# Synthesis of Chalcones for Analysis as Anti-microbial Agents

# DISSERTATION

Submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements of the University for the degree of Masters by Research



By

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# **Table of Contents**

Acknowledgments	i
List of Figures, Schemes & Tables	iv
List of Abbreviations	vi
Abstract	vii

#### 1. Introduction

1.1 Literature Review	4
1.1.1 Biosynthesis of Naturally Occurring Chalcones	5
1.1.2 Synthesis	7
1.1.3 Effects of Substituents on Activity & Pharmacophore	9
1.1.4 Antimicrobial Activity of Phosphorous-Containing Compounds	14
1.1.5 Antimicrobial Resistance	16
1.2 Aim	19

#### 2. Methodology

2.1 Materials20
2.2 Chemistry – Experimental Procedures
2.2.1 Synthesis of 1-(pyrrole)-3-(4-chlorophenyl)-prop-2-ene-1-one
2.2.2 Synthesis of 1-(3,4-dichlorophenyl)-3-(2,4,6-trimethoxyphenyl)-prop-2- ene-1-one22
2.2.3 Synthesis of 1-(2,4-dichlorophenyl)-3-(4-methoxyphenyl)-prop-2-ene-1-one23
2.2.4 Synthesis of 1-(3,4-dichlorophenyl)-3-(4-hydroxyphenyl)-prop-2-ene-1-one23
2.2.5 Synthesis of 1-(2-acetylfuran)-3-(4-chlorophenyl)-prop-2-ene-1-one24
2.2.6 Synthesis of 1-(4-aminophenyl)-3-(4-chlorophenyl)-prop-2-ene-1-one24
2.2.7 Synthesis of 1-(4-bromophenyl)-3-(4-chlorophenyl)-prop-2-ene-1-one25
2.2.8 Synthesis of 1-(4-fluorophenyl)-3-(4-chlorophenyl)-prop-2-ene-1-one25
2.2.9 Synthesis of 1-(4-aminophenyl)-3-(4-bromophenyl)-prop-2-ene-1-one25
2.2.10 Synthesis of 1-(2,3-dichlorophenyl)-3-(2,4,6-trimethoxyphenyl)-prop-2-ene-1-one26
2.2.11 Synthesis of 1-(4-fluorophenyl)-3-(4-chlorophenyl)-prop-2-ene-1-thione26
2.2.12 Synthesis of 1-(2,3-dichlorophenyl)-3-(4-methoxyphenyl)-prop-2-ene-1-thione26
2.2.13 Synthesis of 1-(4-bromophenyl)-3-(4-chlorophenyl)-prop-2-ene-1-thione27
2.2.14 Synthesis of 1-(4-aminophenyl)-3-(4-bromophenyl)-prop-2-ene-1-thione28
2.2.15 Synthesis of 1-(tert-butoxycarboxylleucine)-3-(4-chlorophenyl)-prop-2-ene-1-one28
2.3 Microbiology – Experimental
2.3.1 Establishing antimicrobial activity
2.3.2 Minimum Inhibitory Concentration (MIC)
2.3.3 Minimum Bactericidal Concentration (MBC)
ii ii

3. Results	31
4. Discussion	53
4.1 Data Analysis	53
4.2 Thiochalcones	60
4.3 Effect of Substituent Positions on Aromatic Rings on the Reaction	62
4.4 Antimicrobial Activity	65
5. Conclusion	72
6. Future Works	73
7. References	74
Appendix	82

#### List of Figures, Schemes and Tables

#### Figures

- Figure 1 Daptomycin
- Figure 2 Arsphenamine
- Figure 3 Chalcone
- Figure 4 Lawesson's Reagent
- Figure 5 1-(2, 3, 4-trimethoxyphenyl)-3-prop-2-ene-1-one
- Figure 6 4-Hydroxyderricin
- Figure 7 1-phenyl-3-(2-hydroxyphenyl)-prop-2-ene-1-one
- Figure 8 Substituted hydroxychalcone
- Figure 9 3-aryl-1-(2, 4-dichloro-5-fluorophenyl)-2-propen-1-one
- Figure 10 3β-mercaptospiro(androstane-17, 4-dithiaphosphetan)thione
- Figure 11 1-(2-aminophenyl)-3-(4-methylphenyl)-3-(phenylsufonyl) propan-1-one
- Figure 12 Substitued styryl 2, 5-dimethyl-3-thienyl ketone
- Figure 13 Moenomycin A
- Figure 14 2-(20-chloroethyl)-2, 3-dihydro-5-benzoyl-1H-1, 3, 2-benzodiazaphosphole-2-oxide
- Figure 15 Polyphosphate
- Figure 16 Differences in cell envelope structure Gram-positive vs. Gram-negative bacteria
- Figure 17 Shape of Compound 9
- Figure 18 DOSY spectrum of compound 10 (concentrated)
- Figure 19 DOSY spectrum of compound 10 (dilute)
- Figure 20 DOSY spectrum of compound 10 (dilute in chloroform)
- Figure 21 DOSY spectrum of compound 10 (dilute in DMSO)
- Figure 22 Oxa-thio-phosphorane
- Figure 23 Non-hydrogen positioning on aromatic ring relative to ketone moiety

#### Schemes

Scheme 1 – Biosynthesis of naringenin chalcone

- Scheme 2 Claisen-Schmidt Condensation Reaction
- Scheme 3 Chalcone Synthesis Mechanism
- Scheme 4 Conversion of Chalcone to Thiochalcone using Lawesson's Reagent
- Scheme 5 Mechanism of Reaction between 4-aminoacetophenone & 4-bromobenzaldehyde
- Scheme 6 Mechanism for Conversion of Chalcone to Thiochalcone using Lawesson's Reagent
- Scheme 7– DCC/HOBt amino acid-chalcone coupling mechanism

#### Tables

- Table 1 IUPAC names and chemical structures of proposed compounds
- Table 2 List of reagents available for synthesis of chalcones & thiochalcones
- Table 3 List of solvents used in synthesis of chalcones & thiochalcones
- Table 4 List of materials used during microbiology testing
- Table 5 Masses, melting points & percentage yields of the synthesised compounds
- Table 6 Molecular formula, molecular weight & mass spectral data of the synthesised compounds
- Table 7 Infra-Red Spectroscopy Data of the synthesised compounds
- Table 8 <sup>1</sup>H NMR Data of the synthesised compounds
- Table 9 <sup>13</sup>C NMR Data of the synthesised compounds
- Table 10 <sup>1</sup>H-<sup>1</sup>H COSY Correlations of the synthesised compounds
- Table 11 <sup>1</sup>H-<sup>13</sup>C HMBC Correlations of the synthesised compounds
- Table 12 <sup>1</sup>H, <sup>13</sup>C and <sup>1</sup>H-<sup>1</sup>H data for oxa-thio-phosphorane using spectra of compound 14
- Table 13 <sup>1</sup>H, <sup>13</sup>C and <sup>1</sup>H-<sup>1</sup>H COSY NMR Data for compound 9
- Table 14 <sup>1</sup>H, <sup>13</sup>C and <sup>1</sup>H-<sup>1</sup>H data for compound 15
- Table 15 In-vitro antimicrobial activity of the synthesised compounds
- Table 16 Minimum Inhibitory Concentration (MIC) of the biologically active compounds
- Table 17 Minimum Bactericidal Concentration (MBC) of the biologically active compounds

## List of Abbreviations

- ATP adenosine triphosphate
- B. subtilis Bacillus subtilis
- CFU colony-forming unit
- COSY correlation spectroscopy
- DCC dicyclohexylcarbodiimide
- DCM dichloromethane
- DDD defined daily dose
- DMF N,N-dimethylformamide
- DNA deoxyribose nucleic acid
- DOSY diffusion-ordered spectroscopy
- E.coli Escherichia coli
- EHEC Enterohaemorrhagic Escherichia coli
- EU European Union
- EUCAST European Committee on Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing
- FDA Food and Drug Administration
- GCMS gas chromatography mass spectrometry
- HMBC heteronuclear multiple bond correlation spectroscopy
- HOBt 1-hydroxybenzotriazole
- IUPAC International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry
- MBC minimum bactericidal concentration
- MIC minimum inhibitory concentration
- MRSA Methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus
- MS Mass Spectroscopy
- NMR Nuclear Magnetic Resonance
- NOESY nuclear Overhauser effect spectroscopy
- P. aeruginosa Pseudomonas aeruginosa
- PBPs penicillin binding proteins
- PKS polyketide synthase
- ppm parts per million
- S. epidermidis Staphylococcus epidermidis
- THF tetrahydrofuran
- TLC thin layer chromatography
- UV ultraviolet
- VTEC Verocytotoxin-producing Escherichia coli

#### Abstract

Chalcones are diphenyl  $\alpha$ - $\beta$ -unsaturated compounds that are present in a wide variety of plants. Naturally occurring chalcones as well as synthetic chalcones have demonstrated an assortment of biological activity, including anti-inflammatory, antiviral and antimicrobial activity. The need for new antimicrobially active agents is becoming more imperative as antimicrobial resistance continues to present a large threat. In this project, a series of chalcones were synthesised via a Claisen-Schmidt condensation reaction. The compounds were analysed using NMR spectroscopy and Gas-Chromatography Mass Spectrometry. An attempt was made to convert four of the chalcones to thiochalcones using Lawesson's Reagent. The compounds were tested against E. coli, P. aeruginosa and S. epidermidis. None of the synthesised chalcones displayed any antimicrobial activity but the thiochalcones showed activity against all bacterial strains. Upon further analysis, the thiochalcones appeared to have decomposed in situ, with the major product being the oxa-thiophosphorane compound. This compound could have been the cause behind the activity seen in compound 11 against S. epidermidis and compound 14 against all bacterial strains studied. Compound **11** produced a zone of inhibition of 10mm against S. epidermidis whilst compound **14** produced zones of inhibition against S. epidermidis, P. aeruginosa and E. coli of 16mm, 10.3mm and 15.3mm respectively. The MICs and MBCs of the compounds were not greater than Ciprofloxacin, the antibiotic used in this project as the positive control, as shown by the results.

#### 1. Introduction

Antimicrobial resistance is defined as the ability of a microorganism such as bacteria to grow in the presence of antimicrobial agents designed to hinder or halt their growth and reproduction. This resistance usually develops as a result of continuous exposure to said agents leading to selective pressure: either the population dies from contact or a mutation arises in a population, allowing for resistance (Amábile-Cuevas, 2010). It should be noted that some microbes that have never come into contact with antibiotics can also be resistant depending on the extremity of the environments in which they are found (D'Costa et al, 2011). This has become more of a problem in recent times due to the rise of not only more antibiotic-resistant bacteria but also multi-drug resistance. The efficacy of available antibiotics is becoming increasingly less effective. Dr Margaret Chan, former Director-General of the World Health Organisation, believes the world is moving to a "post-antibiotic era", in which "things as common as strep throat or a child's scratched knee could once again kill" (Public Health England, 2016).

Economist Jim O'Neill chaired the 2016 Review of Antimicrobial Resistance. Within his report, he stated that not only does this phenomenon present a risk to the quality and longevity of life but there is also an economic impact. He stated that not acting could cost the global economy \$100 trillion. Out of a ten-point intervention plan, he pointed out four of high importance: the need to develop a global public awareness campaign, development of new antibiotics to replace those that are no longer effective, reduction of the unnecessary prescription of antibiotics for both humans and animals and a decrease in the extensive antibiotic use in agriculture (AMR, 2016). Antibiotic consumption in England had increased by 6.5% from 2011-2014, with the defined daily dose (DDD) per 1000 people rising from 21.6 to 23 in that time frame (Public Health England, 2015).

There has been a sharp decline in the development of new antibiotics in recent years and a large contributing factor is the departure of large pharmaceutical companies from antibiotic development, supposedly due to the lack of incentive. Antibiotics are expensive to discover and develop, require an overly complex but necessary regulatory procedure and return less revenue compared to medication for chronic conditions such as cancer and diabetes (Sabtu et al, 2015). Nowadays, due to antibiotic resistance, they are used as a last resort medication, meaning the companies often lose patency of the antibiotic before the cost incurred to develop

the drug can be recovered. The last class of antibiotics to be discovered was lipopeptides by Eli Lilly and Company in the early 1980s, with daptomycin (figure 1), a Gram-positive bactericidal, approved by the Food and Drug Administration (FDA) in 2003 (Pirri et al, 2009).

