



## RESEARCH ARTICLE

# PHARMACEUTICAL DESIGN OF NO RELEASE FROM IRON, MANGANESE AND RUTHENIUM NITROSYL COMPLEXES

\*Jan Mohammad Mir, Neeta Jain and Maurya, R. C.

Coordination, Bioinorganic & Computational Chemistry Laboratory, Department of PG Studies and Research in Chemistry and Pharmacy, RD University Jabalpur-482001

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### ABSTRACT

This manuscript is an update of some important concerns about nitrosyl complexes having the ability to act as nitric oxide releasing compounds under varied circumstances involving ligand, metal and solution properties. In current times seek for efficient and less harmful NO releasing molecules at desirable target and concentration has gained enormity in nitrosyl chemistry. Iron, ruthenium and manganese nitrosyls have been investigated to a considerable extent to disentangle their electronic transition (excitation) under visible light to act as NO donor without harming healthy cells of a target. There are many evidences supporting the NO-lability to be increased if amino acids are used as complexing ligands, design of reduction centre close to an NO grouping and development of porphyrin system based nitrosyl complexes. From the overall survey it may be concluded that desirable properties of such scaffolds need to be evaluated further to well suit with biological milieu.

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## INTRODUCTION

During the 'Dark Ages' of nitric oxide (NO) biochemistry (1) (pre-1980), very little was known about the biological role of NO. However, the chemical roles of NO have been known and studied by chemists for a long time. Chemically, NO is a diatomic radical species (often denoted as NO<sup>•</sup>). Small, simple and highly toxic pungent smelling gas as environmental pollutant found in photochemical smog (2), produced by oxidation of NH<sub>3</sub>, incomplete combustion of gasoline in motor vehicle exhausts (3), and power stations (4), it was long known for its reactivity as an oxidant, reductant, radical initiator and a strong ligand to transition metal centers to form metal nitrosyls (5). The discovery and elucidation of its biological functions by Louis J. Ignarro and others in the 1980s came as a surprise (6). Well known as being responsible for the physiological actions of endothelial relaxing factor (EDRF), its early implication in a diverse number of medically important processes (7) culminated in 1992 with NO being declared "Molecule of the Year" by the journal *Science* (8). In addition to its role as a molecular messenger and vasodilator, endogenously (9) produced NO in living organisms (10) has been shown to be involved in a great many biological

processes (11) and dysfunction (12) in NO metabolism has been associated with a number of disease state such as epilepsy, arthritis, hypertension and septic shock, tumour progression, etc. As, any aspect of biology/biological molecule that can be put to some useful application, viz., drug development for human health care, is the biotechnology (12), the present work is befitting in purview of medicinal biotechnology of nitrosyl complexes in combination with chemistry from the following facts:

- (i) The nitric oxide produced endogenously by nitric oxide synthase (NOS) (13), acts as a signaling molecule to regulate blood pressure, neurotransmission, inhibition of platelet aggregation, cell-mediated immune response, antimicrobial activity and cell apoptosis(14).
- (ii) The biological activity of NO depends on dose and duration of exposure as well as on cellular sensitivity to NO. For example, relatively low concentration (2-300 nM) of NO produced by the constitutive NOS (nNOS and eNOS) are required for its neurological and vascular functions (15). Much larger concentration (low mM) of NO produced by activated microphages via inducible isoform of NOS (iNOS) lead to cytotoxicity (16).
- (iii) NO deficiency has been implicated in the genesis and evolution of several disease states. Both medical needs and commercial opportunities have fostered attempts to

\*Corresponding author: Jan Mohammad Mir,

Coordination, Bioinorganic & Computational Chemistry Laboratory, Department of PG Studies and Research in Chemistry and Pharmacy, RD University Jabalpur-482001

modulate NO in the human body for therapeutic gain (17).

