A**, **4B**, and **4C**, along with the different possible types of electrolytes using DMF as solvent, correlated with data provided by Geary (1971).

Table 30. Relationship between the molar conductivity data obtained with the electrolyte system.

Complexes	4A	4B	4C
Molar conductance ($\Omega^{-1}\text{cm}^2\text{mol}^{-1}$)	65.26	144.8	55.22
Electrolyte	1:1	1:2	1:1

Complex **4A** exhibits molar conductivity within the range typical for 1:1 electrolytes in DMF solution, which is consistent with the proposed structure. The departure of the chloride ion facilitates the entry of a solvent molecule into the coordination sphere, similar to what was proposed for complex **2A**. In **4A**, it is believed that the equilibrium favors the departure of the chloride ion more than in complex **2A**, as the former demonstrates a higher molar conductivity.

Complex **4B** shows the highest molar conductivity among the **H₂L4** series. This value falls within the range for 1:2 electrolytes in DMF solution, which is in line with the proposed structure (Geary, 1971). It is suggested that the perchlorate ions in complex **4B** are axially coordinated. The axial coordination is weaker due to the tetragonal distortion common to Cu^{2+} complexes, indicating that removal of coordinated perchlorate ions in solution is a facilitated process:



Complex **4C**, instead, exhibits a much lower molar conductivity compared to complex **4B**. However, considering the proposed structures for complexes **4A** and **4C**, similarities in their coordination spheres can be observed, which justifies their comparable molar conductivities. Consequently, complex **4C** falls within the typical range for 1:1 electrolytes. As with complexes **2A** and **4A**, there exists an equilibrium between the dissociated and non-dissociated forms, which accounts for the molar conductivity value obtained.

5.5.2.3 Infrared Vibrational Spectroscopy

Analyzing the infrared vibrational spectra obtained for the compounds, a behavior analogous to that observed in other series can be noted. However, certain shifts and disappearances of bands, as well as the emergence of new absorptions in the spectra of complexes, suggest the occurrence of coordination (as can be seen in Figures 104-106 and in the data summarized in Table 31).

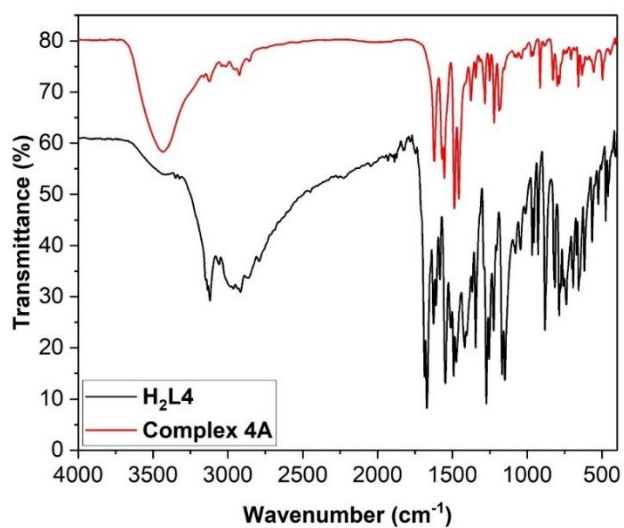


Figure 104. Overlapping of the mid-infrared spectra of **H₂L4** and **4A** in KBr, at room temperature.

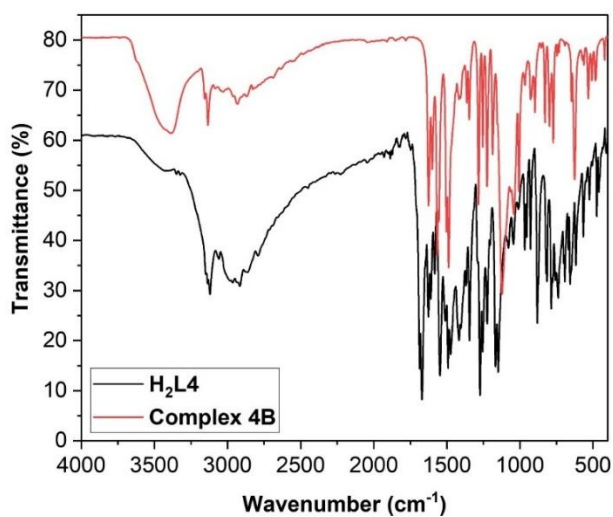


Figure 105. Overlapping of the mid-infrared spectra of **H₂L4** and **4B** in KBr, at room temperature.

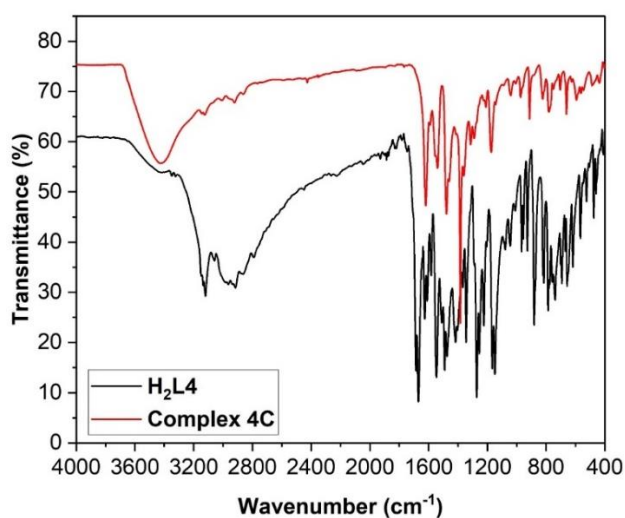


Figure 106. Overlapping of the mid-infrared spectra of **H₂L4** and **4C** in KBr, at room temperature.

Table 31. Selected vibrational absorptions (cm⁻¹) for **H₂L4** and their complexes.

Assignment	H ₂ L4	Complex 4A	Complex 4B	Complex 4C
$\nu\text{N-H}$	3119	3118	3128	3124
$\nu\text{O-H}_{\text{phenol}}$	3425	-----	-----	-----
$\nu\text{O-H}_{\text{water}}$	-----	3430	3390	3425
$\nu\text{C=O}$	1672	1570	1564	1555
$\nu\text{C=N}$	1626	1621	1621	1619
$\delta\text{C=N-H}$	1547	1485	1487	1477
$\delta\text{C-O-H}_{\text{phenol}}$	1491	-----	-----	-----
$\nu(\text{NO}_2)_{\text{ass}}$	-----	-----	-----	1381
$\nu\text{C=C}_{\text{arom}}$	1343	1553	1553	1540
$\nu\text{C-O}_{\text{phenol}}$	1271	1283	1279	1288
$\nu(\text{NO}_2)_{\text{sym}}$	-----	-----	-----	1317
$\delta\text{C=C-H}_{\text{phenol}}$	1222	1220	1220	1211
$\nu\text{N-N}$	1147	1170	1186	1173
$\nu(\text{ClO}_4)_{\text{ass}}$	-----	-----	1122	-----
$\nu(\text{ClO}_4)$	-----	-----	1041	-----
νNO	-----	-----	-----	1046
$\nu(\text{ClO}_4)_{\text{sym}}$	-----	-----	626	-----
$\nu\text{Cu-O}$	-----	554	533	543
$\nu\text{Cu-N}$	-----	621	563	595
$\delta\text{O-Cu-N}$	-----	494	483	487

Upon comparing the ligand-related bands with those of their respective complexes, it is observed that most of the bands shift to lower energy values. As previously discussed, this shift indicates coordination.

The studied complexes exhibit ionic species, such as chloride, perchlorate, and nitrate coordinated to the metal ion. Consequently, it is expected that the N-H group of the hydrazone in the ligand remains protonated in all the complexes, which is confirmed by the $\nu\text{N-H}$ bands observed in **4A**, **4B**, and **4C** at 3118, 3128, and 3124 cm⁻¹, respectively (Pavia *et al.*, 2015; Silverstein, 2000).

The $\nu(\text{C=N})$ stretching of the azomethine group is at 1626 cm⁻¹ for **H₂L4**. In complexes **4A**, **4B** and **4C**, this band appears somewhat shifted to 1621, 1621, and 1619 cm⁻¹, respectively, indicating coordination by this group. Indeed, our previous experience shows that this absorption is not so sensible to complexation

(Nakamoto, 1978; Pavia *et al.*, 2015; Silverstein, 2000).

The carbonyl absorption $\nu(\text{C}=\text{O})$ shifts from 1672 cm^{-1} in the ligand to 1570 cm^{-1} in complex **4A**, 1564 cm^{-1} in **4B**, and 1555 cm^{-1} in **4C**. This shift occurs because the $\text{C}=\text{O}$ bond becomes weakened upon coordination and vibrates at a lower frequency, in addition to the electronic delocalization favored in the hydrazone portion, which explains the band shift observed when comparing the ligand to the complexes. In addition to the ligand-based bands, some metal-ligand vibrations were also identified in the spectra of the complexes. These include the $\text{Cu}-\text{O}$ stretching absorptions at 554 (**4A**), 533 (**4B**), and 543 cm^{-1} (**4C**) (Nakamoto, 1978; Pavia *et al.*, 2015; Silverstein, 2000).

For complex **4B**, bands related to the vibrational modes of the perchlorate ion are observed, supporting the proposed structure for the complex. Similar to what was discussed for complex **1B**, the bands for $\nu(\text{ClO}_4)_{\text{ass}}$ at 1122 cm^{-1} , νClO_4 at 1041 cm^{-1} , and $\nu(\text{ClO}_4)_{\text{sym}}$ at 626 cm^{-1} are consistent with the monodentate coordination mode of perchlorate to the metal ion (Nakamoto, 1978; Rey, 2019).

For complex **4C**, on the other hand, absorptions for $\nu(\text{NO}_2)_{\text{ass}}$ at 1381 cm^{-1} , $\nu(\text{NO}_2)_{\text{sym}}$ at 1317 cm^{-1} , and νNO at 1046 cm^{-1} are observed and correspond to the monodentate coordination of the nitrate ion (Nakamoto, 1978).

In addition to the bands related to the stretching of the main functional groups, correlations can be made with some bands obtained for the binuclear complexes in the form of dimers from this study. Literature data allow for the elucidation of dinuclear complex structures containing the phenolate bridge group of the type $\text{O}-\text{Cu}-\text{O}$, suggesting two main vibrational modes in angular systems, one around 770 cm^{-1} and the other around 500 cm^{-1} (Hewkin & Griffith, 1966). In hydrazone-containing systems, the $\text{O}-\text{Cu}-\text{O}$ motif exhibits intense bands around 770 and 730 cm^{-1} (Mohan *et al.*, 1992). Since monocrystals could not be obtained for elucidating the suggested dimeric structure for complex **4B**, some correlations regarding spectroscopic properties become more relevant. Thus, a comparison of the infrared vibrational spectra of the dimeric complexes **2B** and **2C**, for which X-ray structures have been elucidated, with that of **4B** was performed (Figure 107).

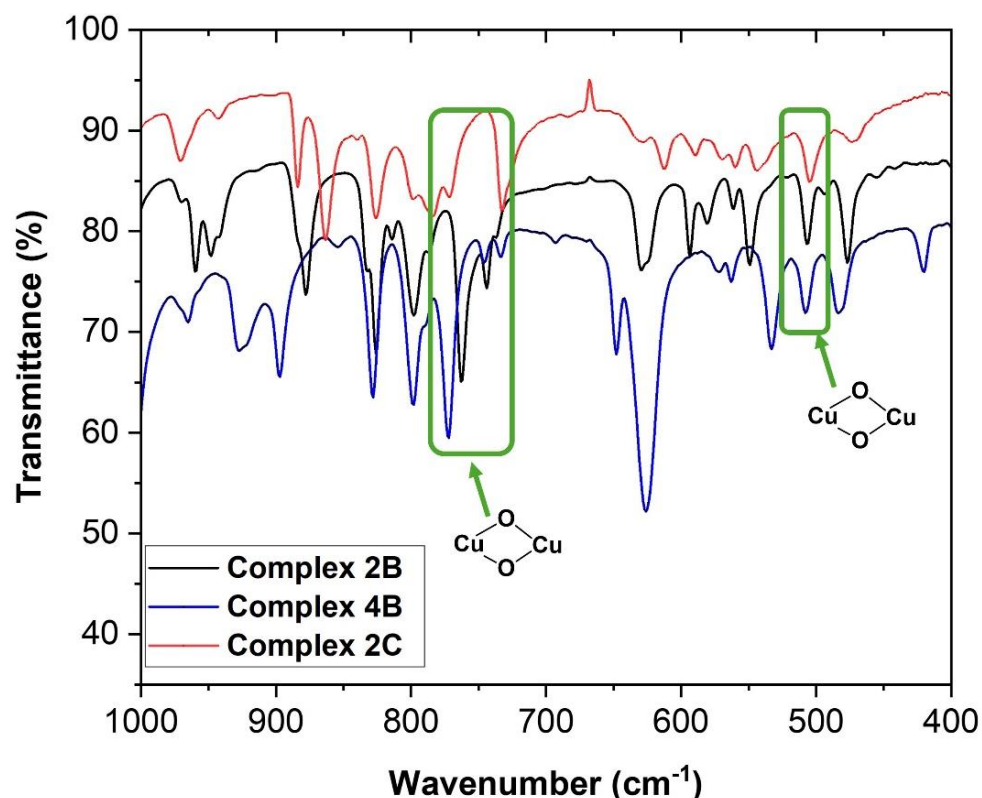


Figure 107. Comparative overlay of mid-infrared spectra of complexes **2B**, **2C** and **4B** in KBr, at room temperature. Some common features are highlighted.

Upon comparing the overlaid spectra, it is observed that the band in the region of 770 cm^{-1} appears in the dimeric species **2B** and **2C** at 761 and 732 cm^{-1} , respectively, as well as in complex **4B**, at 771 cm^{-1} . The fact that **4B** exhibits the O–Cu–O stretching band at a higher wavenumber may indicate a larger opening angle in the phenolate-copper(II) cycle. Additionally, another stretch related to the O–Cu–O group is observed consistently around 500 cm^{-1} : at 506 cm^{-1} for complex **2B**, 505 cm^{-1} for **2C**, and 508 cm^{-1} for **4B**. These data provide further insight into the proposed structure (Hewkin & Griffith, 1966; Mohan *et al.*, 1992).

5.5.2.4 Electronic Spectroscopy in UV-Vis

The ligand **H₂L4** and the obtained complexes were analyzed by UV-Vis electronic spectroscopy under similar conditions to those used throughout this study. The spectrum of **H₂L4**, shown in Figure 108, exhibits five main absorption features in the range of 250 to 500 nm, comprising four distinct bands and a shoulder. A slight discontinuity is observed around 350 nm in the spectrum, which is attributed to the transition between light sources going from Vis to UV regions.

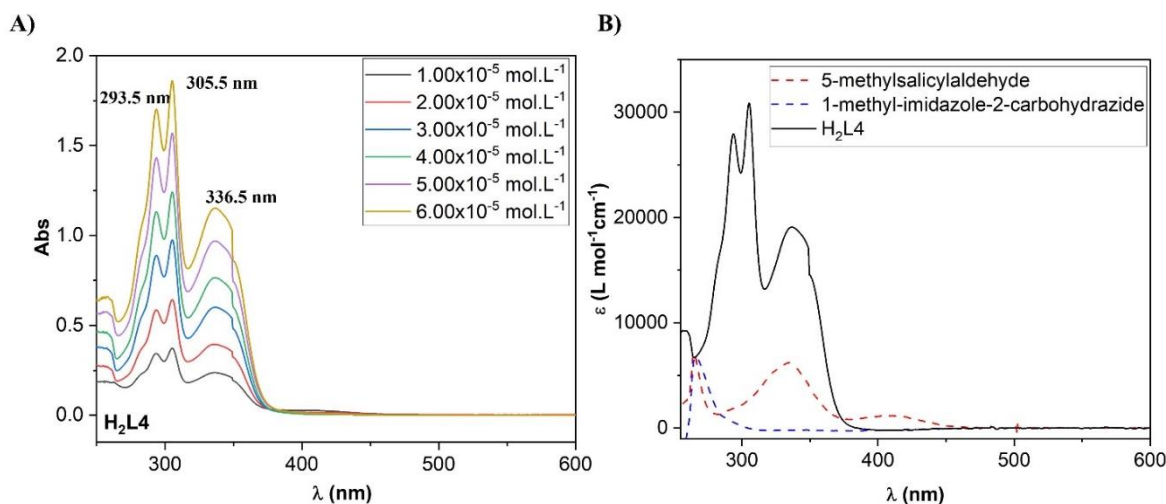


Figure 108. A) UV-Vis electronic spectrum of **H₂L4** at different concentrations in DMF solution. B) UV-Vis spectra of the ligand and its precursors ($5.0 \times 10^{-5} \text{ mol L}^{-1}$) in DMF solution.

When comparing the spectrum of the ligand with its precursors (Figure 108B), it is evident that two of the absorptions are present in the precursors, which are associated with transitions of the phenol and/or imidazole rings. The electronic behavior of the **H₂L4** ligand is similar to that of the other ligands discussed, as the intense bands observed at 293.5 nm ($27,958 \pm 444 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$) and 305.5 nm ($30,583 \pm 474 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$) are likely related to processes specifically involving the *N*-acylhydrazone moiety, since these bands are absent in the spectra of the precursors. The broad band observed at 336.5 nm ($18,883 \pm 328 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$), although also present in the spectrum of 5-methylsalicylaldehyde, exhibits higher molar absorptivity in the ligand, suggesting a significant contribution from the hydrazone bridge between the rings.

The UV-Vis electronic spectrum of the complex **4A** (Figure 109), exhibits six absorptions between 250 and 500 nm, of which four are well-defined bands and two are less well-defined. Comparing the ligand spectrum with that of **4A**, it is evident that four bands are present in **H₂L4** and, among them, three bands in the ligand's precursors. The absorptions at 270 nm ($18,521 \pm 257 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$) and 336.5 nm ($13,063 \pm 202 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$) are related with the conjugated π -bonding systems of the phenol and/or imidazole rings, as they are observed in the spectra of **4A**, **H₂L4**, and its precursors. Additionally, the band centered at 417.5 nm ($14,300 \pm 207 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$) in the spectrum of **4A** is associated to one present in the spectrum of the precursor 5-methylsalicylaldehyde, since it is related to the phenolate ion. Notably, this band increases in intensity in the complex because the

metal ion coordinates with the phenolate oxygen. This LMCT band, which is not observed in the spectrum of the free ligand, is a strong indicator of coordination.

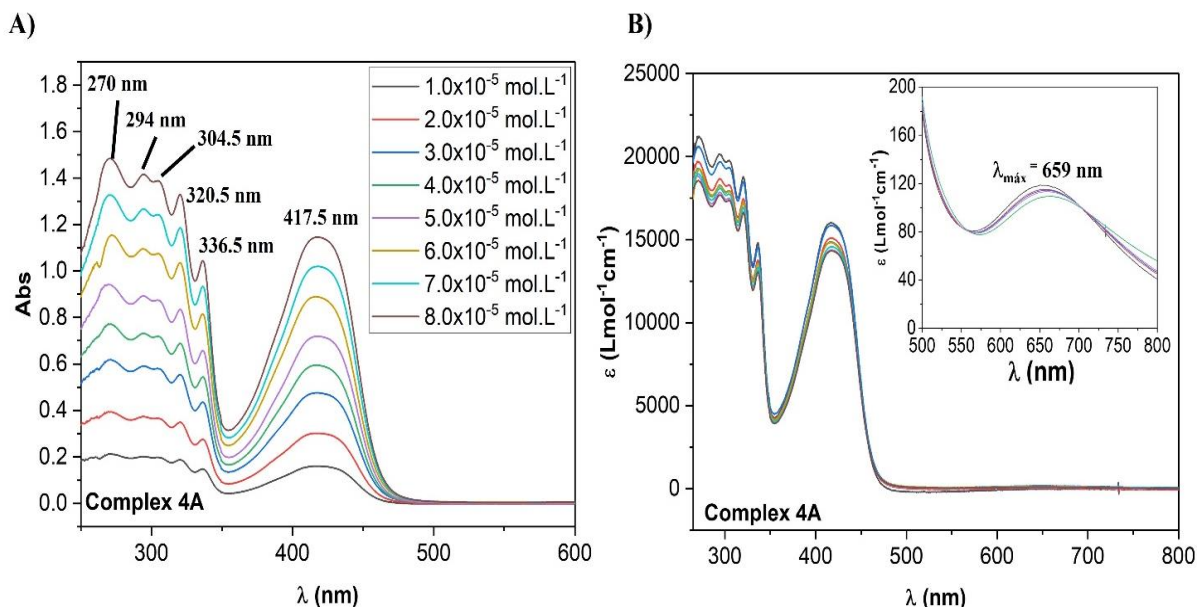


Figure 109. A) Electronic spectrum of complex **4A** in DMF solution, at different concentrations. B) Electronic spectra of complex **4A** in DMF solution as a function of molar absorptivity.

The bands at 294 nm ($17,675 \pm 258 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$) and 304.5 nm ($17,330 \pm 257 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$) are present only in the spectra of the ligand and the complex, suggesting that these bands are related to processes specific to the hydrazone system (Figure 110). In contrast, the band at 320.5 nm ($18,521 \pm 257 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$) appears solely in the spectrum of the complex, possibly indicating an interaction between the metal ion and the hydrazone portion, as this region is dominated by electronic transitions associated with *N*-acylhydrazone (Figure 110).

The literature reports that some copper(II) complexes with similar ligands can exhibit bands around 294–304.5 nm. These bands are associated with $n \rightarrow \pi^*$ and $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ transitions related to the azomethine and carbonyl groups, respectively (Cohen *et al.*, 1967; Firmino *et al.*, 2016; Gegiou *et al.*, 1996; Sorrell, 1989).

The bands listed in Table 32 are associated with the hydrazone portion common to both the ligand and the complex, with no significant shift observed in these bands. This suggests that the ligand in the complex is in its amide form rather than iminol, consistent with the proposed structure for the complex (Chew *et al.*, 2014). If the ligand were in the iminol form in complex **4A**, a shift in the

bands related to the hydrazone portion would be expected, as the energy of the transitions would differ considerably (Chew *et al.*, 2014). Given that the ligand is present in the amide form in **4A**, a counterion is necessary.

The low molar absorptivity band at 659 nm ($110.20 \pm 2.73 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$) is attributed to the *d-d* transition (Figure 109B), being consistent with other copper(II) complexes derived from *N*-acylhydrazone ligands (Rada *et al.*, 2019; Rada *et al.*, 2021; Rada *et al.*, 2020). As discussed in this work, a broad band in the 600-700 nm region may indicate that the Cu^{2+} ion exhibits stereochemistry similar to that found in complexes of the **H₂L2** series. The obtained value for the *d-d* transition aligns with those observed for copper(II) complexes with similar structures (Chew *et al.*, 2014; Kala *et al.*, 2007; Lever, 1984).

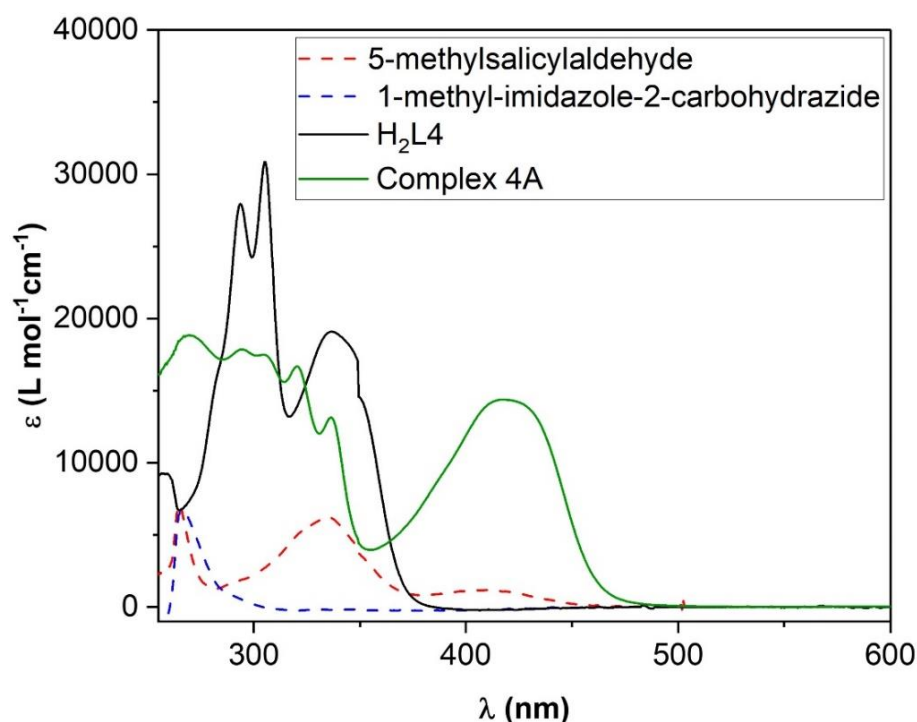


Figure 110. Electronic spectra of **4A**, **H₂L4** and its precursors in DMF solution ($5 \times 10^{-5} \text{ mol L}^{-1}$).

The electronic spectrum of complex **4B** (Figure 111) displays six absorption bands in the 250-500 nm range, similar to those observed for complex **4A**. The absorption bands at 268 nm ($36,210 \pm 1186 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$) and 336.5 nm ($24,094 \pm 843 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$) are associated with conjugated systems in the phenolic and imidazole aromatic rings. On the other hand, the bands at 293.5 nm ($31,913 \pm 1064 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$) and 305 nm ($31,447 \pm 1065 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$) are observed only in the spectrum of the ligand and its complexes, suggesting they are

related to the hydrazone portion.

The bands listed in Table 32 are associated with the hydrazone portion common to both the ligand and the complex (Figure 111). As previously mentioned, no significant shift in these bands is observed, indicating that the ligand in the complex is in its amide form rather than iminol, consistent with the proposed structure for the complex (Chew *et al.*, 2014).

The band at 418 nm ($28,471 \pm 976 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$) is present in the electronic spectrum of the precursor 5-methylsalicylaldehyde (Figure 112); however, this band is more intense in the complex, suggesting that it can be attributed to a charge transfer from the phenolate ion to the metal. The band around 400 nm is observed in all the complexes evaluated in this study, serving as a key transition to suggest the coordination of the metal to the *N*-acylhydrazone ligand. The band at 320.5 nm ($31,428 \pm 1075 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$) is only observed in the complexes, indicating it may be related to a charge transfer from the hydrazone portion to the metal ion.