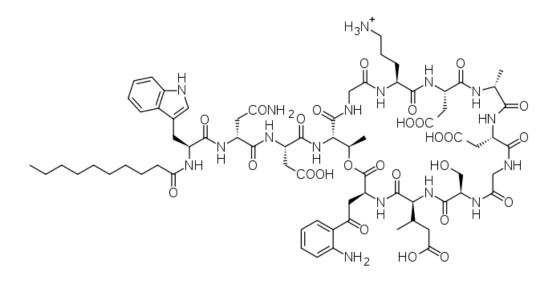


Figure 1: **Daptomycin** Image source: Micklefield (2004)

The need to develop new classes of antibiotics that are able to act against both Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria is becoming increasingly important. This need coincides with an increase in the occurrence of multi-drug resistance bacterial strains. In Europe, an estimated 25,000 people die every year as a result of nosocomial infections caused by the following bacteria: Escherichia coli, Klebsiella pneumoniae, Enterococcus faecium, Pseudomonas aeruginosa and Methicillinresistant Staphylococcus aureus (Public Health England, 2015). However, the issue lies particularly with Gram-negative bacteria as reports of multi-drug resistance are occurring at a faster rate in these bacteria, especially Enterobacteriacecae and P. aeruginosa (Sabtu et al, 2015). Efforts are being made to increase awareness of the issue as well as implementation of programmes like Infectious Disease Society of America's 10x'20 initiative, aimed at developing ten antibacterial agents by 2020, effective against the "ESKAPE" group of microbes: Enterococcus faecium, Staphylococcus aureus, Klebsiella pneumoniae, Acinetobacter baumannii, Pseudomonas aeruginosa, and Enterobacter species (IDSA, 2010). In addition, grants such as the Longitude Prize, where a public vote determined the outcome of directed research, was dedicated to overcoming antimicrobial resistance (Longitude Prize, N.D).

Historically, infections have been treated using natural products such as bark and leaves from trees with reports of ancient civilizations such as the Greeks and Egyptians using mixtures containing milk, honey and plant resins as wound dressings (Shah, 2011). Natural products have been the inspiration behind many antibiotics. Arsphenamine (figure 2), the first synthetic antibiotic, was produced by Paul Ehrlich and Sahachiro Hata in 1909 but it was derived from arsenic, a chemical element and a naturally occurring metalloid (Frith, 2013).

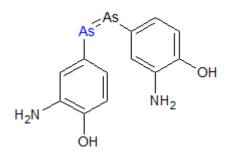


Figure 2: **Arsphenamine** Image source: author's own

Nature is once again becoming the source of inspiration behind the development of new medication, including novel antibacterial agents. In recent times, chalcones have been the subject of increasing interest in the realm of medicinal chemistry as they have been discovered to display a plethora of biological potential including antimicrobial activity. Chalcones are well-known molecules in natural product chemistry as they have been repeatedly isolated and examined in a bid to understand the chemical basis for herb-based medication. Their synthesis has been proven to be relatively straightforward and able to produce a range of biologically active molecules that can be modified, furthering the understanding of the pharmacophore of the compound.

Chalcones are molecules consisting of two phenyl rings held together by a 3-carbon ketone molety bearing an  $\alpha$ - $\beta$  unsaturated bond (figure 3).

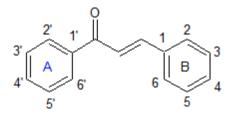


Figure 3: **Chalcone** (IUPAC: 1,3-diphenyl-prop-2-en-1one) Image Source: author's own

They were first discovered by Albert-Szent-Gyorgyi after he discovered "vitamin P", a term formally used to describe flavonoids (Grzybowski et al, 2013). Flavonoids are a family of polyphenolic compounds that are responsible for a number of plantbased activities such as regulating cell growth (Higdon, 2016). Chalcones are interesting compounds due to their highly conjugated electron system and the presence of the unsaturated ketone moiety, which is believed to be the sole provider of a chalcone's biological activity.

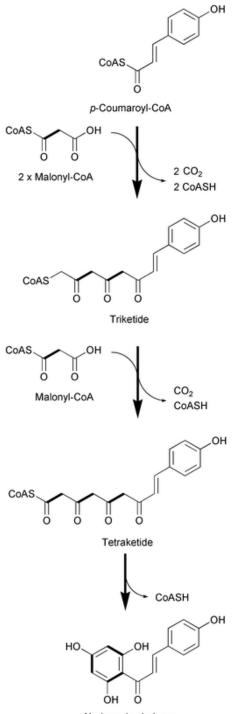
In this project, various parts of the chalcone were modified in order to establish what exact substituent the compound must bear in order to be biologically active. Varying functional groups were added to the chalcone's structure in order to ascertain whether electron density has a part in its efficacy. The seemingly essential ketone was also altered to bear a sulphur instead of an oxygen. Sulphonamides are already an established class of antibiotics and so the effectiveness of the sulphonamide functional group is well known but this does not apply directly to the possible functionality of a thiochalcone or more specifically, the thione functional group. The findings of these alterations will be discussed further in this dissertation.

#### **1.1 Literature Review**

This review aims to shed light on the two subject areas this research project examines: the synthesis of biologically active chalcones and the need for the development of new antimicrobial agents to combat antimicrobial resistance. The literature discusses varying techniques to synthesise chalcones as well as the effect of different substituents on the compounds' antimicrobial activity. In this research project, modification attempts were made to the pharmacophore of the chalcone. The oxygen atom of the ketone moiety was converted to a sulphur atom by way of thionation using Lawesson's Reagent. This review also briefly discusses Lawesson's Reagent and its previous use in the conversion of chalcones to thiochalcones. There is a limited array of literature available in regards to the synthesis of thiochalcones but there is little to no data available regarding the biological activity of these compounds. However, in a bid to help understand the possible activity of these compounds, sulphur-containing compounds that are of a similar structure to thiochalcones have been studied. Also, by-products of the use of Lawesson's Reagent are usually phosphorus-containing compounds. Such compounds have been reviewed for the purpose of this literature review.

#### 1.1.1 Biosynthesis of Naturally Occurring Chalcones

Chalcones are the biosynthetic precursors of flavonoids, a family of polyphenolic compounds involved in a number of cell-signalling cascades in plants. The biosynthesis of chalcones is conducted via the polyketide pathway. This begins with the condensation of one molecule of 4-coumaroyl-CoA and three molecules of malonyl-CoA to form an intermediate. This intermediate undergoes a Claisen-like cyclization to give naringenin chalcone (scheme 1) (Zhuang et al, 2017). This reaction is catalysed by chalcone synthase (Dao et al, 2011). Chalcone synthase is classed as a polyketide synthase enzyme (PKS).



Naringenin chalcone

# Scheme 1: Biosynthesis of naringenin chalcone

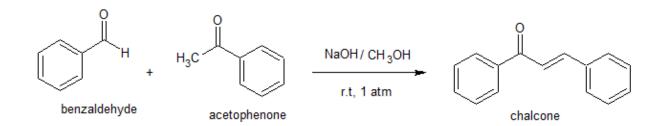
Image source: Springbob et al, 2003

PKSs are classed into three different groups based on their sequences, primary structures and catalytic mechanisms (Yu et al, 2012). Chalcone synthase belongs to the superfamily PKS III. This enzyme is omnipresent in the plant kingdom, proving

the importance of its products to the functionality of plants. Chalcones are normally distributed within various fruits and vegetables especially apples, citrus fruits, potatoes, tomatoes and bean sprouts (Orlikova, 2011), providing insight for the success of herbal medicine in the treatments of various ailments including infections. Chalcones have also been linked to providing the yellow pigment in flowers from the genera *Dahlia*, *Coreopsis* and *Cosmos* (Iwashina, 2000) and the families *Asteraceae*, *Moraceae*, *Fabaceae* and *Aristolochiaceae* (Díaz-Tielas et al, 2016).

#### 1.1.2 Synthesis

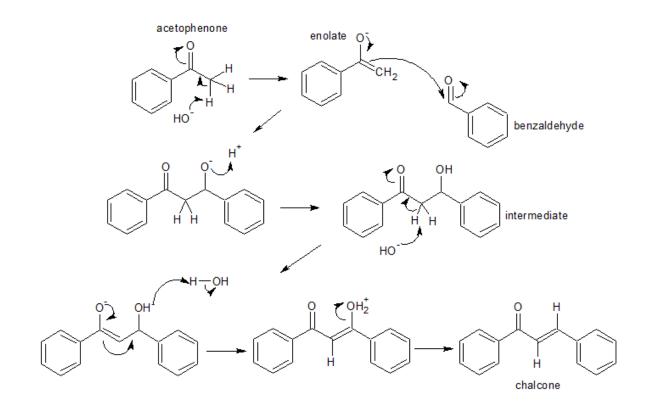
Chalcone synthesis can be achieved using a variety of techniques including Suzuki coupling, Friedal-Crafts acylation and Claisen-Schmidt condensation. Claisen-Schmidt condensation is the most commonly used method. This reaction is well-known in organic chemistry. It involves a suitable benzaldehyde and acetophenone using a strong acid or base catalyst in a polar solvent, typically methanol (scheme 2).



Scheme 2: Claisen-Schmidt Condensation Reaction of Chalcones

Image Source: author's own

This reaction is known to produce a mixture of the desired product, by-products and starting material, causing variations in the yields of the reactions. However, it is the most popular method for chalcone synthesis due to its straightforward procedure and relatively efficient formation of the carbon-carbon double bond. The mechanism for the base-catalysed reaction is as follows: an enolate ion is formed from the removal of an  $\alpha$ -hydrogen by a base. This enolate, formed from the reacting ketone, reacts with the aldehyde as ketones are less reactive toward nucleophilic addition. This intermediate will undergo dehydration which results in the chalcone (scheme 3).



Scheme 3: Chalcone Synthesis Mechanism Image Source: author's own

Reaction conditions are usually room temperature and 1 atmosphere but the reaction can also be conducted under warmer conditions such as 40-60°C. There have been many reports of synthesis using microwave irradiation. Ahmad et al reported the synthesis of a series of 2-acetyl hetero chalcones using microwave radiation under 180 watts (Ahmad et al, 2016).

In terms of the conversion of chalcones to thiochalcones, the most commonly used methodology to date requires the use of Lawesson's Reagent (figure 4). This reagent was developed in 1978 by Lawesson and his co-workers (Krstić et al, 2010).

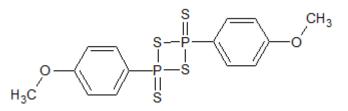


Figure 4: Lawesson's Reagent (IUPAC: 2,4-Bis(4-methoxyphenyl)-2,4dithioxo-1,3,2,4-dithiadiphosphetane). Image Source: author's own

The reaction is typically carried out under nitrogen and refluxed or in open air without using reflux but at warm temperatures in anhydrous toluene or tetrahydrofuran (THF) (scheme 4). Its use in the conversion of chalcones to thiochalcones is underreported and available data varies greatly in their reports of yield and purity. However, it is often seen that the reaction produces a mixture of the desired product, sulphur and phosphorous-containing by-products as well as starting material (Krstić et al, 2010).



Scheme 4: Conversion of Chalcone to Thiochalcone using Lawesson's Reagent Image source: author's own

Previous procedures to thionate organic compounds utilised phosphorous pentasulfide (P<sub>4</sub>S<sub>10</sub>), first reported in 1869 by Henry and Wislicenus (Cava, 1985) but its procedure required very large amounts of this reagent and long reaction times to produce low yields. Lawesson's Reagent is a more favourable converting reagent due to its availability, ease of use and a relatively straightforward reaction.