- (iv) This prompted research in the area of development of exogenous NO carrier drugs (18) that can deliver NO at desired locales.
- (v) Synthetic exogenous nitric oxide (NO) donors produce NO-related activity when applied to biological systems. So they are mainly suited to either mimic an endogenous NO-related response or substitute an endogenous NO deficiency for the treatment of various diseases (19).

## 1. Metal Nitrosyl Complexes

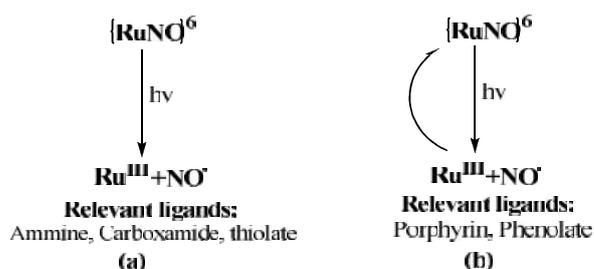
The search for new storage release systems, capable of delivering NO to desired targets, has stimulated the chemistry of metal nitrosyl complexes, which has witnessed a substantial progress since the last decade (20). The chemistry of metal nitrosyl complexes has taken on added significance (21) in recent years because of the important role involving transition metal in the biological process of NO, as well as the possibility of producing thermodynamically stable and kinetically labile species. Such strategies (21) have focused on the development of pharmacological substances capable of releasing NO at specific rates in tissues, in order to overcome NO deficiency. The great affinity of  $d^6$  and  $d^5$  low-spin and in low oxidation state metal complexes for NO and the versatility of NO on its own right as a ligand make the nitrosyl complexes a good alternative for such a proposal. Iron, ruthenium (22) and manganese are good candidates as a model for NO carriers. Indeed, several iron-based nitrosyls including sodium nitroprusside (SNP,  $\text{Na}_2(\text{Fe}(\text{NO})(\text{CN})_5)$ ) (23) and Roussin's salts (24) were found to release NO when exposed to light. Despite its well known toxicity, SNP is largely used as a NO deliverer in clinical practices for blood pressure control in cases of acute hypertension (25). In recent years, interest in nitrosyl complexes has been renewed following the successful use of sodium nitroprusside (SNP) as a NO donor drug to control high blood pressure during hypertensive episodes (25). Interestingly, metal nitrosyls like SNP and Roussin's salts (Fe-S clusters that store multiple equivalents of NO) release NO upon illumination with light (300-500 nm) (24, 23).

However, low quantum yields, release of NO spontaneously (i.e. in the dark) and often changes in pH and temperature, and problems associated with ancillary ligands (such as cyanide in case of SNP) limit the use of such nitrosyls in PDT. Chelating ligands provide some relief from these problems. For example, the iron complex  $((\text{PaPy}_3)\text{Fe}(\text{NO}))(\text{ClO}_4)_2$  was the first of many NO donors to be studied by Mascharak and co-workers (26-28). It was shown to cleanly release NO when exposed to low-intensity visible light. Unfortunately, like many other iron nitrosyls,  $((\text{PaPy}_3)\text{Fe}(\text{NO}))(\text{ClO}_4)_2$  exhibits unpredictable stability under biological conditions. Several NO-releasing complexes of chromium (29-31) and manganese (32, 33) have also been reported, but are limited by similar effects. The only exception is the manganese nitrosyl  $((\text{PaPy}_3)\text{Mn}(\text{NO}))(\text{BF}_4)$  (34-36). This photoactive NO donor has been used to deliver NO to biological targets like myoglobin, cytochrome c oxidase, and papain (37, 38). Clearly, the number of metal nitrosyls that release NO exclusively when triggered by light and exhibit stability under physiological conditions (pH ~7, presence of oxygen) is very limited.

