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Transition metal complexes of thiosemicarbazones with quinoxaline hub: an emphasis on antidiabetic property

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Abstract New transition metal complexes of quinoxaline-thiosemicarbazone ligands were prepared and characterised by spectroanalytical techniques. The ligands $L^{1}H_{2}$ and $L^{2}H_{2}$ were obtained by the reaction of quinoxaline-2.3(1,4H)-dione with methyl and phenyl thiosemicarbazide, respectively. All the complexes are found to be monomeric in nature and have tetrahedral geometry. The copper complexes have shown redox responses in the applied voltage range, whereas the ligands and other complexes are electrochemically innocent. The ligands, copper and zinc complexes are explored for antidiabetic activity in the diabetes-induced Wister rats. Evaluation of antidiabetic activity was done by blood-glucose test and oral glucose tolerance test; few compounds have exhibited significant antidiabetic activity and posses low toxicity with a high safety profile.

Keywords Quinoxaline · Thiosemicarbazone · Antidiabetic agent · Blood-glucose test · Oral glucose tolerance test

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Introduction

Diabetes Mellitus is a condition characterized by abnormal glucose levels with a tendency to hyperglycemia, due to a relative or absolute deficiency of insulin. It is caused by dysfunction of glucose homeostasis, afflicts over 140 million people worldwide and can lead to serious complications, such as retinopathy, nephropathy and neuropathy. Amongst them, insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus (IDDM) type 1, characterized by hyperglycemia due to absolute deficiency of insulin, requires the daily subcutaneous injections of insulin. On the other hand, non-insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus (NIDDM) type 2 can be treated with several drugs such as sulfonylureas, nateglinide, biguanides and pioglitazone etc. Though several types of therapeutics are developed for the treatment of type 2 diabetes, they have limited efficacy and tolerability and occasionally cause severe side effects (Moller, 2001).

In this regard, the approaches to synthesize better antidiabetic drugs are of immense interest. Quinoxaline derivatives have large applications in biochemistry and pharmacology as antimicrobial (Badran et al., 2003) antineoplastic agents and tumour-specific cytotoxins (Das et al., 2009) and have exhibited significant in vitro activities against the human melanoma cell line A375, 110 (Deleuze-Masquefa et al., 2009). Mayer and Taberner (2002) reported the utility of quinoxaline derivatives as blood glucose level reducing agents and insulinomimetic agent in mice. A series of 3-anilino-quinoxalinones has been identified as a new class of glycogen phosphorylase inhibitors by Dudash et al. (2005). They have made some incorporation to the quinoxaline scaffold with various aliphatic and aromatic compounds to produce novel analogues, some of which are 25 times more potent than the lead compound. Reddy Shastry et al. (1989) have prepared the some *N*-arylcarbamoyl and arylthiocarbamoyl hydrazinoquinoxaline and evaluated their hyperglycemic activity in glucose primed rats. The compounds have shown a temperate order hypoglycemic activity (Reddy Shastry *et al.*, 1989). These reports have explored antidiabetic strategy of quinoxalines and hence motivated researchers to synthesize various quinoxaline derivatives, which can serve as better antidiabetic agents for the future. Recently, Cu(II) and Zn(II) ions and their complexes have been found to exhibit in vitro insulinomimetic activity and in vivo antidiabetic (both type-1 and 2) effects in animals (Yasumatsu *et al.*, 2007; Sakurai *et al.*, 2006). The complexation of these ions with ligands having antidiabetic molecules as backbone has been found to exhibit many fold enhancement in the activity (Yoshikawa *et al.*, 2005, 2009).

In this research study, quinoxaline-2,3-dione is selected as precursor and incorporated with thiosemicarbazide scaffolds to aid the coordinating and antidiabetic strategy. The synthesized SNO donor ligands are treated with Co(II), Ni(II), Cu(II) and Zn(II) ions to form the complexes and structural features of the compounds are explored. The ligands as well as Cu(II) and Zn(II) complexes are tested for the utility as antidiabetic drugs.