#### 1.1.3 Effects of Substituents on Activity & Pharmacophore

It has been suggested that adding substituents on either the A or B ring of the chalcone may influence its biological activity. However, the  $\alpha$ - $\beta$  unsaturated ketone moiety is regarded to be the main pharmacophore of a chalcone as its removal has resulted in either a major reduction or complete loss of antimicrobial activity (Batovska et al, 2010). In regards to antimicrobial activity, certain substituents are favoured more than others. As seen in the Tran et al study, chalcones with two or three methoxy groups on the B ring are inactive regardless of substituents on the A ring (refer to figure 3 for labelling and positioning) (Tran et al, 2012). It is suggested that more than two methoxy groups on the B ring eradicate the hydrophilic property of a chalcone which allows for penetration through the bacterial cell wall (Tran et al, 2012). This was reflected in results obtained by Baba et al, who reported

synthesising a series of trimethoxy-substituted chalcones but when tested, no antimicrobial activity was shown (Baba et al, 2013) (figure 5).

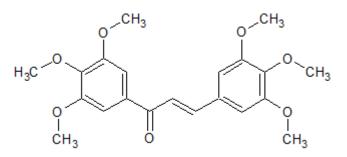


Figure 5: 1-(3', 4', 5'-trimethoxyphenyl)-3-(3, 4, 5trimethoxyphenyl)-prop-2-ene-1-one Image source: Baba et al (2013)

Electron-donating groups such as a hydroxyl group have been seen to increase the antimicrobial activity of a chalcone, but hydroxyl groups are also hydrophilic. A free hydroxyl group on the B ring at position 4 or 6 is important for methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) activity (Ávila et al, 2008) (figure 6).

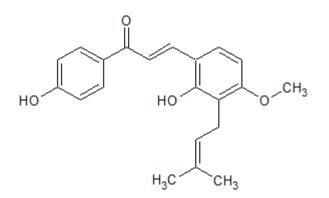


Figure 6: **4-Hydroxyderricin** Image source: Ávila et al (2008)

A degree of importance is attached to the positioning of the hydroxyl group: the meta position brought about a diminished level of activity ( $100\mu g/ml$  against *B.subtilis*) when compared to the ortho position ( $50\mu g/ml$  against *B.subtilis*) (Silva et al, 2013) (figure 7).

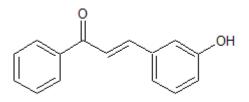


Figure 7: **1-phenyl-3-(3-hydroxyphenyl)-prop-2-ene-1one** (hydroxyl group shown in ortho position) Image source: Silva et al (2013)

Avila et al concluded from their study that a free hydroxyl group on the B ring is necessary for any antimicrobial activity as this activity is lost once it is substituted (Ávila et al, 2008). Weakly electron-donating groups such as halogens (chlorine, fluorine, bromine) have been seen to positively contribute to the antimicrobial activity of a chalcone as well. Halogens are naturally electron-withdrawing by way of induction but can also be electron-donating due to the lone pair of electrons they all bear.

Nielsen et al synthesised a series of compounds, including a pair of chalcones bearing a (3, 5)-dibromo substituent and (2, 4, 6)-trifluoromethyl substituents on the B rings of their respective compounds, shown below (Nielsen et al, 2004) (figure 8).

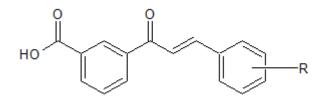


Figure 8: substituted hydroxychalcone (R representing dibromo or trifluoromethyl substituents) Image source: Yazdan et al (2015)

These compounds showed promising activity as did a chalcone synthesised by Karthikeyen et al (2007), which had (4, 6)-dichloro and (3)-fluoro substituents on the A ring (figure 9).

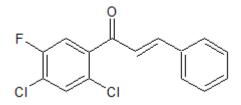


Figure 9: 3-aryl-1-(2',4'-dichloro-5'-fluorophenyl)-2-propen-1-one

Image source: Khadar-Yazdan et al (2015)

Mohamed et al (2003) converted a series of steroidal ketones to their thioxo equivalents using Lawesson's Reagent and tested the compounds for antimicrobial and antifungal activity (figure 10). They followed a standard procedure of using anhydrous toluene under reflux and isolated the compound using column chromatography. Four of the compounds displayed activity against both Grampositive and Gram-negative bacteria including *B. subtilis*, *P. aeruginosa* and *E.coli* at 200µg/ml.

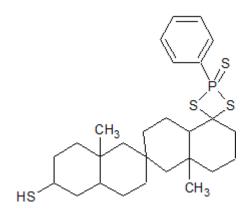


Figure 10: **3β-mercaptospiro(androstan-17, 4dithiaphosphetan)thione** Image source: Mohamed et al

Ahmed et al (2015) reported the synthesis of a series of sulfides, their corresponding bis-sulfides and sulfones. They were tested for their antimicrobial activity and they all displayed activity against a variety of Gram-negative and Gram-positive bacteria including *B. subtilis* and *S. aureus* at varying concentrations of 3.9-31.25µg/ml. A particular sulfone with a 3-NH<sub>2</sub> position on the A ring (figure 11) displayed a higher level of activity compared to chalcones with chloro, methyl and trimethoxy substituents against *S. aureus*.

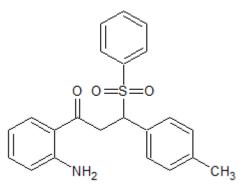


Figure 11: 1-(2'-aminophenyl)-3-(4-methylphenyl)-3 (phenylsufonyl)propan-1-one Image source: Ahmed et al (2015)

However, the study failed to state whether this higher level of activity was due to the presence of the sulphur-containing groups or substituents on the rings of the compounds.

Vanangamudi et al (2013) synthesised a series of 2,5-dimethyl-3-thienyl chalcones via a Claisen-Schmidt condensation reaction. All the compounds showed activity against the bacteria tested including *P. aeruginosa*, *B. subtilis* and *E. coli*. In this study, they attributed the improved activity of the compounds to the methoxy, methyl and nitro substituents in the 3<sup>rd</sup> position on the B ring (figure 12).

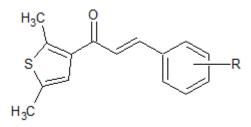


Figure 12: substituted styryl 2',5'-dimethyl-3-thienyl ketone (R representing methoxy, methyl and nitro substituents) Image source: Vanangamudi et al (2017) In all this, structure-activity relationships still fail to adequately identify what exact part of a chalcone is responsible for its biological activity and the notion that the  $\alpha$ - $\beta$  unsaturated ketone system is the sole proprietor of this activity is challenged in this research project by the exchange of the ketone's oxygen with a sulphur atom.

#### 1.1.4 Antimicrobial Activity of Phosphorous-Containing Compounds

As mentioned before, the use of Lawesson's reagent to convert chalcones to thiochalcones produces a mixture of compounds including phosphorous-containing by-products. It is important to understand the effect these compounds may have on antimicrobial activity as they may alter that of the synthesised compounds.

Moenomycins are a family of phosphorous-containing antibiotics (Ostash et al, 2010). They are produced by *Streptomyces*, a genus of bacteria that produces a majority of antibiotics of natural origin such as chloramphenicol and neomycin (Aínsa et al, 2000). They are classed as phosphoglycolipids due to their chemical composition and have been known to have a very complex structure with an even more complex synthesis (Ostash et al, 2010). The class was first discovered in the 1960s (figure 13) and was shown to have high levels of activity against Grampositive bacteria (Halliday et al, 2006) but interest in its potential as antibiotics dwindled due to its poor pharmacokinetic properties – it was found to be cytotoxic at concentrations of 10µg/ml and higher (Ostash et al, 2010). Instead, it was commercialised as an antimicrobial growth promoter in animal feeds (Halliday et al, 2006). However, a European Union (EU)-wide ban on antimicrobial growth promotors came into effect on 1 January 2006 (European Commission, 2005).

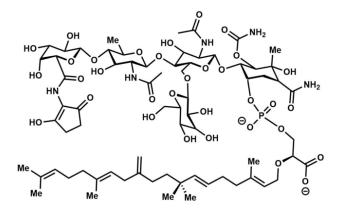


Figure 13: **Moenomycin A** Image Source: Ostash et al, 2010

Reddy et al synthesised a series of phosphorous heterocycles with an exocyclic P-C link. 2-(20-Chloroethyl)-2,3-dihydro-5-benzoyl-1H-1,3,2-benzodiazaphosphole-2-Oxide (figure 14) was found to be active against both *S. aureus* and *E. coli* at 250µg and 500µg, producing zones of inhibition of 6-9mm and 4-8mm respectively (Reddy et al, 2004).

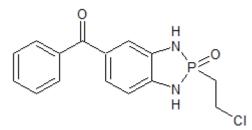


Figure 14: 2-(20-Chloroethyl)-2,3-dihydro-5-benzoyl-1H-1,3,2benzodiazaphosphole-2-Oxide Image Source: Reddy et al, 2004

Polyphosphates are salts formed from repeating units of phosphate units. They are utilised as a food additive by the FDA to prevent food spoilage (Moon et al, 2011). Inorganic polyphosphate is found widespread in all organisms as it can serve as an adenosine triphosphate (ATP) source. However, an external source of polyphosphate has shown antimicrobial activity against many Gram-positive bacteria including *S.aureus*. Its mode of action is thought to include the inhibition of certain stages of cell wall synthesis (Moon et al, 2011).

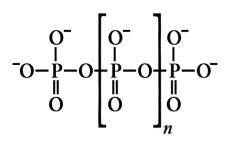
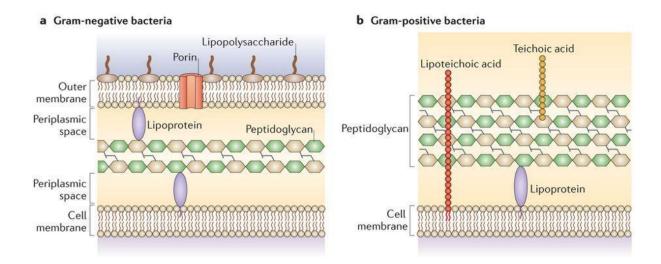


Figure 15: **Polyphosphate** Image source: Morrisey et al, 2012

#### 1.1.5 Antimicrobial Resistance

Microorganisms can either be inherently resistant to an antibiotic or develop resistance after persistent exposure, this is known as acquired resistance. This acquired resistance could arise by either mutation or a transfer of a resistance mechanism programmed on genes (Sabtu et al, 2015). This horizontal gene transfer can occur through three different mechanisms: conjugation, transformation or bacteriophage-mediated transduction (Arber, 2014). Antimicrobial resistance could be viewed as an inevitable result of antibiotic use but the issue has been exacerbated due to the systematic abuse of this medication both in and outside healthcare settings (Sabtu et al, 2015). Also, in this era of modern travel and the inevitability of human contact, an antimicrobial-resistant strain could be easily spread in a very short amount of time. For example, the New Delhi metallo- $\beta$ -lactamase-1 (NDM-1) carbapenamese enzyme found in some species of *Enterobacteriaceae* was first detected in Sweden after a patient from India had been transferred for medical reasons (Kumarasamy et al, 2010).

As mentioned earlier, the ESKAPE pathogens are the leading cause of nosocomial infections such as blood infections, urinary tract infections and wound infections (Higuita et al, 2014) and largely contribute to the issue of antimicrobial resistance due to the scale of their combined multi-drug resistance. The organisms include both Gram-negative and Gram-positive whose main structural difference is the makeup of their cell envelopes. They both possess peptidoglycans in their cell walls which provide their characteristic cell shape; Gram-positive bacteria has a thick cell wall whilst Gram-negative bacteria has a thin cell wall. Despite having lower levels of peptidoglycan, Gram-negative bacteria possess a more complex cell envelope structure (Salton et al, 1996). This complexity makes Gram-negative bacteria harder to penetrate, thus more difficult to target using antimicrobial agents.