## 2. Ruthenium nitrosyl complexes: Photodynamic Therapy (PDT) and Light Activated NO Donors

PDT has been evaluated as an adjuvant therapy to other therapeutic modalities, including surgery, hyperthermia, radiotherapy, immunotherapy and chemotherapy as new approaches for the treatment of a variety of cancers and non-malignant disorders (39). In DPT two individually non-toxic components are combined to induce cellular effects in an oxygen dependent manner. The first component consists of a photosensitive molecule, a photosensitizer that preferentially localizes to a target cell and/or tissue. The second involves the administration of light of a specific wavelength that activates the sensitizer. The excited sensitizer generates highly reactive singlet oxygen and other reactive oxygen species that trigger a complex cascade of photochemical reactions and photobiological events that eventually cause injury and death of targeted cells. NO donors that release NO photochemically have generated much interest because they allow localized release of NO and could be used for photodynamic therapy of cancer cells (40). The site specificity provided by laser treatment allows for more precise targeting than systemic drugs alone. It has been demonstrated that cells subjected to PDT produce NO (41). Because NO reacts with various reactive oxygen species generated by PDT, it has been suggested that NO contributes to the effective outcome of PDT treatment (42).

Since complexes of ruthenium are in general more stable, a variety of ruthenium nitrosyls have been isolated and studied in detail in terms of their NO donating capacities (43) to biological targets on demand. In general, the nitrosyls with non-porphyrin ligands (such as amines, Schiff bases, thiolates and ligands with carboxamide groups) readily release NO upon illumination and generate Ru(III) photoproducts. In contrast, NO photorelease from ruthenium nitrosyls derived from porphyrins remains limited due to rapid recombination.



**Scheme:** (a) Generation of NO and Ru(III) photoproduct, (b) NO Photogeneration followed by NO recombination.

Although many ruthenium nitrosyls are known to release NO upon energy-intensive UV light irradiation (44), reports on visible light NO labilizations of ruthenium nitrosyls are rare (45). In addition, the  $\text{Ru}^{\text{III}}$  solvent complexes that result after irradiation inevitably undergo undesired side reactions in solution. One continuing challenge is, therefore, to find a Ru-NO complex that could release NO reversibly under very mild conditions without any metal-bound side reactions for biological applications. Study of photo induced NO cleavage (46-48) has shown that the NO release in Polyamidoamine functionalized with ruthenium nitrosyl compounds is made through light irradiation ( $\lambda = 355 \text{ nm}$ ) and one-electron reduction ( $\text{Eu}^{2+}$ ) (49). The record of stability of phosphite coordinated to ruthenium(II) in aqueous media is also attractive work (50). NO release in some cases has been stated to be possible only if they are activated by reduction centered

on the nitrosyl ligand (50). Another important recent advancement in the nitrosyl lability is from a trinuclear ruthenium nitrosyl complex and the relevant *in vitro* cytotoxicity against melanoma cells (51) and certain ruthenium nitrosyl clusters have been designated a pro-drug, NO releasers. It has also been found that chronic corticosterone administration facilitates aversive memory retrieval and increases glucocorticoid receptors (GRs)/Nitric oxide synthase (NOS) immune reactivity. As retrograde messenger, NO influences the formation of long-term potentiation (LTP) and memory consolidation (52). Cell penetrating ability and cytotoxicity of nitric oxide donating ruthenium complexes is also quite fascinating (53). Some concerns regarding the NO release with anti HIV and anti cancer activities have also been investigated. Synthesis of ruthenium nitrosyl complexes (54, 55) is thus fundamentally attentive because of the admirable facts of metal reactivity. In some cases of nitrosyl-bridged diruthenium complexes protonation of metal-metal bonds by the addition reaction of proton has been brought to light (56) and the enhanced metal basicity and spontaneous reaction with a proton (from  $\text{HBF}_4$ ) in diethyl ether to afford the corresponding oxidative addition has been recorded. Some crystalline forms of the nitrosyl ruthenium complex have been worked out (57) showing volume of guest solvents, the unit cell parameters and the resulting *iso* structural arrangement with small differences in the intermolecular interactions, with caged guest solvents, that interact with the complex by hydrogen bonds.