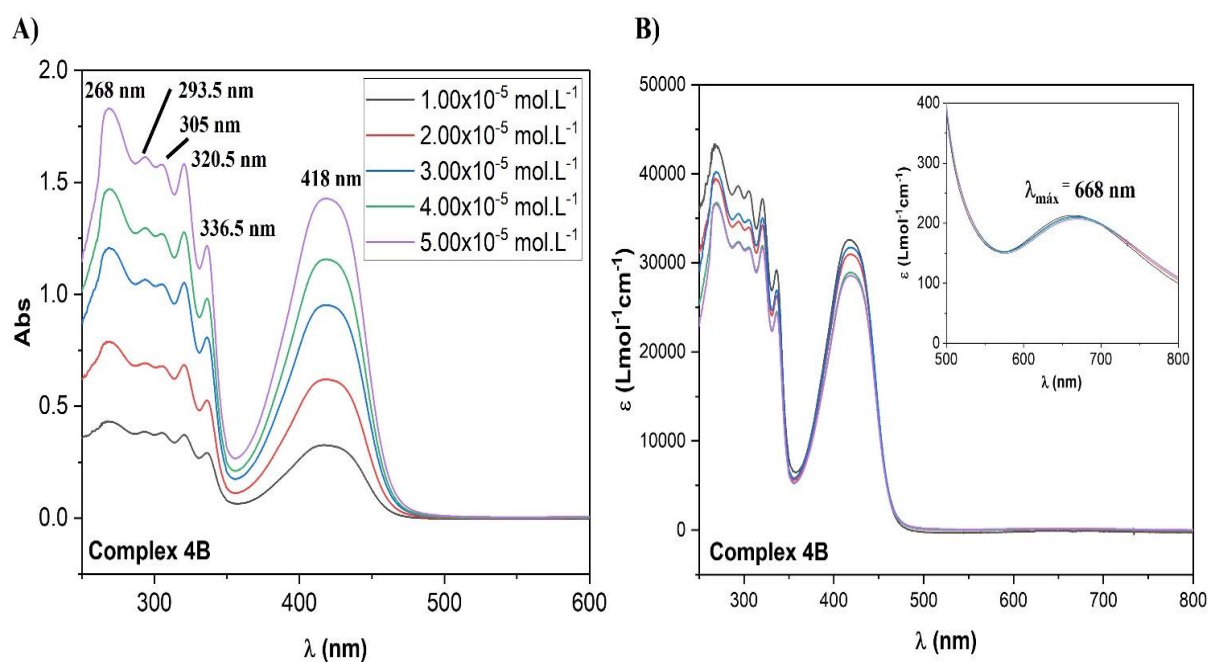


Figure 111. A) Electronic spectrum of **4B** in DMF solution, at different concentrations. B) Electronic spectra of complex **4B** in DMF solution as a function of molar absorptivity.

The low molar absorptivity band at 668 nm ($207.3 \pm 1.35 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$) is associated with the *d-d* transition (Figure 111B), consistent with copper(II) complexes derived from *N*-acylhydrazone ligands. Analogous to what was discussed for complex **4A**, the presence of a broad band in the 600-700 nm region

may suggest that the Cu^{2+} ion exhibits a similar stereochemistry to the complexes in the **H₂L2** series (Moura *et al.*, 2023). Although the obtained value for the *d-d* transition aligns with pentacoordinated copper(II) complexes in solution, the differing *d-d* transition value might indicate a distinct coordination sphere for complexes **4A** and **4B** (Chew *et al.*, 2014; Kala *et al.*, 2007; Lever, 1984). This discrepancy may arise from the lability of the counter-ion position; since complex **4B** contains the perchlorate ion as a counter-ion, possibly in the axial position, its departure from the coordination sphere is more facile compared to the chloride ion. This allows a greater fraction of species in complex **4B** to have the axial coordination site available for substitution by water or solvent molecules.

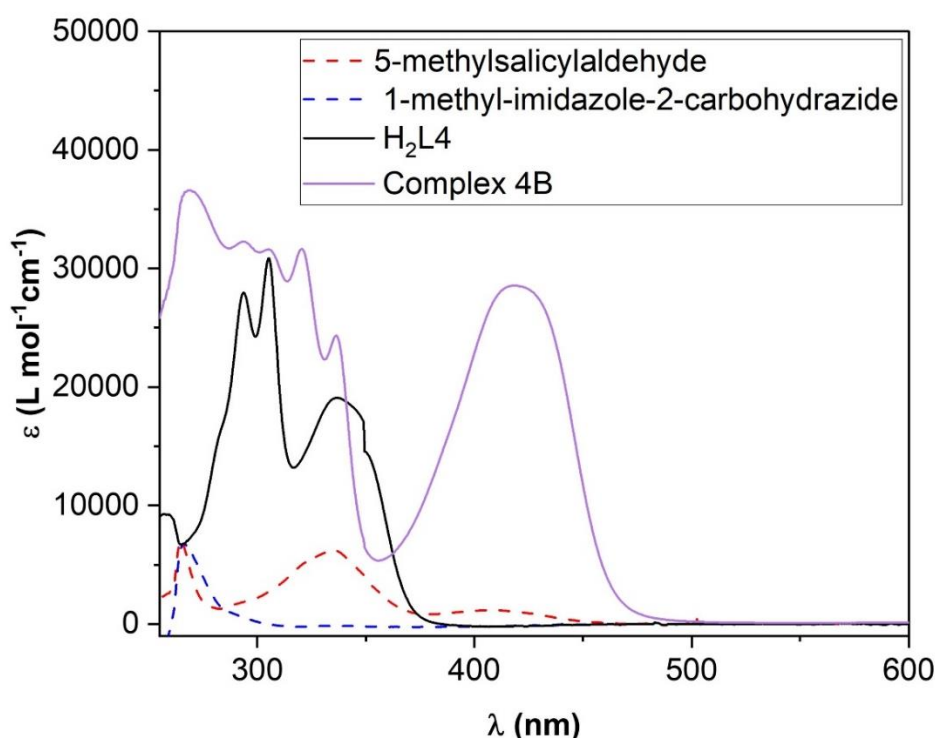


Figure 112. Electronic spectra of **4B**, **H₂L4** and its precursors in DMF solution (5×10^{-5} mol L⁻¹).

The electronic spectrum of complex **4C** is similar to that of the other complexes in the **H₂L4** series, displaying six absorption bands in the 200-500 nm range (Figure 113). The bands at 268 nm ($18,149 \pm 400$ L mol⁻¹ cm⁻¹) and 336.5 nm ($12,345 \pm 294$ L mol⁻¹ cm⁻¹) are associated with the conjugated bonds in the phenolic and imidazolic aromatic rings (Moura *et al.*, 2023).

Table 32 compares the bands uniquely associated with the hydrazonic moiety observed in the ligand and its complexes at 293.5 nm ($16,190 \pm 354$ L mol⁻¹ cm⁻¹) and 305.5 nm ($15,931 \pm 356$ L mol⁻¹ cm⁻¹). No significant shift in these bands is observed when compared with those of the ligand, suggesting that

the ligand in the complex is in its amide form rather than the iminol form, consistent with the proposed structure for the complex (Chew *et al.*, 2014).

The bands at 417 nm ($14,390 \pm 361 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$) and 320.5 nm ($16,038 \pm 364 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$) are related to charge transfer transitions, as they are observed exclusively in the electronic spectra of the **H₂L4** series complexes. The 417 nm band is attributed to charge transfer from the phenolate ion to the metal ion (MLCT), while the 320.5 nm band is possibly associated with the hydrazonic moiety (Figure 114A) (Rada *et al.*, 2019; Rada *et al.*, 2021; Rada *et al.*, 2020).

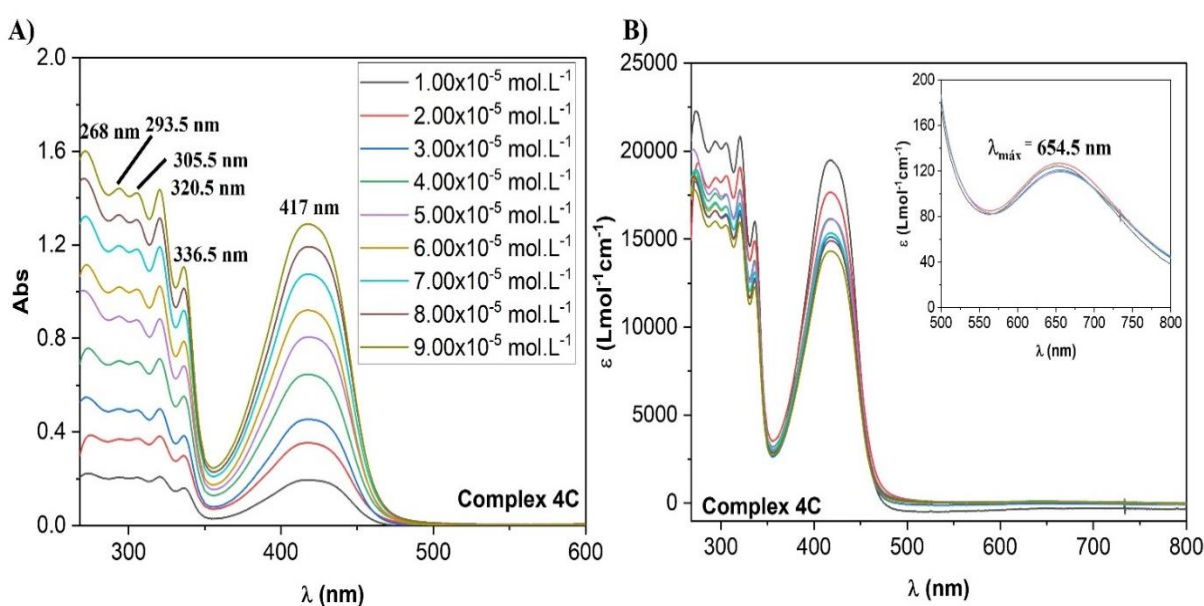


Figure 113. A) Electronic spectrum of **4C** in solution with DMF, at different concentrations. B) Electronic spectra of **4C** in solution with DMF as a function of molar absorptivity in the range of 250-800 nm.

The band at 654.5 nm ($117.2 \pm 1.72 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$) is associated to *d-d* transitions (Figure 113B), consistent with copper(II) complexes of *N*-acylhydrazones. Analogous to the discussion for the other complexes, the presence of a broad band in the 600-700 nm region may indicate that the Cu^{2+} ion exhibits stereochemistry similar to that in the **H₂L2** series complexes (Moura *et al.*, 2023).

As observed in Figure 114B, the value obtained for the *d-d* transition in complex **4C** differs from that observed for complex **4B** but is quite similar to that observed for complex **4A**. This suggests that the species in solution for complex **4C** are more similar to those in complex **4A**, which is consistent with the molar

conductivity data indicating proximity between these two complexes. This implies that complexes **4A** and **4C** may be in equilibrium between their dissociated and non-dissociated forms. The structure observed in **2A** shows that the chloride ligand occupies the molecular plane, resulting in more intense interactions that hinder its departure during dissociation and facilitate the equilibrium between dissociated and non-dissociated species. The proposed structures for complexes **4A** and **4C** are analogous to those observed in complex **2A**, thus allowing for a similar equilibrium. In contrast, this equilibrium is less favored in complex **4B**, where, according to the proposed structure, the perchlorate ions occupy axial positions. In this position, due to the Jahn-Teller effect, the ligands bind weaklier, facilitating dissociation and accounting for the differences in *d-d* transitions among these complexes.

Beyond the potential for dissociation to form different species in equilibrium, another relevant factor is that, based on the obtained data, it can be suggested that complex **4B** is in its dimeric form. As a binuclear complex in dimeric form, its electronic transitions involving d orbitals will be particularly distinct from those observed in the mononuclear complexes **4A** and **4C**, as previously noted in (Ainscough *et al.*, 1998; Moura *et al.*, 2023); Sangeetha *et al.* (1999). Table 32 lists the bands common to both the ligand and its complexes.

Table 32. Relationship between the different electronic transitions in **H₂L4** ligand and its complexes.

<u>Compounds</u>	n→π*	π→π*
<u>H₂L4</u>	293.5 nm	305.5 nm
<u>Complex 4A</u>	294 nm	304.5 nm
<u>Complex 4B</u>	293.5 nm	305 nm
<u>Complex 4C</u>	293.5 nm	305.5 nm

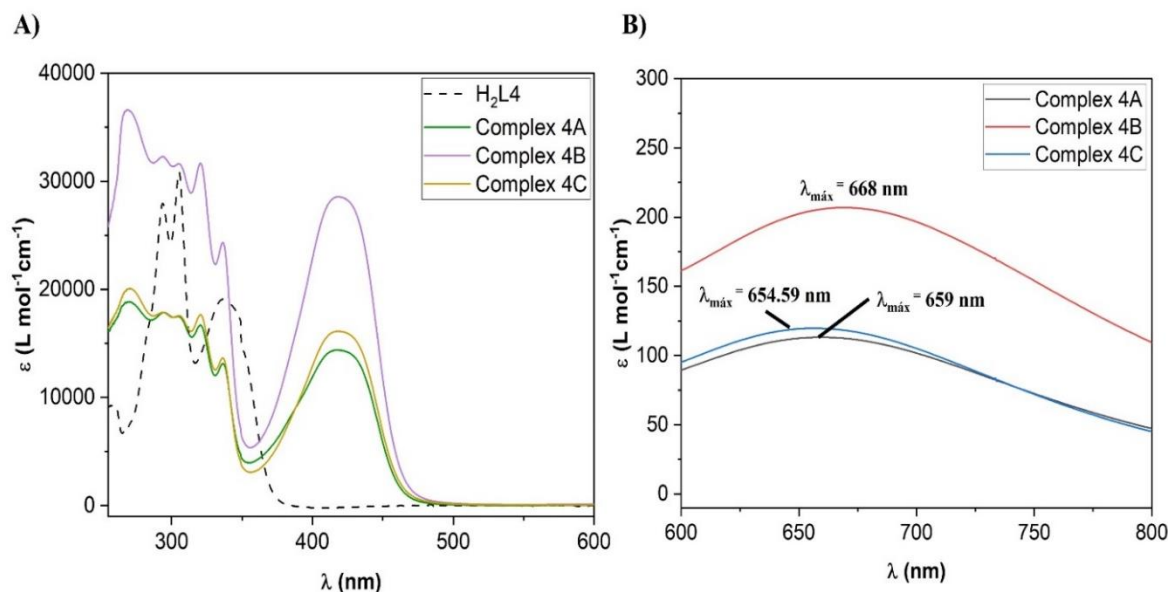


Figure 114. A) Electronic spectra of the **H₂L4** and its complexes in DMF solution $5 \times 10^{-5} \text{ mol L}^{-1}$ in the range 250-500 nm relating to molar absorptivity. **B)** Electronic spectra of complexes **4A**, **4B** and **4C** in DMF solution $5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ mol L}^{-1}$ in the range 600-800 nm relating to molar absorptivity.

5.5.2.5 Diffuse Reflectance

This technique enables the identification of bands that can be attributed to the presence of coordinated metals within molecules and, when compared with UV-Vis spectroscopy in solution, can provide insights into possible interactions with the solvent (Billing & Underhill, 1968). Furthermore, diffuse reflectance spectroscopy can reveal whether a complex will undergo significant structural changes in solution, given that the spectra obtained in UV-Vis solution versus solid state may differ.

The complexes **4A**, **4B**, and **4C** were analyzed using diffuse reflectance spectroscopy, diluted in a solid mixture of barium sulfate.

Figure 115 displays the electronic spectrum obtained via diffuse reflectance for complex **4A**, along with the main bands identified through band deconvolution. The spectrum was deconvoluted into four absorption bands. One of these bands, around 251 nm, corresponds to the shifted band observed in the precursors and ligand around 270 nm, associated with conjugated linkages in the aromatic ring. The broadened band at 324.5 nm is related to charge transfer from the hydrazone moiety to the metal ion, which appears at 320.5 nm in the UV-Vis spectrum in solution. The charge transfer band from the phenolate ion to the metal ion is observed at 425 nm, along with the *d-d* transition observed at 676 nm.

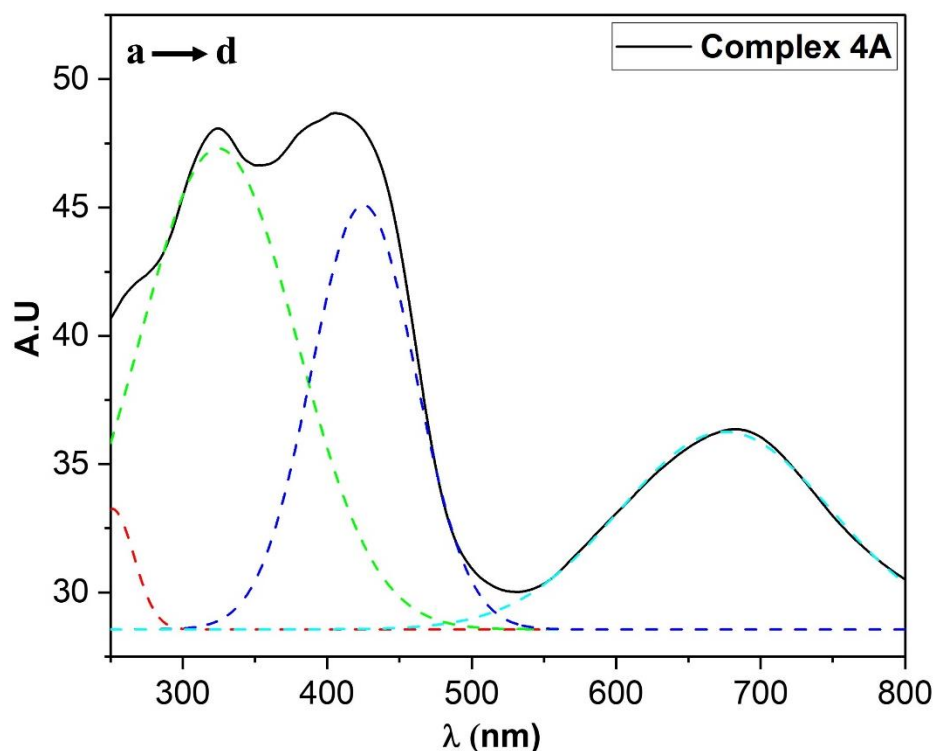


Figure 115. Electronic diffuse reflectance spectrum of **4A**, in black. Main components obtained by band fitting: a) 251 nm, b) 324.5 nm, c) 425 nm and d) 676 nm.

Figure 116 presents the electronic diffuse reflectance spectrum for **4B**, along with the main bands identified through band deconvolution. The spectrum was deconvoluted into five absorption bands, with two of them being very close to each other around 415 nm, associated with charge transfer from the phenolate ion to the Cu(II) metal center. An absorption band around 252.6 nm was observed, corresponding to the shifted band found in the precursors and the ligand around 270 nm, related to conjugated linkages in the aromatic ring. The band at 319 nm is associated with hydrazonic portion, appearing at 320.5 nm in the UV-Vis solution spectrum. The band related to the *d-d* transition can be observed at 672 nm.

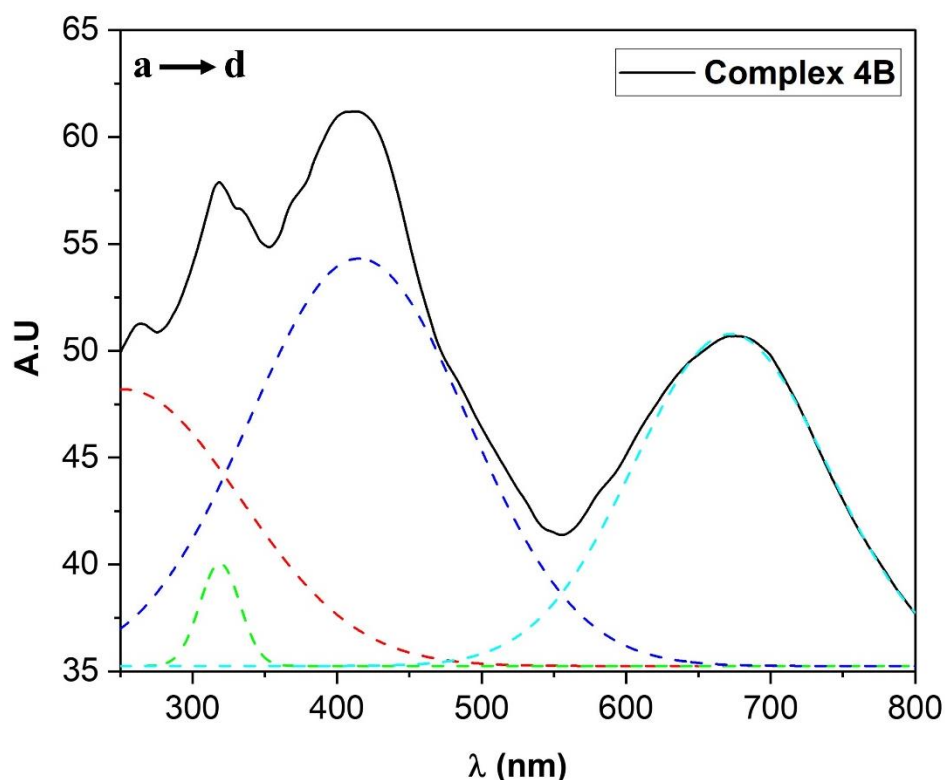


Figure 116. Electronic diffuse reflectance spectrum of **4B**, in black. Main components obtained by band fitting: a) 252.6 nm, b) 319 nm, c) 415 nm and d) 672 nm.

The electronic spectrum by diffuse reflectance for complex **4C** is shown in Figure 117, along with the main bands identified through band deconvolution. The spectrum was deconvoluted into five absorption bands, with one band around 259 nm attributed to a shifted band present in the precursors and the ligand around 270 nm, associated with conjugated linkages in the aromatic ring. The band at 320.7 nm is related to hydrazonic portion, which appears at 320.5 nm in the UV-Vis spectrum in solution. A low absorbance band at 368.7 nm was also obtained through deconvolution, potentially related to conjugated double bonds in the aromatic ring, which appears around 336 nm in the ligand and the complexes in solution. The charge transfer band from the phenolate ion to the metal center is observed at 413 nm, while the *d-d* transition band can be seen at 662 nm.

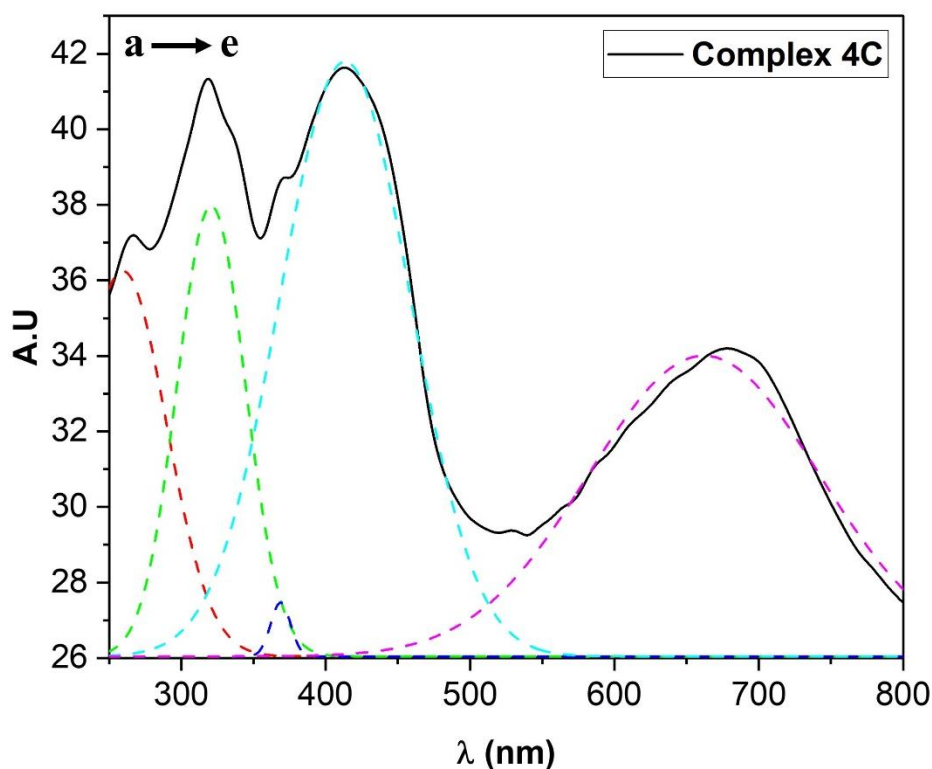


Figure 117. Electronic diffuse reflectance spectrum of **4C**, in black. Main components obtained by band fitting: a) 259 nm, b) 320.7 nm, c) 368.7 nm, d) 413 nm and e) 662 nm.

Table 33. Comparison of electronic spectra by diffuse reflectance with those obtained in solution for complexes of the **H₂L4** series.

Complexes	Transitions							
	precursors-related		<i>N</i> -acylhydrazone		Phenolate → Cu ²⁺		<i>d-d</i> transition	
	DRIFTS (nm)	UV-Vis (nm)	DRIFTS (nm)	UV-Vis (nm)	DRIFTS (nm)	UV-Vis (nm)	DRIFTS (nm)	UV-Vis (nm)
4A	251	270	324.5	320.5	425	417.5	676	659
4B	252.6	268	319	320.5	415	418	672	668
4C	259	268	320.7	320.5	413	417	662	654.5

The spectroscopic data presented in Table 33 correlate the λ_{max} values obtained from electronic spectra in solution and in the solid state via diffuse reflectance. Analysis of the obtained data reveals the absence of certain bands that are distinctly observed in the electronic spectra in solution, suggesting that some electronic transitions are facilitated when the species are in solution. Conversely, some common bands do not undergo significant shifts, particularly those related to charge transfer from the ligand to the metal ion. However, transitions associated with conjugated bonds exhibit hypsochromic shifts in the solid state.

Bands associated with *d-d* transitions exhibit bathochromic shifts in the solid state, indicating that these transitions have higher energy in solution, likely due to the increased degrees of freedom of the species in solution as well as solvent effects. Complex **4B** shows minimal variation in its *d-d* transition band, suggesting that this complex, although it may be dissociated, does not undergo significant structural changes in solution. In contrast, complexes **4A** and **4C** exhibit notable variations when comparing electronic spectra obtained by different techniques, suggesting that the coordination sphere of these complexes may undergo modifications in solution, impacting the λ_{max} values obtained (Calinescu *et al.*, 2008; Repich *et al.*, 2017). The λ_{max} values obtained by diffuse reflectance for the studied complexes are consistent with literature data for complexes with similar structures, suggesting that the proposed structure for these complexes is supported by the obtained results (Repich *et al.*, 2017).