# Figure 16: Differences in Cell Envelope Structure – Gram-negative vs Gram-positive bacteria

Image Source: Brown et al, 2015

The outer membrane of Gram-negative bacteria contains a high lipopolysaccharide complex content (Rietschel et al, 1994). This lipopolysaccharide complex is multifunctional: it acts as a barrier to lysosomes and to certain antimicrobial agents as well as acting as an adhesive agent in some Gram-negative bacteria to ensure colonization of its host (Wang et al, 2010). When a bacterial cell is lysed by the immune system through phagocytosis, the polysaccharide fragments. These sections bear Lipid A, a moiety that acts as an endotoxin, initiates an inflammatory response in animals that could result in fatal endotoxic shock, also known as septic shock (Tzeng et al, 2002). Therefore, besides the initial difficulty of attacking the cell wall of Gram-negative bacteria, attacking the cell may result in the release of the endotoxin whose action could be fatal.

In this project, the bacteria *Escherichia coli (E. coli)*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa (P. aeruginosa)* and *Staphylococcus epidermidis (S. epidermidis)* were utilised to test the synthesised compounds' activity against both Gram-negative and Gram-positive bacteria.

*E. coli* is a rod-shaped, Gram-negative bacterium of the *Enterobactericeae* family. It is a facultative anaerobic bacteria, meaning it produces ATP for respiration in the presence of oxygen but has the ability to respire anaerobically in the absence of oxygen (Stieglmeier et al, 2009). This bacteria is typically found in the lower intestine of warm-blooded organisms but some strains such as Verocytotoxin-producing *E. coli* (VTEC) or enterohaemorrhagic *E. coli* (EHEC) are pathogenic, causing illnesses

associated with food and water contamination (Karmali et al, 2010). In Germany of 2011, there was an outbreak of a food-borne infection caused by EHEC, leading to large numbers of people falling ill with cases of bloody diarrhoea and haemolyticuremic syndrome (Burger, 2012), a disease that causes severe inflammation of blood vessels and formation of blood clots throughout the body (NHS England, 2017). During the 5-month long outbreak, approximately 3000 cases of EHECassociated infections were seen with 855 of these cases developing to haemolyticuremic syndrome. Prior to this outbreak, there were approximately 1000 cases of EHECassociated infections per year with 70 of these cases developing to haemolyticuremic syndrome (Burger, 2012). Upon investigation by the German authority for food safety, it was found that the origin of this outbreak was in a contaminated batch of sprouts, with EHEC isolated in the stool of infected patients (Burger, 2012).

Ρ. aeruginosa is а Gram-negative, rod-shaped bacterium of the Pseudomonadaceae family. It is also a facultative anaerobe with the ability to survive in an array of environmental conditions (Wu et al, 2015). It is an opportunistic pathogen as it tends to exploit a host that is in a weakened state i.e. immunedeficient, wounded and ageing (Brown et al, 2015). P. aeruginosa is known to cause chronic lung infections in patients with cystic fibrosis and skin infections in severely burned patients (Colmer-Hamood et al, 2016). In the summer of 2018, a human milk bank in Northern Ireland had to be suspended as *P. aeruginosa* was found in the water supply of the milk bank's hospital (BBC, 2018). Previously, four premature babies died in the Royal Maternity Hospital in Belfast due to an infection caused by the bacteria that was later found to be borne in the hospital's water supply as well (BBC, 2012).

*S. epidermidis* is a Gram-positive, spherical bacterium of the *Staphylococcaceae* family. It is also facultatively anaerobic and is a member of human skin flora but still has the ability to become pathogenic, being the cause of a significant number of nosocomial infections (Namvar et al, 2014). It is known that infections caused by this bacterium begin with its introduction during device insertion such as needles breaking the surface of the skin (Otto, 2009). In the United States, *S. epidermidis* is the cause of 22% of blood infections (NNIS, 2004). Even though *S. epidermidis* causes infections that are not easy to treat, they do not cause life-threateningly dangerous infections (Otto, 2009) such as the aforementioned bacteria.

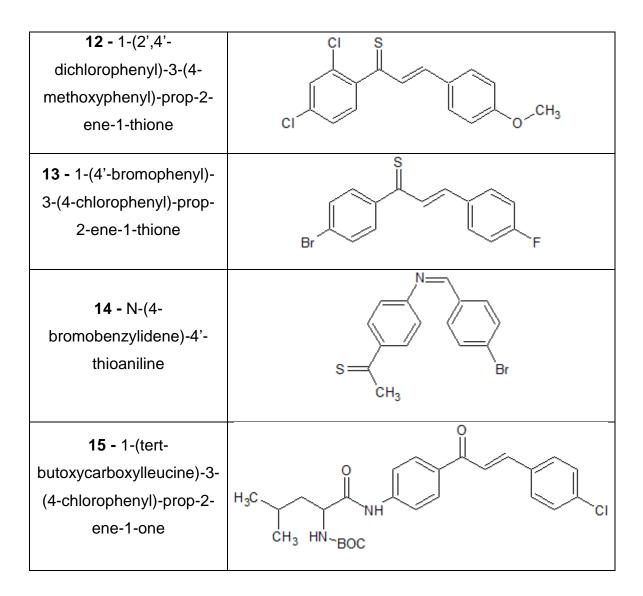
#### 1.2 Aim

The aim of this project was to synthesise a series of chalcones from a combination of substituted acetophenones and benzaldehydes using a reliable methodology, including the use of Lawesson's Reagent to convert these chalcones to thiochalcones, in an attempt to alter the pharmacophore of the compound. The aim also includes establishing any antimicrobial activity of the compounds and investigating said activity further. The synthesis and biological activity of thiochalcones is not heavily reported. The following table itemises the structures of the compounds this project aimed to synthesise:

IUPAC Name/Code	Chemical Structure
<b>1 -</b> 1-(2'-acylpyrrole)-3-(4- chlorophenyl)-prop-2- ene-1-one	H N CI
<b>2 -</b> 1-(3',4'- dichlorophenyl)-3-(2,4,6- trimethoxyphenyl)-prop-2- ene-1-one	
<b>3 -</b> 1-(2',4'- dichlorophenyl)-3-(4- methoxyphenyl)-prop-2- ene-1-one	CI O CH <sub>3</sub>
<b>4 -</b> 1-(2',4'- dichlorophenyl)-3-(4- hydroxyphenyl)-prop-2- ene-1-one	СІ ОН

Table 1: IUPAC Names and Chemical Structures of Proposed Compounds

<b>5 -</b> 1-(2'-acetylfuran)-3-(4- chlorophenyl)-prop-2- ene-1-one	CI
<b>6 -</b> 1-(4'-aminophenyl)-3- (4-chlorophenyl)-prop-2- ene-1-one	H <sub>2</sub> N CI
<b>7 -</b> 1-(4'-bromophenyl)-3- (4-chlorophenyl)-prop-2- ene-1-one	Br
<b>8 -</b> 1-(4'-fluorophenyl)-3- (4-chlorophenyl)-prop-2- ene-1-one	F
<b>9 -</b> N-(4- bromobenzylidene)-4'- acetoaniline	O CH <sub>3</sub>
<b>10 -</b> 1-(2',4'- dichlorophenyl)-3-(2, 4, 6- trimethoxyphenyl)-prop-2- ene-1-one	
<b>11 -</b> 1-(4'-fluorophenyl)-3- (4-chlorophenyl)-prop-2- ene-1-thione	F CI



#### 2. Methodology

#### 2.1 Materials

All chemical reagents and solvents utilised were sourced from both Sigma-Aldrich and Alfa-Aesar unless otherwise stated. All agar powders and antibiotics used during the microbiology section of this project were sourced from Thermo Fischer Scientific.

Reagents		
2-hydroxy-4-methoxybenzaldehyde	4-chloroacetophenone	
2,4,6-trimethoxybenzaldehyde	3,4-dichloroacetophenone	
Salicylaldehyde	2,4-dichloroacetophenone	
4-bromobenzaldehyde	Gallacetophenone	
4-hydroxybenzaldehyde	2-acetylfuran	
4-chlorobenzaldehyde	2-acetylpyrrole	
5-bromo-3-nitrobenzaldehyde	2-hydroxy-3-nitrobenzaldhyde	
3,4-dihydroxybenzaldehyde	5-bromo-3-flurosalicyladehyde	
3,4-dihydroxybenzaldehyde	4-methoxybenzaldehyde	
Sodium/lithium/potassium hydroxide	Lawesson's reagent	

Table 2: List of reagents available for synthesis of chalcones and thiochalcones

#### Table 3: List of solvents used during synthesis of chalcones and thiochalcones

Solvents	
Dichloromethane (DCM)	Methanol
Anhydrous N,N-dimethylformamide	Deuterated dimethyl sulfoxide
(DMF)	(DMSO)
Ethyl acetate	Deuterated chloroform

Anhydrous tetrahydrofuran (THF)	Deuterated methanol
Anhydrous toluene	Distilled water
Hexane	

#### Table 4: List of materials used in microbiology testing

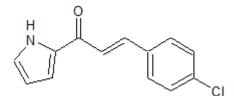
Materials	
Nutrient agar (Oxoid, CM0003)	Distilled water
Mueller-Hinton agar (Oxoid, CM0337)	Ciprofloxacin discs (10µg) (Oxoid, CT1615)
Mueller-Hinton broth (Oxoid, CM0405)	Ringer's Solution Tablets (Oxoid, BR0052)
Dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) (molecular biology grade) (Sigma-Aldrich, D8418)	

Chemical reagents were used without purification. A 1 M solution of sodium hydroxide was made by dissolving 4g of sodium hydroxide pellets in 100ml of distilled water. <sup>1</sup>H and <sup>15</sup>P Nuclear Magnetic Resonance (NMR) were recorded at 400MHz and 162 MHz respectively and <sup>13</sup>C at 100MHz on a Varian 400MHz system with Oxford NMR As400 Magnet in deuterated chloroform, DMSO or methanol at room temperature. Infra-red (IR) spectroscopy data was recorded on a Thermo-Scientific Nicolet iS5 FTIR Spectrometer. Gas Chromatography Mass Spectrometry (GCMS) data was recorded on an Agilent 5975C Series GC/MSD System. Reactions were monitored by thin layer chromatography (TLC) using EMD Millipore TLC Silica gel 60 plates and a solvent system consisting of various ratios of hexane, dichloromethane and ethyl acetate. The plates were visualised under an ultraviolet (UV) lamp at 254nm. Column chromatography was carried out using either silica, Sephadex<sup>™</sup> or alumina. Mobile phase systems were mixtures of laboratory grade solvents utilised during TLC. All agars, solutions and broths used were prepared according to the manufacturer's instructions and autoclaved before their use. Petri

dishes and 96-well plates sourced from Thermo-Scientific were sterile upon purchase.

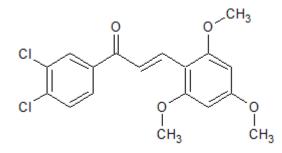
#### 2.2 Chemistry – Experimental procedures

#### 2.2.1 Synthesis of 1-(2'-acylpyrrole)-3-(4-chlorophenyl)-prop-2-ene-1-one (1)



4-chlorobenzaldehyde (0.54 g, 3. mmol) and 2-acetylpyrrole (0.74 g, 6.8 mmol) were dissolved in methanol (10 ml) in a round-bottomed flask and stirred at 65°C until the dissolution of the reagents. A solution of sodium hydroxide (1 M, 2-3 ml) was added and the solution slowly became bright yellow. This was left to stir for 40 minutes. The colour of the solution was yellow. The solution was left to cool before water was added (approx. 5 ml), resulting in the precipitation of the compound. This precipitate was washed with water and filtered under vacuum. Pale yellow crystals were isolated. The crystals were dried in a vacuum oven at 60°C.

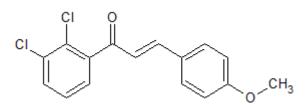
## 2.2.2 Synthesis of 1-(3', 4'-dichlorophenyl)-3-(2, 4, 6-trimethoxyphenyl)-prop-2-ene-1-one (2)



2, 4, 6-trimethoxybenzaldehyde (1.04 g, 5.3 mmol) and 3,4-dichloroacetophenone (0.95g, 5.04 mmol) were dissolved in methanol (10 ml) in a round-bottomed flask and stirred at 65°C until the dissolution of the reagents. A solution of sodium hydroxide (1 M, 2-3 ml) was added and an instantaneous colour change was noticed, with the solution becoming bright yellow. The solution was left to stir for 30 minutes. A precipitate had already formed upon returning. The mixture was taken off heat and left to cool. Water (approx. 5 ml) was added into the mixture and it was noted that more precipitate seemed to form. The precipitate was filtered under

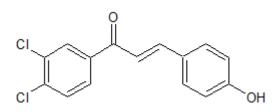
vacuum, resulting crystals were neon yellow. They were dried in a vacuum oven at 60°C for 30 minutes.

# 2.2.3 Synthesis of 1-(2', 3'-dichlorophenyl)-3-(4-methoxyphenyl)-prop-2-ene-1one (3)



4-methoxybenzaldehyde (0.74 g, 5.3 mmol) and 2, 4-dichloroacetophenone (0.95g, 5.0 mmol) were dissolved in methanol (10 ml) in a round-bottomed flask and stirred at 65°C until the dissolution of the reagents. A solution of sodium hydroxide (1 M, 2-3 ml) was added and the solution turned yellow. It was left to stir for 30 minutes. A precipitate had already formed without the addition of water and no more formed when approximately 5 ml was added. The resulting precipitate was filtered under vacuum and dried in a vacuum oven at 60°C. The crystals were yellow in colour.

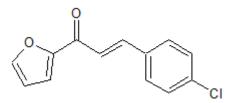
## 2.2.4 Synthesis of 1-(3',4'-dichlorophenyl)-3-(4-hydroxyphenyl)-prop-2-ene-1one (4)



4-hydroxybenzaldehyde (0.64 g, 5.3 mmol) and 3, 4-dichloroacetophenone (0.95 g, 4.9 mmol) were dissolved in methanol (10 ml) in a round-bottomed flask and stirred at 65°C until the dissolution of the reagents. A solution of sodium hydroxide (1 M, 2-3 ml) was added but no colour change was noticed at this point. The solution was left to stir for 30 minutes. Upon returning, the solution remained unchanged and was left to stir for an extra 30 minutes. At this point, the solution appeared yellow but translucent. It was taken off the heat and left to cool. Concentrated sulphuric acid was added (2-3 ml) which resulted in the solution turning red but after continuous stirring, it returned to its yellow colour. The product was extracted with dichloromethane (10 ml) and the solvent was removed under reduced pressure. Not all the solvent was removed but a precipitate had begun to form. This mixture was cooled on ice and a very deep yellow precipitate formed. The mixture was placed

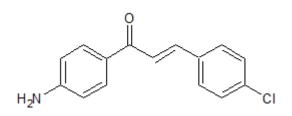
on the vacuum line to be dried for a total of 5 hours. The precipitate was analysed using <sup>1</sup>H NMR and was seen to be starting material. However, the aqueous layer had been retained and upon removal of the solvent, a dark yellow solid was obtained. This solid was dried in a vacuum oven for 3 hours at 30°C.

#### 2.2.5 Synthesis of 1-(2'-acetylfuran)-3-(4-chlorophenyl)-prop-2-ene-1-one (5)



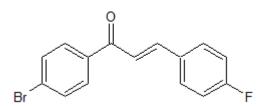
4-chlorobenzaldehyde (0.57g, 4.1 mmol) and acetylfuran (0.43g, 3.9 mmol) were dissolved in methanol (10 ml) in a round-bottomed flask and stirred at 45°C until the dissolution of the reagents. A solution of sodium hydroxide (1 M, 2-3 ml) was added and the solution turned pale red. It was left to stir for 15 minutes and a precipitate formed. The resulting precipitate was washed with water, filtered under vacuum left to air dry in a locker overnight. The crystals were off-white and flaky.

# 2.2.6 Synthesis of 1-(4'-aminophenyl)-3-(4-chlorophenyl)-prop-2-ene-1-one (6)



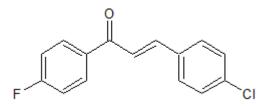
4-chlorobenzaldehyde (0.71g, 5.1 mmol) and 4-aminoacetophenone (0.72 g, 5.3 mmol) were dissolved in methanol (10 ml) in a round-bottomed flask and stirred at 65°C until the dissolution of the reagents. A solution of sodium hydroxide (1 M, 2-3 ml) was added and an immediate colour change was noticed with the solution turning deep orange before slowly becoming bright yellow. It was left to stir for 30 minutes and a precipitate crashed out without the addition of water. Water (10 ml) was added but it did not appear to affect the precipitate nor encourage more of its formation. This was filtered under vacuum. The crystals formed were bright yellow. They were dried in a vacuum oven at 60°C.

2.2.7 Synthesis of 1-(4'-bromophenyl)-3-(4-fluorophenyl)-prop-2-ene-1-one (7)



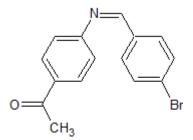
4-fluorobenzaldehyde (0.8 ml, 6.4 mmol) and 4-bromoacetophenone (0.99 g, 4.9 mmol) were dissolved in methanol (10ml) in a round-bottomed flask and stirred at 50°C until the dissolution of the reagents. A solution of sodium hydroxide (1 M, 2-3 ml) was added and a slight colour change was noticed, the solution became a very pale yellow. A few moments later, a precipitate had formed without the addition of water. This was filtered under vacuum. The resulting crystals were pale yellow. They were dried in a vacuum oven at 50°C.

#### 2.2.8 Synthesis of 1-(4'-fluorophenyl)-3-(4-chlorophenyl)-prop-2-ene-1-one (8)



4-chlorobenzaldehyde (0.75 g, 5.3 mmol) and 4-fluoroacetophenone (0.78 ml, 5.6 mmol) were dissolved in methanol (10 ml) in a round-bottomed flask and stirred at 50°C until the dissolution of the reagents. A solution of sodium hydroxide (1 M, 2-3 ml) was added and the solution became pale yellow. A few moments later, a precipitate formed without the addition of water. This was filtered under vacuum and the white crystals were dried in a vacuum oven at 50°C.

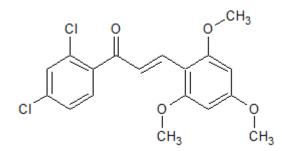
#### 2.2.9 Synthesis of N-(4-bromobenzylidene)-4'-acetoaniline (9)



4-bromobenzaldehyde (2.8 g, 15.1 mmol) and 4-aminoacetophenone (2.1 g, 15.5 mmol) were dissolved in methanol (10 ml) in a round-bottomed flask and stirred at

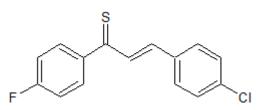
60°C until the dissolution of the reagents. Without the addition of the sodium hydroxide solution, the precipitate began to form. The reaction mixture was left to stir for 30 minutes. Water (10 ml) was added to see if this would alter anything but no change was noticed. The precipitate was filtered under vacuum. Resulting crystals were pale yellow and powdery. Instead of drying them in a vacuum oven, they were left to air dry in a dark locker.

2.2.10 Synthesis of 1-(2',4'-dichlorophenyl)-3-(2,4,6-trimethoxyphenyl)-prop-2-ene-1-one (10)



2, 4, 6-trimethoxybenzaldehyde (0.73g, 3.7 mmol) and 2, 4-dichloroacetophenone (1.01g, 5.3 mmol) were dissolved in methanol (10 ml) in a round-bottomed flask and stirred at 65°C until the dissolution of the reagents. A solution of sodium hydroxide (1 M, 2-3 ml) was added and a precipitate began to form immediately. This was filtered under vacuum. The crystals were left to air dry in a dark locker.

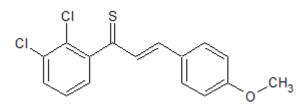
2.2.11 Synthesis of 1-(4'-fluorophenyl)-3-(4-chlorophenyl)-prop-2-ene-1thione (11)



Compound 8 (0.78g, 0.50 mmol) and Lawesson's Reagent (0.23g, 0.56 mmol) were dissolved in anhydrous THF (30 ml, 0.4 mol) in a round-bottomed flask and stirred under nitrogen whilst heated at 45°C. The reaction was monitored using TLC until the reaction was complete, after approximately 2 hours. The solution became orange upon stirring. The solvent was evaporated off using a rotary evaporator, resulting in an orange, thick substance. Column chromatography was performed using Sephadex<sup>™</sup> and a mobile phase of DCM and methanol in a 1:1 ratio. The product, a thick orange liquid was left to air dry in a dark locker overnight. This

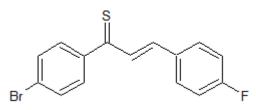
resulted in flaky orange crystals forming. These crystals were stored in a sealed glass tube in a cool and dark area until needed.

# 2.2.12 Synthesis of 1-(2',3'-dichlorophenyl)-3-(4-methoxyphenyl)-prop-2-ene-1-thione (12)



Compound **3** (0.16 g, 0.52 mmol) and Lawesson's Reagent (0.24 g, 0.059 mmol) were dissolved in anhydrous THF (30 ml) in a round-bottomed flask and stirred under nitrogen whilst heated at 60°C and left to stir at 30 minutes. The remaining THF was evaporated off using a rotary evaporator, resulting in a dark yellow, thick oil-like substance. Column chromatography was performed using Sephadex<sup>™</sup> and a mobile phase of DCM and methanol in a 1:1 ratio. The product, a thick yellow liquid was left to air dry in a dark locker overnight. No change was noticed but the sample was stored in a glass tube and kept in a dark and cool area until needed.

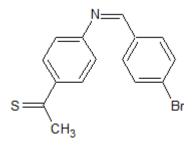
# 2.2.13 Synthesis of 1-(4'-bromophenyl)-3-(4-chlorophenyl)-prop-2-ene-1thione (13)



Compound 7 (0.24 g, 0.81 mmol) and Lawesson's Reagent (0.24 g, 0.059 mmol) were dissolved in anhydrous THF (30 ml) in a round-bottomed flask and stirred under nitrogen whilst heated at 40°C. This was left to stir for 2 hours and the solution appeared slightly yellow. This was taken off the heat and the remaining solvent was evaporated using a rotary evaporator. This resulted in a pale yellow solid. This was left to dry overnight. The next day, it was noticed the solid had become a yellow thick liquid. This was washed with water (10 ml) and extracted using ethyl acetate (10 ml). The organic layer was kept and the solvent was evaporated. This step produced a yellow thick liquid. Column chromatography was performed using Sephadex<sup>™</sup> and a mobile phase of 30% dichloromethane, 65% hexane and 5% ethyl acetate. The product, also a thick yellow liquid was left to air dry in a dark

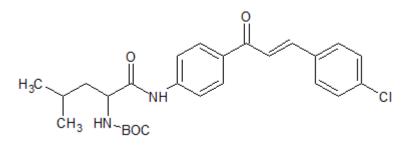
locker overnight. This was stored in a sealed glass tube in a cool and dark area until needed.

## 2.2.14 Synthesis of N-(4-bromobenzylidene)-4'-acetothioaniline (14)



Compound **9** (0.15 g, 0.49 mmol) and Lawesson's Reagent (0.20 g, 0.049 mmol) were dissolved in anhydrous toluene (30 ml) in a round-bottomed flask and stirred under nitrogen whilst heated at 55°C. The solution became red upon stirring and was left stirring for a total of 8 hours. Every hour, a TLC was done to monitor the progress of the reaction. After 8 hours, there were 2 spots on the TLC meaning starting material was still present. The reaction was left to stir overnight. After an additional 12 hours, the TLC showed one spot. Remaining solvent was removed on the rotary evaporator resulting in a deep purple thick liquid. Column chromatography was performed using alumina and a mobile phase of 30% dichloromethane, 65% hexane and 5% ethyl acetate. The product, a thick purple liquid was left to air dry in a dark locker overnight. This was stored in a sealed glass tube in a cool and dark area until needed.

# 2.2.15 Synthesis of 1-(tert-butoxycarboxylleucine)-3-(4-chlorophenyl)-prop-2ene-1-one (15)



An attempt to carry out a DCC/HOBt-mediated coupling of a chalcone with an amino acid was made.

Compound **6** (1.0 g, 3.9 mmol) and HOBt (0.54 g, 4.0 mmol) were added to chilled DCM (30 ml) and stirred on ice for 30 minutes. To this, Boc-Leu-OH (0.93 g, 4.0 mmol) and DCC (1 ml, 4.4 mmol) were added and the reaction mixture was taken off the ice. At room temperature, this mixture was left to stir for 2 hours. This was decanted into glass tubes and stored in a freezer overnight. 4% hydrochloric acid (30 ml), saturated sodium carbonate solution (25 ml) and brine (30 ml) were added consecutively to the reaction mixture. Bubbles evolved at each addition. Calcium sulphate, a desiccating agent (approx. 20 g) was added to this mixture and this formed clumps at the bottom of the round-bottomed flask. Once the clump forming had stopped, it was filtered off from the mixture, leaving a clear solvent with a yellow solid at the bottom of the conical flask. The solvent and the solid were separated and the solid was oven-dried at 50°C for 30 minutes. This produced a yellow sticky solid. Column chromatography was performed using Sephadex<sup>™</sup> and a mobile phase of DCM and methanol in a 1:1 ratio. The product, also a yellow sticky solid was stored in a sealed glass tube in a cool and dark area until needed.

#### 2.3 Microbiology – Experimental

The microbial strains *Escherichia coli* (NCTC 7928), *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (NCTC 6749) and *Staphylococcus epidermidis* (NCTC 9865) were utilised.

The initial screening of the synthesised compounds was performed according to The European Committee on Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing (EUCAST) methodology using disk diffusion testing. The bacterial strains were obtained from the microbial bank of the Microbiology department of Kingston University. The bacteria were grown for 24 hours at 37°C on nutrient agar. The inocula for the assays were prepared by cell suspensions in Ringer's solution (Oxoid UK, Ltd.) to give a concentration of approximately 1.5x10<sup>8</sup> CFU/ml and used within 15 minutes of preparation.

### 2.3.1 Establishing antimicrobial activity

The compounds were dissolved in DMSO at a concentration of 10 mg/ml. From the prepared cultures, the bacteria were spread onto Mueller-Hinton agar plates (4 mm depth) using a sterile swab and the Petri dishes were divided into three sections: a positive control, a negative control and the synthesised compound. The positive control was ciprofloxacin (10  $\mu$ g), the negative control was 10  $\mu$ l DMSO and the

compound was used in 10 µl doses. Each test was done in duplicates and incubated at 37°C for 24 hours. The zones of inhibition produced by the compounds and the antibiotic discs were measured in millimetres (mm) and recorded. Once the active compounds had been identified, repeat tests were done in triplicate to ensure reliability of results.

### 2.3.2 Minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC)

This was determined using the microtitre broth dilution method. 96-well microtitre plates were used in this procedure. Mueller-Hinton broth was prepared at double and single strength whilst a stock solution of 10 mg/ml of the active compound was prepared. A 100 µl aliquot of the double concentration broth was dispensed to the first 3 rows of the 96-well plate, followed by 200 µl of the active compound's stock solution into the first well of the first 3 rows. The first well was mixed carefully using the pipette before 100 µl was transferred to the next well. Using a sterile tip each time, this was repeated a further four times, making a dilution series of the compound under test as follows: 5 mg/ml, 2.5 mg/ml, 1.25 mg/ml, 0.625 mg/ml and 0.3125 mg/ml. The inocula for the wells were prepared as above and a 5 µl aliquot of bacteria dispensed in each well using a sterile tip for each addition. The positive control was the double concentrated Mueller Hinton broth inoculated with 5 µl of bacteria, giving a concentration of approximately 5x10<sup>5</sup> CFU/ml. The negative controls were the double concentrated Mueller Hinton broth with 5 µl DMSO as well as single concentrated Mueller Hinton broth on its own. The plates were incubated at 37°C for 24 hours. The plates were read by eye and the results were recorded. Repeat tests were done in triplicates to ensure reliability.

### 2.3.3 Minimum bactericidal concentration (MBC)

Nutrient agar was used in this procedure and each plate was divided into 8 sections, section 1-5 dedicated to the wells of the plates used for determining MIC containing the active compound and bacteria whilst section 6-7 were dedicated to the positive and negative controls. A sterile swab was used to transfer a small amount from each well after the MIC incubation to its corresponding section on the agar. The plates were incubated at 37°C for 24 hours. The plates were read and the results were recorded. Repeat tests were done in triplicates to ensure reliability.

## 3. Results

A total of fifteen compounds were synthesised: nine chalcones, four thiochalcones, a diphenyl-imine compound and a chalcone-amino acid conjugate. Out of these fifteen compounds, two of the thiochalcones showed antimicrobial activity whilst none of the chalcones showed activity. The chalcone-amino acid conjugate was not tested for any activity. The certainty of the synthesis of the thiochalcones is addressed in the discussion.

Table 5: Masses, Melting Points & Percentage Yields of the Synthesised
<u>Compounds</u>

Code	Mass (g)	Melting Point (°C)	Percentage yield (%)	
1	1.52	158.8-163.0	100.7	
2	0.96	185.7-187.2	52.3	
3	0.47	84.1-88.7	30.7	
4	2.01	168.2-171.9	138.4	
5	0.51	139.0-143.2	40.2	
6	0.67	-	51.9	
7	1.04	142.9-143.5	64.9	
8	1.23	137.0-141.2	89.5	
9	4.23	144.1-147.6	93.3	
10	0.76	146.1-148.7	55.6	
11	0.45	liquid at r.t	-	
12	0.47	liquid at r.t	-	
13	1.0	liquid at r.t	-	
14	0.33	liquid at r.t	-	
15	-	-	-	

Melting points were recorded on a Stuart<sup>™</sup> Digital Melting Point Apparatus and were uncorrected.

# Table 6: Molecular Formula, Molecular Weight & Mass Spectral Data of the Synthesised Compounds

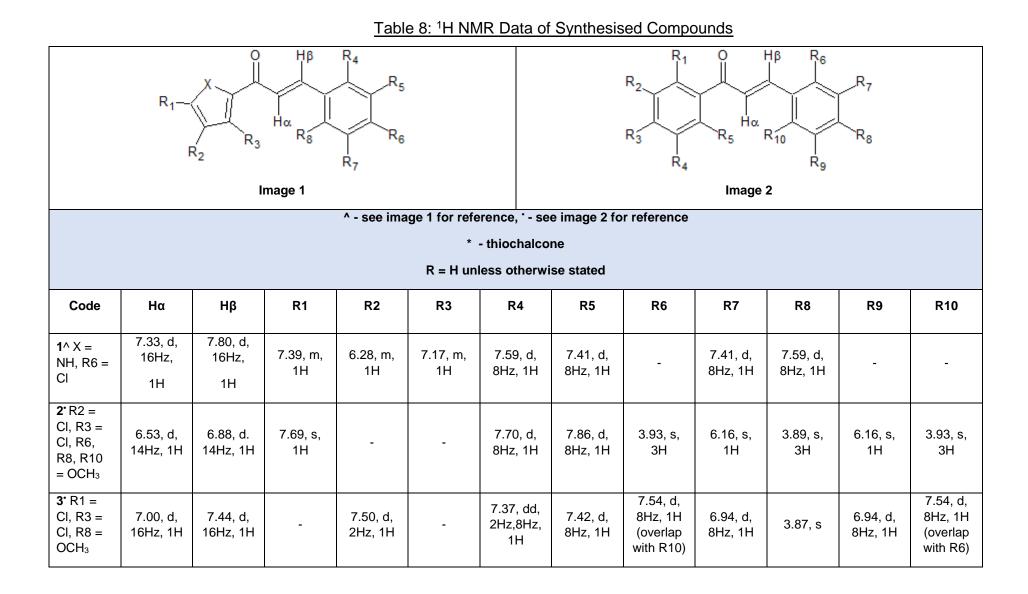
Code	Molecular Formula	Molecular Weight (Mw)	Mass (m/z)
1	C <sub>13</sub> H <sub>10</sub> CINO	231.67	[M <sup>+</sup> ] 231 (Abundance – 2400000). [M <sup>+2</sup> ] 233 caused by <sup>37</sup> Cl isotope.
2	C18H16Cl2O4	367.22	[M <sup>+</sup> ] 367 (Abundance – 100000). [M <sup>+2</sup> ] 369 caused by <sup>37</sup> Cl isotope. Base peak is 335, shows the loss of a methoxy group. Other peaks seen: 366 (loss of H <sup>+</sup> ).
3	C <sub>16</sub> H <sub>12</sub> Cl <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	307.17	[M <sup>+</sup> ] 307 (Abundance – 1200000). [M <sup>+2</sup> ] 309 caused by $^{37}$ Cl isotope. Base peak is 306 (loss of H <sup>+</sup> )
4	C15H13Cl2O2	292.14	Base peak is 149. 295 is closest fragment.
5	C13H9CIO2	232.66	[M <sup>+</sup> ] 232 (Abundance – 26800). Base peak is 231 (loss of H <sup>+</sup> ). [M <sup>+2</sup> ] 234 caused by <sup>37</sup> Cl isotope.
6	C <sub>15</sub> H <sub>12</sub> NCIO	257.71	No MS obtained as sample had run out before testing took place.
7	C15H10BrFO	305.13	[M <sup>+</sup> ] 305 (Abundance – 190000). [M <sup>+2</sup> ] 307 caused by <sup>37</sup> Cl isotope. Base peak is 225 caused by the loss of a bromine atom.
8	C15H10CIFO	260.68	[M <sup>+</sup> ] 260 (Abundance – 100000). [M <sup>+2</sup> ] 262 caused by <sup>37</sup> Cl isotope. Base peak is 75.
9	C <sub>15</sub> H <sub>12</sub> NBrO	302.16	[M+] 302 (Abundance – 76000). [M <sup>+2</sup> ] 304 caused by Br isotope.

			Base peak is 287/286 (loss of
			methyl group).
			memyrgroup).
			366 is closest fragment with 368
			seen as the peak caused by <sup>81</sup> Cl
10	C18H16Cl2O4	367.22	isotope. Base peak is 335, possibly
			caused by the loss of a chlorine
			atom.
			267 is closest fragment with 269
11	C <sub>15</sub> H <sub>10</sub> CIFS	076 75	seen as the peak caused by <sup>37</sup> Cl
		276.75	isotope. Base peak is 207, also
			peak 209 caused by isotope.
			320 is closest fragment, [M <sup>+2</sup> ] peak
12	C <sub>16</sub> H <sub>12</sub> Cl <sub>2</sub> OS	323.23	not seen. Base peak is 306, same
			m/z as starting reagent (3)
			Base peak is 75. 260 peak seen,
13	C <sub>15</sub> H <sub>10</sub> BrFS	321.21	same m/z as starting reagent (7)
10	01311100110	021.21	
			with 261 seen as [M <sup>+2</sup> ] peak.
			318 was seen. Base peak is 303,
		040.00	same m/z as starting reagent (9).
14	C <sub>15</sub> H <sub>12</sub> NBrS	318.22	[M <sup>+2</sup> ] 304 (starting material) and
			319 [M <sup>+1</sup> ] seen.
15	C <sub>26</sub> H <sub>31</sub> CN <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	470.98	MS not obtained.

Code	Absorption (cm <sup>-1</sup> )	Appearance	Group		
	3268	Medium	N-H stretch		
1	1643	Medium	C=C stretch		
	817	Strong	C-CI stretch		
2	1645	Medium	C=C stretch		
<b>∠</b>	840	Strong	C-CI stretch		
3	1653	Medium	C=C stretch		
	823	Strong	C-CI stretch		
	1645	Medium	C=C stretch		
4	1206	Strong	C-O (OH) stretch		
	819	Strong	C-CI stretch		
	2032	Weak	C-H aromatic bend		
5	1653	Medium	C=C stretch		
	778	Strong	C-CI stretch		
6	-	-	-		
	2032	Weak	C-H aromatic bend		
7	1699	Strong	C=O conjugated ketone stretch		
	668	Strong	C-Br stretch		
	1662	Medium	C=C stretch		
8	1005	Strong	C-F stretch		
	813	Strong	C-CI stretch		
	1618	Weak	C-H aromatic bend		
9	1688	Strong	C=O Conjugated ketone stretch		
	573	Strong	C-Br stretch		
	1650	Medium	C=C stretch		
10	1445	Medium	CH (methyl) bend		
	821	Strong	C-CI stretch		
11	-	-	-		

Table 7: Infra-Red Spectroscopy Data of Synthesised Compounds

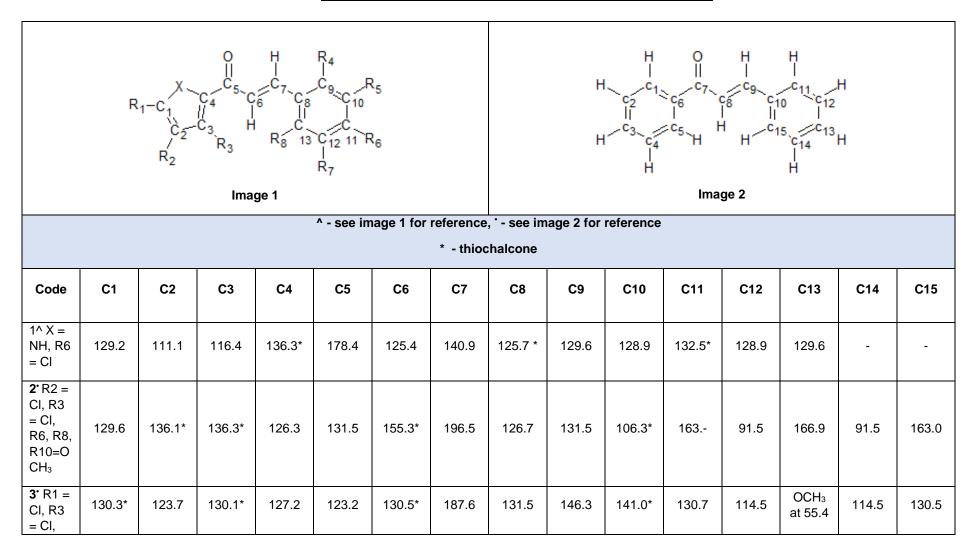
12	-	-	-
13	-	-	-
14	-	-	-
15	-	-	-



<b>4</b> <sup>•</sup> R1 = Cl, R3 = Cl, R8 = OH	7.82, d, 8Hz, 1H	7.75, d, 8Hz, 1H	-	8.36, d, 2Hz, 1H	-	7.37, dd, 2Hz, 8Hz, 1H	7.43, d, 8Hz, 1H	7.54, d, 9Hz, 1H	6.94, d, 9Hz,1H	-	6.94, d, 9Hz, 1H	7.54, d, 9Hz,1H
<b>5</b> ^ X = O, R6 = Cl	7.36, d, 16Hz, 1H	7.68, d, 16Hz, 1H	7.84, d, 16Hz, 1H	6.63, m, 1H	7.45, d, 4Hz, 1H	7.60, d, 8Hz, 2H	7.41, d, 9Hz, 2H	-	7.41, d, 9Hz, 1H	7.60, d, 8Hz, 2H	-	-
<b>6</b> <sup>•</sup> R3 = NH <sub>2</sub> , R8 = Cl	7.75, d, 16Hz, 1H	7.81, d, 16Hz, 1H	-	-	NH₂ at 8.45, s, 2H	6.73, d, 9Hz, 1H	7.89, d, 9Hz, 1H	8.11, d, 8Hz, 1H	7.30, d, 8Hz, 1H	-	7.30, d, 8Hz,1H	8.11, d, 8Hz, 1H
<b>7</b> * R3 = Br, R8 = F	7.50, d, 16Hz, 1H	7.79, d, 16Hz, 1H	7.60, d, 8Hz, 1H	7.43, d, 8Hz, 1H	-	7.43, d, 8Hz, 1H	7.60, d, 8Hz, 1H	8.08, dd, 8Hz, 5Hz, 1H	7.21, t, 8Hz, 1H	-	7.21, t, 8Hz, 1H	8.08, dd, 8Hz, 5Hz, 1H
<b>8</b> * R3 = F, R8 = Cl	7.42, d, 16Hz, 1H	7.81, d, 16Hz, 1H	7.67, dd, 9Hz, 4Hz, 1H	7.15, t, 9Hz, 1H	-	7.15, t, 9Hz, 1H	7.67, dd, 9Hz, 4Hz, 1H	7.67, d, 9Hz, 1H	7.91, d, 9Hz, 1H	-	7.91, d, 9Hz, 21	7.67, d, 9Hz, 1H
9.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<b>10'</b> R1 = Cl, R3 = Cl, R6, R8, R10 = OCH <sub>3</sub>	7.48, d, 16Hz, 1H	7.95, d, 16Hz, 1H	-	7.47, d, 2Hz, 1H	-	7.33, dd, 8Hz, 2Hz, 1H	7.43, 8Hz, 1H	3.87, s, 3H	6.12, s, 1H	3.87, s, 3H	6.12, s, 1H	3.87, s, 3H
11* R3 = F, R8 = Cl	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<b>12</b> * R2 = Cl, R3 =	6.83, d, 16Hz, 1H	7.43, d, 16Hz, 1H	-	-	-	7.31, d, 8Hz, 1H	7.00, d, 8Hz, 1H		7.36, dd, 16Hz, 1H	3.70, s, 3H	7.25, dd, 8Hz, 1H	-

Cl, R8, = OCH <sub>3</sub>												
<b>13</b> * R3 = Br, R8 = F	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<b>14</b> * R3 = NH <sub>2</sub> , R8 = Br	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Peaks for compounds 9, 11, 13 and 14 were not assigned in this table. Compound 9's spectra is explained further in table 13 and the discussion whilst compound 11, 13 and 14's spectra is explained in table 12 and the discussion.



R8 = OCH₃															
<b>4</b> • R1 = Cl, R3 = Cl, R8 = OH	131.0	132.2*	136.1*	129.6	132.0	138.5*	187.2	128.9	146.8	126.1*	131.8	116.3	160.3	116.3	131.8
<b>5</b> ^ X = O, R6 = Cl	148.5	113.3	131.0	-	178.5	121.5	142.3	-	130.0	129.0	-	129.0	130.0	-	-
6' R3 = NH <sub>2</sub> , R8=CI	130.0	113.9	133.4*	113.9	130.0	134.2*	189.2	129.1	130.5	-135.6*	130.6	130.2	138.1*	130.2	130.6
<b>7</b> <sup>•</sup> R3 = Br, R8 = F	129.6	129.4	131.1	129.4	129.6	133.5*	189.5	121.9	131.1	136.5*	130.1	116.1	134.1*	116.1	130.1
<b>8</b> <sup>•</sup> R3 = F, R8 = Cl	130.2	116.1	165.4	116.1	130.2	131.0*	189.6	121.3	144.1	136.5*	130.1	132.2	134.1*	132.2	130.1
9.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<b>10'</b> R1 = Cl, R3 = Cl, R6, R8,R10 =OCH <sub>3</sub>	132.6*	129.9	133.1*	126.9	125.6	106.1*	194.4	130.4	138.3	136.3*	OCH₃ at 55.8	90.5	OCH₃ at 55.4	90.5	OCH₃ at 55.8
11* R3 = F, R8 = Cl	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	

12* R2 = CI,R3 =CI,R6, R8,R10 =OCH <sub>3</sub>	-	126.9	-	126.9	123.6	-	200.8				132.0	130.5	-	130.5	132.0
<b>13</b> * R3 = Br, R8 = F	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<b>14</b> * R3 = NH <sub>2</sub> , R8 = Br	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Peaks for compounds 9, 11, 13 and 14 were not assigned in this table. Compound 9's spectra is explained further in table 13 and the discussion whilst compound 11, 13 and 14's spectra is explained in table 12 and the discussion.

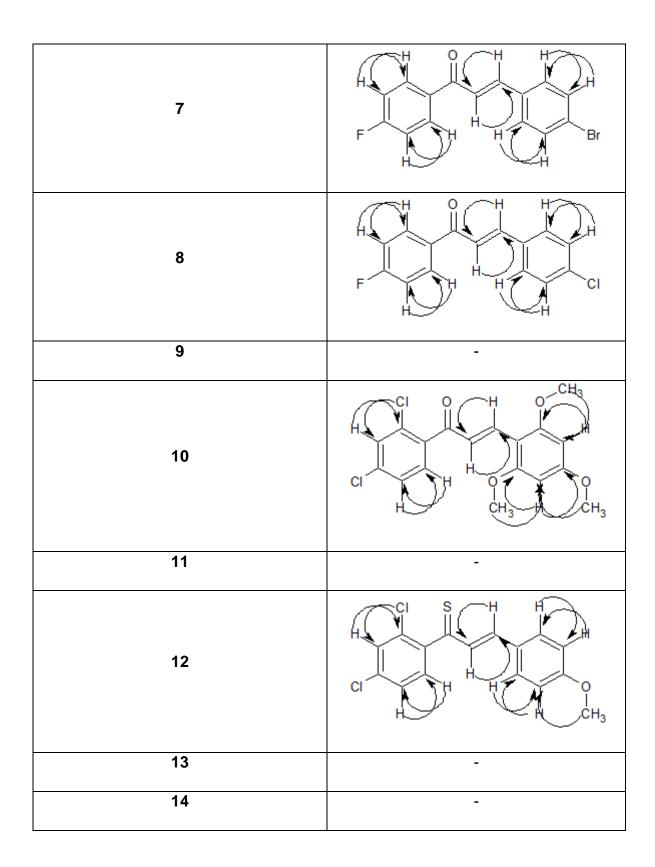
Code	COSY Coupling
1	
2	$CI \qquad H \qquad O \qquad H \qquad O \qquad CH_3$ $CI \qquad H \qquad O \qquad H \qquad O \qquad CH_3$ $CI \qquad H \qquad O \qquad H \qquad O \qquad CH_3$ $H \qquad O \qquad H \qquad O \qquad CH_3$ $H \qquad O \qquad H \qquad O \qquad H \qquad O \qquad H \qquad O \qquad H \qquad O \qquad O$
3	
4	
5	
6	

Table 10: <sup>1</sup>H-<sup>1</sup>H COSY Correlations for Synthesised Compounds

7	
8	
9	-
10	$\begin{array}{c} CI & O & H & O \\ H & H & H & H \\ CI & H & H & CH_3 & H & CH_3 \end{array}$
11	-
12	CI S H H H H H CI H H H CH <sub>3</sub>
13	-
14	-

Code	HMBC Coupling
1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	-

# Table 11: <sup>1</sup>H-<sup>13</sup>C HMBC Correlations of Synthesised Compounds

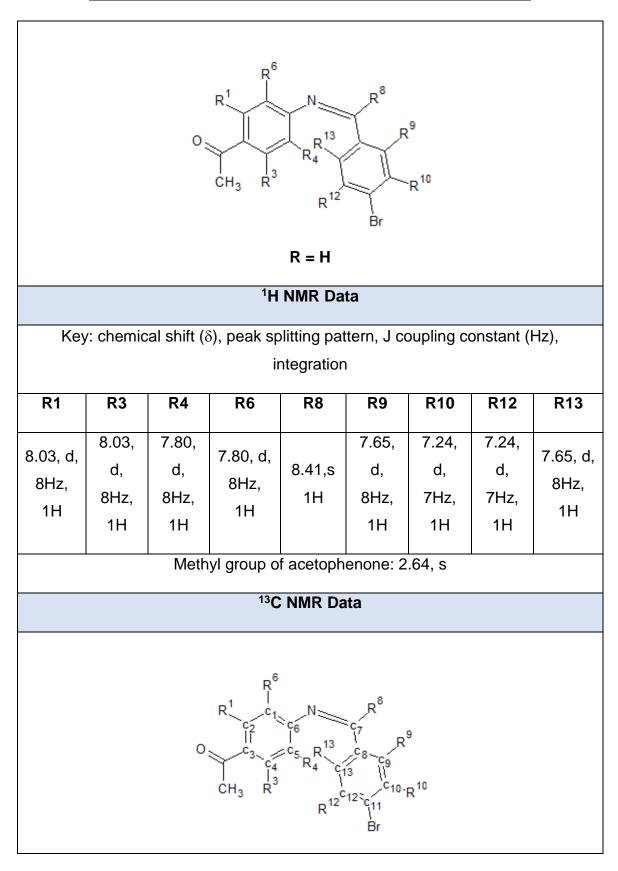


Regarding the <sup>1</sup>H and <sup>13</sup>C NMR of compounds **11**, **13** and **14**, refer to the table below. The spectra for compound 14 showed that the expected compound was not isolated. Instead, the oxa-thio-phosphorane compound, a breakdown product from the Lawesson's Reagent mechanism was found to be the major product isolated after column chromatography.

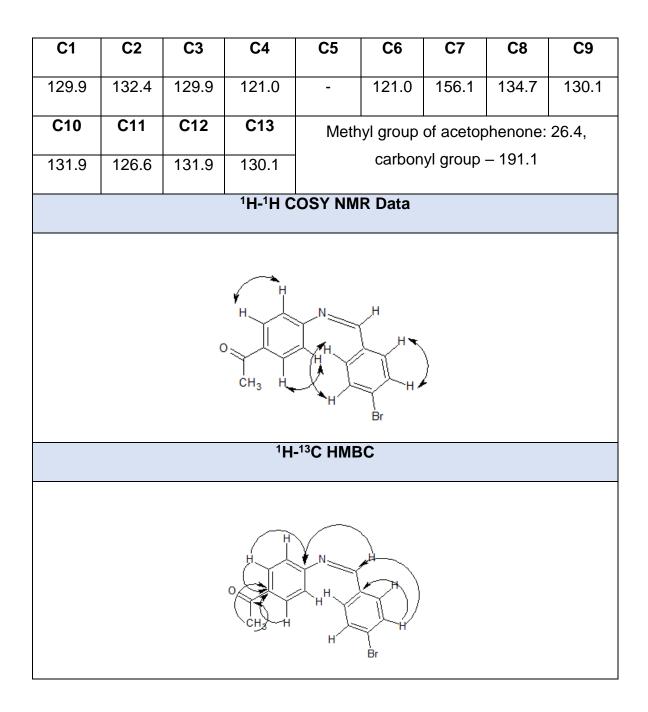
## spectra of compound 14

$H = S \\ H = C_2 C_1 C_6 P = O \\ H_3 C = O C_3 C_4 C_5 H \\ H = H$							
		<sup>1</sup> H NMI	R Data				
Key: ch	emical shift (δ	), peak splittin integr		oupling consta	nt (Hz),		
C1	C2	C3	C4	C5	C6		
7.6, d, 12Hz, 1H	7.04, d, 9Hz, 1H	methoxy group: 3.8, s, 3H	7.04, d, 9Hz, 1H	7.6, d, 12Hz, 1H	-		
	<sup>13</sup> C NMR Data						
C1	C2	C3	C4	C5	C6		
132.9	113.9	163	113.9	132.9	123.8		
		<sup>1</sup> H- <sup>1</sup> H CO	SY Data				
<sup>1</sup> H- <sup>13</sup> C HMBC Data							

Whilst analysing the data for compound **9** and consolidating the synthetic workup of this compound, it is clear that its structure is not a chalcone but the structure below. For further explanation, see discussion (4.2).



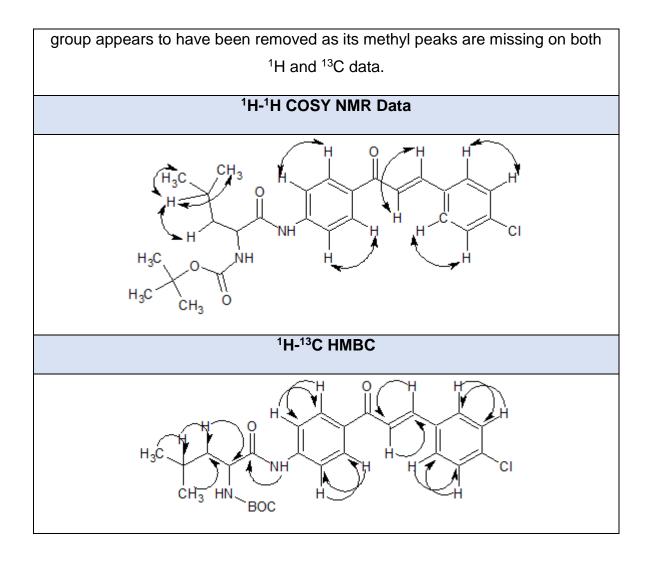
### Table 13: <sup>1</sup>H, <sup>13</sup>C and <sup>1</sup>H-<sup>1</sup>H COSY NMR Data for compound 9



Compound **15** proved difficult to isolate clean with column chromatography. The peak assignments have been done with extensive use of <sup>1</sup>H, <sup>13</sup>C and <sup>1</sup>H-<sup>1</sup>H COSY spectra.

Table 14: <sup>1</sup> H, <sup>13</sup> C and <sup>1</sup> H- <sup>1</sup> H COSY NMR Data for Compound <b>15</b>
---

<sup>1</sup> H NMR Data										
$H_{3}C \xrightarrow{H^{*}}_{CH_{3}} HN \xrightarrow{R_{2}}_{BOC} H_{4}$										
				R	= H					
R1	R2	R4	R5	R6	R7	R8	R9	R11	R12	H*
7.40, d, 8Hz, 1H	7.60, d, 9Hz, 1H	7.60 , d, 9Hz, 1H	7.40, d, 8Hz, 1H	7.33, d, 8Hz, 1H	7.88 , d, 8Hz, 1H	7.72 , d, 8Hz, 1H	7.99 , d, 7Hz, 1H	7.99 , d, 7Hz, 1H	7.72 , d, 8Hz, 1H	3.89 , m, 1H
		Methy	l groups (	of amino	o acid –	· 0.81, 2	2 x d, 1	2Hz		
Methyl groups of amino acid – 0.81, 2 x d, 12Hz <sup>13</sup> C NMR Data										
				0 11		u				
$\begin{array}{c} R_{1} & 0 & R_{7} & R_{8} \\ H^{*} & 0 & R_{2} & C_{1} & C_{9} & C_{11} & R_{9} \\ H^{*} & 0 & 11 & 1 & 12 \\ H_{3}C & H^{*} & 0 & R_{3} & C_{3} & C_{5} & R_{6} & R_{12} & C_{15} & C_{14} & 13 & CI \\ H_{3}C & H^{*} & 0 & R_{4} & R_{11} \end{array}$										
C1	C2	C3	C4	C5	C6	C7	C8	C9	C10	C11
130.9	119.05	-	119.0 5	130. 9	-	-	-	-	-	-
C13	C14	C15	Carbonyl of amino acid – 175.3, methyl groups of amino							
-	-	-	acid – 28.5, CH* – 52.4							
A majority of the peaks were not assigned as the resolution of the spectra did not allow for the peaks to be seen. An increased number of scans whilst recording the spectra would have alleviated the issue. Also, the Boc protecting										



# Table 15: In-vitro Antimicrobial Activity of the Synthesised Compounds

	Zone of Inhibition (mm)*						
Code	Concentration	Bacteria					
	(mg/ml)	S. epidermidis	P. aeruginosa	E. coli			
1	10	-	-	-			
2	10	-	-	-			
3	10	-	-	-			
4	10	-	-	-			
5	10	-	-	-			
6	10	-	-	-			
7	10	-	-	-			
8	10	-	-	-			
9	10	-	-	-			
10	10	-	-	-			
11	10	10	-	-			
12	10	-	-	-			
13	10	-	-	-			
14	10	16	10.3 ± 0.334	11.3 ± 0.334			
Ciprofloxacin	10µg	$15.3\pm0.334$	18	$15.3\pm0.334$			
	* mean value given (n=3)						

# Table 16: Minimum Inhibitory Concentration (MIC) of the biologically active

<u>compounds</u>

Code	MIC (mg/ml)					
	S. epidermidis	P. aeruginosa	E. coli			
11	1.25	-	-			
14	0.3125	1.25	1.25			
Ciprofloxacin*	1	0.5	0.25-0.5			
*(mg/L), as reported by EUCAST						
(n=3)						

# Table 17: Minimum Bactericidal Concentration (MBC) of the biologically active

<u>compounds</u>

Code	MBC (mg/ml)				
	S. epidermidis	P. aeruginosa	E. coli		
11	2.5	-	-		
14	1.25	2.5	2.5		
(n=3)					

Discrepancies between the MICs and MBCs are further discussed in the discussion (4.4). The activity of the synthesised compounds was adequately recorded and noted.

### 4. Discussion

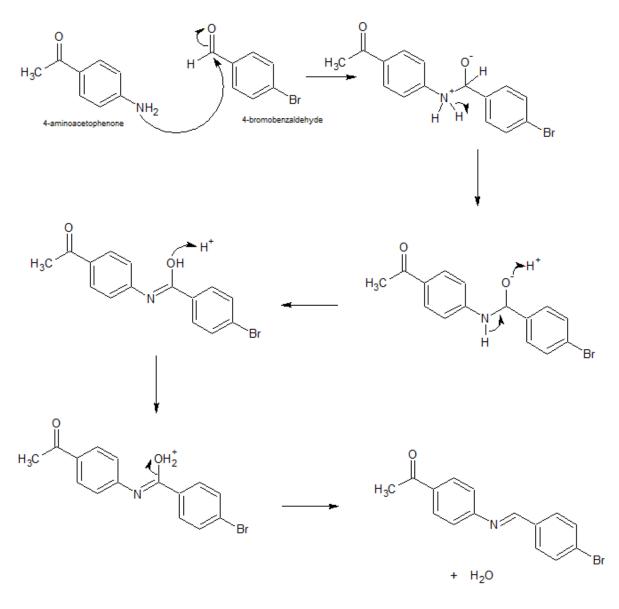
### 4.1 Data Analysis

This project is made up of two key aspects: the synthesis of chalcones and thiochalcones followed by the determination of their activity as antimicrobial agents. In order to prove the existence of the compounds synthesised, the data procured from their analytical examination had to be studied.

As seen in tables 8, 9, 10 and 11, each synthesised compound has had their <sup>1</sup>H and <sup>13</sup>C NMR analysed. The spectra derived from these analytical experiments including <sup>1</sup>H-<sup>1</sup>H Correlation Spectroscopy (COSY) and <sup>1</sup>H-<sup>13</sup>C Heteronuclear Multiple Bond Correlation Spectroscopy (HMBC) can be found in the appendix. Diagnostically, the most important protons to be identified in a chalcone are the protons on the  $\alpha$ - $\beta$  unsaturated bond as these only arise from a successful Claisen-Schmidt condensation and complete conjugation of the electron system.

The synthesised compounds have several substituents, causing the magnetic equivalency of the protons to change. Compounds 1 and 5 had 5-membered A rings. Compound **1** showed coupling of its  $\alpha$ - $\beta$  unsaturated protons at  $\delta$ 7.33 and  $\delta$ 7.80 with J coupling constants of 16Hz as did compound **5** with coupling seen at  $\delta$ 7.41 and δ7.69 with J coupling constants of 16Hz. Compounds **2**, **3**, **4** and **10** have dichloro substituents on the A ring with their  $\alpha$ - $\beta$  unsaturated protons around  $\delta$ 6.53-7.95 with coupling constants around 14-16.8Hz, with the exception of compound 4, whose αβ unsaturated protons have a coupling constant of 16 Hz. Compounds 2 and 10 have trimethoxy substituents on the B ring. The remaining compounds had either a halogen (Cl or Br), methoxy or hydroxyl group in the 4th position on the B ring. