

1 Iron and copper complexes with antioxidant activity as inhibitors of the
2 metastatic potential of glioma cells

3
4 Joana F. Guerreiro^{†1,2}; Marco Antônio G. B. Gomes^{†1}; Francesca Pagliari^{1*}; Jeannette Jansen^{1,3};
5 Maria G. Marafioti¹; Clelia Nistico¹; Rachel Hanley^{1,3}; Rafael O. Costa⁴; Sarah S. Ferreira⁵; Filipa
6 Mendes²; Christiane Fernandes⁶; Adolfo Horn Jr. ⁶; Luca Tirinato^{1,7}; Joao Seco^{1,3*}

7
8 ¹Biomedical Physics in Radiation Oncology, German Cancer Research Center (DKFZ), Im Neuenheimer Feld 223, 69120 Heidelberg,
9 Germany.

10 ²Departamento de Engenharia e Ciências Nucleares e Centro de Ciências e Tecnologias Nucleares, Instituto Superior Técnico,
11 Universidade de Lisboa, Estrada Nacional 10 (km 139.7), 2695-066 Bobadela LRS, Portugal.

12 ³Department of Physics and Astronomy, Heidelberg University, Im Neuenheimer Feld 227, 69120 Heidelberg, Germany

13 ⁴Laboratório de Ciências Química, Universidade Estadual do Norte Fluminense (UENF), Av. Alberto Lamego, 2000, Campos dos
14 Goytacazes, RJ, 28013602, Brazil.

15 ⁵Instituto Federal Fluminense (IFF), R. Dr. Siqueira, 273, Campos dos Goytacazes, RJ CEP 28030-130, Brazil.

16 ⁶Departamento de Química, Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina (UFSC), Campus Universitário Trindade - 88040900
17 Florianópolis-SC, Brazil.

18 ⁷BioNEM Laboratory, Department of Experimental and Clinical Medicine, Magna Graecia University of Catanzaro, 88100 Catanzaro,
19 Italy

20 .
21 †Equally contributing authors

22 *Corresponding authors: Tel.: +49 6221 42 2554; email: f.pagliari@dkfz-heidelberg.de/j.seco@dkfz-heidelberg.de

23
24 **Abstract**

25 Gliomas are the most common type of primary brain tumors, presenting high mortality and
26 recurrence rates that highlight the need for the development of more efficient therapies. In that
27 context, we investigated iron(III) (FeL) and copper(II) (CuL) complexes containing the tetradentate
28 ligand 2-[[[(3-chloro-2-hydroxy-propyl)-pyridin-2-ylmethyl-amino]-methyl]-phenol (L) as potential
29 antimetastatic compounds in glioma cells. These complexes were designed to act as mimetics of
30 antioxidant metalloenzymes (catalases and superoxide dismutase) and thus interfere with
31 production of reactive oxygen species (ROS), important signaling molecules that have been linked
32 to the induction of Epithelial–Mesenchymal Transition (EMT) in cancer cells, a process associated
33 with cancer invasion and aggressiveness. The results obtained have revealed that, *in vitro*, both
34 compounds act as superoxide dismutase or catalase mimetics, and this translated in glioma cells
35 into a decrease in ROS levels in FeL-treated cells. In addition, both complexes were found to
36 inhibit the migration of monolayer-grown H4 cells and lead to decreased expression of EMT
37 markers. More importantly, this behavior was recapitulated in 3D spheroids models, where CuL
38 in particular was found to completely inhibit the invasion ability of glioma cells, with or without

39 cellular irradiation with X-rays, which is suggestive of these compounds' potential to be used in
40 combination with radiotherapy. Overall, the results herein obtained describe the novel use of
41 these complexes as agents that are able to interfere with regulation of EMT and the invasive
42 behavior of glioma cells, an application that deserves to be further explored.

43

44 **Introduction**

45 The most common primary malignant brain tumors in adults are gliomas, which correspond to
46 about 80% of all the malignant brain tumors diagnosed¹. The treatment of gliomas varies
47 according to the degree of the disease and the patient's condition, but the current standard of
48 treatment includes surgery for maximum resection of the tumor, followed by radiotherapy and
49 chemotherapy¹. However, achieving complete resection of the tumor is often impossible due to
50 its highly infiltrating nature and inaccessible location, leading to recurrence of the disease in the
51 great majority of cases¹. In addition, while metastases outside of the central nervous system are
52 uncommon, when present, they often exhibit increased resistance to treatment, similarly to what
53 is observed for relapsed tumors, leading to a very poor prognosis for these patients¹⁻³. As such,
54 it is necessary to develop more efficient therapeutic tools that can improve the patients' outcome.
55 Research exploring metal based compounds as chemotherapeutic drugs for the treatment of
56 cancer has increased since the discovery of cisplatin-based chemotherapy^{4, 5}. Metal complexes
57 present many versatile characteristics, such as their redox activity, diverse reactivity with organic
58 substrates, and different coordination modes that make them attractive tools to be explored in the
59 design of new chemotherapeutic drugs^{4, 5}. In addition to the development of cytotoxic
60 chemotherapeutic drugs, the interest on metal complexes that can be used as metastasis
61 inhibitors has also increased in recent years⁵⁻⁷. For this purpose, most of the studies done so far
62 have largely been focused on promising ruthenium-based compounds^{6, 8-10}, even though
63 complexes containing other metals have also been described^{11, 12}. Currently, however, only two
64 ruthenium compounds have advanced into clinical trials, although they've failed to show the
65 desired therapeutic efficacy that would make them viable alternative to the therapies currently in
66 use¹³.

67 Antimetastatic complexes can target different cellular pathways or processes, but have mainly
68 been designed to modulate or interfere with key features necessary for cancer migration or
69 invasion. One such feature is the modulation of the Epithelial–Mesenchymal Transition (EMT)
70 phenomenon⁹, a physiological process involved in the cellular developmental program and tissue
71 repair, but which has been also strongly linked to the metastatic process in cancer¹⁴. Namely,
72 during EMT, cancer cells undergo a series of changes (biochemical, morphologic and genetic)