5.5.2.6 Electrochemical behavior - Cyclic Voltammetry

The electrochemical behavior of the **H₂L4** system was assessed employing cyclic voltammetry in a three-electrode setup under nitrogen at room temperature; DMF containing 0.1 mol L⁻¹ of TBAPF₆ as the supporting electrolyte was used as solvent. The voltammograms of the complexes, obtained at different scan rates, are presented below (Figure 118).

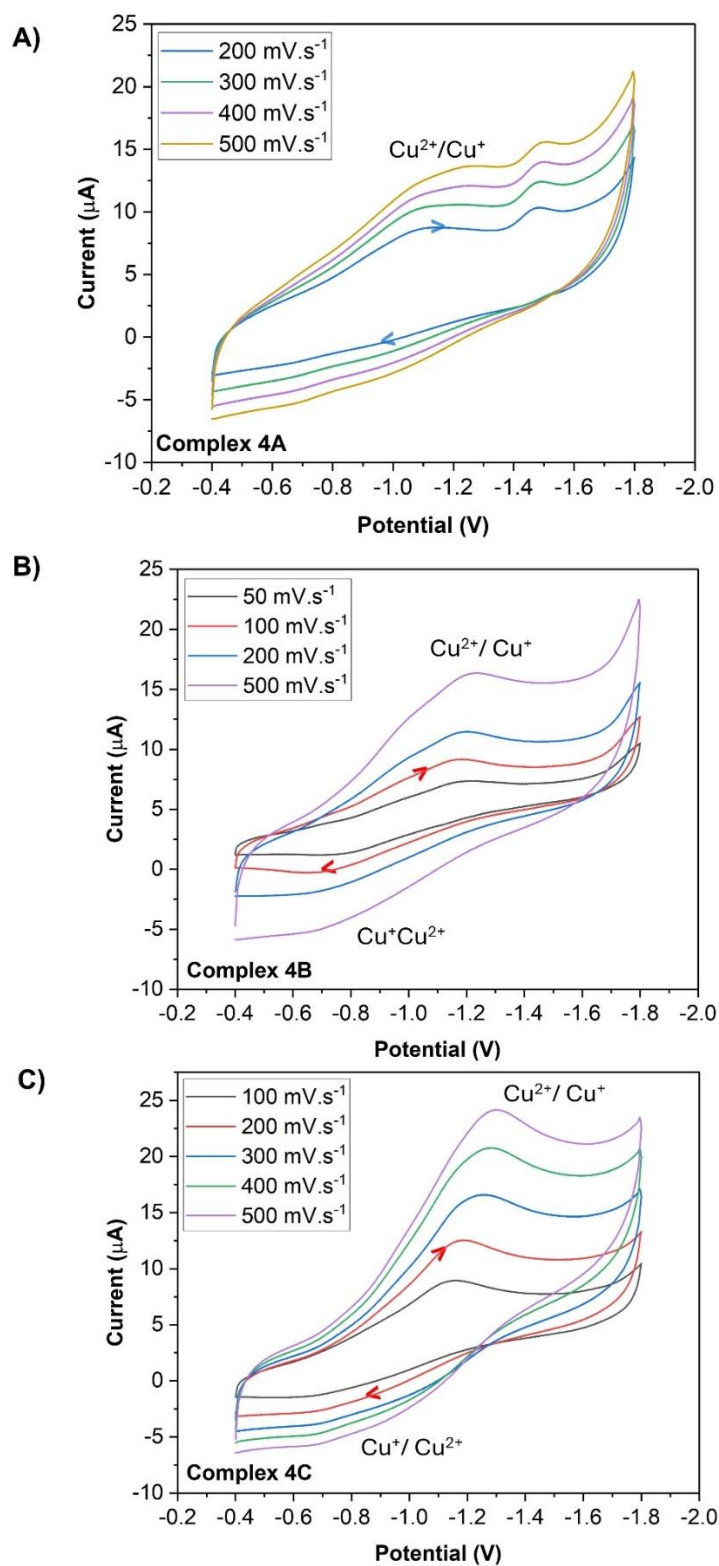


Figure 118. (A) Representative cyclic voltammograms of complex **4A**, at different scan rates, measured in DMF/0.1 mol L⁻¹ TBAPF₆ (25 °C), using a GCE as the working electrode. (B) Series of representative cyclic voltammograms of complex **4B**, at different scan rates, under the same conditions. (C) Series of representative cyclic voltammograms of complex **4C**, at different scan rates, under the same conditions.

From the voltammograms of the complexes and some correlations, it is possible to derive electrochemical parameters that can indicate the number of electrons involved (n), the redox mechanism, the transport process, and even the transfer coefficient (α) (Abbar & Nandibewoor, 2012).

Table 34. Estimated electrochemical parameters for the complexes studied.

Complex	4A	4B	4C
E_{pc1} (V vs Ag/AgCl)	−1.10	−1.17	−1.13
$E_{pc1\frac{1}{2}}$ (V vs Ag/AgCl)	−0.44	−0.74	−0.83
α_{c1}	0.072	0.24	0.14
n_{c1}	1.01	1.23	1.10
E_{pc2} (V vs Ag/AgCl)	−1.48	---	---
$E_{pc2\frac{1}{2}}$ (V vs Ag/AgCl)	−1.63	---	---
α_{c2}	0.50	---	---
n_{c2}	0.64	---	---

The relationship between the square root of the scan rate and the peak current provides information about the type of transport process in cyclic voltammetry (Abbar & Nandibewoor, 2012). Analyzing this relationship for the studied ligands reveals a linear correlation, indicating that the system is diffusion-controlled (Abbar & Nandibewoor, 2012; Gosser, 1993; Laviron *et al.*, 1980), as confirmed by the linear relationship between the logarithm of the potential and the logarithm of the scan rate. The obtained slope value, being less than or close to 0.5, suggests diffusion control (Laviron *et al.*, 1980).

Oxidation processes could not be observed with high clarity in the cyclic voltammograms of the complexes. Similarly, the dependence of the potential on the scan rate may confirm the irreversible nature of the redox processes (Compton & Banks, 2007; Jayamani *et al.*, 2015; Laviron *et al.*, 1980).

Figure 118 (A) illustrates the cyclic voltammogram of complex **4A**, which shows two cathodic peaks. As previously discussed, the free **H₂L4** ligand is electroactive, suggesting that the cathodic peak around −1.48 V vs Ag/AgCl corresponds to the reduction process associated with the ligand. Conversely, the cathodic peak at −1.10 V vs Ag/AgCl is likely related to the Cu²⁺/Cu⁺ redox couple, which aligns with values reported in the literature for similar complexes (Lawrence *et al.*, 2019; Moura *et al.*, 2023; Sangeetha *et al.*, 1999; Torelli *et al.*,

2000). The free ligand exhibits a cathodic peak near -1.45 V vs Ag/AgCl, but upon coordination with the metal ion, this peak shifts to -1.48 V vs Ag/AgCl. This shift suggests that coordination hinders the reduction process of the ligand, as the metal ion, being positively charged, takes precedence in the reduction process over the ligand (Jayamani *et al.*, 2015).

Graph B in Figure 118 displays the cyclic voltammogram of **4B**, revealing a well-defined cathodic peak at -1.17 V vs Ag/AgCl. Electrochemical parameters suggest that the reduction process involves a single electron, corresponding to the $\text{Cu}^{2+}/\text{Cu}^{+}$ redox couple. Based on the electrochemical parameters, complex **4B** undergoes a one-electron reduction process, indicating that its dimeric integrity may not be preserved in solution, unlike in complex **2C**. Therefore, the dissociation of the dimer into its respective monomers results in the formation of mononuclear species, justifying the observation of a single cathodic potential, as reported by Iqbal *et al.* (2013), Jayamani *et al.* (2014) e (Naskar *et al.*, 2011). The electronic spectra in solution and those obtained by diffuse reflectance for complex **4B** show minimal variation in the λ_{max} values associated with the $d-d$ transition, suggesting that the symmetry of the coordination sphere of **4B** remains relatively unchanged, consistent with the proposed structure and the obtained electrochemical results.

The voltammogram of complex **4C** shown in panel C of Figure 118 displays a single cathodic peak at -1.13 V vs Ag/AgCl, which, according to the estimated electrochemical parameters, is associated with the $\text{Cu}^{2+}/\text{Cu}^{+}$ redox couple. The cathodic potentials obtained for the complexes in the **H₂L4** series are very similar, reinforcing the possibility that the predominant species in solution have highly similar structures.

The voltammogram of complex **4C** shown in panel C of Figure 118 displays a single cathodic peak at -1.13 V vs Ag/AgCl, which, according to the estimated electrochemical parameters, is associated with the $\text{Cu}^{2+}/\text{Cu}^{+}$ redox couple. The cathodic potentials obtained for the complexes in the **H₂L4** series are very similar, reinforcing the possibility that the predominant species in solution have highly similar structures. The voltammograms of complexes **4B** and **4C** (panels A and B in Figure 118) do not exhibit the cathodic peak associated with the **H₂L4** ligand, as seen in complex **4A**.

5.5.2.7 Complexation Studies

The study of complexation for the **H₂L4** series complexes was conducted to replicate synthesis conditions. Therefore, analyses were performed in methanol, with incremental additions of an equimolar solution of the ligand.

Solutions of **H₂L4** at 2×10^{-5} mol L⁻¹ were prepared, along with solutions of starting salts (copper(II) chloride dihydrate, copper(II) perchlorate hexahydrate, and copper(II) nitrate trihydrate) at 3×10^{-4} mol L⁻¹. Successive additions of 0.05 equivalent of the starting salt solution were then made to the ligand solution.

Similar to observations in the complexation study of the **H₂L2** series complexes, monitoring changes via UV-Vis electronic spectroscopy revealed that upon adding successive equivalents of the starting salts to the ligand solution, changes were observed. The band around 410 nm, associated with the phenol functional group, was monitored as a reliable indicator of complexation. With each successive addition of starting salt equivalents, an increase in absorbance of this band indicated the transfer of charge from the phenolate ion to the center of the copper(II) metal ion. In addition to the increase in absorbance around 410 nm, the formation of distinct isobestics points was observed, suggesting the presence of at least two species in equilibrium in solution.

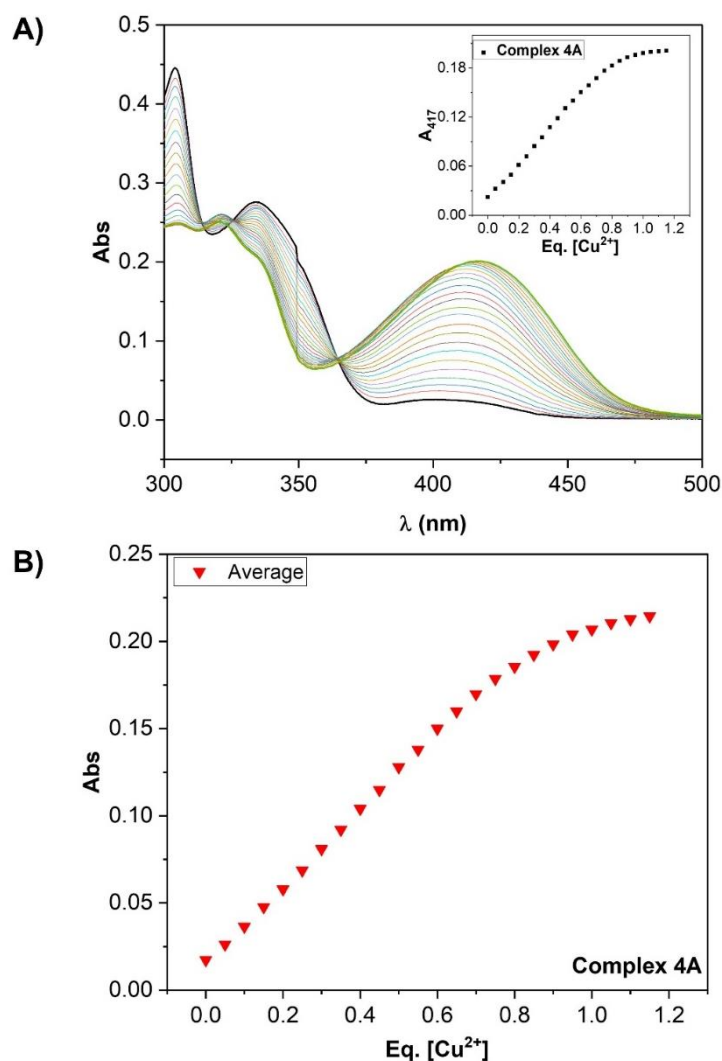


Figure 119. A) Study of complexation of complex **4A** and the relationship between absorbance and the number of Cu^{2+} equivalents. **B)** Result of the average of triplicates of the complexation study of complex **4A**.

Figure 119 (A) depicts the increase in absorbance of the band around 417 nm with successive additions of copper(II) chloride to the **H₂L4** ligand solution. The study was conducted in triplicate (Figure 119 (B)), and thus, an average of the values was taken in relation to the added Cu^{2+} equivalents. The curve shows a saturation trend near 1 equivalent of copper(II), suggesting that the stoichiometry of the mononuclear complex formed in solution is 1:1, consistent with the structure of the obtained complex.

As successive equivalents of Cu^{2+} ions from copper(II) chloride are added to the ligand solution, an increase in the intensity of the band around 417 nm and a bathochromic shift of this band can be observed. In addition to the formation of the 417 nm band, the appearance of isobestic points indicative of equilibrium

species formation is also observed. The formation of the 417 nm band, its bathochromic shift, and the presence of isobestic points collectively indicate the coordination of the ligand to the Cu^{2+} metal center.

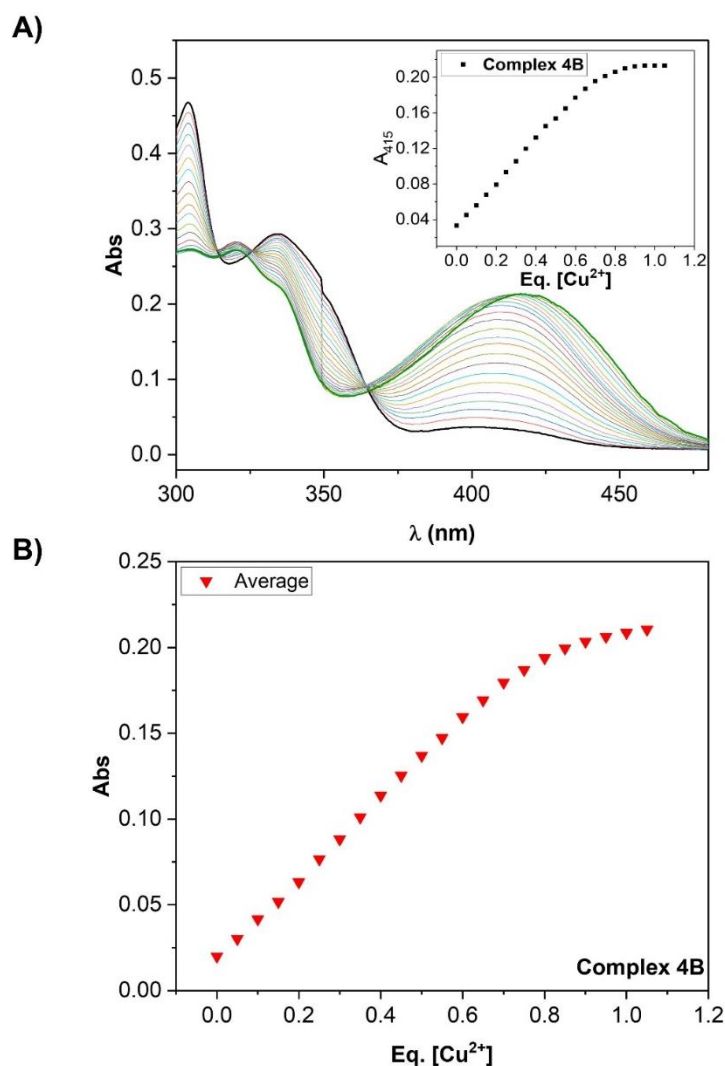


Figure 120. A) Study of complexation of complex **4B** and the relationship between absorbance and the number of Cu^{2+} equivalents. B) Result of the average of triplicates of the complexation study of complex **4B**.

Figure 120 (A) illustrates the increase in absorbance of the band around 415 nm with successive additions of copper(II) perchlorate hexahydrate to the **H₂L4** ligand solution. The study was conducted in triplicate, and thus, an average of the values was taken in relation to the added Cu^{2+} equivalents (Figure 120 (B)). The curve demonstrates a saturation trend near 1 equivalent of copper(II), suggesting that the stoichiometry of the dinuclear complex formed in solution is 1:1, consistent with the structure of the obtained complex.

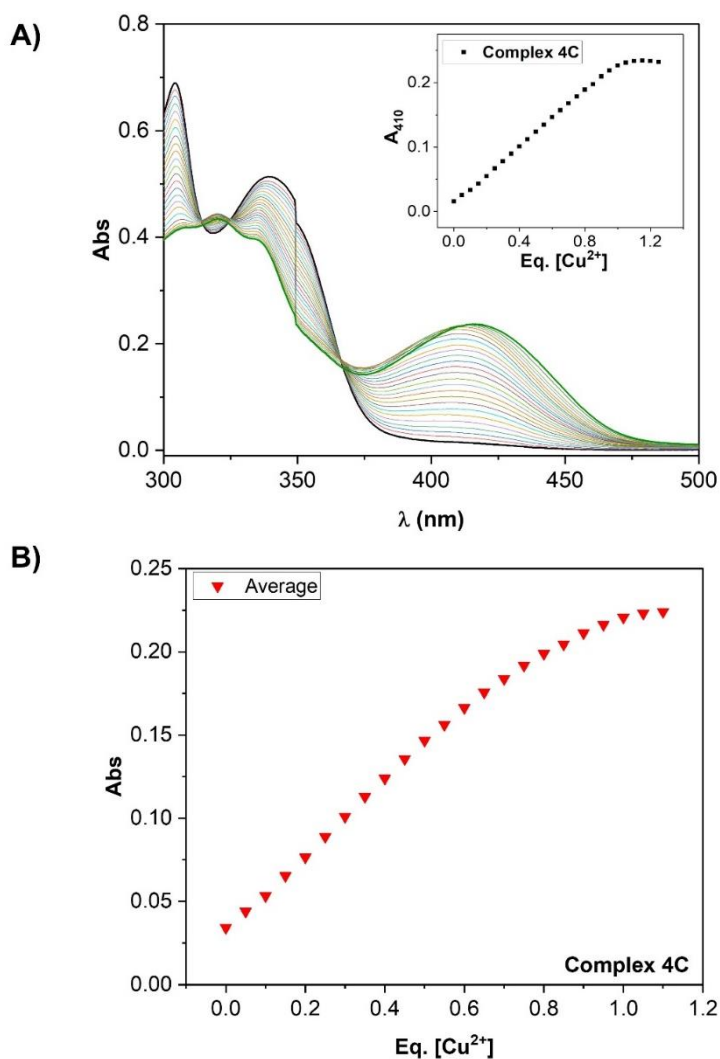


Figure 121. **A)** Study of complexation of complex **4C** and the relationship between absorbance and the number of Cu^{2+} equivalents. **B)** Result of the average of triplicates of the complexation study of complex **4C**.

Figure 121A depicts the increase in absorbance of the band around 410 nm with successive additions of copper(II) nitrate trihydrate to a **H₂L4** solution. The study was conducted in triplicate, and thus, an average of the values was taken in relation to Cu^{2+} equivalents added (Figure 121B). The curve shows a saturation trend near 1 equivalent of copper(II), suggesting that the stoichiometry of the mononuclear complex formed in solution is 1:1, consistent with the structure of the obtained complex.

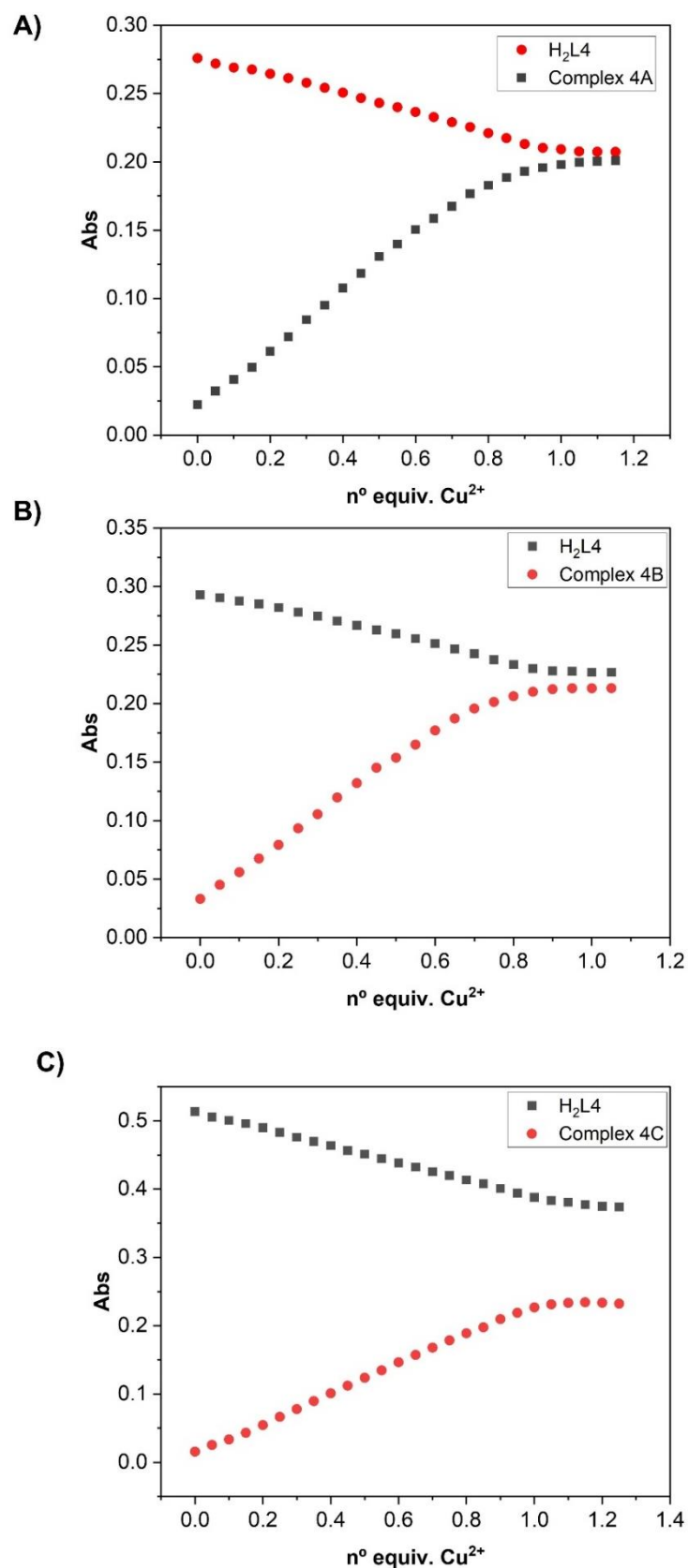


Figure 122. Qualitative graph that illustrates the variation of ligand species and their respective complexes based on the absorption and number of equivalents of the salts used.

Figure 122 enables an indirect analysis of species concentration variation by monitoring changes in absorbance of the ligand bands (around 333 nm) and the obtained complexes (around 410 nm). Comparing the graphs in Figure 122 reveals that at 1 equivalent, the absorbance stabilizes, suggesting a potential equilibrium between free ligand and formed complex. Unlike observations in the **H₂L2** series complexes, no intersection of the graphs is observed, indicating that absorbances do not equalize at any point.

5.5.2.8 Interaction studies with HSA

Under more physiological conditions (i.e., 5% *i*-PrOH/PBS, pH 7.4), which were employed in the studies of interaction with HSA, the spectral profiles of **H₂L4** undergo only minimal modification. Figure 123 illustrates the absorption pattern of the ligand in 5% *i*-PrOH/PBS, with the spectrum in DMF (at the same concentration) included as a reference.

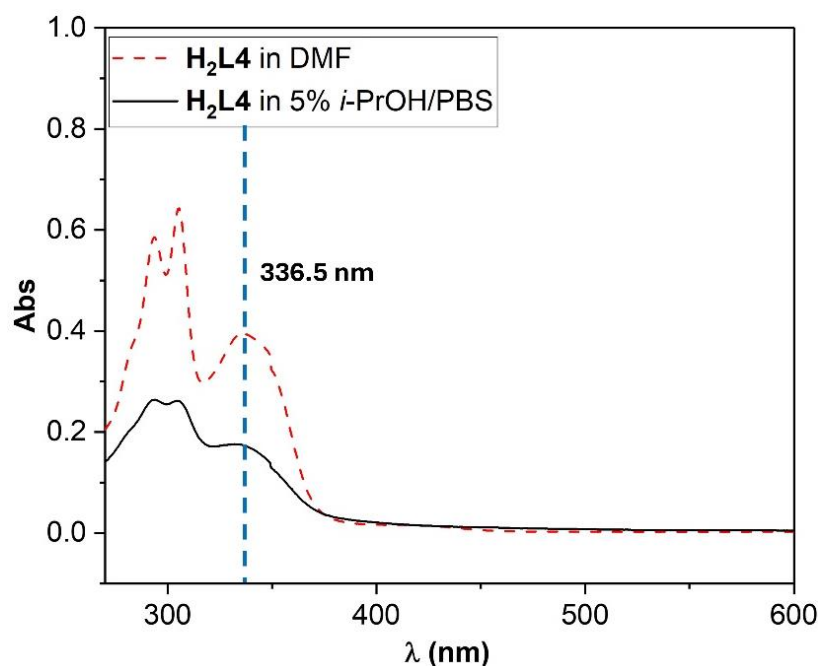


Figure 123. UV-Vis spectra of **H₂L4** (2.0×10^{-5} mol L⁻¹) in 5% *i*-PrOH / PBS, pH 7.4 (black solid curve) and in DMF (red dotted curve). Position of the transition is given as a dashed blue line.

Comparing the spectra obtained in physiological medium (pH 7.4) and in DMF solution from Figure 123 reveals minimal changes, except for the difference in absorbance, suggesting that the electronic transition nature observed in the ligand remains largely unaffected even under different conditions in aqueous media (Moura *et al.*, 2023). Figure 124 depicts the spectral changes in the 250-600 nm region resulting from successive additions of HSA to a solution of **H₂L4**

at $2 \times 10^{-5} \text{ mol L}^{-1}$. An increase in absorbance across all absorption bands is observed during HSA addition, indicating that the observed enhancement stems from electronic transitions within the HSA molecule itself. This observation suggests that **H₂L4** does not interact with HSA, a conclusion supported by the absence of isosbestic points, indicating no equilibrium of species in solution.