Experimental

Chemistry

Reagents and apparatus

Reagent grade chemicals were used for the preparation of precursors and purified solvents were used for the synthesis of ligands and complexes. Synthesis of quinoxaline 2,3-(1H,4H)-dione (Philips, 1928) and thiosemicarbazides (Sen and Gupta, 1962) was done according to the literature with slight modifications. The metal chlorides (CoCl₂·6H₂O, NiCl₂·6H₂O, CuCl₂·2H₂O and ZnCl₂) were used for the complex formation. C, H, N and S analysis was carried out on thermo quest elemental analyzer. Metal and chloride estimations were done by the standard procedures (Vogel, 1961). The molar conductivity measurements in DMF were made on ELICO-CM-82 conductivity bridge

Fig. 1 Schematic representation of preparation of ligands

with conductivity cell having cell constant 0.51 cm^{-1} . The magnetic susceptibility measurements were made using Faraday balance at room temperature using Hg[Co(SCN)₄] as calibrant. The ¹H NMR spectra were recorded in DMSO-d₆ solvent on Bruker-300 MHz spectrometer at room temperature using TMS as internal reference. IR spectra were recorded in KBr matrix using an Impact-410 Nicolet (USA) FT-IR spectrometer in 4000–400 cm⁻¹ range. The electronic spectra of the complexes were recorded on a Hitachi 150-20 in the spectrophotometer in range 1000-200 nm. Cyclic voltammetric studies were performed at room temperature in DMF under oxygen free condition created by purging pure nitrogen gas, with CHI1110A Electrochemical analyzer (USA) comprising three electrode assembly of glassy carbon working electrode, platinum auxiliary electrode and Ag/AgCl reference electrode. Tetramethylammoniumchloride (0.01 M) was used as supporting electrolyte and instrument was standardized by ferrocene/ferrocenium redox couple. The ESR study of the copper complexes was carried out on a Varian E-4X-band EPR spectrometer, using TCNE as the g-marker. FAB mass spectra were recorded from JEOL SX 102/DA-6000 mass spectrometer using Argon/Xenon (6 kV, 10 mA) as the FAB gas and m-nitrobenzyl alcohol as matrix. TG and DTA measurements of the complexes were recorded in nitrogen atmosphere on Universal V2 4F TA instrument at the heating rate of 10°C/min and scan range of 25-800°C.

Chemistry

Synthesis

Synthesis of thiosemicarbazone ligands

0.1 M of thiosemicarbazide [(methyl thiosemicarbazide, 1.05 g) (phenyl thiosemicarbazide, 1.66 g)] in 100 ml methanol was treated with quinoxaline 2,3-(1,4H)-dione (1.62 g, 0.1 M). The reaction mixture was refluxed for 3–4 h and the dirty/greenish yellow solid separated was filtered, washed 2–3 times with ethanol and dried (Fig. 1).



For L^1H_2 , R = CH₃ and for L^2H_2 , R= C₆H₅

[Note: The preparation of ligand L^2H_2 has been reported earlier with different synthetic route (Reddy Shastry *et al.*, 1989)].

Synthesis of complexes

A methanolic solution (100 cm^3) of metal(II) chloride [CoCl₂·6H₂O (0.237 g, 0.01 M), NiCl₂·6H₂O (0.237 g, 0.01 M), CuCl₂·2H₂O (0.170 g, 0.01 M) and ZnCl₂ (0.135 g, 0.01 M)] was added with stirring to an ethanolic solution of the ligand [L¹H₂ (0.267 g, 0.01 M), L²H₂ (0.329 g, 0.01 M)] and refluxed at water bath temperature for 3–4 h. So obtained solid complex was separated by filtration under suction, washed with hot ethanol and dried in vacuo.

Pharmacology

Animals for the investigation

Male Wister rats weighing about 180–200 g were used in this analysis with prior permission from institutional animal ethics committee (IAEC). Animal studies were performed as per the rules and regulations of CPCSEA. The animals were acclimatized to the experimental room having normal temperature ($23 \pm 2^{\circ}$ C), controlled humidity conditions and 12:12 h light and dark cycle. The Wister rats were housed in sterile Plexiglas transparent cages containing sterile paddy husk as bedding material with maximum of four animals in each cage. The rats were fed on autoclaved standard rat food pellets and water ad libitum.