73 that allow them to have a more mesenchymal-like phenotype that is thought to be necessary to
74 promote cancer cell migration and invasion, and their escape from the primary tumor¹⁴. Despite
75 the fact that the search for compounds able to interfere with the EMT process has been increasing
76 in the past years, it is still mainly based in the use of natural compounds isolated from plants¹⁵,
77 while the use of metal-based compounds in this branch of medicinal chemistry remains poorly
78 researched. In addition to targeting EMT, several of these metal-based compounds also aim to
79 affect Reactive Oxygen Species (ROS) equilibrium^{8, 11, 12, 16} since ROS can act as signaling
80 molecules in many cellular pathways, including those involved in tumor progression¹⁷.
81 Interestingly, the EMT process seems to be connected to cellular ROS levels and different metals
82 have been shown to induce EMT in different cancers through a ROS-dependent mechanism¹⁸⁻²¹.
83 As such, modulation of ROS levels in cancer cells has been put forth as another promising
84 strategy to tackle the problem of local invasiveness and metastization of cancer²².
85 One possible strategy to modulate the levels of cellular ROS, and, consequently, the cancer cells
86 metastatic ability, is the use of metal-based compounds that mimic the superoxide dismutase
87 (SOD) and catalase (CAT) enzymes, important cellular antioxidant proteins that are responsible
88 for maintaining the cellular redox balance²². For that purpose, in this work, we used two
89 coordination compounds harboring the ligand 2-[(3-chloro-2-hydroxy-propyl)-pyridin-2-ylmethyl-
90 amino-methyl]-phenol (L) complexed with iron (FeL)^{23, 24} and copper (CuL)²⁵. We thus describe
91 for the first time the application of these compounds in the frontier of chemistry and human
92 oncology, by assessing their antioxidant and antimetastatic potential in glioma (H4) cells. The
93 results obtained have revealed an impressive ability of the compounds under study to inhibit the
94 migration of H4 glioma cells in both 2D and 3D cellular models. In addition, this effect was
95 maintained after irradiation with X-rays, suggesting that these compounds might be suitable to be
96 used as co-adjuvants for radiotherapeutic treatments.

97
98
99

100 **Results and discussion**

101

102 **Cytotoxicity of FeL and CuL compounds in H4 glioma cells.**

103 The synthesis of the ligand 2-[(3-chloro-2-hydroxy-propyl)-pyridin-2-ylmethyl-amino]-
104 methyl-phenol (L) and of the iron and copper complexes studied here were described previously
105 by us²³⁻²⁶. The ligand contains four coordinating groups (N₂O₂) and its coordination behavior
106 depends on the metal center. For example, it forms dinuclear phenoxo bridge complexes with
107 Ni(II)²⁷, while with Fe(III), mononuclear and dinuclear (alkoxo bridge) were already described^{23,}
108 ²⁴. The iron compound described here shows a dinuclear structure (Figure 1), in which the iron(III)
109 ions are connected by two alkoxo bridges from two ligand molecules. The coordination
110 environment is completed by two nitrogen atoms (the tertiary N atom and one from the pyridyl
111 group), one oxygen from the phenolate unit and a water molecule. It has been shown that this
112 compound is able to promote DNA cleavage²³. Concerning the copper complex, its molecular
113 structure solved by monocrystal x-ray analysis showed the presence of two distinct species in the
114 crystal, a mononuclear and a dinuclear one²⁵, shown in Figure 1. The dinuclear species may be
115 considered the dimer of the mononuclear one and studies showed that the dinuclear species is
116 transformed in the mononuclear one in solution, and, therefore, only the mononuclear species
117 remains. It has been previously demonstrated that the copper complex shows cytotoxicity on
118 pathogenic bacteria²⁵.

119 In order to determine if the FeL and CuL complexes (Figure 1A) exhibited significant
120 antitumoral properties, their cytotoxic activity after 24 hours (h) of treatment was determined in
121 H4 glioma cells using the AlamarBlue assay. Both compounds were found to have IC₅₀ values in
122 the high micromolar range (85 ± 1 and 82 ± 1 μ M for FeL and CuL, respectively; Supplementary
123 Figure 1), indicating that they display only moderate cytotoxicity in glioma cells. In fact, these
124 compounds exhibited about 40% less cytotoxicity than the one previously reported for the
125 reference chemotherapeutic drug cisplatin (50 μ M) in this same cancer cell line after 24 h of
126 incubation²⁸. Since we were not interested in evaluating the intrinsic cytotoxic activity of the
127 compounds, but how their antioxidant activity may influence other properties of cancer cell
128 development, the lack of cytotoxic effect is of relevance for the present study. As such, we
129 selected a concentration of the compounds that did not induce significant loss of viability (25 μ M;
130 Figure 1B) to further proceed with the evaluation of these compounds as antimetastatic agents,
131 while minimizing potential interference from cytotoxic effects exerted by the drugs. Due to the
132 lack of a proper non-malignant control brain cell line, this study did not consider the effects of the
133 tested compounds on healthy brain cells. Although we acknowledge that this aspect can be of

134 particular interest, it is currently beyond the scope of this study and, therefore, it will be further
135 investigated in the future.

136 Stability studies by UV-Vis spectrometry indicated that both compounds were stable at the
137 selected concentration in a PBS solution at physiological pH for up to 72 h of incubation (Figure
138 1C), the latest time point used for our assays. For the iron compound, it was also possible, using
139 a higher concentration of FeL (50 μ M), to visualize through confocal fluorescence microscopy the
140 presence of a fluorescent species in the lysosomes, suggesting that it was indeed entering the
141 cells under these conditions (Supplementary Figure 2). On the other hand, no signal was
142 observed for the copper compound.

143

144 ***In vitro* and cellular antioxidant properties of FeL and CuL**

145 Based on the important role that transition metal ions play in cellular redox mechanisms,
146 several studies having metalloenzymes, such as SOD and CAT, as targets for new mimetic
147 compounds have been performed²⁹⁻³². Within this approach, in recent years, our group has
148 developed different ligands and their respective coordination compounds with different transition
149 metals, that exhibit antioxidant properties^{29, 33-35}. For example, we have shown that copper, iron
150 and manganese complexes with the ligand 1-[bis(pyridin-2-ylmethyl) amino]-3-chloropropan-2-ol
151 (L1), similar to the one reported here, but with two pyridine groups instead of a pyridine and a
152 phenol group, present protective antioxidant effects on *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* cells subjected
153 to oxidative stress³³. These results thus prompted us to investigate the antioxidant activity of this
154 set of compounds (FeL and CuL) and evaluate if their antioxidant activity could exert any influence
155 on biological processes, particularly on the migratory ability of cancer cells.

156 To address if the compounds FeL and CuL displayed antioxidant activities, we first
157 assessed their ability to mimic the SOD enzyme *in vitro*. Both compounds reacted with the
158 superoxide anion (Supplementary Figures 3 and 4 and Table 1) as evidenced by the IC₅₀ values
159 obtained, which represent the concentration of the compound required to inhibit half of the
160 reduction of nitrobluetetrazolium (NBT) by the superoxide anion generated *in situ* at a constant
161 rate by the enzymatic system xanthine/xanthine oxidase, in comparison to control conditions.