**3. Theoretical studies** on certain nitrosyl complexes of ruthenium are already reported involving their geometry optimization and verification through furnished x-ray data (58) involving the complex in conformation of minimum energy and not in a transition state using Spartan programme with B3LYP hybrid density functional theory in conjunction with the 6-31G basis sets and LACVP for the Ruthenium Atom. In some cases (59) DFT geometry optimization of the complex has been carried out with the aid of GAMESS software (60) with a convergence criterion in a conjugate gradient algorithm. It is here to mention that the use of LANL2DZ (61) effective core potential for Ruthenium and the atomic 6-31G(d) basis set (62) employed for all other atoms in the complex and B3LYP hybrid functional (63) have fetched reliable results as per the reports. Molecular orbitals and the simulated electronic spectrum may also be determined by the semi-empirical ZINDO/S method (64) as implemented in the hyper chem program (65, 66). Generally Self Consistent Field Calculations are accomplished, in order to obtain RHF wave functions with reliable criterion for convergence, using the Ruthenium and Cl parameters from the literature (67). The electronic spectrum calculated on the basis of single Cl excitations in an active space and the adsorption profile can be simulated by using Gaussian functions. Computational study of  $(\text{Ru}(\text{salen})(\text{NO})\text{Cl})$  species from X-ray atomic coordinates (68) has also been documented. The electronic structure calculated with ZINDO/s method and Self Consistent Reaction Field approximation in bulk solvent effects has been reported. Gaussian run UV Vis spectrum has been used in verifying the formulations for the precursor and photoproduct complexes (35), the spectra of the singlet species  $(\text{Ru}(\text{Salen})(\text{NO})\text{Cl})$  represents precursor and the doublet species  $(\text{Ru}(\text{Salen})(\text{H}_2\text{O})_2)^+$  as photoproduct. Appreciable charge transfer analysis is made through the TD-DFT programme (69). The vibrational frequency calculations are generally performed to ensure that the optimized geometries represent

the local minima and there are only positive eigen values including no imaginary frequency (70). Vertical electronic excitations based on B3LYP/(U)b3LYP optimized geometries are computed for the time-dependent density functional theory (TD-DFT) formalism (71).

#### 4. Dinitrosyl iron(II) complexes (DNICS)

Electronic structure of dinitrosyl porphyrin metal complexes has remained highly interested quest since the last decade (72) to unravel the respective stereochemistry. The class of complexes has earned much attention due to applications as nitric oxide donors as well as possessing interesting electronic structures (73). Typical Fe-NO electromerism issues are complicated by the presence of a second nitrosyl ligand.

**CASSCF calculations** on selected models confirm the multi configurational character of the  $\text{Fe}(\text{NO})_2$  moiety, with the largest contributor at only 44% of the total weight of the wave function. Tailoring of iron to change the nature of coordination sphere involving 4, 5 or 6 coordination numbers to release nitrosyl ligand is an important asset. Compared to the tetrahedral  $\{\text{Fe}(\text{NO})_2\}$  dinitrosyl iron complexes (74) displaying EPR signal  $g = 2.03$ , the newly synthesized six-/five-coordinate exhibit the distinct EPR signal  $g=2.015-2.018$ . It has been shown that the aspect of the geometric structure of  $\{\text{Fe}(\text{NO})_2\}$  DNICS impose electron-donating ability and conformation of the coordinated ligands regulates the Fe-NO bonding of  $\{\text{Fe}(\text{NO})_2\}$  DNICS and presumably the release of nitrosyl from DNICS. Very recently (75) a series of iron dinitrosyl complexes have been investigated and shown to undergo one-electron oxidations. Infrared spectro electrochemistry revealed that the oxidations generate the derivatives with  $\nu_{\text{NOS}}$  that are  $\sim 100 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  higher in energy indicative of  $\text{Fe}(\text{NO})_2$ -centered oxidations.

#### 5. Biological Fate of NO & its Protein Interactions

Vanin et al. (76) suggested a hypothesis that NO and its endogenous derivatives (low molecular S-nitroso thiols and dinitrosyl iron complexes (DNIC) with thiol-containing ligands) can move in the intracellular space not only by diffusion but also in an auto wave mode. This hypothesis is based on the previously reported data on auto wave distribution of DNIC with glutathione following application of a drop of a solution of  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$  glutathione onto the surface of a thin layer of S-nitroso glutathione solution. According to the report (76) of this group auto wave distribution of NO and its endogenous derivatives in the intracellular space is advantageous of over free diffusion, which might entail higher efficiency of their biological action, are discussed. Regarding nitric oxide-derived cellular adducts of their formation and biological fate (77) quantitative measurements reveal that cellular concentrations of DNIC are proportionally the largest of all NO-derived adducts (900 pmol/mg protein, or 45–90  $\mu\text{M}$ ). It has been established that DNIC will be formed under all cellular settings of NO production and that the contribution of DNIC to the multitude of observed effects of NO must always be considered.

##### 6.1. DNICS in Blood Circulatory System

Cysteine based dinitrosyl-iron complexes have been found responsible for a long-lasting vasorelaxation (78). It has been found (79) that intracavernous injections of water-soluble

dinitrosyl iron complexes (DNIC) with glutathione or cysteine (0.4–6.0  $\mu\text{moles/kg}$ ) to male rats induce short-term (2–3 min) penile erection along with a short-term drop of arterial pressure and appearance of protein-bound DNIC in cavernous tissue and circulating blood. The nature of a compound able to induce long-lasting relaxation of rat abdominal aorta rings after addition of rapidly (within several minutes) disappear mono- and binuclear dinitrosyl iron complexes with Cysteine. It has been reported that long-lasting vasorelaxation is not induced either by S-nitrosocysteine formed upon decomposition of DNICs or by accumulation of free nitric oxide molecules or nitrite remaining in the incubation medium. It is hypothesized that compound representing a cysteine ester of nitrosyl iron complexes, namely, a black Roussin's salt cysteine ester is responsible for long-lasting vasorelaxation. Hence, inorganic iron nitrosyl complexes will prove more beneficial in treating heart diseases and hypertension than organic nitroso forms. A comparative study of hypotensive effects of binuclear forms of dinitrosyl iron complexes (DNICs) with glutathione, S-nitrosoglutathione (GS-NO) and sodium nitrite ( $\text{NaNO}_2$ ) on rats in first clinical phase trial has revealed that the latter appeared to be the least efficient, viz., mean arterial pressure (MAP) decreased by 10 and 30 mm Hg at 25 and 100  $\mu\text{moles/kg}$  of  $\text{NaNO}_2$  (80). In contrast, DNIC and GS-NO produced an appreciable hypotensive effect when used at much lower concentrations. It has been found that dinitrosyl iron complexes with glutathione (DNIC-GS) injected into the blood flow of rats at a dose of 0.05  $\mu\text{moles/kg}$  prior to hemorrhage significantly improve cardiac function under conditions of hemorrhagic shock manifested in increased stroke volume, left ventricular work and cardiac output to a level exceeding control values 1.5-fold (81). It has been suggested that beneficial effects of DNIC-GS on systemic circulation parameters under conditions of hemorrhagic shock are determined by their antioxidant activity and the ability to induce S-nitrosylation of proteins. It is thus, well established that nitric oxide (NO) reacts with cellular iron and thiols to form dinitrosyl iron complexes (DNIC). Among prokaryotes (*E. coli*) Iron-sulfur proteins have been designated as major source of protein-bound dinitrosyl iron complexes formed under nitric oxide stress (82). Expression of recombinant iron-sulfur proteins, but not proteins without iron-sulfur clusters, almost doubles the amount of protein-bound DNICs formed in *E. coli* cells after NO exposure.

Hemoproteins play central roles in the formation and utilization of nitric oxide (NO) in cellular signaling, as well as in protection against nitrosative stress (83). Key to heme-nitrosyl function and reactivity is the Fe coordination number (5 or 6). For (five-coordinate) 5c-NO complexes, the potential for NO to bind on either heme face exists, as in the microbial cytochrome c from *Alcaligenes xylosoxidans* (AxCYTc), which forms a stable proximal 5c-NO complex via a distal six-coordinate NO intermediate and a putative dinitrosyl species. Strong parallels between the NO-binding kinetics of AxCYTc, the eukaryotic NO sensor soluble guanylate cyclase, and the ferrocyanide/cardiophilin complex have led to the suggestion that a distal-to-proximal NO switch could contribute to the selective ligand responses in gas-sensing hemoproteins. In case of plants, exposure to nitric oxide increases the nitrosyl-iron complexes content in sorghum embryonic axes (84). Nitrosyl-Fe complexes formation has been detected in sorghum embryonic axes homogenates incubated in vitro in the presence of 1mM of NO donors: diethylenetriamine NONOate (DETA NONOate),

S-nitrosoglutathione (GSNO) and sodium nitroprusside (SNP). In axes isolated from seeds incubated in vivo in the presence of 1mM SNP for 24 h, the content of NO has been found to have increased by 2-fold and the EPR spectrum from mononitrosyl-Fe complexes (MNIC) shows a concomitant increase in the fresh weight of sorghum axes. Some reports have also shown that the submicromolar NO concentration, the aerobic nitrosation of glutathione does not involve NO autoxidation but a reaction that is first order with respect to NO (85). Glutathione dinitrosyl complexes can be easily synthesized in the air at ambient temperature (86) including consecutive addition to distilled water of glutathione, which decreases the pH of the test solution to 4.0, a bivalent iron salt (e.g., ferrous sulphate) and sodium nitrite at the molar ratio of 2:1:1, with a subsequent increase in pH to neutral values. Using the electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR) and optical spectrophotometric methods, it has been established that biologically active, water-soluble dinitrosyl iron complexes (DNIC) with glutathione are predominantly represented by the diamagnetic binuclear form (B-DNIC) even in the presence of a 10-fold excess of glutathione non-incorporated into DNIC at neutral pH (87). Considering the dinitrosyl iron complexes with glutathione as NO and  $\text{NO}^+$  donors, recently it has been reported that heating of solutions of the binuclear form of dinitrosyl iron complexes (B-DNIC) with glutathione in a degassed Thunberg apparatus (pH 1.0, 70 °C, 6 h) results in their decomposition with a concomitant release of four gaseous NO molecules per one B-DNIC (88). Further injection of air into the Thunberg apparatus initiates fast oxidation of NO to  $\text{NO}_2$  and formation of two GS-NO molecules per one B-DNIC. Under similar conditions, the decomposition of B-DNIC solutions in the Thunberg apparatus in the presence of air is complete within 30–40 min and is accompanied by formation of four GS-NO molecules per one B-DNIC. It has been suggested that the latter events are determined by oxidation of B-DNIC iron and concomitant release of four nitrosonium ions ( $\text{NO}^+$ ) from each complex. Binding of  $\text{NO}^+$  to thiol groups of glutathione provokes GS-NO synthesis. At neutral pH, decomposition of B-DNIC is initiated by strong iron chelators, viz., o-phenanthroline and N-methyl-D-glucamine dithiocarbamate (MGD). In the former case, the reaction occurs under anaerobic conditions (degassed Thunberg apparatus) and is accompanied by a release of four NO molecules from B-DNIC. Under identical conditions, MGD-induced decomposition of B-DNIC gives two EPR-active mononuclear mononitrosyl iron complexes with MGD (MNIC-MGD) able to incorporate two iron molecules and two NO molecules from each B-DNIC. The other two NO molecules released from B-DNIC (most probably, in the form of nitrosonium ions) bind to thiol groups of MGD to give corresponding S-nitrosothiols. Acidification of test solutions to pH 1.0 initiates hydrolysis of MGD and, as a consequence, decomposition of MNIC-MGD and the S-nitrosated form of MGD; the gaseous phase contains four NO molecules (as calculated per each B-DNIC). The data obtained testify to the ability of B-DNIC with glutathione (and, probably, of B-DNIC with other thiol containing ligands) to release both NO molecules and nitrosonium ions upon their decomposition. As far as nitrosyl iron complexes with non-thiol-containing ligands predominantly represented by the mononuclear mononitrosyl iron form (MNIC) are concerned, their decomposition yields exclusively NO molecules.