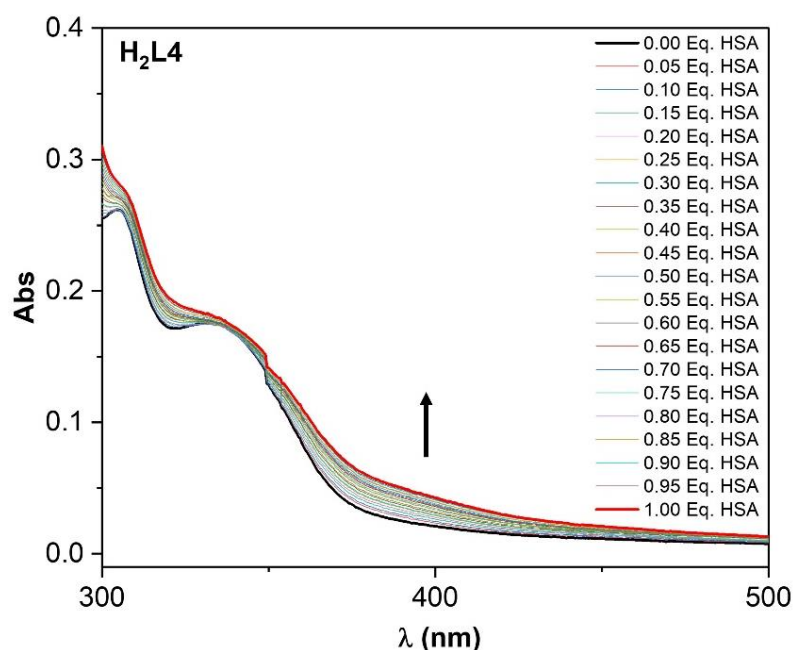


Figure 124. UV-Vis titration of a $2 \times 10^{-5} \text{ mol L}^{-1}$ **H₂L4** solution (5% *i*-PrOH / PBS, pH 7.4) with HAS at room temperature.

Similar to what was done for the **H₂L4** ligand, its complexes **4A**, **4B**, and **4C** were studied under more physiological conditions (10% *i*-PrOH/PBS, pH 7.4), which were employed in the studies of interaction with HSA. Different from the ligand, spectral profiles of these compounds undergo some modifications. Figure 125 presents the absorption patterns of **4A**, **4B**, and **4C** in 10% *i*-PrOH/PBS, with the spectrum in DMF (at the same concentration) included as a reference.

The absorption bands in the 200-350 nm (UV) region are more defined in DMF than in physiological conditions, and in the 400 nm region, a band around 415 nm appears in DMF solution while buffered solution shows two absorption bands around 417 nm and 440 nm. This suggests that a water-rich environment may favor different charge transfers, as indicated by molar conductivity data suggesting dissociation of the obtained complexes in solution, leaving more free sites for different interactions. This can explain the appearance of this new band, which is certainly related to interactions of the metal ion with the ligand, as observed in other literature works (Patra *et al.*, 2018; Ribeiro & Correia, 2024).

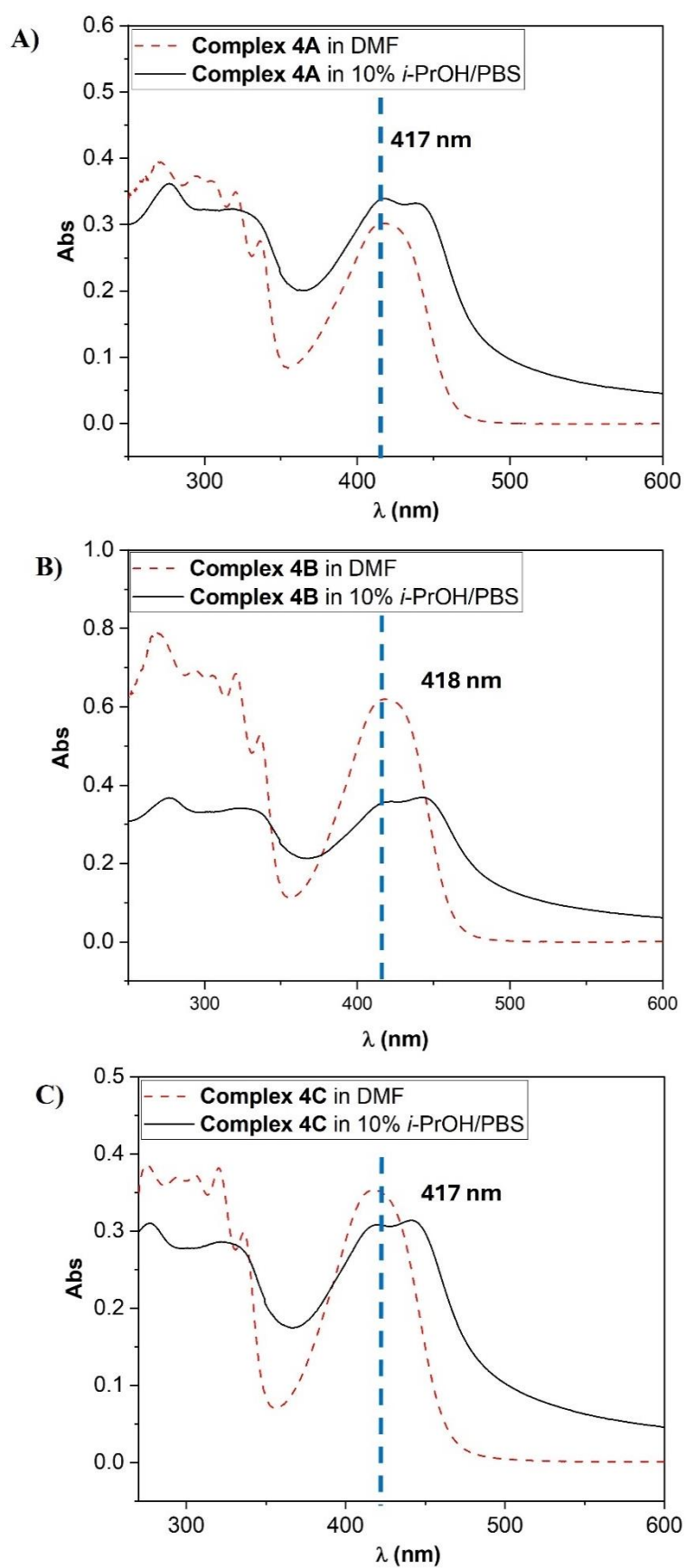


Figure 125. UV-Vis spectra of **A) 4A**, **B) 4B** and **C) 4C** (2.0×10^{-5} mol L⁻¹) in 10 % *i*-PrOH / PBS, pH 7.4 (black solid curve) and in DMF (red dotted curve), at r.t.

The interaction activity with HSA for the complexes exhibited a different behavior compared to the complexes in the **H₂L2** series. When a solution of complex **4A** (2×10^{-5} mol L⁻¹) is titrated with HSA, the absorption originally present at 417 nm undergoes a hypsochromic shift to 410 nm as the protein concentration increases, accompanied by a decrease in absorbance throughout the additions of HSA. Conversely, the absorption at around 336 nm shows increased absorbance with the addition of HSA. Isosbestic points can be identified around 375 nm and 465 nm during the initial HSA additions, indicating once again that only two absorbing species (free and bound forms of the complex) are initially in equilibrium. Subsequently, stabilization appears to occur.

Plotting absorbance at 417 nm against equivalents of HSA (Figure 126, *inset*) yields a sigmoidal curve with a correlation coefficient of 0.99, stabilizing around $[HSA]/[4A] = 0.5$. This suggests that HSA can host up to two units of the mononuclear complex, indicating possible binding cooperativity in this study, akin to the complexes in the **H₂L2** series.

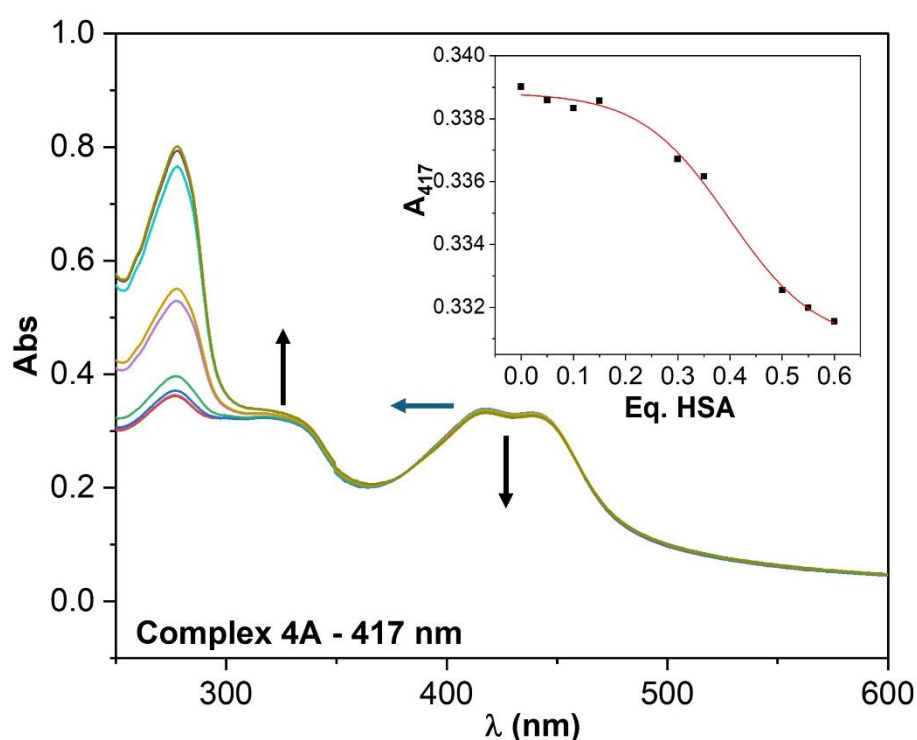


Figure 126. UV-Vis titration of a 2×10^{-5} mol L⁻¹ **4A** solution (10 % *i*-PrOH / PBS, pH 7.4) with HSA at 25 °C. *Inset:* absorbance at 417 nm as a function of HSA equivalents; data were fitted using a sigmoidal function.

When a solution of complex **4B** (2×10^{-5} mol L⁻¹) is titrated with HSA, spectral changes similar to those observed for **4A** are observed. The absorption originally present at 421 nm undergoes a hypsochromic shift to 412 nm as the protein concentration increases, accompanied by a decrease in absorbance throughout the additions of HSA. Additionally, the absorption band at 336 nm shows increased absorbance with the addition of HSA. Isobestic points can be identified around 370 nm and 475 nm during the initial HSA additions, indicating that only two absorbing species (i.e., free and bound forms of the complex) are in equilibrium. Plotting absorbance at 421 nm vs equivalents of HSA (Figure 127, *inset*) yields a sigmoidal curve with correlation coefficient of 0.99, stabilizing at around [HSA]/[**4B**] = 0.5. This suggests that HSA can host up to two units of the complex, indicating possible binding cooperativity in this study once again.

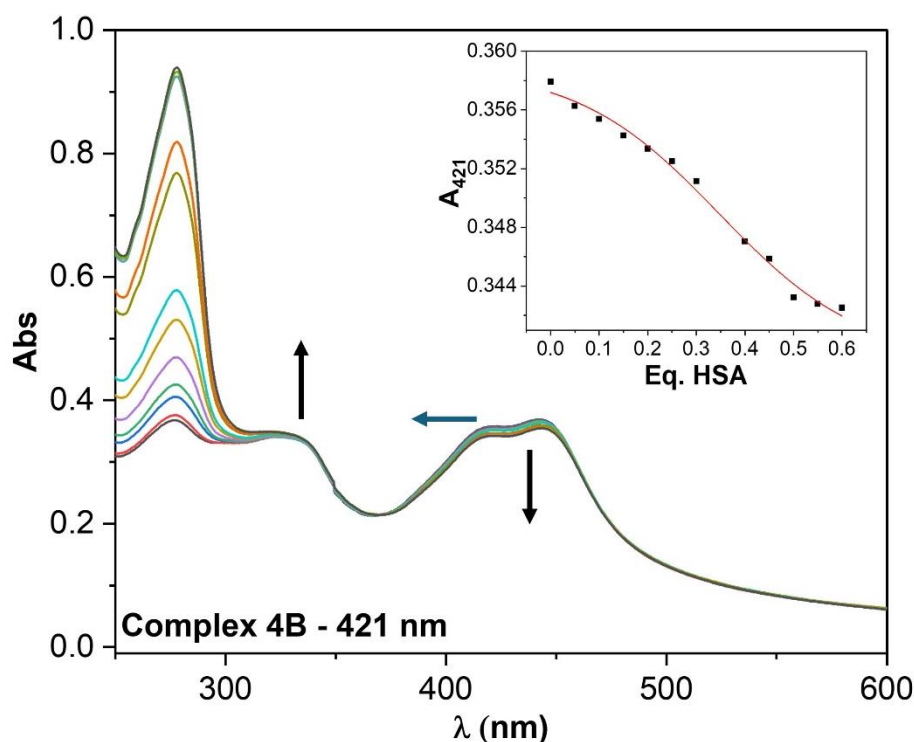


Figure 127. UV-Vis titration of a 2×10^{-5} mol L⁻¹ **4B** solution (10 % *i*-PrOH / PBS, pH 7.4) with HSA at 25 °C. *Inset:* absorbance at 421 nm as a function of HSA equivalents; data were fitted using a sigmoidal function.

When a solution of complex **4C** (2×10^{-5} mol L⁻¹) is titrated with HSA, spectral changes similar to those observed for other complexes in the **H₂L4** series are noted. The absorption originally present at 419 nm undergoes a hypsochromic shift to 415 nm as the protein concentration increases, accompanied by a decrease in absorbance throughout the additions of HSA. Additionally, the absorption band

around 336 nm shows increased absorbance with the addition of HSA. Isosbestic points can be identified around 378 nm and 465 nm during the initial HSA additions, indicating that only two absorbing species (free and bound forms of the complex) are in equilibrium. Plotting absorbance at 419 nm against equivalents of HSA (Figure 128, *inset*) yields a sigmoidal curve with a correlation coefficient of 0.99, stabilizing around $[HSA]/[4C] = 0.5$, suggesting that HSA can accommodate up to two units of the complex, and, once again, indicating a possible binding cooperativity for the interaction between **4C** and HSA.

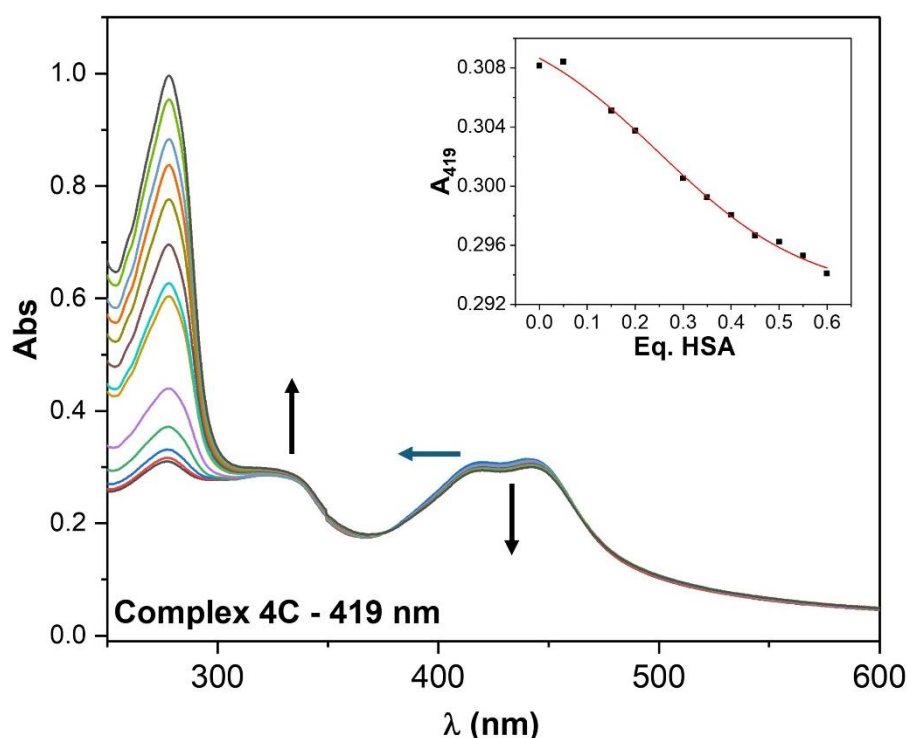


Figure 128. UV-Vis titration of a $2 \times 10^{-5} \text{ mol L}^{-1}$ **4C** solution (10 % *i*-PrOH / PBS, pH 7.4) with HSA at 25 °C. *Inset:* absorbance at 419 nm as a function of HSA equivalents; data were fitted using a sigmoidal function.

The data obtained from HSA interaction studies with the ligand and complexes of the **H₂L4** series indicate that the free ligand does not interact with HSA, which does not imply a lack of pharmacological functionality as it may be transported by other carrier proteins (Kratz & Elsadek, 2012; Wanat, 2020).

Conductometric assays suggest that the obtained complexes undergo dissociation in solution, forming cationic species neutralized by chloride, perchlorate, and nitrate ions respectively. This suggests that most of the complexes in solution may be replaced by solvent molecules after dissociation. Although molecular docking tests were not conducted for these species with

HSA, it is plausible that the species in solution are very similar, allowing them to interact at the same binding sites on the protein, explaining the consistent 2:1 ratio at which all complexes interact with HSA.

Assays conducted for complexes **2A** and **2B** indicate that the DS3 site is common in the protein interaction with these complexes, suggesting that this site is involved in the interaction with **H₂L4** series complexes. Furthermore, the DS2 site for complex **2A** is favored considering its substituted and non-substituted water structures. Therefore, the DS2 site may be the second site involved in HSA protein interaction with complexes **4A**, **4B**, and **4C**. However, further studies are still necessary, as the decrease in absorbance at 417 nm and its hypsochromic shift may suggest that the interactions these complexes engage in with HSA are of a distinct nature.

6. Conclusions

Four *N*-acylhydrazones derived from precursor 5-methylsalicylaldehyde, three of which new, and their new copper(II) complexes prepared from chloride, perchlorate, and nitrate starting salts (a total of 10 complexes) were synthesized and fully characterized using analytical and spectroscopic techniques. The single-crystal structures of all the four ligands and three complexes were determined by X-ray diffraction analyses. The absorption bands in the spectra of the ligands and complexes were successfully assigned.

The systems related to the ligands **H₂L2** (hydrazide substituent: furan) and **H₂L4** (*N*-methylimidazole) are the most interesting and promising in the context of the development of anticancer drugs, due to their better solubility prospects.

Complexes derived from **H₂L2** and **H₂L4** were isolated as mononuclear or dinuclear (dimeric) species, depending on the starting salt and the experimental conditions used during the syntheses.

Under a more biological point of view, the furan-containing ligand **H₂L2** demonstrated good interaction with the blood protein HSA, with each protein unit being able to accommodate up to two molecules of the ligand. **H₂L4**, on the other hand, was unable to interact with HSA under the evaluated conditions. The reasons behind this difference are still not clear.

Complexes **2A**, **2B**, **2C**, **4A**, **4B**, and **4C**, belonging to these systems, were able to interact with HSA. In all the studies conducted, one protein unit was able to bind more than one unit of the complex, whether it was a dimer or not. Docking calculations helped to identify potential interaction sites for the ligand **H₂L2** and complexes **2A** and **2B** within the carrier protein HSA.

Studies revealed that the complexes **2A**, **2B** and **2C**, and, to a lesser extent, the ligand **H₂L2**, exhibit a potent antiproliferative activity against human breast cancer cells, with activity superior to that of cisplatin, in the concentration range of 10^{-6} mol L⁻¹. The findings demonstrated that the free ligand and free copper(II) ions exhibited low antiproliferative activity, thus highlighting the significant role of ligand coordination to the metal ion for antitumor activity.

In conclusion, the present work reinforces the idea that *N*-acylhydrazones and, specially, their copper(II) complexes may represent a promising structural motif for the development of highly active potential antitumor agents, which can be used in the future as substituents of the widely used platinum drugs.

7. Bibliography

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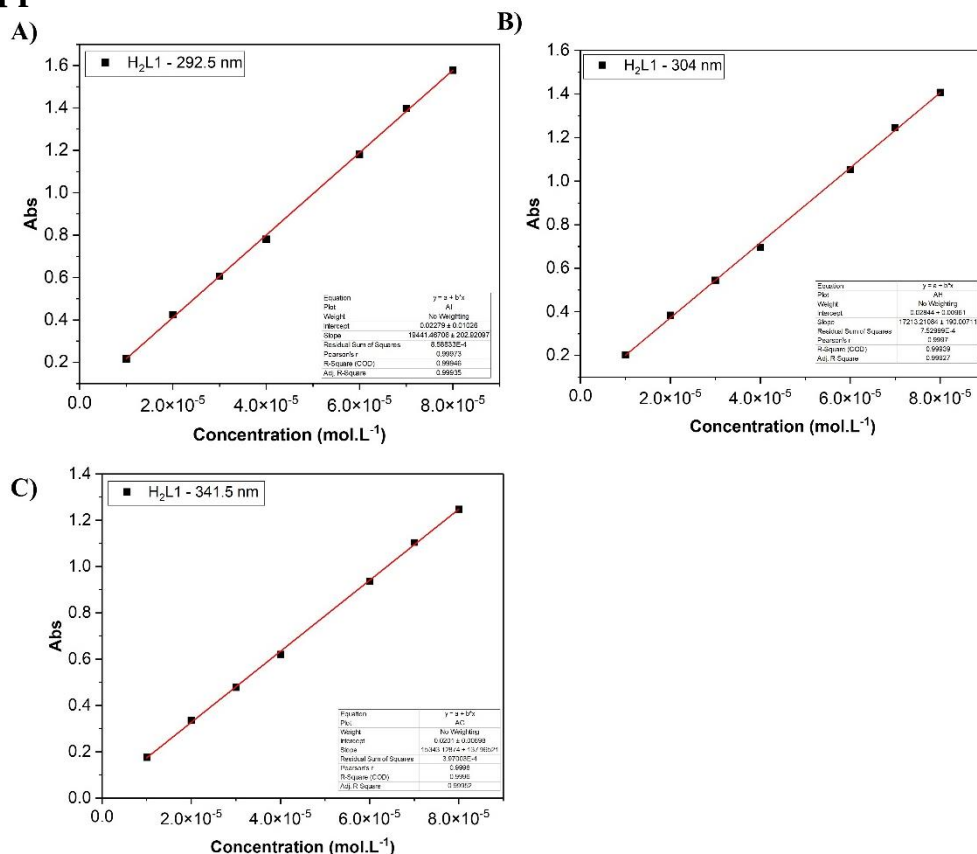
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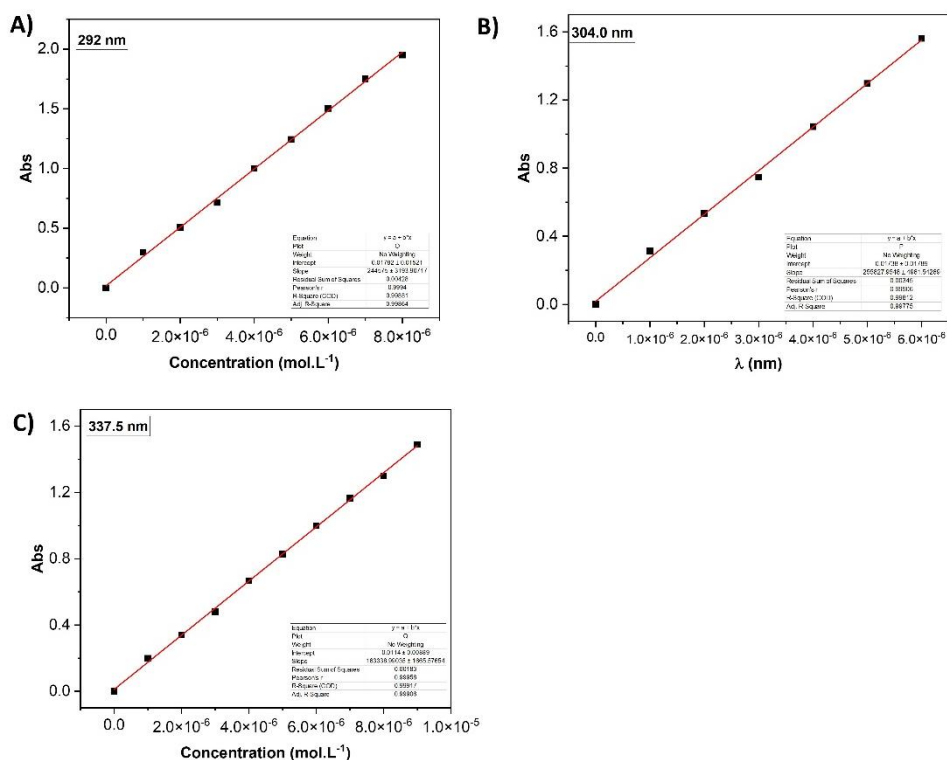
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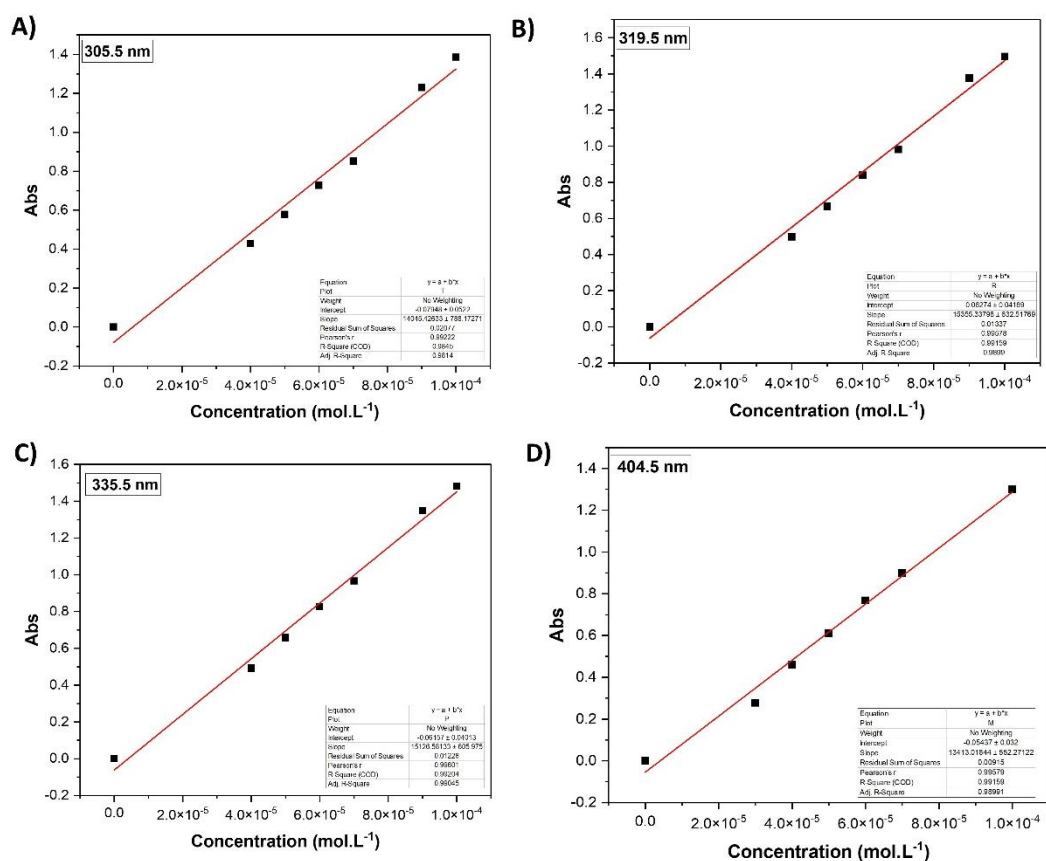
8. Appendix



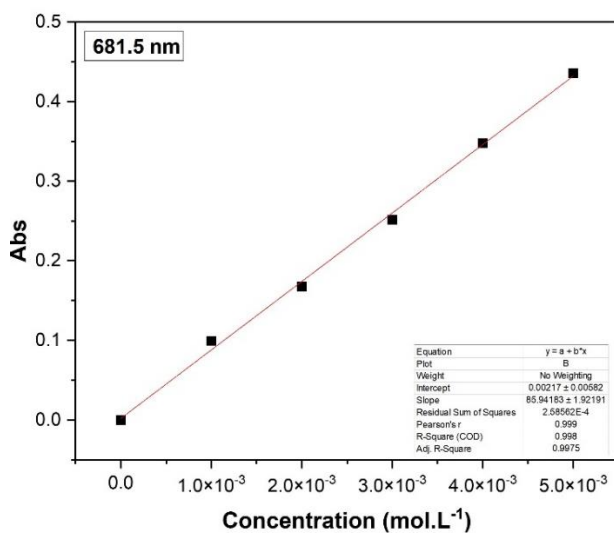
Appendix Figure 1. Absorbance (max) vs [C] for the ligand H₂L1. (A) – band at 292.5 nm, (B) – band at 304 nm, (C) – band at 341.5 nm.