Acute toxicity test (Mishra et al., 1973)

During the administration of a chemical substance to the biological system, different types of interactions can occur and a series of dose-related responses result. In most cases these responses are desired and useful, but there are a number of other effects which are not advantageous. These may or may not be harmful to the biological system. Hence in the pharmacological evaluation of any synthesized or isolated compound, it is customary to carryout acute toxicity study to determine the safe effective dose of the novel compound. Acute toxicity is involved in estimation of LD_{50} (the dose which has proved to be lethal (causing death) to 50% of the tested group of animals).

Wister rats weighing between 180 and 200 g were starved for 18 h before the experiment. The animals were divided into the group of eight each, after recording their body weight. The test sample solutions of suitable concentration in 1% gum acacia were administered orally in different groups. Initially all test samples were administered with 12.5 mg/kg body weight, if all the animals survived with this dose, then the samples were tested at higher dose range viz., 25, 50, 100 and 200 mg/kg and if the test samples caused 100% death at this dose the lower dose range was treated as LD_{50} dose. Finally, the administered dose 150 mg/kg is fixed for all the compounds.

Alloxan-induced diabetes

Diabetes was induced by a single intra peritoneal injection of 150 mg/kg body weight of alloxan monohydrate (S.D. Fine Chem. Ltd., Mumbai.) in 0.9% NaCl saline (O Neil *et al.*, 2001). After 72 h of alloxan injection, blood glucose was measured by glucometer. The diabetic rats (glucose level > 300 mg/dl) were separated and used for the study (Wright, 1951).

Glibenclamide (standard drug antidiabetic used in this study) in its pure form was obtained from Sun Pharmaceuticals Ltd., Andheri (East), Mumbai, India, made as an aqueous solution and was injected daily for 9 days (as a 600 μ g/kg body weight) using an intra gastric tube (Breslin *et al.*, 2003).

Methodology

The weighed animals were divided into nine groups of six animals each. Group 1 served as normal healthy control and received food (standard pellet rodent diet) and vehicle only. Group 2 served as diabetic control group. Group 3 served as standard control group and received glibenclamide (600 μ g/kg body weight) in the form of aqueous suspension. The volume of suspension was 1 ml/100 gm body weight of rat. Groups 4–9 received the prepared compounds (150 mg/kg body weight). The different groups received the drug before the food by intragastric tube. In this study the doses (glibenclamide, ligands, copper and zinc complexes) were administered once a day for 9 days.

Collection of blood and estimation of blood glucose levels

At the end of the treatment period, two drops of blood was collected from rat tail vein after 16 h fasting. The pulsatum gluco-strips (stored in refrigerator) taken out from the sachet and glucometer is calibrated to 660 units according to the specification mentioned in the strips. The blood removed from the rat tail vein was immediately spread on the marked end of the strip. The strip was inserted in the glucometer and the blood glucose level, reading was recorded.

Oral glucose tolerance test (OGTT) (Nawrocka, 1996)

Animals were fasted for 12 h divided into nine groups of six rats each. Group 1 was served as normal healthy control and received food (standard pellet rodent diet) and vehicle only. Group 2 served as diabetic control group. Group 3 served as standard control group and received glibencla-mide (600 µg/kg body weight) in the form of aqueous suspension. The volume of suspension was 1 ml/100 gm of rat. Groups 4–9 received ligands and their copper and zinc complexes (150 mg/kg body weight) as a fine tween-80 suspension. After 30 min, the rats of all groups were orally given with 400 mg/kg body weight of glucose. Blood samples were collected from the rat tail vein just before glucose administration and at 30, 60 and 90 min after glucose loading. Blood levels were measured immediately by using glucometer.

Statistical analysis

Values are expressed as mean \pm SEM, statistical difference between means were determined by performing oneway ANOVA followed by Dunnett's test. *P* < 0.05 was considered as significant difference in this study.

Results and discussion

The transition metal complexes prepared in this course were non-hygroscopic (stable at the room temperature) and in the form of amorphous solids. These are soluble easily in DMSO, DMF and sparingly in ethanol and methanol, whereas they are insoluble in chlorinated hydrocarbons. The elemental analysis data of the ligands and their complexes along with molar conductivity values are compiled in Table 1.