162 In order to show SOD-like activity, the compounds have to be able to promote the oxidation
163 ($O_2^{\cdot-} \rightarrow O_2 + e^-$) and the reduction ($O_2^{\cdot-} + e^- \rightarrow O_2^{2-}$) of the superoxide anion. This behavior is
164 shown by systems that catalytically induce the superoxide decomposition. If the system promotes
165 only the reduction or only the oxidation of the superoxide anion, they will work as superoxide
166 reductase or superoxide oxidase, respectively. In light of this, the compounds described here
167 would react only stoichiometrically with the superoxide anion. Thus, considering the difference

168 (71 nmol) between the number of moles of formazan formed in the presence and in the absence
 169 of CuL and the number of moles of the copper complex (2.0 nmol) employed in the assay that
 170 showed the lower formation of formazan (Figure SM1 supplementary material), each molecule of
 171 the copper complex was able to react with 35 molecules of superoxide anion after 40 min, clearly
 172 suggesting catalytic activity. On the other hand, since the iron complex was less active, the
 173 reaction ratio superoxide:FeL was only 1.5 after 40 min. Since this ratio is only a little bit higher
 174 than the stoichiometric reaction, at the moment it is not possible to conclude if FeL showed SOD
 175 or SOO activity. Therefore, CuL was found to possess a higher reactivity on the superoxide anion
 176 (almost 50 times higher) than the FeL compound and due to its catalytic activity it might be
 177 considered as presenting SOD-like activity. However, the k_{cat} obtained for CuL is *ca.* 1.8×10^2 lower
 178 than the one observed for the natural SOD. Comparing the data with the complexes synthesized
 179 with the ligand L1 (Table 1), the activities obtained here were of the same order of magnitude.

180 Next, the ability of the complexes to mimic the enzyme CAT was evaluated through a
 181 direct reaction with hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2), which was monitored by measuring H_2O_2
 182 absorption using electronic spectroscopy at 240 nm. The FeL complex showed CAT mimetic
 183 activity in phosphate buffer solution (pH 7.8), while the CuL complex exhibited CAT-like activity
 184 only when one co-catalyst (piperazine) was added to the reaction (Table 1). Once again, the
 185 kinetic parameters calculated for both compounds, in particular the k_{cat} , revealed that CuL
 186 possesses higher CAT-like activity than FeL, albeit limited by the need of the addition of the
 187 mentioned co-catalyst.

188 **Table 1:** Kinetic parameters of iron and copper complexes FeL, CuL and natural SOD and CAT
 189 enzymes.

Compound	SOD activity		CAT activity			Ref.
	IC ₅₀ (μ M)	k_{cat} ($M^{-1}s^{-1}$)	k_{cat} (s^{-1})	K_M (mM)	k_{cat}/K_M ($M^{-1}s^{-1}$)	
FeL ^a	8.946±0.345	1.43×10^5	0.080±0.003	23.2±1.2	3.45±0.04	This work
CuL	0.181±0.016	7.07×10^6	0.360±0.125	41.9±15.7	8.25±0.06	This work
FeL1	26.8±2.5	1.2×10^5	ND	ND	ND	Ribeiro et al. ³³
CuL1	0.43±0.2	7.7×10^6	NA	NA	NA	Riberio et al. ³³
Cu, Zn-SOD	0.03	1.3×10^9	-	-	-	Weser et al. ³⁸
CAT (Human erythrocytes)	-	-	5.87×10^5	80	7.34×10^6	Switala et al. ³⁹

190 ^a The kinetic data do not allow to confirm if the compound shows superoxide dismutase or superoxide oxidase activity.
191 L = N-(2-hydroxybenzyl)-N-(2-pyridylmethyl)[(3-chloro)(2-hydroxy)] propylamine; L1 = 1-[bis(pyridin-2-ylmethyl) amino]-3-
192 chloropropan-2-ol; ND = not determined; NA = not active
193

194
195 Following the results obtained with the *in vitro* enzymatic assays, we then proceeded to
196 determine the ROS levels in H4 glioma cells incubated with the 2 complexes. For that, we used
197 CM-H₂DCFDA-based flow cytometry which is useful to detect several ROS species, but mainly
198 H₂O₂, the hydroxyl radical (OH[•]) or peroxyxynitrite⁴⁰. Cellular treatment with FeL for 24h induced a
199 statistically significant reduction in ROS levels (Figure 2A). In contrast, CuL led to an evident, but
200 not statistically significant, decrease in ROS levels (Figure 2A). These results indicate that the *in*
201 *vitro* antioxidant activity is not translated in the cellular environment. This behavior has been
202 described previously when the *in vitro* SOD/CAT activity of Fe, Cu and Mn of similar mimetic
203 complexes was not replicated in live cells³³.

204 To assess if the complexes antioxidant effects might also be due to indirect instead of
205 direct effects, we assessed the level of expression of several ROS-related genes by qPCR. The
206 vehicle control sample, treated with DMSO, exhibited a clear effect on the expression of some of
207 the genes analysed (Figure 2B), which is in agreement with the fact that DMSO has been
208 previously described to be a ROS scavenger, able to interfere with several related cellular
209 processes⁴¹, even if under our experimental conditions we saw no significant changes in ROS
210 levels in DMSO-control cells in the cytometric study (Figure 2A). From the results obtained,
211 however, it became evident that both treatment with FeL and CuL led to a considerable
212 upregulation of the expression of thioredoxin (Figure 2B), Trx1, an important cytosolic detoxifying
213 protein⁴², which suggests that these compounds might have an impact on the homeostasis of
214 cytosolic redox status. Additionally, the FeL compound also led to significant changes in SOD1
215 and CAT expression levels when compared with DMSO-treated cells (Figure 2B), which is in
216 accordance to the fact that it induced a significant decrease in ROS levels (Figure 2A) and might
217 contribute to its apparently higher antioxidant effect when compared with CuL. In addition to
218 having an effect on intracellular ROS levels, we cannot rule out the possibility that the complexes
219 used are also altering extracellular ROS levels. These species have been hypothesized to be
220 extremely relevant players in the tumor microenvironment and different aspects of cancer
221 progression, including the development of metastasis⁴³, and, as such, this possibility is worthy of
222 further investigation in the future.

223
224 **FeL and CuL complexes reduce migration through inhibition of Epithelial–Mesenchymal**
225 **Transition (EMT) in glioma cells**

226 Since an increase in ROS had been previously implicated in EMT induction in different
227 cells¹⁸⁻²¹, we hypothesized that the reduction in ROS levels induced by the compounds could be
228 leading to changes in the metastatic ability of H4 cells. The effect of FeL and CuL on the migration
229 of H4 cells was thus investigated by the transwell migration assay. The number of cells migrated
230 to the bottom of the membrane revealed that both complexes can clearly inhibit the migratory
231 ability of H4 cells (Figure 3A).

232 To investigate to what extent this observation was related to cell proliferation or cell cycle arrest
233 induction, since ROS has also been shown to be related with regulation of cellular proliferation/cell
234 cycle⁴⁴, the effects of the compounds on the cell cycle of H4 cells were investigated by flow
235 cytometry. While FeL showed no effect on the cell cycle of H4 cells, CuL induced a significant
236 decrease in the G0/G1 phase of the cycle ($*p \leq 0.05$), with a concomitant increase in the % of
237 cells in the S and G2/M phases (of about 7.7 and 6.2%, respectively) that was, however,
238 statistically not significant (Figure 3B). This suggests that CuL-treated cells might experience a
239 shift in the cell cycle from the G0/G1 phase to the S and G2/M phases, which could either reflect
240 a slight increase in proliferation, or that cells are arrested during DNA duplication or prior to cell
241 division⁴⁵. However, this difference does not seem likely to justify the significant change observed
242 in the migration of glioma cells upon exposure to the complex.

243 As such, looking for another possible explanation, we next analyzed the expression of several
244 EMT markers in the FeL/CuL treated cells by qPCR. The results evidenced that treatment with
245 the compounds is accompanied by an obvious and statistically significant increase in expression
246 of E-cadherin mRNA, and a slight, but not significant, reduction of Vimentin in the case of CuL
247 (Figure 3C). The expression of the EMT-related transcription factor Snail was found to also be
248 statistically significantly decreased upon treatment with CuL (Figure 3C). This gene expression
249 profile is consistent with the hypothesis that cells treated with FeL and CuL had a more epithelial-
250 like phenotype, possibly experiencing an inhibition of the EMT transition process, which should
251 originate cells with a less motile phenotype¹⁴, and is in accordance with the decreased migratory
252 ability observed in complex-treated cells (Figure 3A), demonstrating that the compounds do seem
253 to possess anti-metastatic properties.

254

255 **FeL and CuL complexes inhibit 3D spheroids invasion**

256 There is mounting evidence that the results obtained in 2D cellular models, where many
257 of the characteristics of the original tumor microenvironment are missing, present several
258 limitations when being transposed into the clinical setting⁴⁶. In that context, several 3D cellular
259 models have been developed that present a level of complexity which is much closer and more

260 representative of several aspects of tumor tissues than the ones shown by monolayer cell
261 cultures⁴⁶. In particular, matrix-embedded 3D cultures have been increasingly applied to
262 investigate tumor migration and invasion⁴⁷.

263 As such, and in order to try to better estimate the clinical translational potential of the
264 compounds under evaluation, we extended our studies to H4 multicellular spheroids, which are
265 expected to better recapitulate *in vivo* tumor properties. For that purpose, spheroids generated in
266 agarose-coated plates were first treated with FeL or CuL for 24 h or 72 h. Then, cell viability was
267 assessed using the CellTiter-Glo® 3D assay, while spheroid size and growth were accompanied
268 using bright field microscopy. Surprisingly, incubation with FeL increased cellular viability (Figure
269 4A), both after 24 h and 72 h of incubation. This increase in viability was accompanied by an
270 increase in spheroid size after 72 h of incubation (Figure 4B). In contrast, CuL induced a decrease
271 in viability as early as 24 h of incubation, along with a concomitant decrease in spheroid size
272 (Figure 4A and 4B).

273 Next, we observed that both complexes were able to interfere with the invasive behavior
274 exhibited by H4 cells embedded in matrigel (Figure 4C). CuL, in particular, exhibited very
275 encouraging results, completely eliminating H4 cell ability to invade the matrigel matrix, an effect
276 that cannot be attributed solely to the decrease in viability and growth found to occur following
277 incubation with this compound (around 31% and 19% in terms of cellular viability and growth,
278 respectively). FeL also displayed the ability to inhibit the invasive behavior of H4 cells, an effect
279 that was, however, not as striking as the one found for CuL. However, this can be due to the fact
280 that this compound was found to present a stimulatory effect in cellular viability, as described
281 above (Figure 4A and 4B), counteracting the desirable effect it seemed to also have as an anti-
282 metastatic compound.

283 Notably, the effect of the compounds on H4 spheroids' invasive ability was maintained even
284 when cells were irradiated with X-rays (6 Gy). This is highly relevant in the clinical context, since
285 it has been demonstrated that the use of low linear energy transfer (LET) irradiation, which
286 includes X-rays radiation, might, in patient-specific contexts, increase migration and invasion of
287 glioma cells⁴⁸. In addition, most glioma relapses occur in an area within 2 cm of the area where
288 the primary tumor initially developed, which impairs tumor removal and local radiotherapy². The
289 results obtained in the 3D invasion assays thus clearly demonstrate that both complexes possess
290 an anti-metastatic effect not only in monolayer cells, but also in the more representative spheroids
291 model that has potential to be highly relevant in the clinical context.

292

293 **FeL and CuL complexes alter glutathione metabolism or oxidative stress in H4 spheroids.**

294 Since we had previously observed an apparent decrease in ROS levels in complex-treated
295 cells that could be related to the decreased migration observed in monolayer-cultured cells, we
296 investigated whether the remarkable effect of the compounds on the inhibition of H4 spheroids'
297 invasion in matrigel could be also related with changes in cellular oxidative stress in this 3D
298 cellular model. For that, the antioxidant ability of the complexes was assessed by determining the
299 relative levels of cellular glutathione and the ratio of reduced glutathione (GSH), an important
300 cellular antioxidant and detoxifying agent, and oxidized glutathione (GSSG) using the
301 GSH/GSSG-Glo™ Assay. The results obtained revealed that treatment with FeL induced an
302 increase in GSH levels, while the GSH/GSSG ratio remained unchanged (Figure 5A and 5B,
303 respectively). This suggests that this compound did not change the oxidative stress levels in H4
304 spheroids, but it seemed to affect cellular glutathione metabolism. Contrastingly, cells treated with
305 the CuL complex showed an evident decrease of the GSH/GSSG ratio, compared with the vehicle
306 control sample, which indicates that CuL was inducing oxidative stress under these conditions
307 (Figure 5B). In addition, the level of total GSH in these cells was also found to be reduced (Figure
308 5A).

309 These observations raise the question of what might be the impact of such metabolic changes
310 on the behavior observed for FeL- and CuL-treated H4 spheroids. One possibility is that the
311 elevated oxidative stress found in CuL-treated cells could underlie the decrease in viability
312 observed under these same conditions (Figure 4A and 4B), since several metal-based
313 compounds have been previously described to reduce cancer cell viability through the induction
314 of ROS production^{8, 11, 12}. Moreover, increased GSH levels have also been previously correlated
315 with enhanced cancer metastatic ability⁴⁹. This could, at least partially, explain the difference in
316 performance observed for the FeL and CuL compounds, since the later significantly decreases
317 GSH levels and is much more efficient at reducing the invasive potential of H4 spheroids, while
318 the former actually increased the GSH levels, exhibiting a less pronounced inhibitory effect.
319 Overall, these results are highly encouraging, since modulation of GSH levels have been
320 proposed as a potential way to sensitize tumor cells to treatment modalities such as
321 chemotherapy⁴⁹, and, in particular the CuL complex, seems to be a good candidate to test this
322 goal, while also having been proved herein to have a significant impact on the cell invasive ability.

323 324 **Conclusion** 325

326 The highly infiltrative nature of gliomas poses significant therapeutic challenges that result in a
327 high rate of disease recurrence and poor patient prognosis. In this work, we explored the
328 application of two coordination compounds, FeL and CuL in an anticancer therapeutic context.