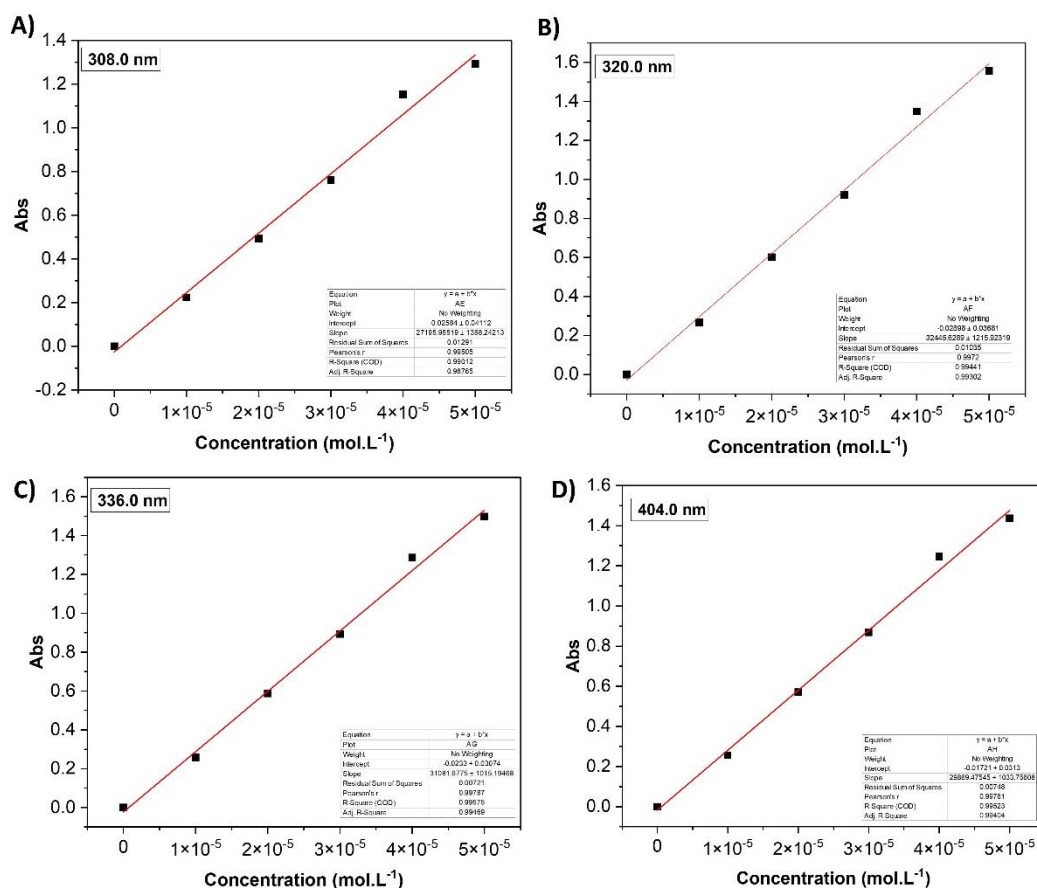
Appendix Figure 2. Absorbance (max) vs [C] for the ligand H₂L2. (A) – band at 292 nm, (B) – band at 304 nm, (C) – band at 337.5 nm.



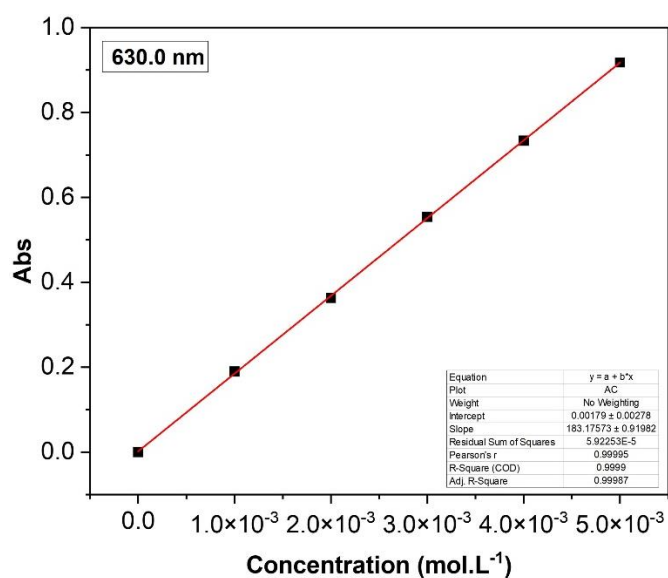
Appendix Figure 3. Absorbance (max) vs [C] for complex 2A. (A) – band at 305.5 nm, (B) –band at 319.5 nm, (C) – band at 335.5 nm and (D) - band at 404.5 nm.



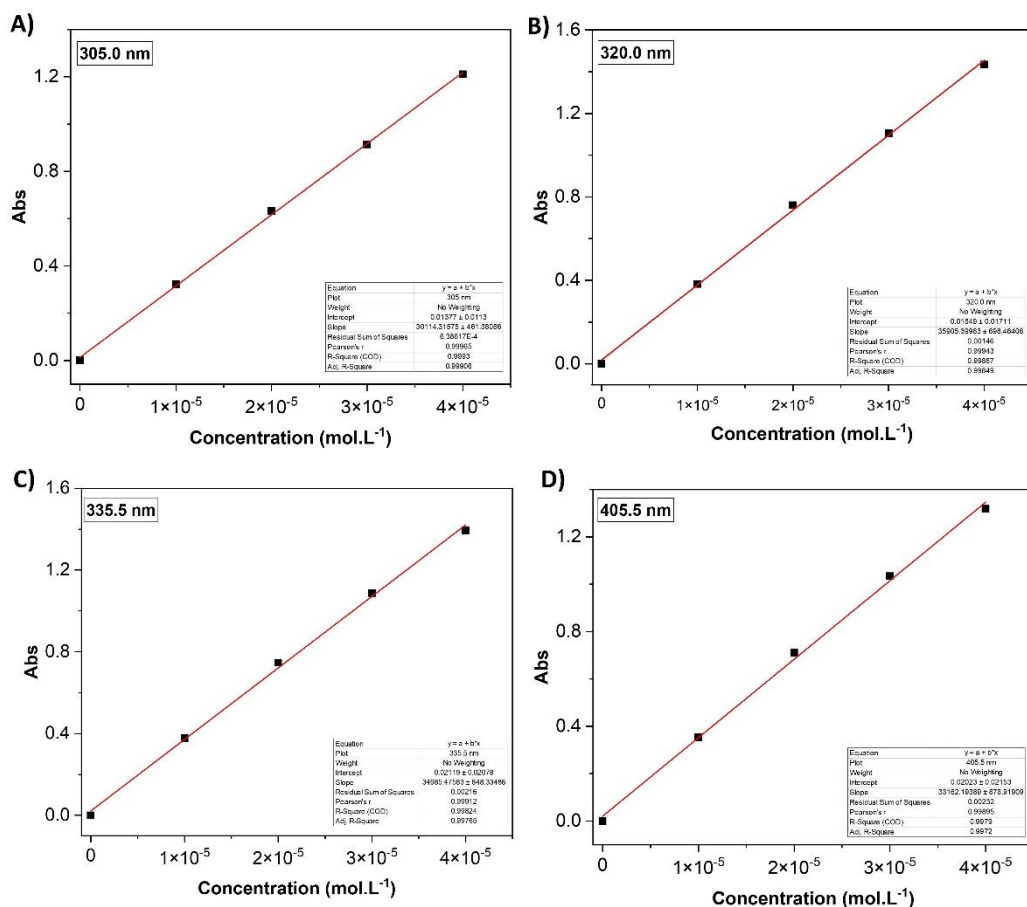
Appendix Figure 4. Absorbance (max) vs [C] for the d-d transition in 681.5 nm for complex 2A.



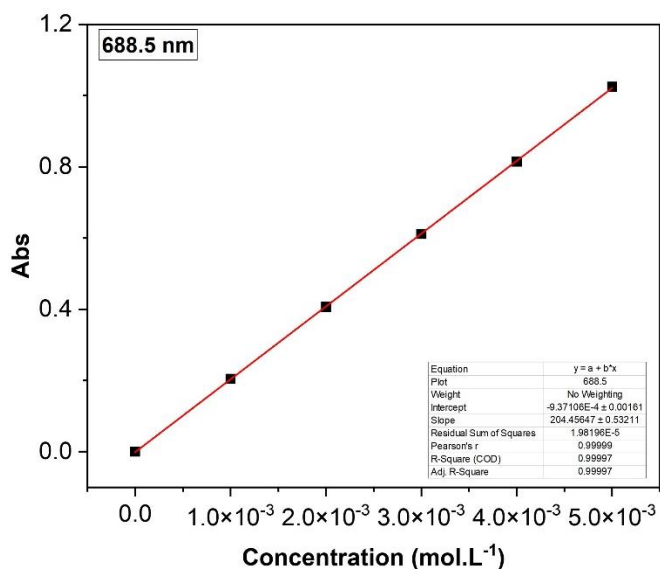
Appendix Figure 5. Absorbance (max) vs [C] for complex 2B. (A) – band at 308 nm, (B) –band at 320 nm, (C) – band at 336 nm and (D) - band at 404 nm.



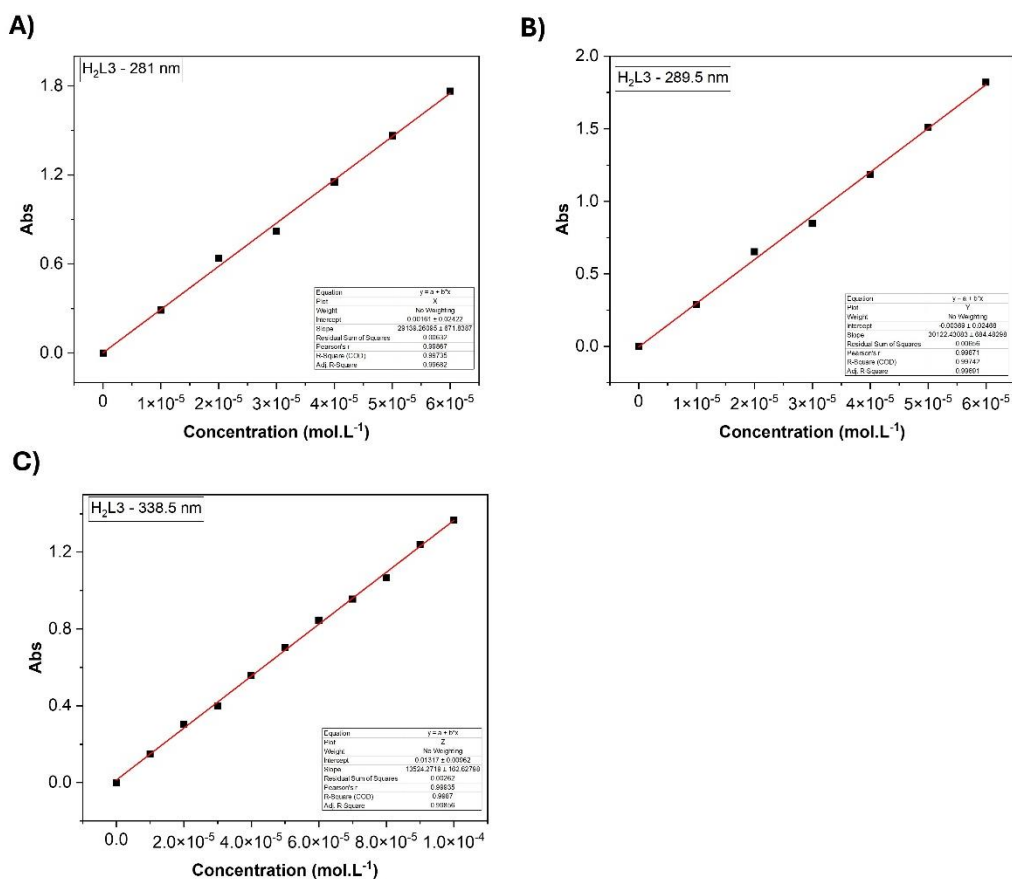
Appendix Figure 6. Absorbance (max) vs [C] for the d-d transition in 630 nm for complex 2B.



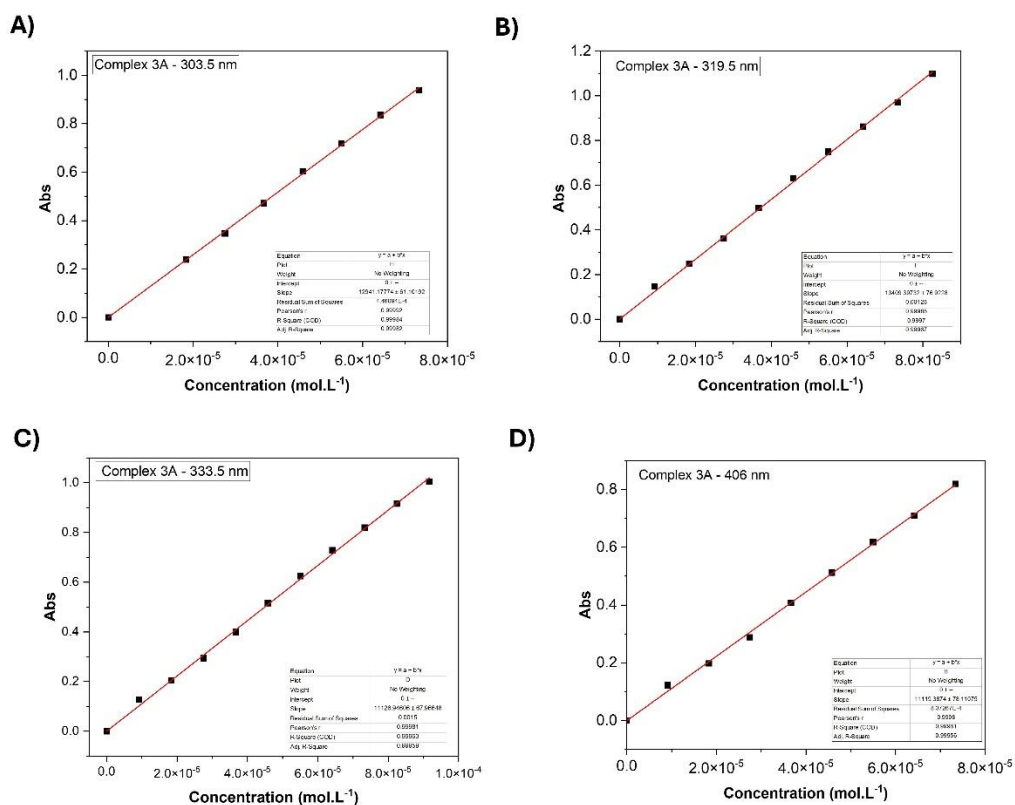
Appendix Figure 7. Absorbance (max) vs [C] for complex 2C. (A) – band at 305 nm, (B) –band at 320 nm, (C) – band at 335.5 nm and (D) - band at 405.5 nm.



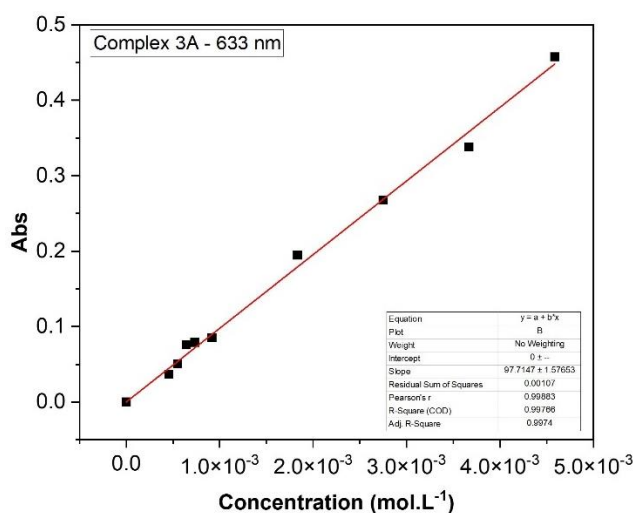
Appendix Figure 8. Absorbance (max) vs [C] for the d-d transition in 688.5 nm for complex 2C.



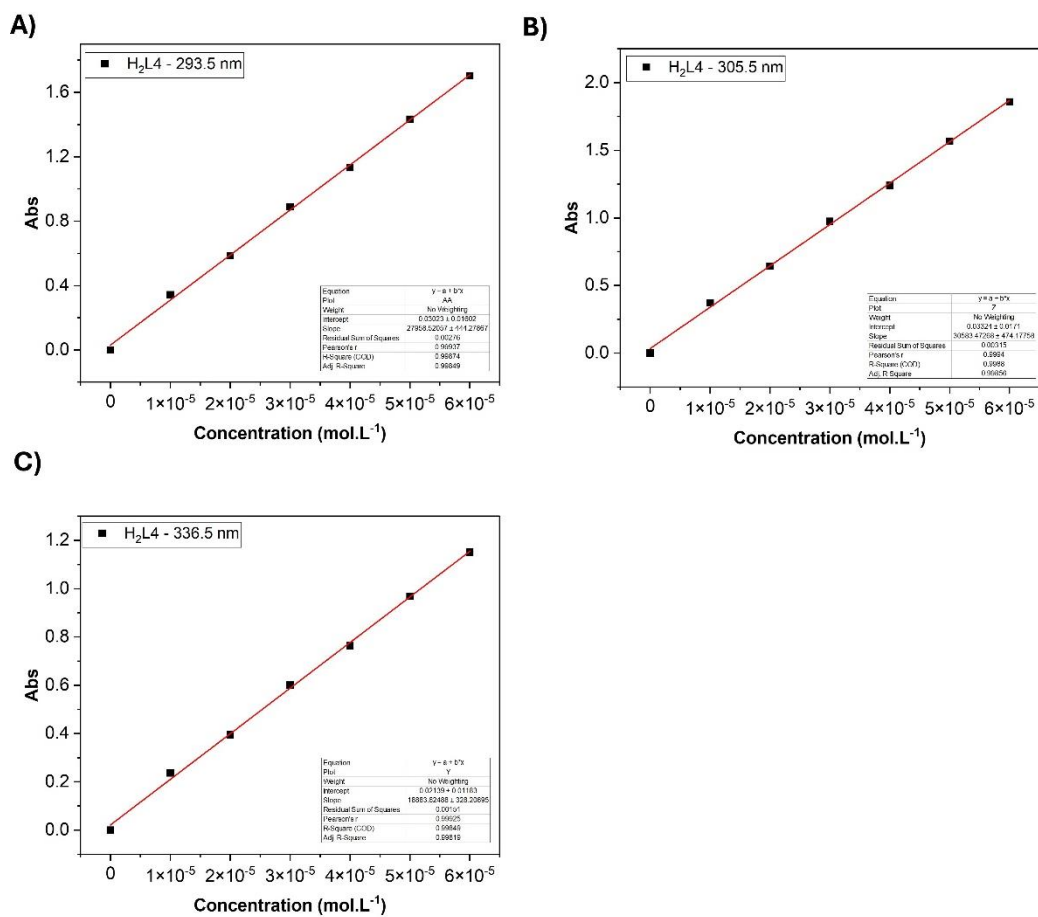
Appendix Figure 9. Absorbance (max) vs [C] for the ligand H₂L3. (A) – band at 281 nm, (B) – band at 289.5 nm, (C) – band at 338.5 nm.



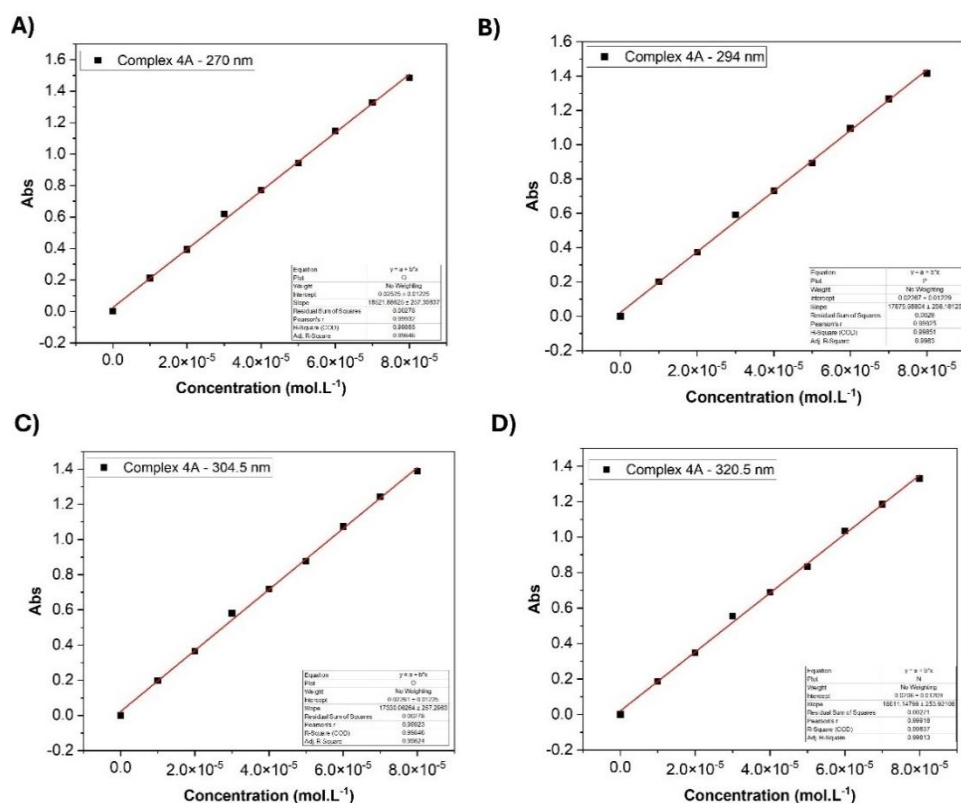
Appendix Figure 10. Absorbance (max) vs [C] for complex 3A. (A) – band at 303.5 nm, (B) – band at 319.5 nm, (C) – band at 333.5 nm and (D) - band at 406 nm.



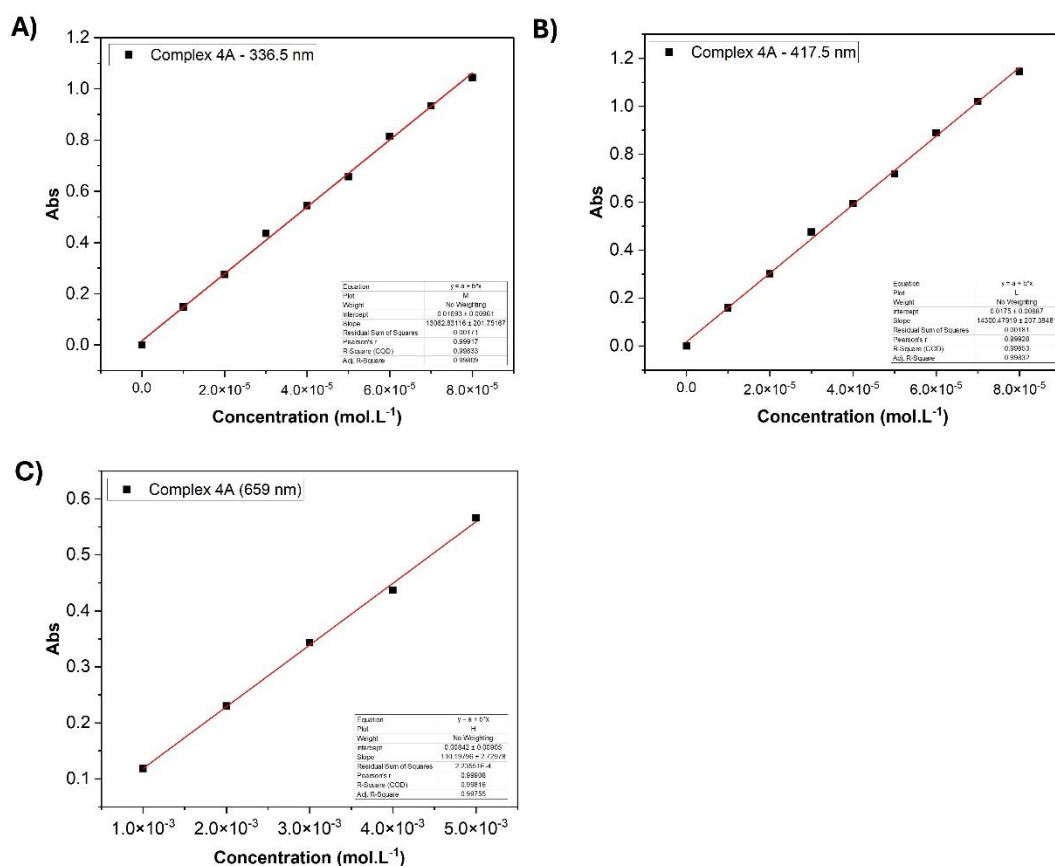
Appendix Figure 11. Absorbance (max) vs [C] for the d-d transition in 633 nm for complex 3A.



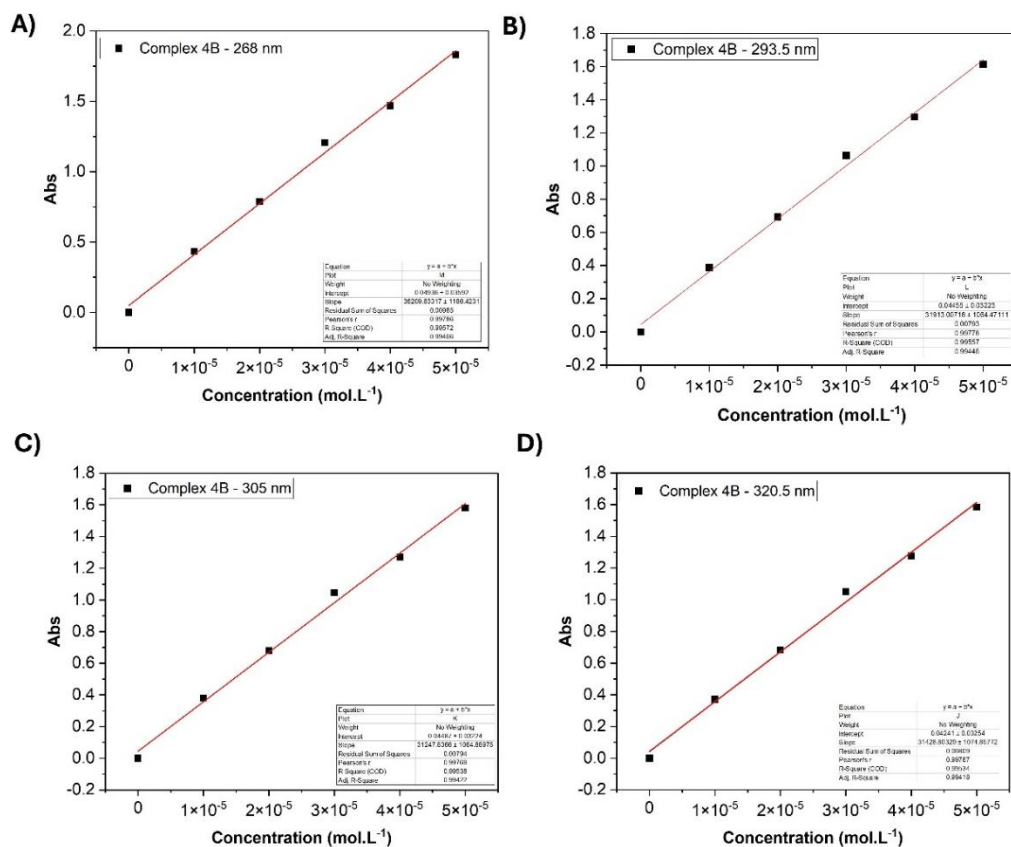
Appendix Figure 12. Absorbance (max) vs [C] for the ligand H₂L4. (A) – band at 293.5 nm, (B) – band at 305.5 nm, (C) – band at 336.5 nm.



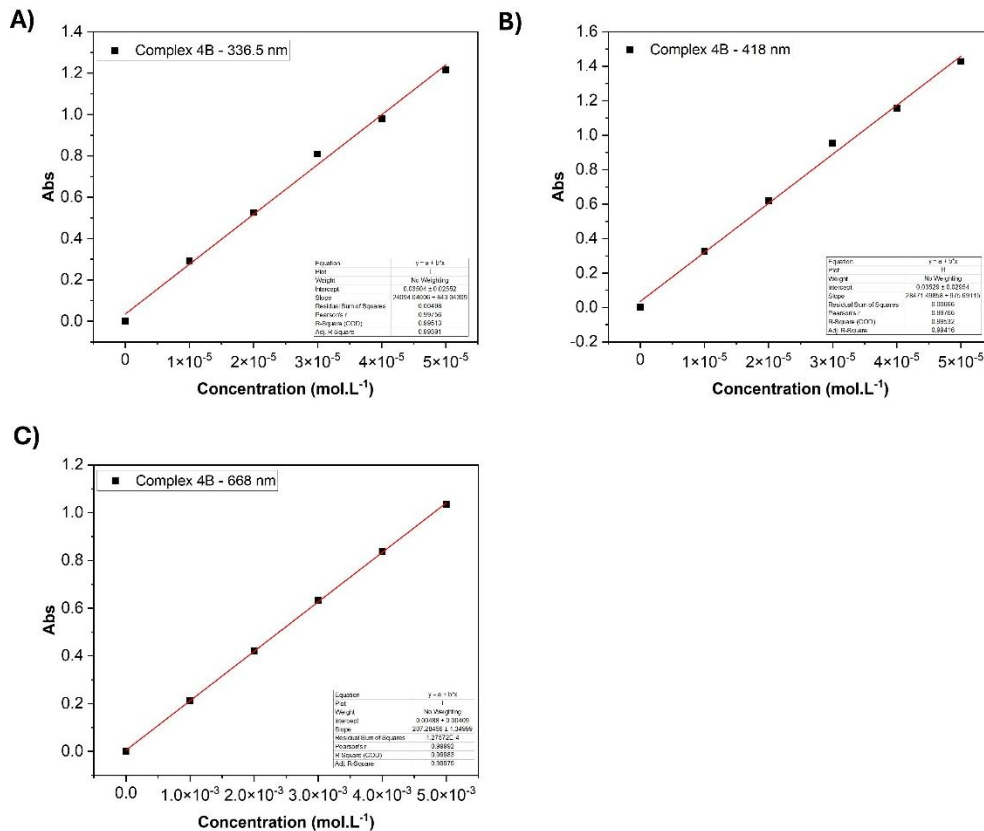
Appendix Figure 13. Absorbance (max) vs [C] for complex 4A. (A) – band at 270 nm, (B) – band at 294 nm, (C) – band at 304.5 nm and (D) - band at 320.5 nm.



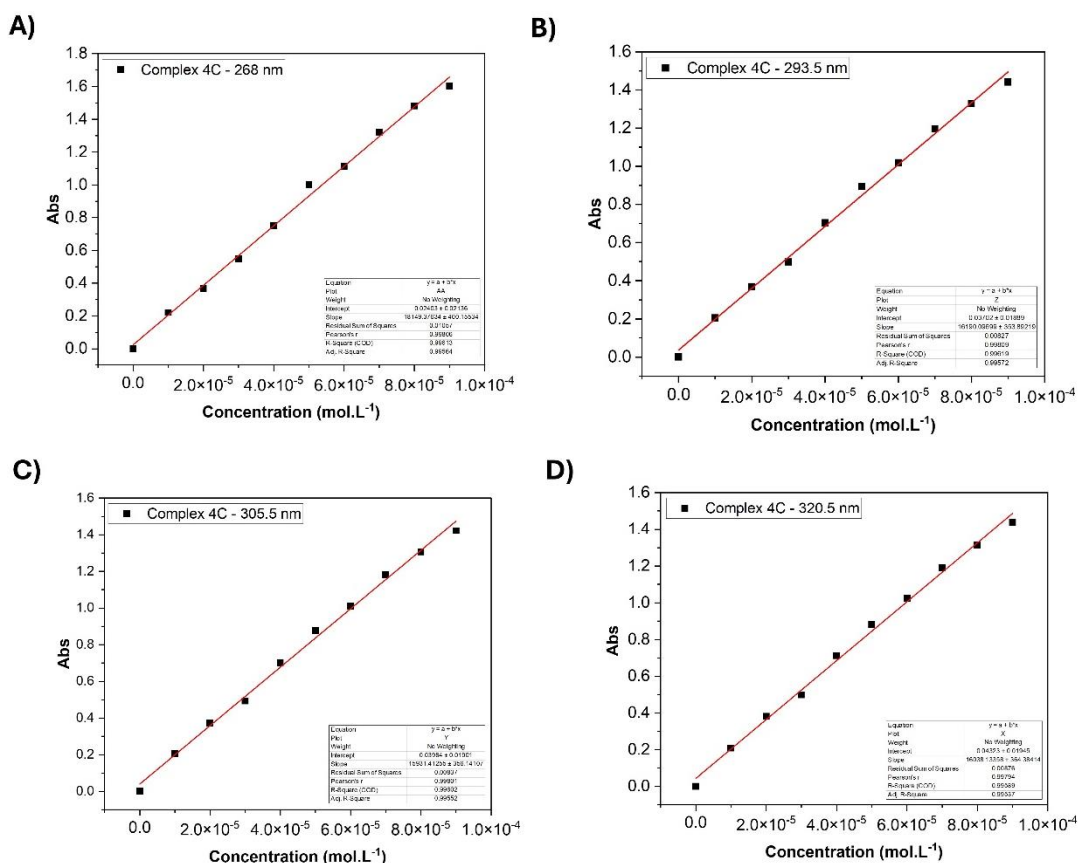
Appendix Figure 14. Absorbance (max) vs [C] for complex 4A. (A) – band at 336.5 nm, (B) – band at 417.5 nm, (C) – band at 659 nm d-d transition.



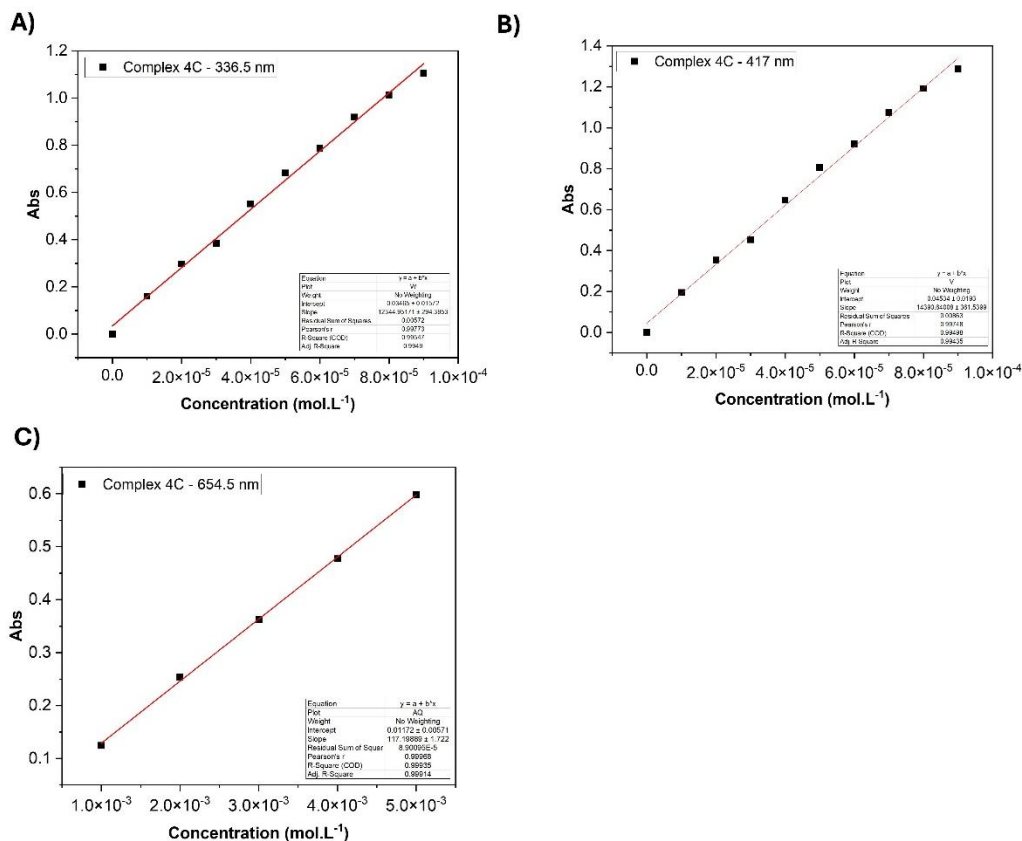
Appendix Figure 15. Absorbance (max) vs [C] for complex 4B. (A) – band at 268 nm, (B) –band at 293.5 nm, (C) – band at 305 nm and (D) - band at 320.5 nm.



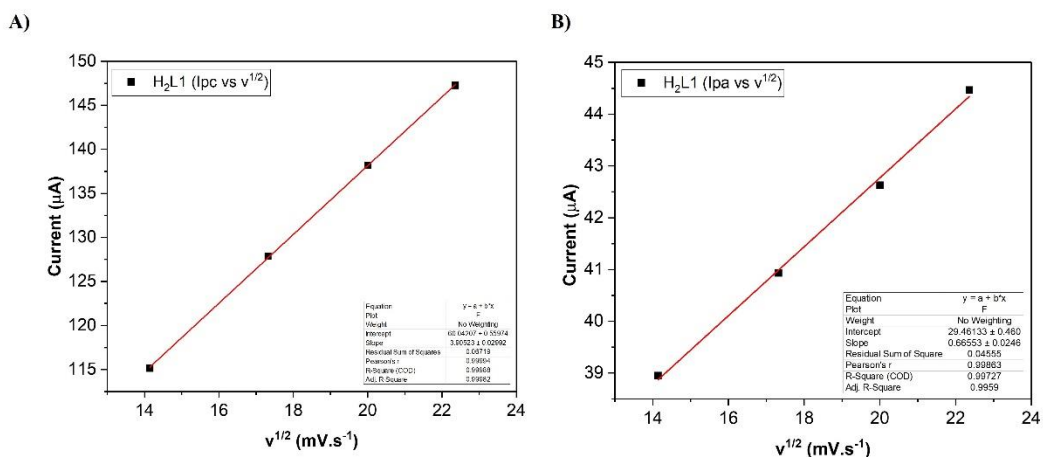
Appendix Figure 16. Absorbance (max) vs [C] for complex 4B. (A) – band at 336.5 nm, (B) – band at 418 nm, (C) – band at 668 nm d-d transition.



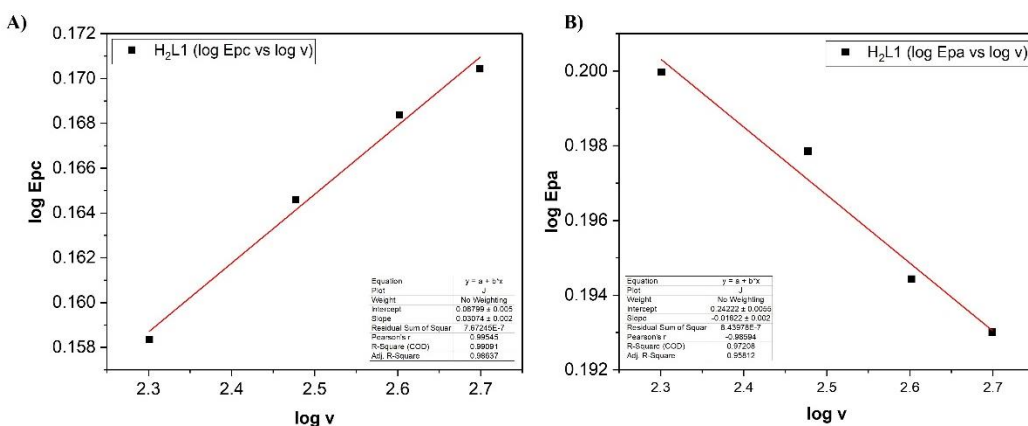
Appendix Figure 17. Absorbance (max) vs [C] for complex 4C. (A) – band at 268 nm, (B) – band at 293.5 nm, (C) – band at 305.5 nm and (D) - band at 320.5 nm.



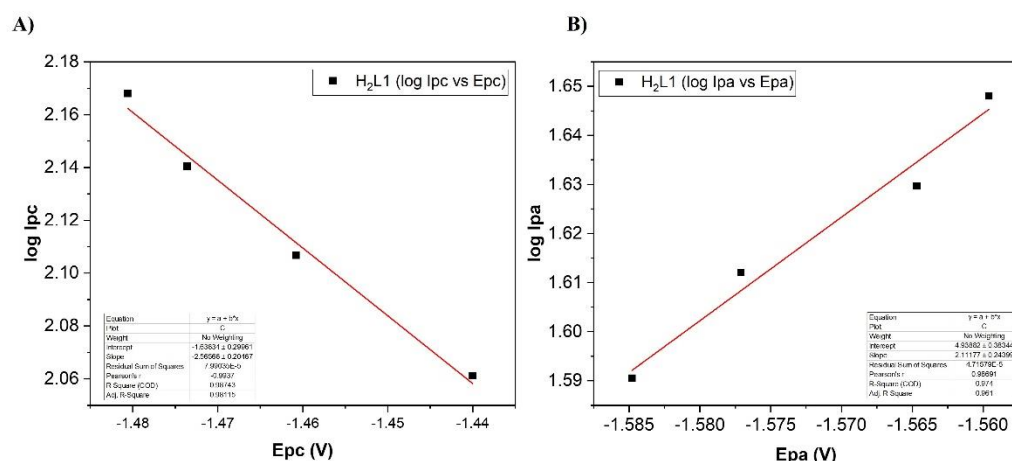
Appendix Figure 18. Absorbance (max) vs [C] for complex 4C. (A) – band at 336.5 nm, (B) – band at 417 nm, (C) – band at 654.5 nm d-d transition.



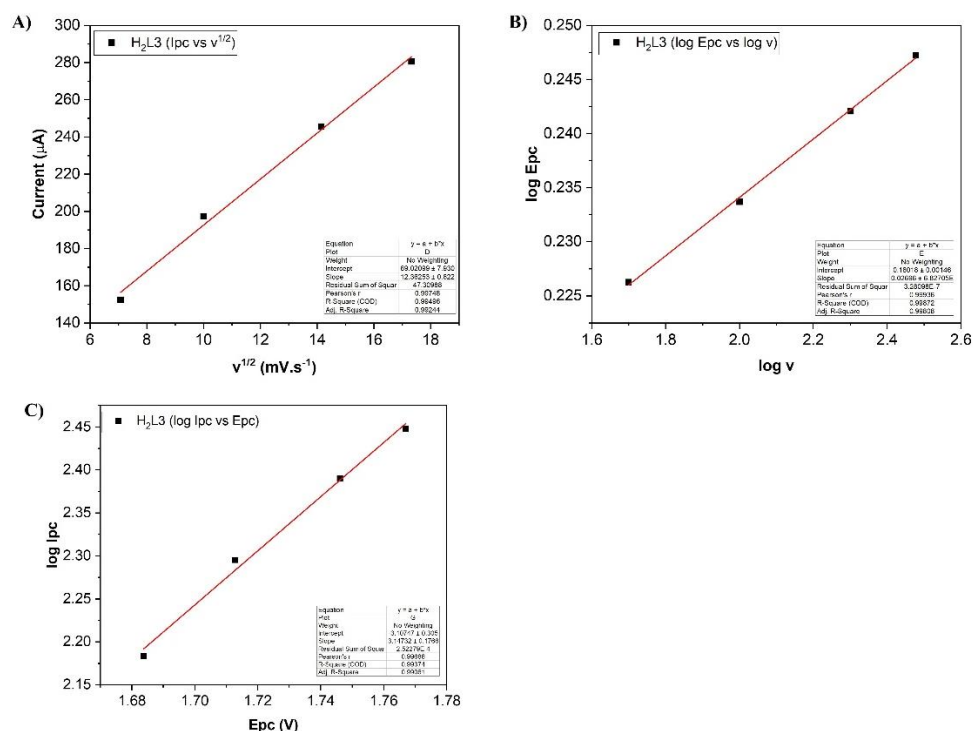
Appendix Figure 19. **A)** Linear relationship between the cathodic peak current and the square root of the scan rate for the H₂L1 ligand. **B)** Linear relationship between the anode peak current and the square root of the scan rate for the H₂L1 ligand.



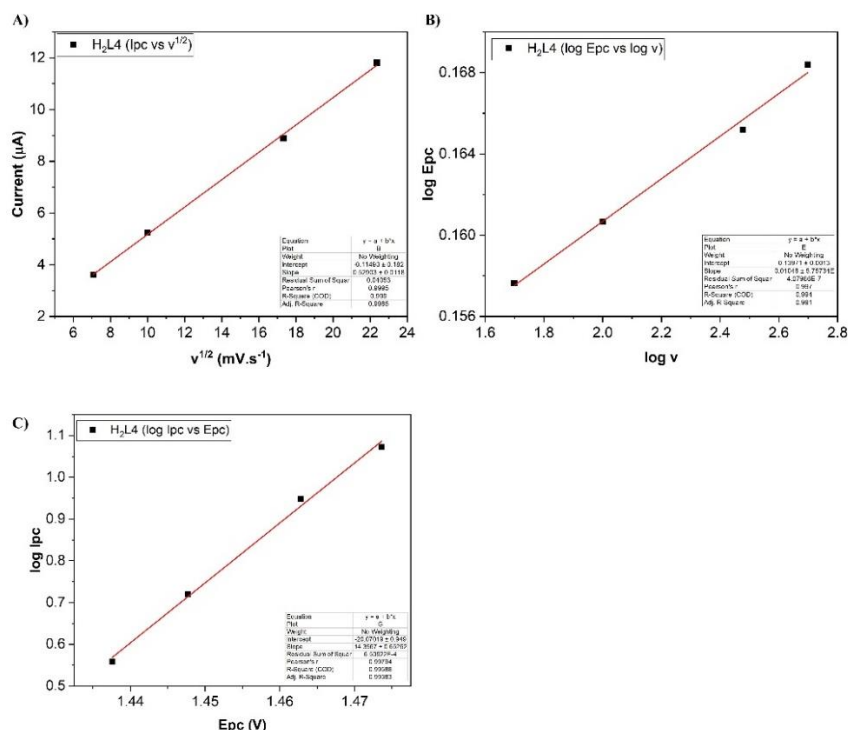
Appendix Figure 20. **A)** Linear relationship between the logarithm of the cathodic peak current and the logarithm of the scan rate for the H₂L1 ligand. **B)** Linear relationship between the logarithm of the anode peak current and the logarithm of the scan rate for the H₂L1 ligand.



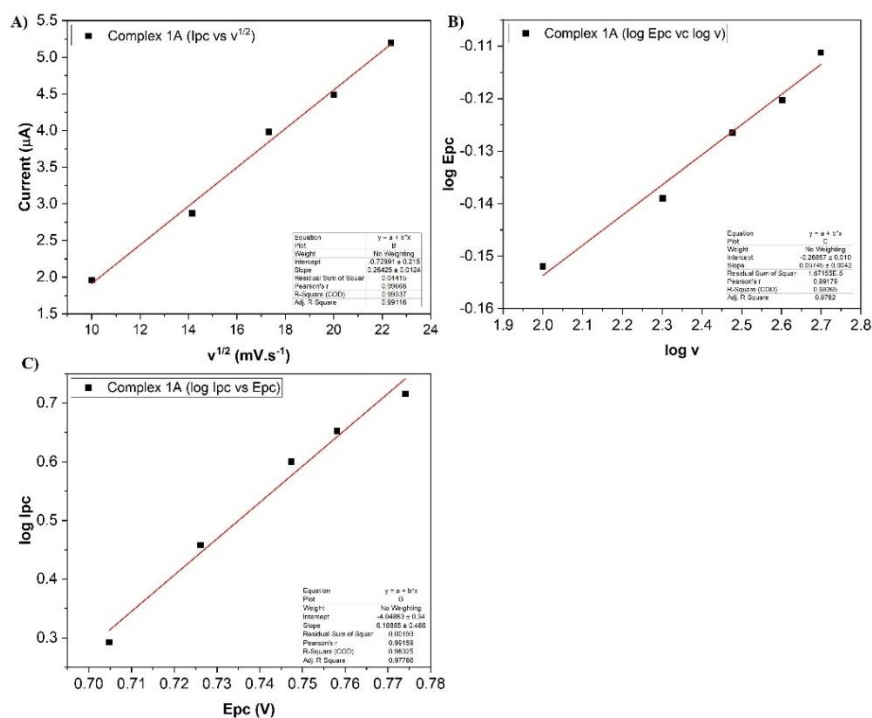
Appendix Figure 21. **A)** Linear relationship between the logarithm of the cathodic peak current and the cathodic potential for the H₂L1 ligand. **B)** Linear relationship between the logarithm of the anode peak current and the anode potential for the H₂L1 ligand.



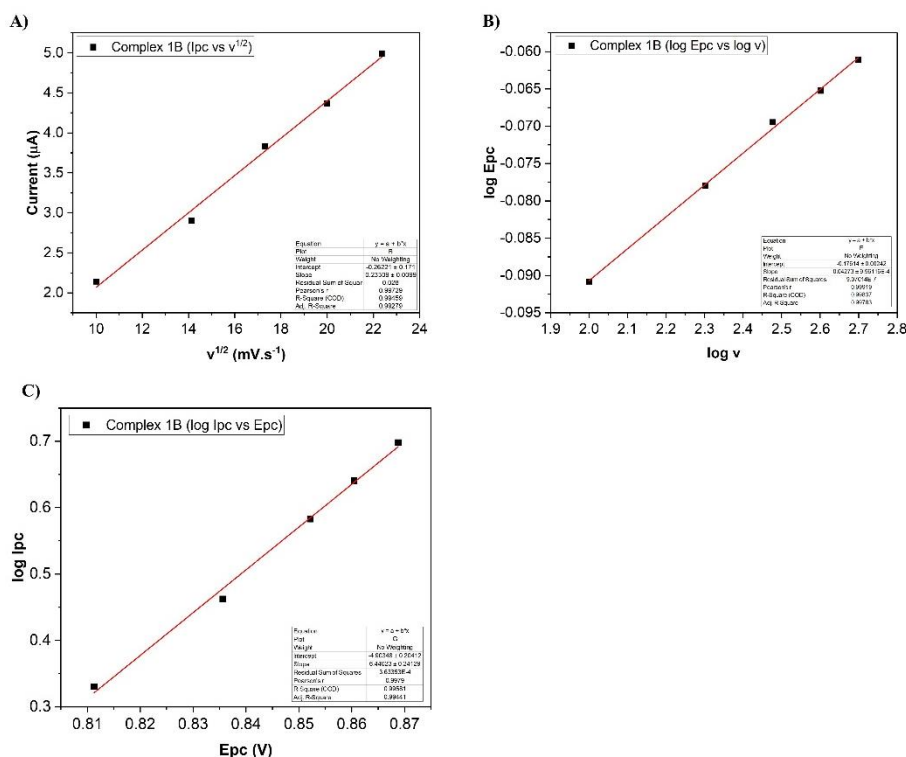
Appendix Figure 22. **A)** Linear relationship between the cathodic peak current and the square root of the scan rate for the H₂L3 ligand. **B)** Linear relationship between the logarithm of the cathodic peak current and the logarithm of the scan rate for the H₂L3 ligand. **C)** Linear relationship between the logarithm of the cathodic peak current and the cathodic potential for the H₂L3 ligand.



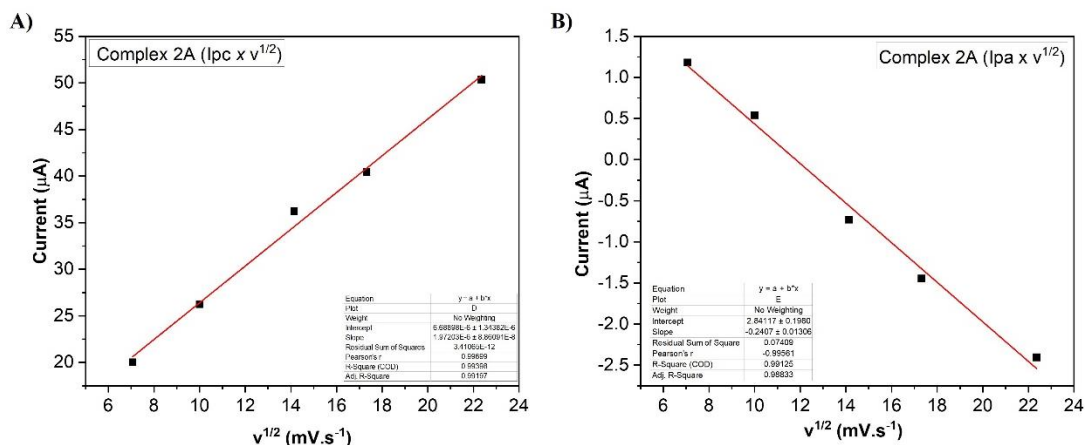
Appendix Figure 23. **A)** Linear relationship between the cathodic peak current and the square root of the scan rate for the H₂L4 ligand. **B)** Linear relationship between the logarithm of the cathodic peak current and the logarithm of the scan rate for the H₂L4 ligand. **C)** Linear relationship between the logarithm of the cathodic peak current and the cathodic potential for the H₂L4 ligand.



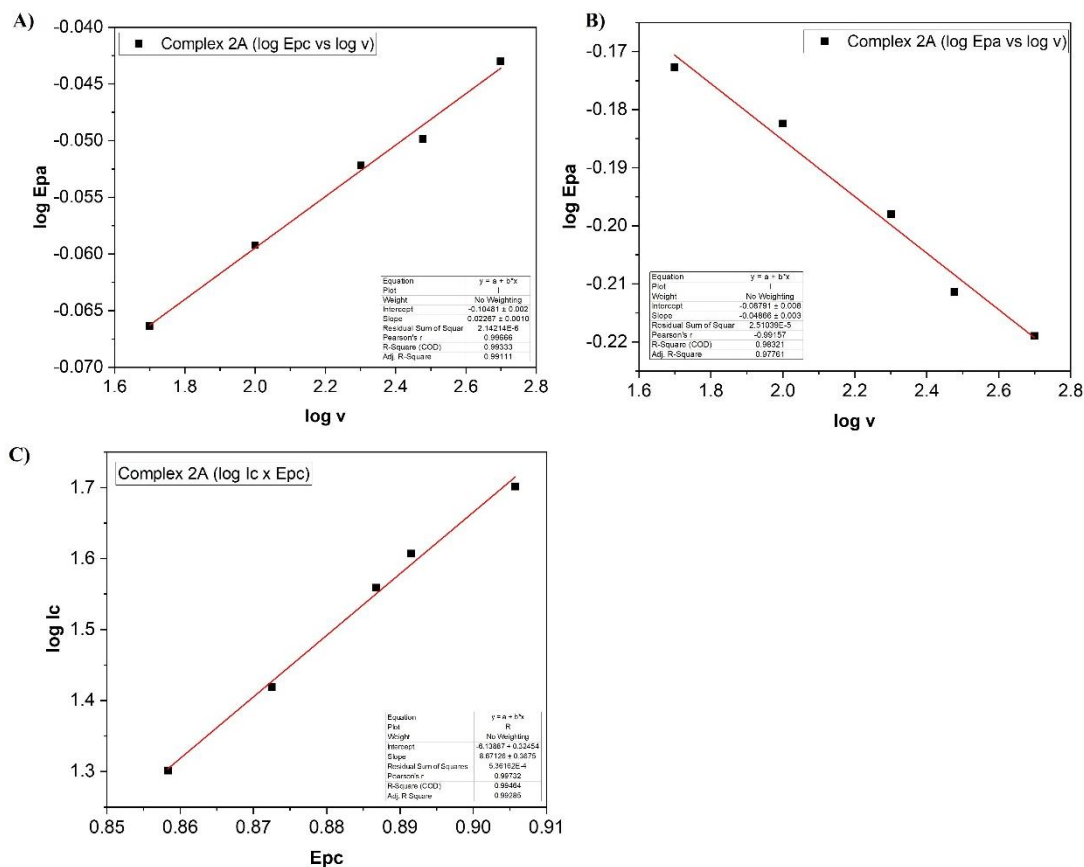
Appendix Figure 24. A) Linear relationship between the cathodic peak current and the square root of the scan rate for complex 1A. B) Linear relationship between the logarithm of the cathodic peak current and the logarithm of the scan rate for complex 1A. C) Linear relationship between the logarithm of the cathodic peak current and the cathodic potential for complex 1A.



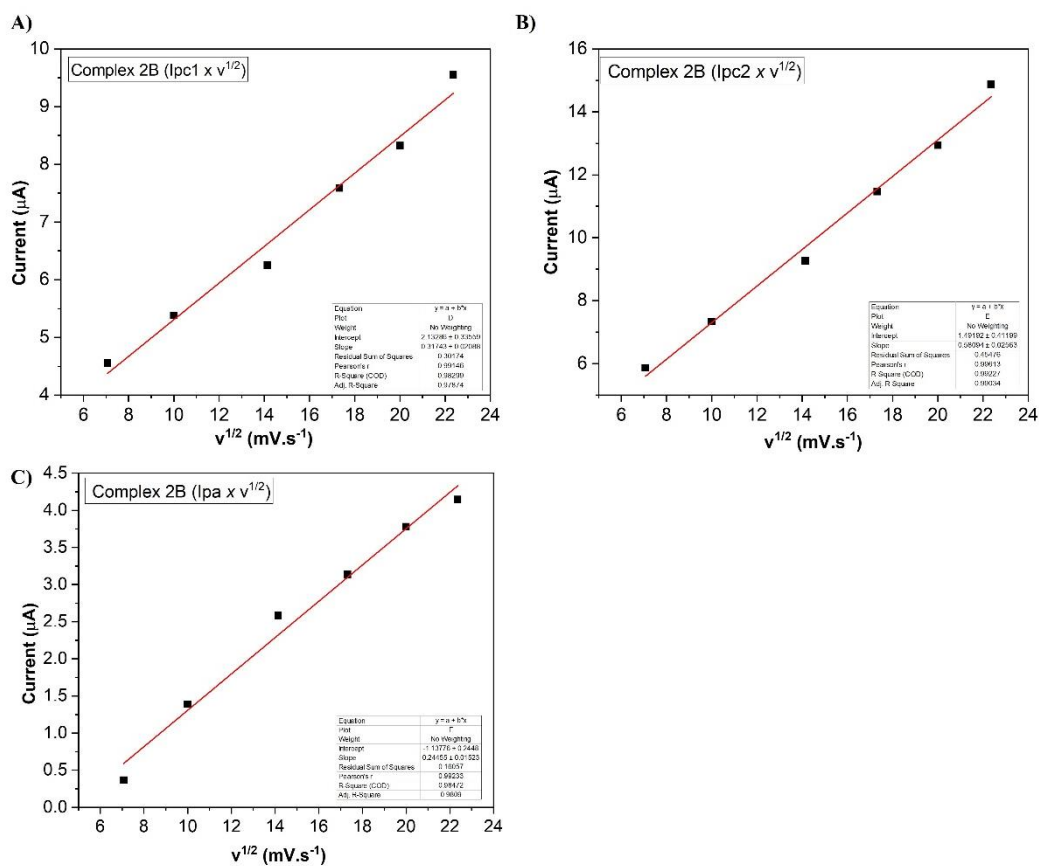
Appendix Figure 25. A) Linear relationship between the cathodic peak current and the square root of the scan rate for complex 1B. B) Linear relationship between the logarithm of the cathodic peak current and the logarithm of the scan rate for complex 1B. C) Linear relationship between the logarithm of the cathodic peak current and the cathodic potential for complex 1B.



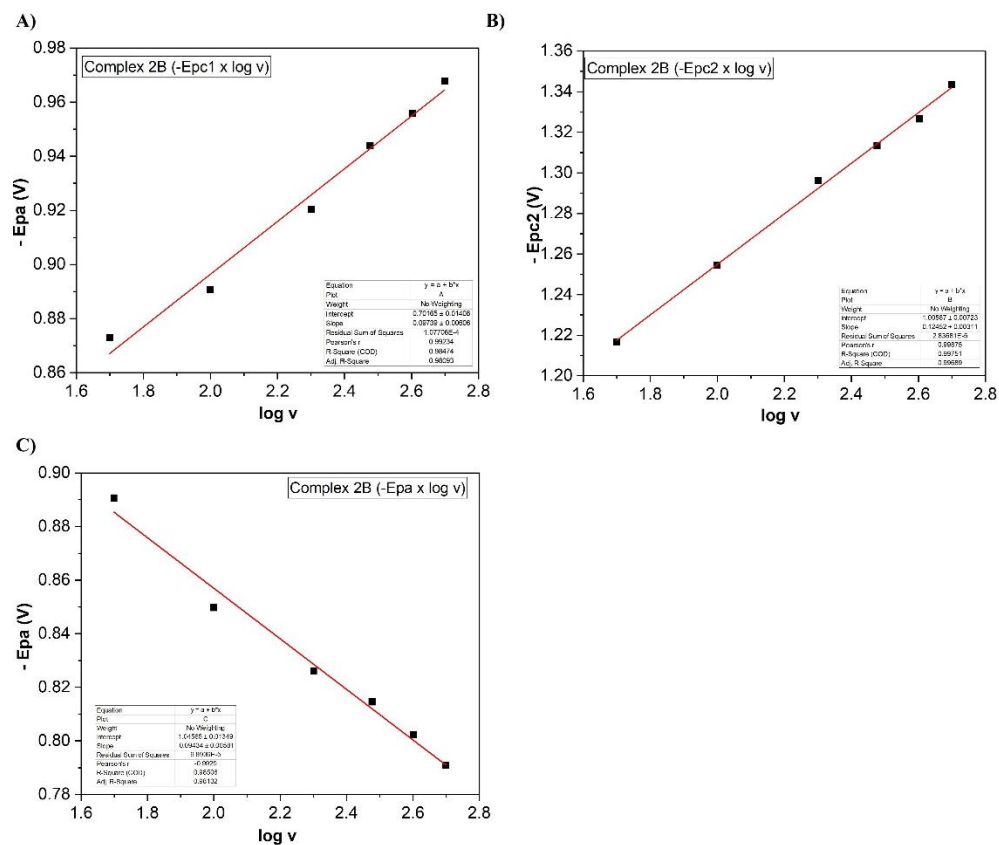
Appendix Figure 26. A) Linear relationship between the cathodic peak current and the square root of the scan rate for complex 2A. **B)** Linear relationship between the anode peak current and the square root of the scan rate for complex 2A.



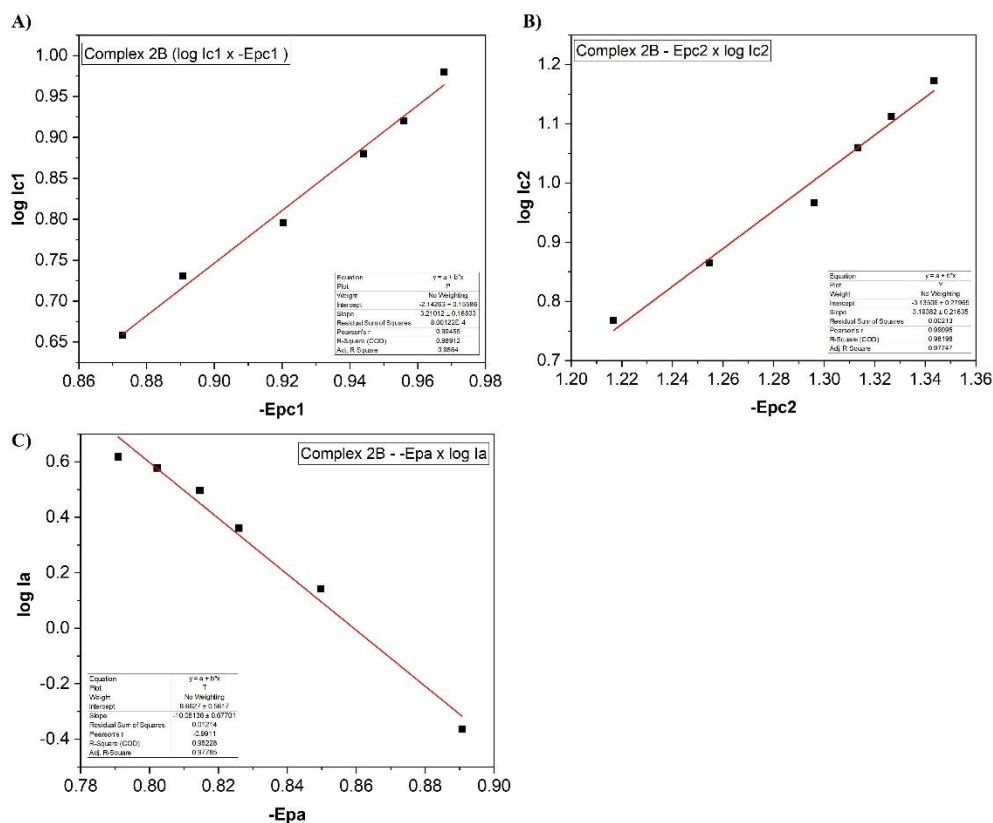
Appendix Figure 27. A) Linear relationship between the logarithm of the cathodic peak current and the logarithm of the scan rate for complex 2A. **B)** Linear relationship between the logarithm of the anode peak current and the logarithm of the scan rate for complex 2A. **C)** Linear relationship between the logarithm of the cathodic peak current and the cathodic potential for complex 2A.



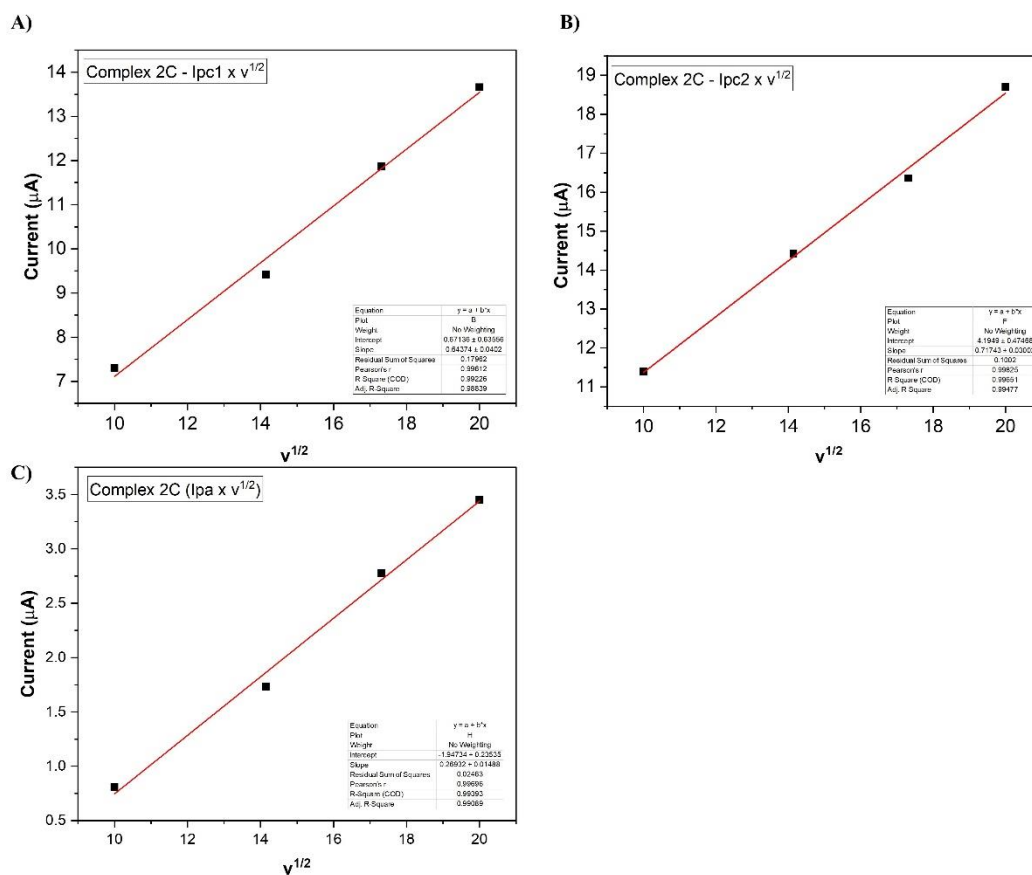
Appendix Figure 28. A) Linear relationship between the first cathodic peak current and the square root of the scan rate for complex 2B. B) Linear relationship between the second cathodic peak current and the square root of the scan rate for complex 2B. C) Linear relationship between the anode peak current and the square root of the scan rate for complex 2B.



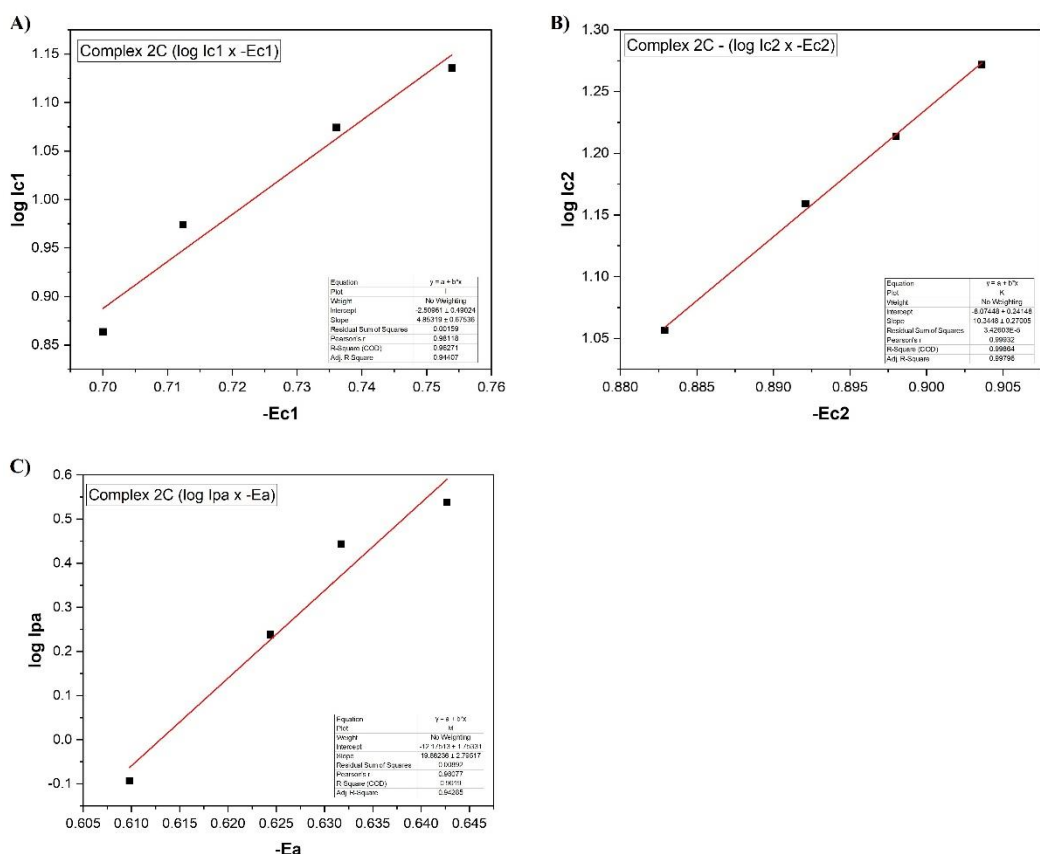
Appendix Figure 29. **A)** Linear relationship between the logarithm of the first cathodic peak current and the logarithm of the scan rate for complex 2B. **B)** Linear relationship between the logarithm of the second cathodic peak current and the logarithm of the scan rate for complex 2B. **C)** Linear relationship between the logarithm of the anode peak current and the logarithm of the scan rate for complex 2B.



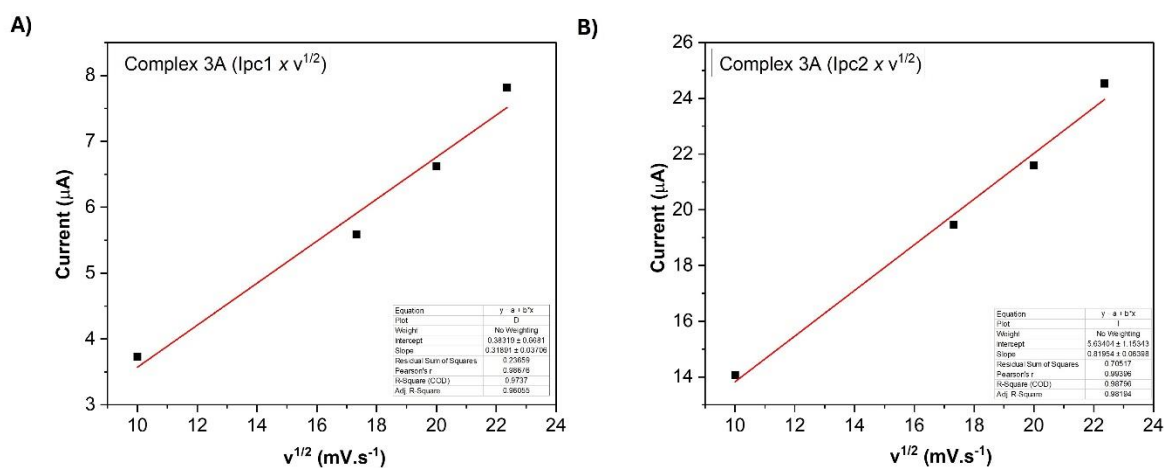
Appendix Figure 30. **A)** Linear relationship between the logarithm of the first cathodic peak current and the first cathodic potential for complex 2B. **B)** Linear relationship between the logarithm of the second cathodic peak current and the second cathodic potential for complex 2B. **C)** Linear relationship between the logarithm of anode peak current and the anode potential for complex 2B.



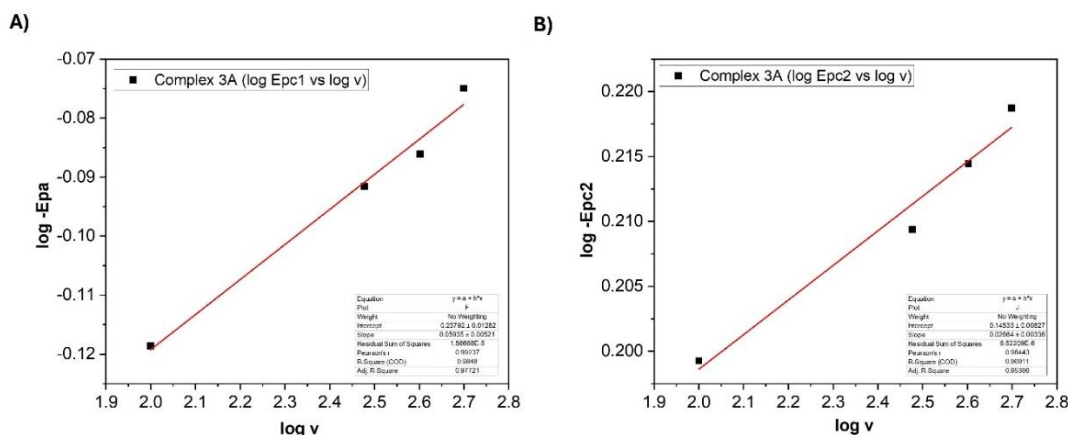
Appendix Figure 31. **A)** Linear relationship between the first cathodic peak current and the square root of the scan rate for complex 2C. **B)** Linear relationship between the second cathodic peak current and the square root of the scan rate for complex 2C. **C)** Linear relationship between the anode peak current and the square root of the scan rate for complex 2C.



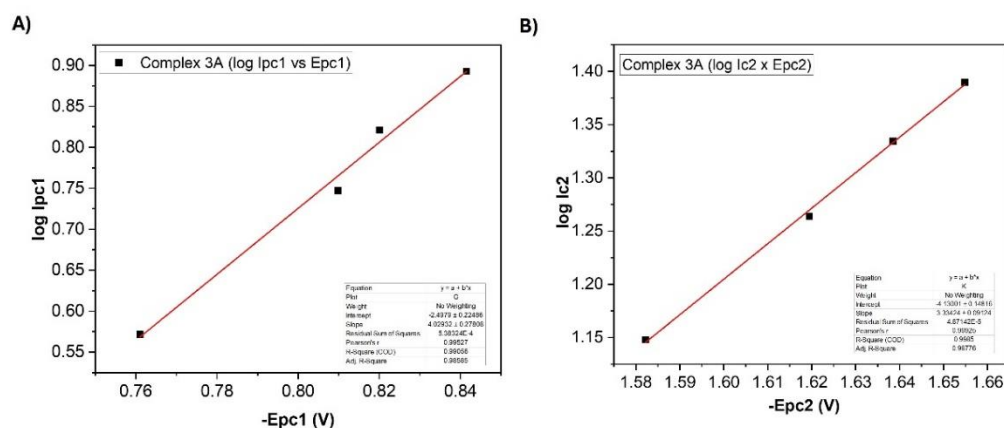
Appendix Figure 32. **A)** Linear relationship between the logarithm of the first cathodic peak current and the first cathodic potential for complex 2C. **B)** Linear relationship between the logarithm of the second cathodic peak current and the second cathodic potential for complex 2C. **C)** Linear relationship between the logarithm of the anode peak current and the anode potential for complex 2C.