Molar conductivity results

The molar conductance values of the complexes measured at room temperature in DMSO solution with 10^{-3} mol/dm³ concentration fall in the range 14.3–18.7/ohm cm²/mol indicating the non-electrolytic nature of the complexes (Geary, 1971). Comparatively high values are due to the solvation effect of DMSO, which replaces anion from the coordination sphere.

IR spectral studies

The important IR spectral bands of ligands and corresponding complexes along with assignments are presented in Table 2.

The absence of a band in the region 2500–2600 cm⁻¹, which is characteristic of thiol group [v(C-SH)], suggest the stable thione form of the ligands and hence decline the thione–thiol tautomerism (H–N–C=S \Leftrightarrow > C=N–SH) in the present set of thiosemicarbazone ligands. The thioamidic coupled vibrations, I [v(CN) and v(NH) + δ (CH)], II [v(CN) and v(CS)], III [v(CS) and v(CS) + v(CN)] and IV[v(CS)] are observed around 1600, 1545, 1460 and 940 cm⁻¹ confirm the thioketo form of ligands (Kulkarni *et al.*, 2010). The v(C=O) of quinoxaline ring was observed as a sharp, intense band at ~ 1675 cm⁻¹ and the stretching vibrations of azomethine functionality v(C=N) were observed near 1645 cm⁻¹. The quinoxaline ring v(NH) and hydrazine v(²NH) were observed around 3300 cm⁻¹ as broad intense band.

In all the complexes, the band due to v(C=O) has not observed due to the coordination of oxygen through enol mode. A new band appeared around 1260 cm⁻¹ attributable to v(C-O) confirms the same. But in the ¹H NMR studies no peak which can be assigned to -OH (enol form) is observed for the zinc complexes due the coordination of oxygen after deprotonation. The band due to v(C=N) has

Table 1 Chemical composition and molar conductivity data of compounds

Compounds	Colour	Yield in percentage	Elemental ana	Molar conductance				
			С	Н	N	S	М	(mho cm ² /mol)
L^1H_2	Dirty yellow	82	48.19 (48.28)	4.41 (4.52)	28.12 (28.05)	12.83 (12.89)	_	-
$[CoL^1(H_2O)]$	Dark brown	80	38.21 (38.32)	3.50 (3.57)	22.29 (22.33)	10.19 (10.23)	18.63 (18.58)	12.1
$[NiL^1(H_2O)]$	Dark brown	82	38.27 (38.24)	3.50 (3.58)	22.32 (22.39)	10.20 (10.26)	18.66 (18.71)	14.2
$[CuL^1(H_2O)]$	Greenish black	81	37.68 (37.72)	3.44 (3.37)	21.94 (22.01)	10.03 (10.14)	19.90 (19.96)	13.2
$[ZnL^{1}(H_{2}O)]$	Yellow	79	37.38 (37.84)	3.42 (3.49)	21.80 921.75)	9.96 (10.03)	20.40 (20.32)	11.3
L^2H_2	Greenish yellow	83	58.06 (57.98)	3.87 (3.93)	22.58 (22.67)	10.82 (11.04)	_	_
$[CoL^2(H_2O)]$	Brown	84	46.51 (46.43)	3.10 (3.18)	18.08 (18.15)	8.26 (8.32)	15.21 (15.30)	13.2
$[NiL^2(H_2O)]$	Dark brown	80	46.57 (46.65)	3.10 (3.04)	18.11 (18.18)	8.27 (8.18)	15.13 (15.21)	12.7
$[CuL^2(H_2O)]$	Black	82	45.85 (45.96)	3.06 (3.14)	17.87 (17.95)	8.17 (8.26)	16.25 (16.37)	13.6
$[ZnL^2(H_2O)]$	Greenish yellow	83	45.74 (45.65)	3.04 (3.04)	17.78 (17.86)	8.13 (8.22)	16.64 (16.53)	13.5