## 6.2. Application of DNICS as Antitumor Agents

Comparative antitumor effect of curcumin and dinitrosyl iron complexes against melanoma cells has indicated a synergistic

cytotoxic effect on mouse melanoma B16-F10 cells *in vitro* (89). *In vitro* DNA cleavage assay showed that the DNICs could cause plasmid DNA damage through releasing NO under UV irradiation. The cytotoxicity assay demonstrated these DNICs were toxic to B16-F10 cells *in vitro*, and the estimated values of LD50 (24 h of incubation) of NC01 and NC02 were 1  $\mu\text{M}$ , while the values of LD50 of NC03 was 200  $\mu\text{M}$ . No synergistic cytotoxicity effect was noted in the treatments of the combinations of curcumin and DNICs. DNIC with thiosulfate have been reported to manifest pro-apoptotic activity during incubation of HeLa cells in Versene's solution supplemented with ethylene diamine tetraacetate (EDTA) known to induce the decomposition of these DNIC (90). The water-soluble o-phenanthroline derivative bathophenanthroline disulfonate (BPDS) had shown similar effect on DNIC with glutathione during incubation of HeLa cells in Eagle's medium. It has been assumed that EDTA or BPDS induced pro-apoptotic effect of DNIC with thiosulfate or glutathione coupled with the ability of decomposing DNIC to initiate S-nitrosylation of proteins localized on the surface of HeLa cells. Intraperitoneal injection of dinitrosyl glutathione iron complexes has been reported to suppress endometrioid tumours (91). To gain insight into the possible genotoxic effects of DNIC, the interaction of histidinyl dinitrosyl iron complexes (HIS-DNIC) with DNA by means of circular dichroism and the formation of DNIC monitored by EPR, FTIR spectroscopy and vibrational bands indicate that HIS-DNIC changes the conformation of the DNA in a dose-dependent manner in 10 mM phosphate buffer (pH 6). Increase of the buffer pH or ionic strength decreased the effect. Comparison of HIS-DNIC DNA interaction with the effect of hydrated  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$  ion revealed many similarities (92). The importance of iron ions in HIS-DNIC induced genotoxicity has been confirmed by plasmid nicking assay and imply that there is no direct interrelationship between iron-NO coordination and their mutual toxicity modulation (92).

## 7. Manganese(II) nitrosyl complexes

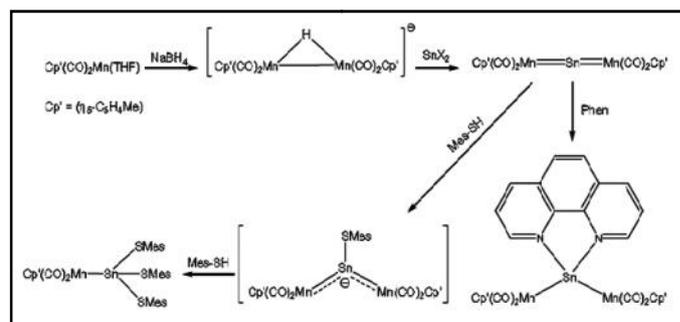
Based on NO reduction of some manganese nitrosyl complexes and their studies based on IR spectral data reveal non-bridging structure (93). However, the sequential reaction of certain dimanganese complexes with NO (5% in  $\text{N}_2$ ) at room temperature and  $\text{NO}_2$ , present a nitrite ligand bridging the dimetal centre through the N and O atoms (94). Non-innocent ("suspect") behaviour of redox active,  $\text{NO}^+/\text{NO}^\bullet/\text{NO}^-$  either substrates or supporting components is now even discussable in biochemical context interacting with manganese (95).