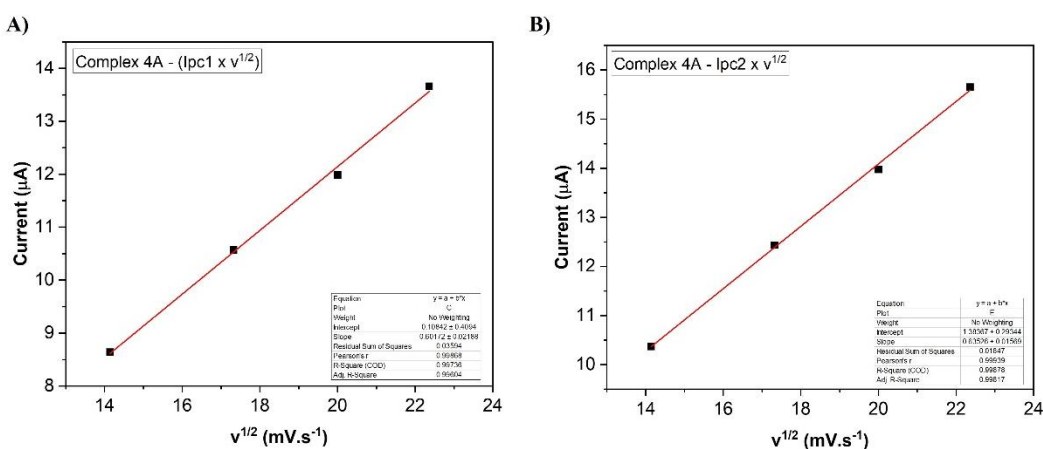
Appendix Figure 33. **A)** Linear relationship between the first cathodic peak current and the square root of the scan rate for complex 3A. **B)** Linear relationship between the second cathodic peak current and the square root of the scan rate for complex 3A.



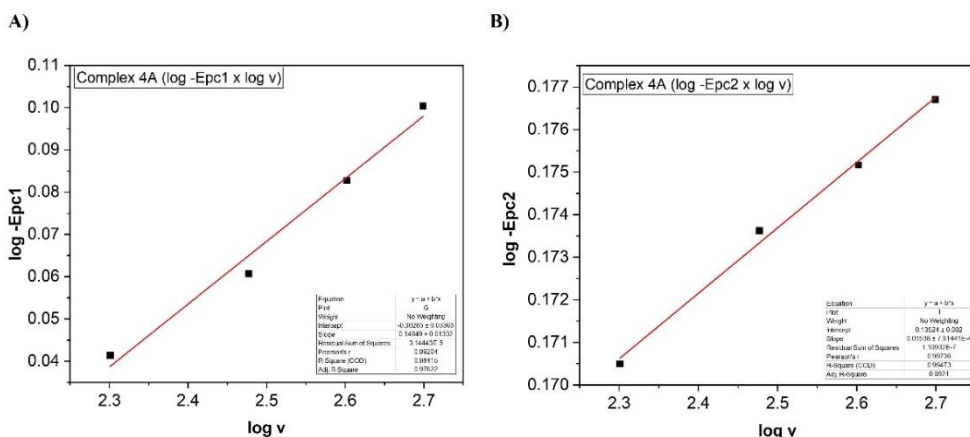
Appendix Figure 34. **A)** Linear relationship between the logarithm of the first cathodic peak current and the logarithm of the scan rate for complex 3A. **B)** Linear relationship between the logarithm of the second cathodic peak current and the logarithm of the scan rate for complex 3A.



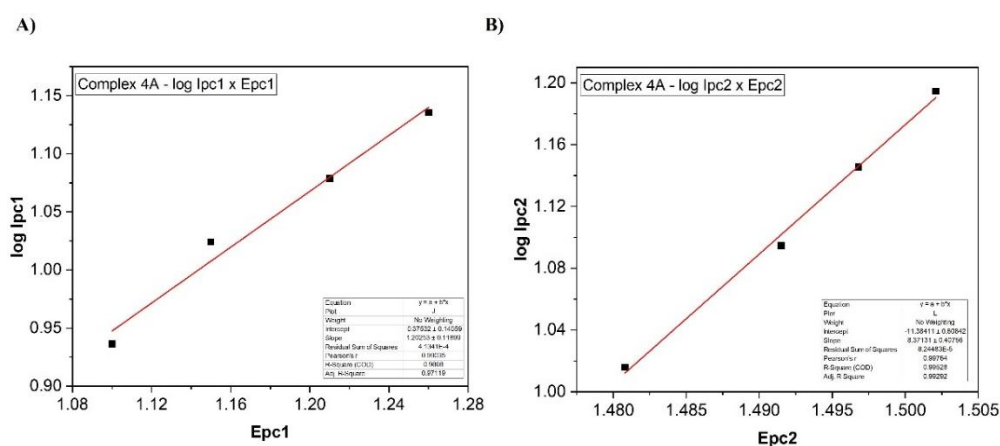
Appendix Figure 35. **A)** Linear relationship between the logarithm of the first cathodic peak current and the first cathodic potential for complex 3A. **B)** Linear relationship between the logarithm of the second cathodic peak current and the second cathodic potential for complex 3A.



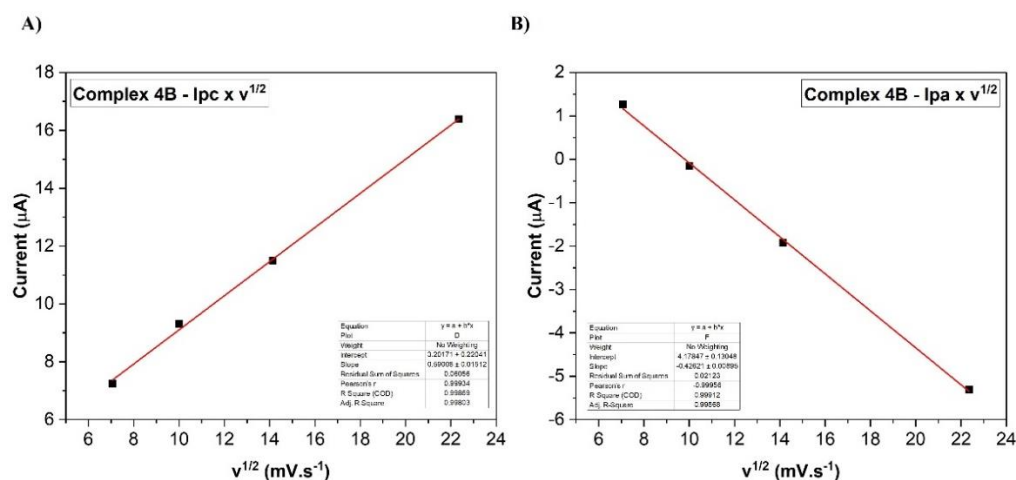
Appendix Figure 36. **A)** Linear relationship between the first cathodic peak current and the square root of the scan rate for complex 4A. **B)** Linear relationship between the second cathodic peak current and the square root of the scan rate for complex 4A.



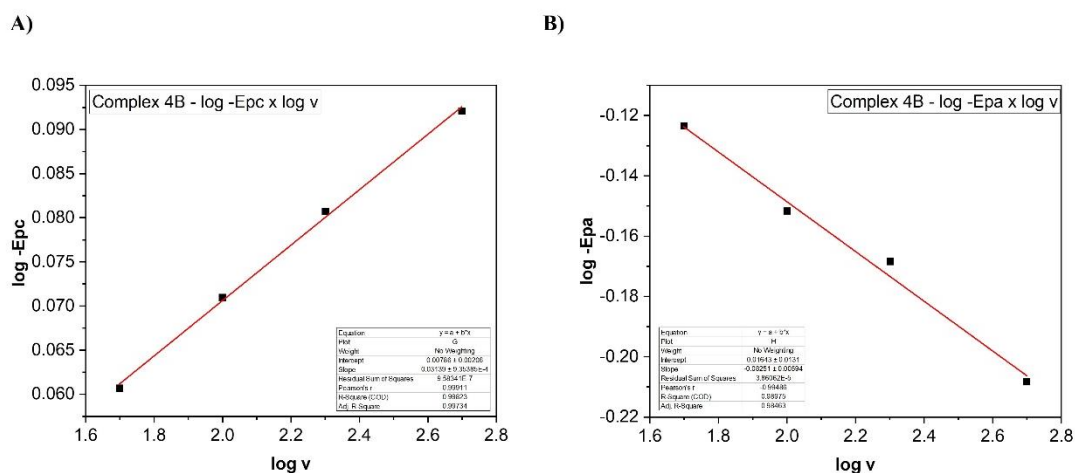
Appendix Figure 37. **A)** Linear relationship between the logarithm of the first cathodic peak current and the logarithm of the scan rate for complex 4A. **B)** Linear relationship between the logarithm of the second cathodic peak current and the logarithm of the scan rate for complex 4A.



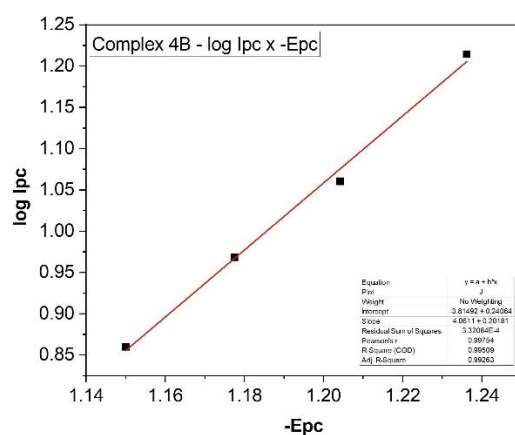
Appendix Figure 38. **A)** Linear relationship between the logarithm of the first cathodic peak current and the first cathodic potential for complex 4A. **B)** Linear relationship between the logarithm of the second cathodic peak current and the second cathodic potential for complex 4A.



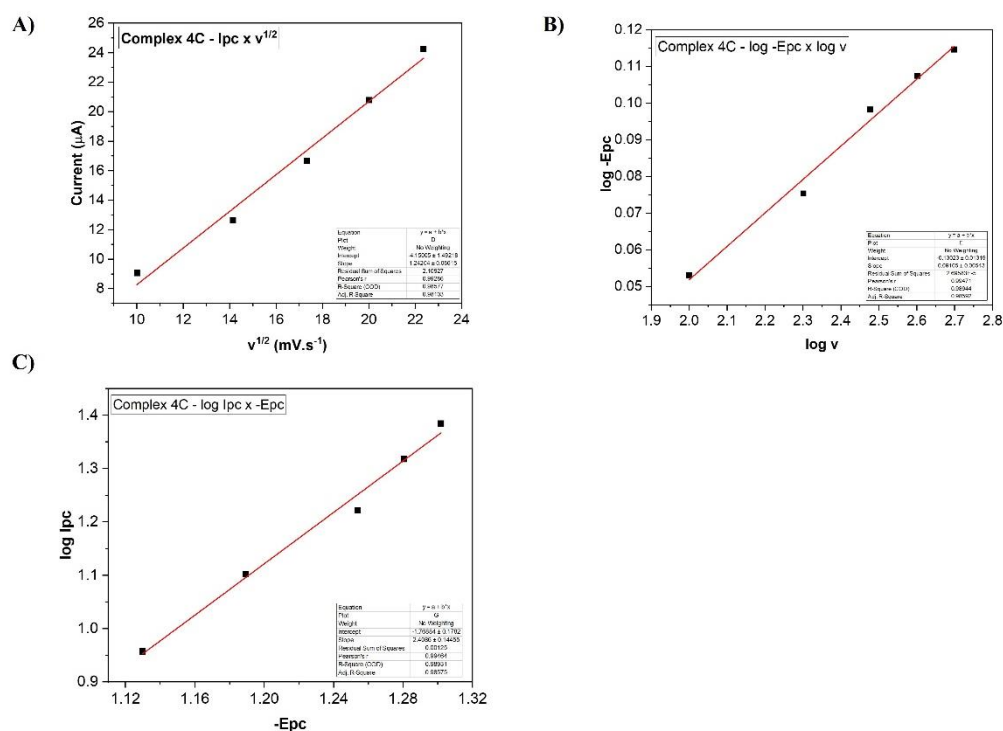
Appendix Figure 39. **A)** Linear relationship between the cathodic peak current and the square root of the scan rate for complex 4B. **B)** Linear relationship between the anode peak current and the square root of the scan rate for complex 4B.



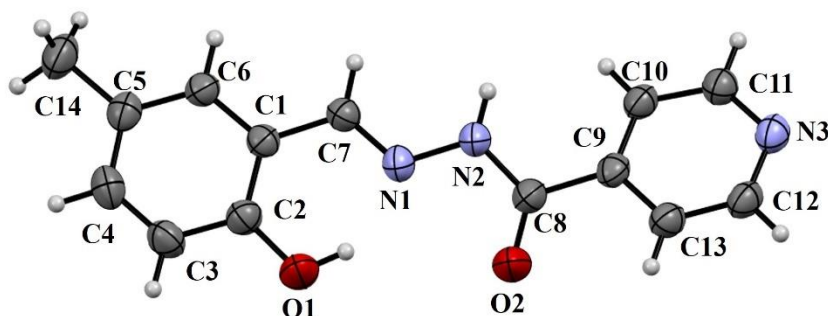
Appendix Figure 40. A) Linear relationship between the logarithm of the cathodic peak current and the logarithm of the scan rate for complex 4B. B) Linear relationship between the logarithm of the anode peak current and the logarithm of the scan rate for complex 4B.



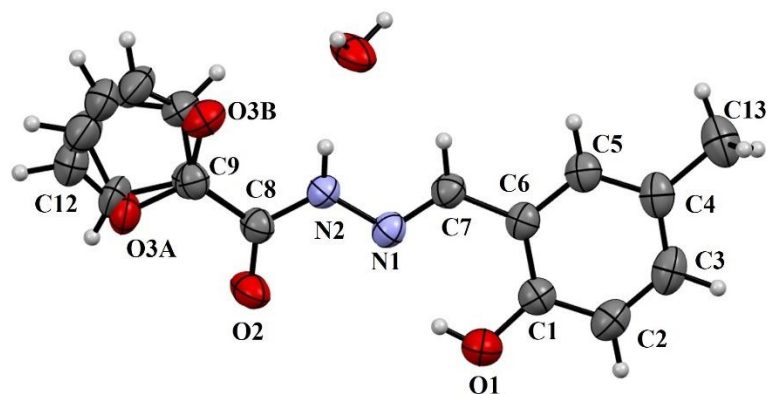
Appendix Figure 41. Linear relationship between the logarithm of the cathodic peak current and the first cathodic potential for complex 4B.



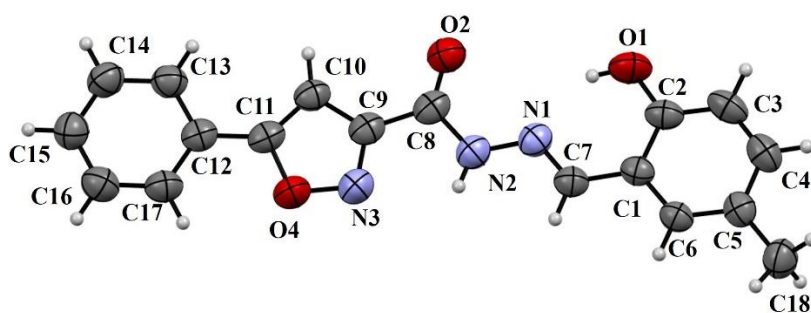
Appendix Figure 42. A) Linear relationship between the cathodic peak current and the square root of the scan rate for complex 4C. B) Linear relationship between the logarithm of the cathodic peak current and the logarithm of the scan rate for complex 4C. C) Linear relationship between the logarithm of the cathodic peak current and the cathodic potential for complex 4C.



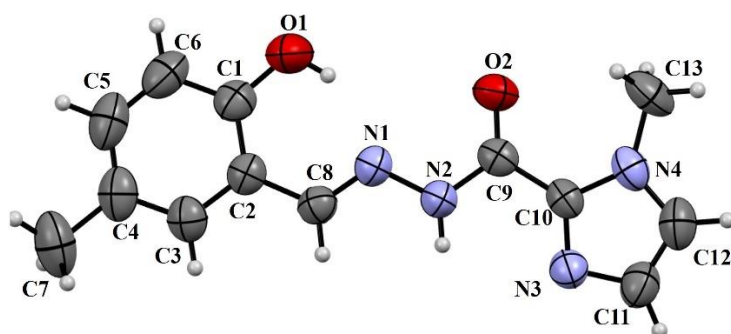
Appendix Figure 43. Molecular structure representations of H₂L1. The ellipsoids were drawn at the 50% probability level.



Appendix Figure 44. Molecular structure representations of H₂L2. The ellipsoids were drawn at the 50% probability level.



Appendix Figure 45. Molecular structure representations of H₂L3. The ellipsoids were drawn at the 50% probability level.



Appendix Figure 46. Molecular structure representations of H₂L4. The ellipsoids were drawn at the 50% probability level.

Appendix Table 1. Selected bond distances and angles for compounds H₂L1, H₂L2, H₂L3 and H₂L4.

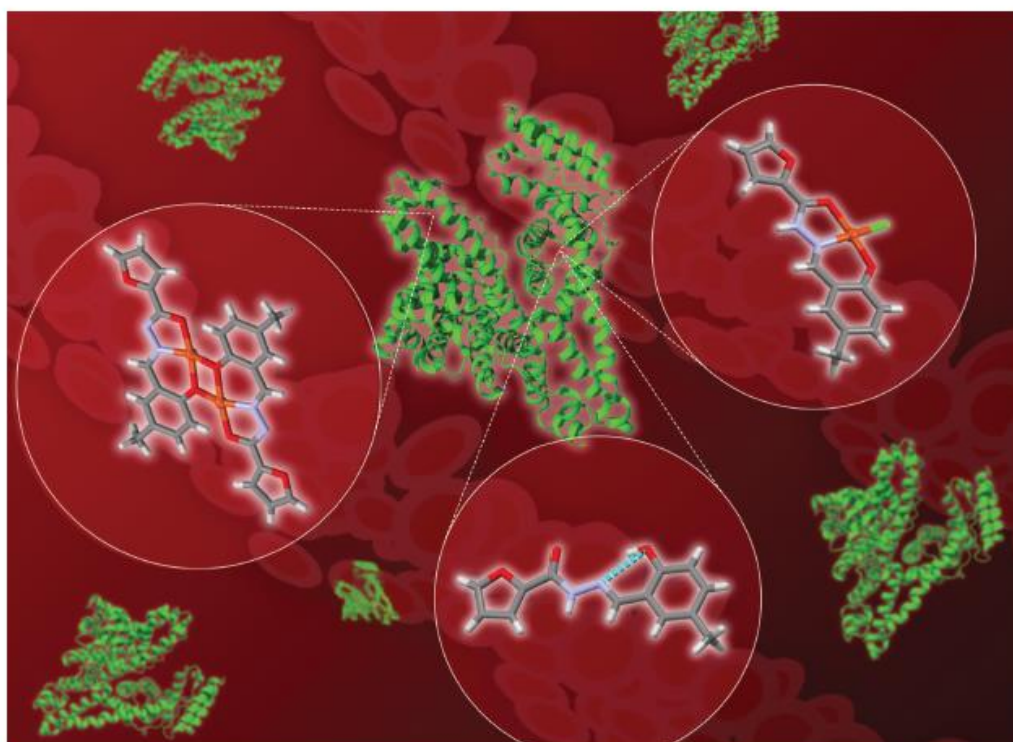
Compound	H ₂ L1	H ₂ L2	H ₂ L3	H ₂ L4
Bond distances (Å)				
C2–O1 / C1–O1	1.361(2)	1.351(3)	1.353(3)	1.357(3)
C7–N1 / C8–N1	1.275(2)	1.287(3)	1.279(3)	1.277(2)
C8–O2 / C9–O2	1.215(2)	1.237(3)	1.215(3)	1.217(2)
N1–N2	1.369(19)	1.379(3)	1.366(3)	1.374(2)
C8–N2 / C9–N2	1.355(2)	1.343(3)	1.362(3)	1.357(2)
C1–C7 / C6–C7 C2–C8	1.448(2)	1.443(3)	1.450(3)	1.444(3)
C8–C9 / C9–C10	–	–	1.477(3)	1.469
C9–N3 / C10–N4	–	–	1.307(3)	1.355
N3–O3	–	–	1.389(2)	–
C10–N3	–	–	–	1.318
C11–O3	–	–	1.355(3)	–
Bond angle / °				
C3–C2–O1 / C2–C1–O1 / C2–C3–O1 /	118.20(15)	118.4(2)	118.74(19)	118.74
C6–C1–C7 / C2–C1–C7 / C1–C2–C8	119.94(13)	123.6(2)	122.22(18)	122.07(19)
C1–C7–N1 / C6–C7–N1 / C2–C8–N1	119.51(13)	122.9(2)	120.11(17)	121.2(2)
C7–N1–N2 / C8–N1–N2	120.23(13)	114.4(2)	117.47(17)	118.05(18)
N1–N2–C8 / N1–N2–C9	115.86(13)	120.1(2)	120.66(18)	117.78(17)
N2–C8–C9 / N2–C9–C10	116.80(14)	114.4(10)	113.3(2)	112.86(19)
N2–C8–O2 / N2–C9–O2 /	122.19(16)	123.7(2)	123.38(19)	123.28(19)

Appendix Table 1 (cont). Selected angles for compounds H₂L1, H₂L2, H₂L3 and H₂L4.

Compounds	H ₂ L1	H ₂ L2	H ₂ L3	H ₂ L4
Bond angle / °				
C8–C9–C13	117.52(14)	–	–	–
C8–C9–O3	–	116.0(17)	–	–
C8–C9–C10	124.53(14)	–	129.3(2)	–
C9–C10–N3	–	–	118.55(19)	124.46
C11–N3–C12	116.53(15)	–	–	–
C9–O3–C12	–	108.5(12)	–	–
C11–O3–N3	–	–	109.15(16)	–
C9–C10–N4	–	–	–	123.64
C12–C11–O3	–	–	116.15(16)	–
N3–C10–N4	–	–	–	111.96
C10–N4–C13	–	–	–	129.18

9. Scientific Production

This work was developed over 48 months of PhD research through the Program of the Department of Chemistry at the Pontifical Catholic University of Rio de Janeiro (PUC-Rio). I started my doctorate in the second semester of 2020 and, due to the pandemic situation imposed by COVID-19, the first 12 months of experimental work were significantly impacted. However, this research resulted in two full manuscripts (one already published, the other one submitted) in indexed scientific journal, with myself being the first author of one of them, which was featured on the back cover of the journal Dalton Transactions, and second author of another publication that is currently under review. The first page of one of these articles and the submission email, in chronological order, are presented below. The full published article can be downloaded from the publisher's website. Parts of this work have been presented at many national and international conferences, including oral presentations and posters.

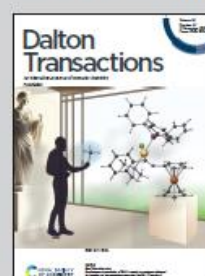


Showcasing research from Professor Nicolás A. Rey's laboratory (LABSO-Bio), Department of Chemistry, Pontifical Catholic University of Rio de Janeiro, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil.

Copper(II) complexes of a furan-containing aroylhydrazone ligand: syntheses, structural studies, solution chemistry and interaction with HSA

A combined experimental-theoretical approach demonstrated that new mononuclear and dinuclear copper complexes of 5-methylsalicylaldehyde 2-furoyl hydrazone, as well as the ligand itself, are able to bind human serum albumin, although at different sites and with diverse stoichiometries.

As featured in:



See Nicolás A. Rey *et al.*,
Dalton Trans., 2023, 52, 17731.

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Cite this: DOI: 10.1039/d3dt02597g

Copper(II) complexes of a furan-containing aroylhydrazonic ligand: syntheses, structural studies, solution chemistry and interaction with HSA†

Fagner da Silva Moura,^a Ygor S. Sobrinho,^a Carolina Stellet,^a Jilder D. P. Serna,^b Carolina B. P. Ligiero,^c Maurício I. Yoguim,^d Daphne S. Cukierman,^{ib} ^{a,e} Renata Diniz,^f Odivaldo C. Alves,^c Nelson H. Morgon,^g Aguinaldo R. de Souza^d and Nicolás A. Rey^{ib} ^{*a}

Copper(II) complexes have become a potential alternative to the use of platinum drugs in cancer therapy due to their multi-target mode of action. In this context, we report the syntheses of new mononuclear and dinuclear coordination compounds of this element, **1** and **2**, derived from the ligand 5-methyl-salicylaldehyde 2-furoyl hydrazone (**H₂L**). All three compounds were structurally and spectroscopically characterized, both in the solid state and in solution. In **1**, Cu is coordinated by three donor-atoms from the hydrazonic ligand and one chloride ion. **H₂L** is deprotonated at the phenol oxygen. The dinuclear complex **2** is, on the other hand, a dimeric form of **1** in which the chloride ions of a pair of mononuclear units are lost and phenoxo bridges take their places, double-connecting the metal centres and resulting in a single species with the ligand fully deprotonated. The compounds were fairly stable in aqueous medium at room temperature. An experimental–theoretical combined approach demonstrated that all of them are able to bind human serum albumin (HSA), although at different sites and with diverse stoichiometries and affinities (as concluded by the calculated binding energies). In view of this, and due to the well-known antiproliferative activity of hydrazone-containing copper complexes, we consider the compounds presented in here promising, and believe that they deserve more profound studies regarding the assessment of their potential against tumour cell lines.

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17-Jul-2024

Dear Dr Leon:

TITLE: Antiproliferative activity of a series of copper(II) complexes derived from a furan-containing N-acylhydrazone. Monomer versus dimers, charged versus neutral, and cell mechanistic studies on triple negative breast cancer cells

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