329 Both complexes showed antioxidant activity (catalase and superoxide dismutase/superoxide
330 oxidase) *in vitro* and, in the case of FeL, also in H4 glioma cells. Although the complexes did not
331 present significant cytotoxic activity at 25 μ M, they exhibited anti-migratory properties in 2D
332 cultures and anti-invasive abilities in 3D multicellular spheroids. While the mechanisms underlying
333 these effects have not been fully elucidated, they seem to be related with cellular oxidative stress
334 and/or glutathione metabolism, particularly in 3D cellular models where the best performing
335 complex, CuL, caused a reduction in GSH levels, which has been previously correlated with
336 increased metastatic properties of cancer cells. Importantly, the concentrations of the compounds
337 tested were not cytotoxic in 2D models or only slightly affected the viability in 3D models, which
338 indicates that the occurrence of extensive cell death is not behind the changes in
339 migratory/invasive ability. Additionally, this suggests that they might also be less toxic to healthy
340 cells, which would result in less treatment side-effects. Considering that recent reports have also
341 proposed that glioma therapy needs to be developed in the context of a potential detrimental
342 enhancement of cancer invasion by radiotherapeutic treatments, our complexes also revealed a
343 decrease in H4 cells invasion when combined with irradiation with x-rays. This is highly relevant,
344 as it indicates that they do have high potential to limit the cancer invasive ability and might be
345 used in combination with other anti-proliferative therapies.

346

347 **Experimental Section**

348

349 **Synthesis of complexes, preparation of stock solutions and stability**

350 The ligand 2-[[3-chloro-2-hydroxy-propyl)-pyridin-2-ylmethyl-amino]-methyl]-phenol (L) and the
351 complexes FeL and CuL used in this work (Figure 1) were synthesized and characterized as
352 described previously.²³⁻²⁵. Elemental analyses (CHN) and ESI-(+)-MS confirmed the identity and
353 purity of the compounds.

354 A 1.0 mM stock solution of each complex was prepared by dissolving it in a 5% solution of
355 dimethylsulfoxide (DMSO) prepared in ultrapure MilliQ water (H₂O). For biological experiments,
356 solutions with the desired concentrations were prepared by diluting the compound's stock in the
357 culture medium used. The stability of the compound's solutions was determined in Dulbecco's
358 Phosphate-Buffered Saline (DPBS) (Gibco™, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) at
359 physiological pH. For that, a solution of the compounds at a concentration of 25 μ M was prepared
360 and the UV-Vis spectrum of the solutions was obtained at different times (0, 24, 48 and 72 h) in
361 a UV-Vis Spectrophotometer (Varian Cary 400).

362

363 **Cell culture**

364 Human brain neuroglioma (H4) cells (ATCC, Manassas, VA, USA) were grown in Dulbecco's
365 Modified Eagle's Medium (DMEM) supplemented with 10% Fetal Bovine Serum (FBS) and 1%
366 Penicillin/Streptomycin (all from Gibco™, Thermo Fisher Scientific). The cell line was cultured
367 continuously as a monolayer at 37°C and 5% of CO₂.

368

369 **Viability Assays**

370 For IC₅₀ determination, H4 cells were seeded at a density of 1.0 x 10⁴ cells in 150 µL of medium
371 in a 96-well black polystyrene microplate (Corning, NY, USA) and allowed to attach for 24 h at
372 37°C. Then, the medium was removed and the wells were washed with DPBS before the addition
373 of 150 µL of the 200, 100, 50, 25 and 12.5 µM solutions of the complexes, the respective vehicle
374 controls (DMSO at the same concentration than in the complexes' solutions), or fresh medium
375 (untreated control sample) to the wells. After 24 h of incubation, the medium in each well was
376 removed, the wells washed with DPBS and 150 µL of a 10% solution of AlamarBlue (Thermo
377 Fisher Scientific) in medium were added to each well. The plate was covered with aluminum foil
378 and incubated for 2 h at 37°C and subsequently read in a CLARIOstar® microplate reader (BMG
379 LABTECH GmbH, Offenburg, Germany) for fluorescence detection.

380 For viability determination by flow cytometry, 7.0 x 10⁵ cells were seeded in 75 cm² flasks (Greiner
381 Bio-one, Frickenhausen, Germany) and incubated for 24 h at 37 °C. The medium was removed
382 and cells were washed once with DPBS before 10.5 mL of fresh medium, medium with 25 µM of
383 FeL and CuL, or medium with 0.125% of DMSO (as the vehicle control) were added to the flasks.
384 The flasks were incubated for an additional 24 h, after which cells were detached and washed
385 with DPBS. Then, for each sample, 1.0 x 10⁶ cells were resuspended in DPBS and analyzed
386 using a flow cytometer (BD FACS CANTO™ II) (unstained control samples). Then, those same
387 cells were stained with 1 µg/mL of propidium iodide (PI) (Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) and
388 re-analyzed. The percentage of live cells calculated for each sample was normalized to the
389 untreated control sample, and three independent experiments were performed.

390

391 **Fluorescence study by confocal microscopy**

392 H4 cells were seeded at a density of 5.0 x 10⁴ cells on a 22-mm coverslip placed in a 6-wells plate
393 (CELLSTAR®, Greiner Bio-One), and allowed to attach overnight. Cells were then incubated or
394 not (as a control) with 50 µM of FeL for 24 h at 37 °C. Then, cells were washed once with Hank's
395 Buffered Salt Solution (HBSS; Thermo Fisher Scientific) and stained with 75 nM Lyso-Tracker™

396 Red DND-99 (Molecular Probes, Thermo fisher Scientific) for 30 min at 37 °C. The staining
397 solution was removed and cells were fixed for 5 min in 4% of paraformaldehyde at room
398 temperature. Samples were washed thrice, coverslips were mounted on HBSS onto a glass slide,
399 and sealed with nail polish. Fluorescence was visualized on a confocal microscope (Zeiss LSM
400 710) using a standard DAPI filter for visualization of FeL fluorescence, while LysoTracker was
401 visualized using a 561 nm laser for excitation followed by emission detection on the 566-691 nm
402 range.

403

404 **SOD/SOO-like activity**

405 The reactivity on the superoxide anion was evaluated by a methodology described previously,
406 which involves the reduction of nitroblue tetrazolium (NBT) by the superoxide anion³³. Stock
407 solutions of xanthine, nitroblue tetrazolium (NBT) and xanthine oxidase were prepared at the
408 concentrations of $4.5 \times 10^{-4} \text{ mol.dm}^{-3}$, $5.6 \times 10^{-5} \text{ mol.dm}^{-3}$ and 0.2 U.cm^{-3} , respectively, using a
409 $0,05 \text{ mol.dm}^{-3}$ phosphate buffer solution at pH 7.8 (all reagents from Sigma-Aldrich).

410 A control solution containing 1000 μL of the xanthine solution, 400 μL of the phosphate buffer
411 solution and 1000 μL of NBT was added to a cuvette followed by the quick addition of 200 μL of
412 the xanthine oxidase solution and then the absorbance was measured over time in a UV-Vis
413 spectrophotometer (Varian Cary 50), thus obtaining the rate of change of the absorption in the
414 absence of the complex.