### 7.1. Manganese Nitrosyl Complexes

EPR based studies on manganese (II) nitrosyl complexes shown effects of site-specific chemical modification of the distal histidine on ligand-binding structures (96). The surface chemistry of NO with respect to manganese metal surface has also attained a good research momentum. Adsorption of nitric oxide (NO) and carbon monoxide (CO) and the co-adsorption of (NOCCO) and (COCNO) over the manganese (II)-exchanged studied by infrared spectroscopy has shown to be effected by pressure, temperature and evacuation on these NO/CO species have been studied (97). Investigations on the influence of pre-sorbed CO molecule on the adsorption of NO molecules over the catalysts indicated that the pre-adsorption of CO molecules strongly affects the NO adsorption. The concentration of NO/CO species varies with the NO/CO

pressure, reaction temperature and evacuation. Spectroscopy, microscopy and theoretical study of NO adsorption on  $\text{MoS}_2$  and Co-Mo-S hydrotreating catalysts (98) via infrared (IR) spectroscopy using NO as a probe molecule has been one of the important methods for characterizing hydrotreating catalysts, since this technique provides information on the nature and quantity of active edge sites of these catalysts. Thus, it is possible to use NO as a probe molecule to obtain detailed atomic-scale information on hydrotreating catalysts and the origins of activity differences.

Selective catalytic reduction (SCR) of nitrogen oxides ( $\text{NO}_x$ ) with ammonia is one of the processes for cleaning the flue gas and by using diffuse reflectance infrared Fourier transform spectroscopy (DRIFT) of Fe-Mn/TiO<sub>2</sub> revealed that surface OH species are consumed during NO adsorption, indicating that O<sub>2</sub> could promote the dehydration reaction of the manganese oxides to produce active oxygen and greatly enhance the amount of NO complexes on the catalyst (99). The role in metathesis by the application of Cyclopentadienyl-Mn(CO)(NO)SnCl<sub>3</sub> pronounces the industrial relevance of manganese(II) nitrosyl complexes (100) as shown in the scheme below



Scheme 1

### 7.2. NO-delivery from manganese nitrosyls at the biological target

Chemical mechanisms relevant to roles played by nitrogen monoxide species in mammalian bio-regulation and immunology have proved very useful in probing these mechanisms (101). Keen interests are developed to build strategies to deliver NO to biological targets upon demand for such goals as the sensitization of radiation damage in hypoxic tissue. One such strategy would be to employ a precursor that displays relatively low thermal reactivity but is photochemically active to release NO. This proposition has led us to investigate the flash and continuous photolysis kinetics of a number of different nitrosyl complexes. Manganese nitrosyls have found potential application in inhibiting papain by the S-nitrosylation inhibiting the hydrolytic ability triggered by light-induction (102). Mn porphyrins allow us to design optical and electrochemical selective HNO sensors (103). Mn(II) substituted myoglobins has been found applicable in nitrite reduction Towards understanding necessary components of Mb nitrite reductase activity to nitric oxide drawing increasing attention as a protective mechanism to hypoxic injury in mammalian physiology (104).

## Conclusion

In the conspicuous trials as discussed above all the three photo labile class of metal nitrosyls represent interesting quests to

emerge out the appropriate coordination milieu around the central metal atom to depict the efficient NO release at the desirable target and in desirable concentration. The further studies of redox potential variation and animating the appropriate solution pH should be dealt. The solution impact upon the solubility of the complexes should be unfurled further to arrive at the most feasible NO releaser at the cost of universal solvent *i.e.*, water. Besides experimental set ups theoretical/computational invokes should also be used to pave the ways for competing the NO releasing phenomenon among various model complexes.

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