Table 2 Infrared spectral data of ligands and complexes in cm^{-1}

Compounds	v(OH) water) v(N–H)	v(C=O)	v(C=N)	Thioamide bands			v(C–O)	v(C–S)	v(M–N)	v(M–S)	
					I	II	III	IV				
L^1H_2	_	3350s	1674s	1644s	1599s	1540s	1460s	939m	_	_	_	_
$[CoL^1(H_2O)]$	3400b	3379b	-	1631s	1589s	1536s	1403w	_	1265	751s	611m	450m
[NiL ¹ (H ₂ O)]	3432b	3314b	-	1636s	1605s	1518m	1390m	_	1264	754s	629m	440m
$[CuL^1(H_2O)]$	3422b	3300b	-	1640m	1600s	1551s	1411m	_	1265	766s	599s	437m
$[ZnL^1(H_2O)]$	3445b	3300b	-	1636s	1598s	1546s	1411m	-	1263	753s	602m	413s
L^2H_2	-	3376b	1676s	1645s	1602s	1542s	1470s	944m	_	-	-	-
$[CoL^2(H_2O)]$	3419b	3376b	-	1640s	1599s	1540s	1410w	-	1268	753s	601m	430m
$[NiL^2(H_2O)]$	3418b	3300b	-	1641s	1601s	1546s	1433w	-	1267	753s	601m	406s
$[CuL^2(H_2O)]$	3407b	3288b	-	1652s	1605s	1517m	1430m	-	1264	759m	602m	420m
$[ZnL^2(H_2O)]$	3449b	3326b	_	1650m	1615s	1517m	1401s	-	1260	725m	617m	470s

s sharp; m medium; b broad; w weak

been shifted to the lower frequency side in all the complexes, owing to the coordination of azomethine nitrogen. The thioamide bands having major contribution from the v(C=S) group (thioamide bands IV and III, respectively) have disappeared or experienced a fall in intensity and frequency upon complexation suggesting the thioenolisation and subsequent sulphur coordination. It is further supported by the strong signal at 760 cm⁻¹ attributable to v(C-S).

The absence of v(S-H) in the complexes suggests the coordination of sulphur through deprotonation. The bands due to v(NH) are broadened in all the complexes due to the overlapping of v(OH) bands of coordinated water molecule. The low frequency non-ligand bands in the 600–625 cm⁻¹ and 400–450 cm⁻¹ region are assigned to v(M-N) and v(M-S), respectively.

¹H NMR studies

The ligand L^1H_2 displays two sharp singlets at 11.91 and 10.71 ppm attributed to the two ring NHs of quinoxaline core. The first signal was disappeared on complexation with Zn(II) ion, indicating the enolisation and subsequent coordination of oxygen via deprotonation. Whereas the second signal experiences a significant up field upon complexation. Hydrazine NH observed at 8.89 ppm in

Table 3 NMR spectral data

ligand has been disappeared on complexation due to the thioenolisation. No peak corresponding to –SH was observed in the spectrum indicating the sulphur coordination through deprotonation. Amine proton resonating at 7.98 ppm, shift to the low field region and the methyl protons experience a deshielding upon complexation and shift to 4.97 ppm. The aromatic protons observed in the region 7.24–6.92 ppm show small shifts in complex, due to variation in electron density and steric constraints brought about by chelation. Water coordination is evidenced by the broad peak at 3.70 ppm (Table 3).

In ligand L^2H_2 , sharp singlets observed at 10.29, 9.81, 9.00 and 8.03 ppm are assigned to ring NHs, hydrazine NH and amine NH, respectively. Upon complexation peaks at 10.29 and 9.00 ppm were disappeared due to the coordination of oxygen and sulphur via deprotonation. Aromatic protons are distributed in the region 7.99–6.89 ppm and suffer a small variation in the resonance frequency upon complexation. The coordinated water resonates at 3.50 ppm as broad peak.

Electronic spectral studies

The intense peaks in the range 250–275 nm observed in both ligands are due to intra ligand π – π * transitions. These bands remain almost unchanged in the spectra of complexes. The

Compounds	¹ H NMR δ (ppm)									
	Quinoxaline-NH	Hydrazine–NH	R–NH	Aromatic protons	–CH ₃	Coordinated H ₂ O				
L^1H_2	11.91 and 10.71	8.89	7.98	7.24–6.92	3.50	_				
$[ZnL^{1}(H_{2}O)]$	8.19	-	7.51	7.44-7.10	4.97	3.70				
L^2H_2	10.29 and 9.81	9.00	8.03	7.99–6.89	_	_				
$[ZnL^2(H_2O)]$	9.84	-	8.09	7.95–6.95	-	3.50				

ligands also show a broad band at 325 nm with a shoulder on low energy side, due to $n-\pi^*$ transition associated with azomethine linkage (Lever, 1968). In complexes this band experiences bathochromic shift due to the coordination of azomethine nitrogen. The broad peak centred at 365 nm in the ligand is assigned to $n-\pi^*$ of thioamide chromophore, it suffers blue shift in complexes due to thioenolisation (Naik et al., 2002a, b). The electronic spectra of the copper and nickel complexes are virtually identical. The band observed at 450 nm is assigned to $S \rightarrow M$ charge transfer (LMCT) transition ($\varepsilon \sim 20000$ /lcm/M) (Naik *et al.*, 2002a, b). The *d*-*d* transitions are observed around 820 nm as low intensity hump ($\varepsilon \sim 100/\text{lcm/M}$). Cobalt complexes exhibit asymmetric broad peak around 600–700 nm ($\varepsilon \sim 200/lcm/M$) corresponding to the d-d transition (Bailar *et al.*, 1975). The broad intense peak with high extinction coefficient observed around 420 nm is attributed to LMCT transition. The zinc complexes display the peaks around 400 nm attributed to LMCT along with the intra-ligand transitions.

Magnetic properties

The room temperature magnetic moment values of nickel and cobalt complexes were found to be 2.80, 2.81, 4.18 and 4.21 BM for [NiL¹(H₂O)], [CoL¹(H₂O)], [NiL²(H₂O)] and [CoL¹(H₂O)], respectively, suggesting the four coordinated, tetrahedral geometry (Bailar *et al.*, 1975; Dutta and Syamal, 1993). Whereas copper complexes [CuL¹(H₂O)] and [CuL²(H₂O)] exhibit the magnetic moment values (μ_{eff}) 1.52 and 1.56 BM, respectively (Table 4). Fairly lower magnetic moment values of copper complexes are attributed to the higher covalancy of S–Cu bond and lower orbital contribution of sulphur (Kulkarni *et al.*, 2010).

EPR spectral analysis

The copper complexes $[CuL^{1}(H_{2}O)]$ and $[CuL^{2}(H_{2}O)]$ exhibit isotropic intense broad signals with g_{iso} values 2.09

Table 4 The electronic spectra and magnetic moment data

Compounds	λmax (nm)	$\mu_{\rm eff}$ (B.M)
L^1H_2	260, 278, 325, 368	-
$[CoL^1(H_2O)]$	248, 336, 426, 620, 675	4.18
$[NiL^1(H_2O)]$	347, 371, 435, 480, 830	2.80
$[CuL^1(H_2O)]$	304, 369, 465, 826	1.52
$[ZnL^{1}(H_{2}O)]$	300, 338, 375, 422	Diamagnetic
L^2H_2	248, 275, 318, 358, 368	_
$[CoL^2(H_2O)]$	250, 348, 422, 630, 680	4.21
$[NiL^2(H_2O)]$	321, 352, 375, 420, 460, 824	2.81
$[CuL^2(H_2O)]$	311, 342, 363, 468, 825	1.56
$[ZnL^2(H_2O)]$	340, 372, 421	Diamagnetic

and 2.05, respectively, in the solid state X-band EPR spectral analysis. Broad EPR spectra of this kind were reported earlier for the complexes having large organic ligand substituents with different donor atoms having considerable covalent character for metal–ligand bonds (Kulkarni *et al.*, 2010; Seleem *et al.*, 2005).

FAB mass spectral analysis

The copper complexes of L^1H_2 and L^2H_2 exhibit intense peaks at m/z 319 and 392, respectively, which is in line with the molecular formula [ML(H₂O)] assigned for the complexes. Along with the molecular ion peak, spectra exhibit various other peaks with different intensity and m/z value, which are attributed to molecular cations of various fragments of complexes. The proposed structures of complexes are given in Fig. 2.

Thermal studies

To determine the thermal stability of complexes and their decomposition pattern TG and DTA studies were carried out. The complexes were analysed in the nitrogen atmosphere and the heating rate of 10°C/min is maintained.

The studies reveal that both the complexes $[CuL^{1}(H_{2}O)]$ and $[CuL^{2}(H_{2}O)]$ decompose in two steps. The first step of disintegration of $[CuL^{1}(H_{2}O)]$ corresponds to the loss of one water molecule with reduction of ~5.72% total mass in the range 75–120°C, the corresponding differential peak (DTA) suggests the endothermic nature of the process. Second stage of mass loss of 14.76% at the range 250–380°C is ascribed to the ligand decomposition. The final product was found to be stable metal oxide, as suggested by the plateau region in the thermogram. $[CuL^{2}(H_{2}O)]$ exhibits a similar pattern of thermal decomposition with 4.97% weight loss at the range 60–110°C representing the endothermic process of loss of one water molecule. The decomposition of 7.25 and 37.2% in the





Fig. 2 Proposed structure of complexes

range 150–250 and 250–500°C, respectively, corresponds to the ligand disintegration. The plateau region at the higher temperature range indicates the stable metal oxide formation.

Cyclic voltammetry studies

The complexes, as a solution of DMSO were scanned in potential range of -1 to 1 V in nitrogen atmosphere. In this case of investigation, only the copper complexes exhibit redox behaviour in the applied potential range (Table 5). Both the ligands were found to be electrochemically innocent indicating that the redox behaviour of copper complexes is purely metal based. The other complexes of both series did not show any responses in the applied potential range. The typical cyclic voltammograms of [CuL¹(H₂O)] and [CuL²(H₂O)] are shown in Fig. 3.

[CuL¹(H₂O)] shows one oxidation peak at 0.49, 0.45 and 0.41 V with the varying scan rates of 0.15, 0.1 and 0.05 V/ s, respectively, during the anodic potential scan and in the reverse scan (cathodic scan) it exhibits a reduction peak at -0.25, -0.20 and -0.13 V, respectively. Similarly [CuL²(H₂O)] also exhibits redox responses corresponding

Table 5 Cyclic voltammetry results

Complex	Scan rate (V/S)	Epa (V)	Epc (V)	$\Delta E p$ $(V)^a$	$\begin{array}{c} E_{1/2} \\ (\mathrm{V})^{\mathrm{b}} \end{array}$	Ipc/Ipa
$[CuL^1(H_2O)]$	0.15	0.49	-0.25	0.74	0.12	0.78
	0.1	0.45	-0.20	0.65	0.125	0.82
	0.05	0.41	-0.13	0.54	0.14	0.88
$[CuL^2(H_2O)]$	0.15	0.24	0.04	0.20	0.14	0.82
	0.1	0.20	0.01	0.19	0.11	0.86
	0.05	0.17	-0.01	0.18	0.08	0.91

^a $\Delta E p = E p a - E p c$

^b $E_{1/2} = [Epc + Epa]/2$

to the couple Cu(II)/Cu(III). It shows oxidation peak at 0.24, 0.20 and 0.17 V (for the scan rates 0.15, 0.1 and 0.05 V/s, respectively) and corresponding reduction peak at 0.04, -0.01 and -0.01 V, respectively.

The analysis reveals that both the copper complexes exhibit quasi reversible redox processes (the separation between cathodic and anodic peak potentials ($\Delta Ep = Epa-Epc$) for the redox couple Cu(II)/Cu(III) is greater than 60 mV, the value of peak potentials depends on scan rate and values of peak current ratio (*Ipc/Ipa*) are almost constant but not unity) (Naik *et al.*, 2002a, b).

Acute toxicity study

In acute toxicity study all the tested compounds did not show significant toxic effects and found to be safe at the tested dose level of 1500 mg/kg body weight of Wister rat.

Blood glucose level test

The results of blood glucose level test are shown in Table 6. All the tested compounds have shown good activity in the reduction of blood glucose level as compared with the diabetic control rats. The complex $[ZnL^1(H_2O)]$ and ligand L^2H_2 have showed significant reduction in blood glucose level, as efficient as glibenclamide, a standard drug used.

OGTT

The results of OGTT are shown in Table 6. At the 30 min interval after the oral administration of glucose, the compounds $[ZnL^{1}(H_{2}O)]$ and $[CuL^{2}(H_{2}O)]$ have shown good activity and have reduced the blood glucose level notably as compared to the glibenclamide. At the 90 min interval, the compounds $[CuL^{1}(H_{2}O)]$, $[ZnL^{1}(H_{2}O)]$ and $[CuL^{2}(H_{2}O)]$ have shown significant reduction in blood glucose level.



Fig. 3 Voltammograms of [CuL¹(H₂O)] and [CuL²(H₂O)] at the scan rate 0.1 V/s

Treatment and groups	Blood glucose leve	l in mg/dl	OGTT in non-dia	OGTT in non-diabetic rats			
	Basal	9th day	Fasting	30 min	90 min		
Control (normal saline)	76.32 ± 1.42	78.22 ± 1.02	80.12 ± 1.60	188.12 ± 4.22	136.62 ± 2.80		
Diabetic control (alloxan)	326.6 ± 3.20	342.42 ± 1.80	-	_	_		
Glibenclamide (std drug)	332.3 ± 4.80	142.4 ± 2.60	79.80 ± 3.22	176.8 ± 3.02	$102.8 \pm 2.30^{***}$		
L^1H_2	323.0 ± 6.82	332.0 ± 22.6	82.26 ± 2.58	180.8 ± 4.44	120.6 ± 2.33		
$[CuL^{1}(H_{2}O)]$	324.7 ± 6.12	335.6 ± 12.30	76.17 ± 2.60	178.60 ± 3.42	$110.8 \pm 3.72^{***}$		
$[ZnL^{1}(H_{2}O)]$	325.0 ± 7.68	$188.8 \pm 22.8^{**}$	76.22 ± 2.58	156.6 ± 2.20	$106.3 \pm 2.18^{***}$		
L^2H_2	312.70 ± 8.2	$182.2 \pm 16.4^{**}$	72.40 ± 1.82	176.6 ± 2.32	122.8 ± 3.30		
$[CuL^2(H_2O)]$	320.0 ± 7.58	318.04 ± 10.8	75.60 ± 2.58	156.60 ± 10.38	$118.0 \pm 2.44^{***}$		
$[ZnL^2(H_2O)]$	356.0 ± 10.58	333.6 ± 18.2	80.53 ± 2.40	182.8 ± 3.09	124.70 ± 14.48		

 Table 6
 Effect of ligands and complexes on blood glucose level of alloxan-induced diabetic Wister rats after prolonged treatment and OGTT in normal Wister rats

One-way ANOVA followed by Dunnet's 't' test. Values are expressed as mean \pm SEM. P > 0.05 is considered as non-significant. P < 0.05 is considered as significant

** P < 0.01 as compared to diabetic control group

*** P < 0.001 as compared to diabetic control group

According to the earlier studies, drugs cause antidiabetic effect by promoting regeneration of β cells or by protecting the cells in pancreas from destruction, by restricting glucose load as well as by promoting unrestricted endogenous insulin action or they effect β cells to release insulin and activate the insulin receptors to absorb the blood sugar (e.g., sulphonylureas) (Fosset et al., 1988). The comparable effect of prepared compounds with glibenclamide suggests the similar mode of action. Since alloxan permanently destroys the pancreatic β cells and the compounds have lowered the blood glucose level in alloxanised rats to significant level, indicating that the compounds possess extra pancreatic effects. The compounds showed beneficial effects on blood glucose and hyperlipidemia associated with diabetes, thus they could serve as good adjuvant to other oral hypoglycemic agents and seems to be promising for the development of medicines for diabetes mellitus. Further, detailed studies are necessary to find out the active constituents, which are responsible for the said activity and its exact mechanism of action.

Conclusion

All the complexes are found to be monomeric and tetrahedral in nature. Both the ligands act as SNO tridentate dibasic chelates and the coordinated water molecule satisfies the fourth place in tetra coordinated systems. The copper complexes undergo redox reaction in the applied range of potential (-1 to +1 V) and exhibit quasireversible responses. The ligands and their copper and zinc complexes are explored for antidiabetic activity in the diabetesinduced Wister rats. Evaluation of antidiabetic activity was done by blood-glucose test and OGTT. The compounds $[ZnL^{1}(H_{2}O)]$ and $L^{2}H_{2}$ have showed notable reduction in blood glucose level. The complexes $[CuL^{1}(H_{2}O)]$, $[ZnL^{1}(H_{2}O)]$ and $[CuL^{2}(H_{2}O)]$ have exhibited promising activity in OGTT and posses low toxicity with a high safety profile.

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