415 To evaluate the ~~SOD~~ activity of FeL and CuL, different concentrations of the complexes were
416 employed: for FeL, the concentrations used were 1.92×10^{-6} , 3.85×10^{-6} , 7.69×10^{-6} , 1.15×10^{-5} ,
417 and $1.54 \times 10^{-5} \text{ mol.dm}^{-3}$; for CuL, the concentrations used were 9.62×10^{-8} , 1.92×10^{-7} , $3.85 \times$
418 10^{-7} , 5.77×10^{-7} and $7.67 \times 10^{-7} \text{ mol.dm}^{-3}$. The concentration of the compounds which reduced
419 50% of NBT in relation to the control experiment was calculated, obtaining the IC_{50} , which was
420 then transformed to K_{cat} using the equation proposed by McCord and Fridovich, $K_{\text{cat}} = K_{\text{NBT}} \times$
421 $[\text{NBT}] / \text{IC}_{50}$, where $K_{\text{NBT}} = 5.94 \times 10^4 \text{ M}^{-1} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$.^{50, 51}

422

423 **CAT-like activity**

424 The ability of the compounds in promoting H_2O_2 degradation was evaluated by the methodology
425 described by Beers and Sizer⁵². Initially, the concentration of H_2O_2 was evaluated by titration with
426 iodide/thiosulfate⁵³. To determine the CAT-like activity of FeL, solutions of H_2O_2 at different
427 concentrations (1.64×10^{-2} , 1.23×10^{-3} , 8.2×10^{-3} and $4.1 \times 10^{-3} \text{ mol.dm}^{-3}$) were prepared in a
428 total volume of 2200 μL of a phosphate buffer solution at pH 7.8. Then, each solution was mixed
429 with a FeL solution yielding a final concentration of FeL of $7.69 \times 10^{-5} \text{ mol.dm}^{-3}$, and the decrease

430 of the absorbance associated with the reaction with H₂O₂ was followed by UV-Vis spectroscopy
431 at 240 nm (Varian Cary 50) in a 1 cm path length cell. For CuL, the above protocol was followed
432 but the solutions were prepared on a piperazine solution (0.1 mol.dm⁻³) and the final CuL
433 concentration in the mixture was 9.25 x 10⁻⁵ mol.dm⁻³. The experiments were performed in
434 triplicate, and the Michaelis Menten constant (K_M) and the turnover number (K_{cat}) were then
435 calculated for each complex.

436

437 **Intracellular ROS measurements**

438 For determination of intracellular ROS levels, H4 cells were prepared and incubated with the
439 compounds (or respective medium and DMSO controls) as described above for the viability
440 analysis by flow cytometry. Upon detaching and washing, 4.0 x 10⁵ cells were incubated with 5
441 μM of CM-H₂DCFDA (Life Technology, Thermo fisher Scientific) in HBSS for 20 min at 37°C in
442 the dark. Stained cells were then washed once and resuspended in DPBS. Samples were
443 analyzed in a flow cytometer (BD FACS CANTO™ II) and the average fluorescence intensity of
444 each sample was normalized to the untreated control sample.

445

446 **Cell Cycle Assay**

447 For the cell cycle assay, cells were grown as described above for the viability determination by
448 flow cytometry. After detaching and washing, 1.0 x 10⁶ cells were fixed through drop by drop
449 addition of 70% cold ethanol (v/v in DPBS) under gently vortexing. Samples were stored at 4°C
450 for 24 h, centrifuged and the supernatant was removed. Subsequently, 250 μL of RNase A (10
451 mg/mL in PBS; Sigma Aldrich) were added to each sample, which was then incubated at room
452 temperature for 30 min and washed twice with DPBS. In the dark, each sample was stained with
453 20 μg/mL of propidium iodide (PI) (eBioscience, Thermo Fisher Scientific) for 15 min before being
454 analyzed using a flow cytometer (BD FACS CANTO™ II). Three independent experiments were
455 performed.

456

457 **q-PCR**

458 For RNA extraction, cells were prepared and incubated with the complexes (or respective medium
459 and DMSO controls) as described above for the ROS determination and cell cycle analyses. Upon
460 detaching and washing twice with DPBS, 1.0 x 10⁶ cells were centrifuged, the supernatant was
461 removed, and the pellet was stored at -20 °C until further use. Total RNA was extracted using the
462 High Pure RNA isolation kit (Roche, Basel, Switzerland) according to the manufacturer's
463 instructions. All the RNA samples were treated with DNase-1 to remove any contaminating

464 genomic DNA, and the purity of the RNA was checked spectroscopically in a NanoDropND-1000
465 (NanoDrop Technologies). Then, 1 µg of purified RNA was reverse-transcribed using RT² First
466 Strand Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Gene
467 expression was assessed by real-time PCR using the cDNA obtained. For that, 25 ng of cDNA
468 was amplified in 15 µl of a reaction mix containing Power SYBR Green PCR Master mix (Thermo
469 Fisher Scientific), 20 pmol of each primer pair (Supplementary Table 1) and nuclease-free water.
470 The thermal profile consisted of 1 cycle at 95 °C for 10 min followed by 40 cycles at 95 °C for 15
471 s, 60 °C for 1 min. The human GAPDH cDNA fragment was amplified as the internal control. Data
472 analysis was performed using the 2- $\Delta\Delta$ Ct method.

473

474 **Transwell Migration Assay**

475 Cells starved overnight were detached and seeded onto cell culture inserts in 24-well plates
476 (Millipore transwell PET filters, 8 µm pore; Merck, Kenilworth, NJ, USA) at a density of 1.0×10^4
477 cells in 150 µL of FBS-free medium, or FBS-free medium containing 0.125% DMSO, 25 µM of
478 FeL or 25 µM of CuL. The lower transwell chambers were filled with 600 µL of media without FBS
479 (negative control) or with medium containing 10% FBS. After 24h of incubation at 37 °C, the
480 inserts were washed with DPBS, fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde, washed again, and stained
481 with 1 µg/mL of Hoechst 33342 (Thermo Fisher Scientific) for 20 min at room temperature. Cells
482 were then imaged using a 20x objective on a confocal microscope (Zeiss LSM 710). Seven
483 random fields were photographed per insert, with at least two inserts being analyzed for each
484 condition per experiment. The results shown were calculated based on three independent
485 experiments.

486

487 **Spheroids Viability Assay**

488 For spheroids formation, 2.5×10^3 cells were seeded in 100 µL/well in 96-well plates coated with
489 1.5% agarose (w/v in PBS). After 1 day of incubation, spheroids were fully formed, and 100 µL of
490 fresh medium or medium with DMSO or the complexes was added to a final concentration of
491 0.125% and 25 µM, respectively. Cells were incubated for 24 h or 72 h at 37 °C before cell viability
492 was estimated using the CellTiter-Glo® 3D assay (Promega, Madison, WI, USA) according to the
493 manufacturer's instructions. Luminescence was read in a CLARIOstar® microplate reader and
494 the average luminescence of 8 spheroids per condition was normalized to the average
495 luminescence of the untreated control sample, for at least two independent experiments.

496 In addition, spheroids' viability was also estimated based on spheroids' growth. For that, the total
497 area of each spheroid was determined using the INSIDIA macro in FIJI⁵⁴, and then normalized to

498 the area of the spheroid at day 0 (to account for possible differences in the spheroids' initial size)
499 and to the size of the untreated spheroids at each time point (to assess the effect of the DMSO
500 and the compounds on spheroids' growth). Several spheroids (at least 7) were analyzed per
501 condition and time point, for at least two independent experiments.

502

503 **Spheroids Invasion Assay**

504 Each one-day old spheroid, formed as described above, was collected into a tube, washed once
505 with FBS-free medium, and resuspended in 40 μ l of a 4.5 mg/ml Matrigel (Cat. Number 356231;
506 Corning) solution in FBS-free medium. Then, each spheroid-containing suspension was spotted
507 onto the centre of a well of a 24-well plate and incubated as a hanging drop for 1 h until the
508 matrigel had polymerized. Complete medium, complete medium with 0.125% DMSO, or complete
509 medium containing 25 μ M of the complexes were added and the spheroids were incubated for 24
510 h at 37 °C before being irradiated (or not as a control) with 6 Gy X-rays on a Faxitron MultiRad225
511 and further incubated at 37 °C. Images of spheroids and invading cells were acquired immediately
512 after embedment and every 24h after that, using an Eclipse Ts2 microscope (Nikon). At each time
513 point (24 h, 48 h, and 72 h) the total area of the spheroid and invading cells was determined as
514 described above.

515

516 **Spheroids GSH/GSSG Assay**

517 Spheroids were formed and incubated with the compounds or respective controls as described
518 above for the viability assessment. Then, the spheroids were carefully transferred to a white 96-
519 wells polystyrene plate (Greiner Bio-One) and the media was aspirated. Total glutathione and the
520 ratio of GSH/GSSG were then estimated using the GSH/GSSG-Glo™ Assay (Promega)
521 according to the manufacturer's instructions with one minor change: after addition of the lysis
522 buffer, the plate was shaken for 30 min to allow for proper lysis of the spheroids. Luminescence
523 was then read in a CLARIOstar® microplate reader. Three spheroids were analyzed per day and
524 condition, and the average luminescence of those spheroids was normalized to the average
525 luminescence of the untreated control sample. Three independent experiments were performed.

526

527 **Statistics**

528 All data are shown as mean values \pm standard error of the mean (S.E.M.) of the DMSO-treated
529 or complex treated samples relative to the untreated control. Statistical and data analysis was
530 carried out using GraphPad Prism 6 software. Statistical differences between treatment and

531 control samples were assessed by one-way ANOVA or two-way ANOVA followed by Dunnett's
532 test. The threshold for statistical significance was set to $P = 0.05$.

533

534 **Conflicts of interest**

535 There are no conflicts to declare.

536

537 **Acknowledgements**

538 This work was supported by *Coordenação de aperfeiçoamento de pessoal de nível superior*
539 (CAPES-Brazil) through Project Probral CAPES-DAAD 88881.143979/2017-01. This work was
540 also supported by the Department of Biomedical Physics in Radiation Oncology at the DKFZ.
541 C²TN/IST authors gratefully acknowledge FCT support through the UID/Multi/04349/2019 and
542 PTDC/BTM-TEC/29256/2017 projects.

543

544 **References**

545

546

- 547 1. C. Alifieris and D. T. Trafalis, *Pharmacol Therapeut*, 2015, **152**, 63-82.
- 548 2. Q. Sun, R. Xu, H. B. Xu, G. M. Wang, X. M. Shen and H. Jiang, *World J Surg Oncol*, 2017, **15**.
- 549 3. J. Rosen, T. Blau, S. J. Grau, M. T. Barbe, G. R. Fink and N. Galldiks, *Case reports in oncology*, 2018,
550 **11**, 591-600.
- 551 4. D. L. Ma, C. Wu, S. S. Cheng, F. W. Lee, Q. B. Han and C. H. Leung, *Int J Mol Sci*, 2019, **20**.
- 552 5. U. Ndagi, N. Mhlongo and M. E. Soliman, *Drug Des Dev Ther*, 2017, **11**, 599-616.
- 553 6. N. Muhammad and Z. Guo, *Current opinion in chemical biology*, 2014, **19**, 144-153.
- 554 7. A. Bergamo and G. Sava, *Chem Soc Rev*, 2015, **44**, 8818-8835.
- 555 8. B. Tang, D. Wan, S. H. Lai, H. H. Yang, C. Zhang, X. Z. Wang, C. C. Zeng and Y. J. Liu, *J Inorg Biochem*,
556 2017, **173**, 93-104.
- 557 9. Y. H. He, H. Y. Xue, W. D. Zhang, L. Wang, G. Y. Xiang, L. Li and X. M. Shang, *J Organomet Chem*,
558 2017, **842**, 82-92.
- 559 10. M. C. Ruiz, J. Kljun, I. Turel, A. L. Di Virgilio and I. E. Leon, *Metallomics : integrated biometal science*,
560 2019, **11**, 666-675.
- 561 11. S. S. Gu, P. Yu, J. N. Hu, Y. N. Liu, Z. W. Li, Y. Qian, Y. Wang, Y. Gou and F. Yang, *Eur J Med Chem*,
562 2019, **164**, 654-664.
- 563 12. B. Tang, D. Wan, Y. J. Wang, Q. Y. Yi, B. H. Guo and Y. J. Liu, *Eur J Med Chem*, 2018, **145**, 302-314.
- 564 13. J. P. C. Coverdale, T. Laroia-McCarron and I. Romero-Canelon, *Inorganics*, 2019, **7**.
- 565 14. E. D. Williams, D. Gao, A. Redfern and E. W. Thompson, *Nature reviews. Cancer*, 2019, DOI:
566 10.1038/s41568-019-0213-x.
- 567 15. L. Avila-Carrasco, P. Majano, J. A. Sanchez-Tomero, R. Selgas, M. Lopez-Cabrera, A. Aguilera and
568 G. G. Mateo, *Front Pharmacol*, 2019, **10**.
- 569 16. A. Sánchez-Mora, H. Valdés, M. T. Ramírez-Apan, A. Nieto-Camacho, S. Hernández-Ortega, D.
570 Canseco-González and D. Morales-Morales, *Inorg Chim Acta*, 2019, **496**, 119061.
- 571 17. W. S. Wu, *Cancer Metast Rev*, 2006, **25**, 695-705.
- 572 18. C. H. Wu, S. C. Tang, P. H. Wang, H. Lee and J. L. Ko, *J Biol Chem*, 2012, **287**, 25292-25302.

- 573 19. W. Lv, L. L. Sui, X. N. Yan, H. Y. Xie, L. P. Jiang, C. Y. Geng, Q. J. Li, X. F. Yao, Y. Kong and J. Cao,
574 *Chem-Biol Interact*, 2018, **279**, 136-144.
- 575 20. C. Ninsontia, P. P. Phiboonchaiyanan and P. Chanvorachote, *Cancer Cell Int*, 2016, **16**.
- 576 21. S. H. Jeong, Y. J. Jeon and S. J. Park, *Mol Med Rep*, 2016, **14**, 5148-5154.
- 577 22. J. W. Jiang, K. Wang, Y. Chen, H. N. Chen, E. C. Nice and C. H. Huang, *Signal Transduct Tar*, 2017,
578 **2**.
- 579 23. A. Horn, I. Vencato, A. J. Bortoluzzi, R. Horner, R. A. N. Silva, B. Spoganicz, V. Drago, H. Terenzi, M.
580 C. B. de Oliveira, R. Werner, W. Haase and A. Neves, *Inorg Chim Acta*, 2005, **358**, 339-351.
- 581 24. A. Horn, I. Vencato, A. J. Bortoluzzi, V. Drago, M. A. Novak and A. Neves, *J Brazil Chem Soc*, 2006,
582 **17**, 1584-1593.
- 583 25. C. Fernandes, A. Horn, O. Vieira-da-Motta, V. M. de Assis, M. R. Rocha, L. D. Mathias, E. S. Bull, A.
584 J. Bortoluzzi, E. V. Guimaraes, J. C. A. Almeida and D. H. Russell, *J Inorg Biochem*, 2010, **104**, 1214-
585 1223.
- 586 26. A. Horn, A. Neves, I. Vencato, V. Drago, C. Zucco, R. Werner and W. Haase, *J Brazil Chem Soc*, 2000,
587 **11**, 7-10.
- 588 27. A. Horn, L. Firn, A. J. Bortoluzzi, B. Szpoganicz, M. D. Silva, M. A. Novak, M. B. Neto, L. S. Eberlin,
589 R. R. Catharino, M. N. Eberlin and C. Fernandes, *J Mol Struct*, 2006, **797**, 154-164.
- 590 28. J. Fan, Y. W. Ou, C. Y. Wu, C. J. Yu, Y. M. Song and Q. M. Zhan, *Acta Pharmacol Sin*, 2012, **33**, 1301-
591 1310.
- 592 29. T. D. Ribeiro, F. L. Fonseca, M. D. C. de Carvalho, R. M. D. Godinho, F. P. de Almeida, T. D.
593 Saint'Pierre, N. A. Rey, C. Fernandes, A. Horn and M. D. Pereira, *Biochem J*, 2017, **474**, 301-315.
- 594 30. K. A. Mapuskar, C. M. Anderson, D. R. Spitz, I. Batinic-Haberle, B. G. Allen and R. E. Oberley-
595 Deegan, *Semin Radiat Oncol*, 2019, **29**, 72-80.
- 596 31. F. De Lazzari, L. Bubacco, A. J. Whitworth and M. Bisaglia, *Aging Dis*, 2018, **9**, 716-728.
- 597 32. I. Batinic-Haberle, A. Tovmasyan and I. Spasojevic, *Redox Biol*, 2015, **6**, 656-656.
- 598 33. T. P. Ribeiro, C. Fernandes, K. V. Melo, S. S. Ferreira, J. A. Lessa, R. W. A. Franco, G. Schenk, M. D.
599 Pereira and A. Horn, *Free Radical Bio Med*, 2015, **80**, 67-76.
- 600 34. R. O. Costal, S. S. Ferreira, C. A. Pereira, J. R. Harmer, C. J. Noble, G. Schenk, R. W. A. Franco, J. A.
601 L. C. Resende, P. Comba, A. E. Roberts, C. Fernandes and A. Horn, *Front Chem*, 2018, **6**.
- 602 35. A. Horn, G. L. Parrilha, K. V. Melo, C. Fernandes, M. Horner, L. D. Visentin, J. A. S. Santos, M. S.
603 Santos, E. C. A. Eleutherio and M. D. Pereira, *Inorg Chem*, 2010, **49**, 1274-1276.
- 604 36. I. Batinic-Haberle, J. S. Reboucas and I. Spasojevic, *Antioxidants & redox signaling*, 2010, **13**, 877-
605 918.
- 606 37. R. Bonetta, *Chem-Eur J*, 2018, **24**, 5032-+.
- 607 38. U. Weser and L. M. Schubotz, *J Mol Catal*, 1981, **13**, 249-261.
- 608 39. J. Switala and P. C. Loewen, *Arch Biochem Biophys*, 2002, **401**, 145-154.
- 609 40. B. Kalyanaraman, V. Darley-Usmar, K. J. A. Davies, P. A. Dennerly, H. J. Forman, M. B. Grisham, G.
610 E. Mann, K. Moore, L. J. Roberts and H. Ischiropoulos, *Free Radical Bio Med*, 2012, **52**, 1-6.
- 611 41. S. Tuncer, R. Gurbanov, I. Sheraj, E. Solel, O. Esenturk and S. Banerjee, *Sci Rep-Uk*, 2018, **8**.
- 612 42. J. Lu and A. Holmgren, *Free Radical Bio Med*, 2014, **66**, 75-87.
- 613 43. Z. Liao, D. Chua and N. S. Tan, *Molecular cancer*, 2019, **18**, 65.
- 614 44. E. H. Verbon, J. A. Post and J. Boonstra, *Gene*, 2012, **511**, 1-6.
- 615 45. G. K. Schwartz and M. A. Shah, *J Clin Oncol*, 2005, **23**, 9408-9421.
- 616 46. T. Ishiguro, H. Ohata, A. Sato, K. Yamawaki, T. Enomoto and K. Okamoto, *Cancer Sci*, 2017, **108**,
617 283-289.
- 618 47. S. Nath and G. R. Devi, *Pharmacol Therapeut*, 2016, **163**, 94-108.
- 619 48. M. Wank, D. Schilling, T. E. Schmid, B. Meyer, J. Gempt, M. Barz, J. Schlegel, F. Liesche, K. A. Kessel,
620 B. Wiestler, S. Bette, C. Zimmer and S. E. Combs, *Cancers*, 2018, **10**.

621 49. A. Bansal and M. C. Simon, *J Cell Biol*, 2018, **217**, 2291-2298.
622 50. M. Grau, F. Rigodanza, A. J. P. White, A. Soraru, M. Carraro, M. Bonchio and G. J. P. Britovsek,
623 *Chem Commun*, 2014, **50**, 4607-4609.
624 51. G. N. Ledesma, H. Eury, E. Anxolabehere-Mallart, C. Hureau and S. R. Signorella, *J Inorg Biochem*,
625 2015, **146**, 69-76.
626 52. R. F. Beers and I. W. Sizer, *J Biol Chem*, 1952, **195**, 133-140.
627 53. J. P. N. Ribeiro, M. A. Segundo, S. Reis and J. L. F. C. Lima, *Talanta*, 2009, **79**, 1169-1176.
628 54. C. Moriconi, V. Palmieri, R. Di Santo, G. Tornillo, M. Papi, G. Pilkington, M. De Spirito and M.
629 Gumbleton, *Biotechnol J*, 2017, **12**.

630

631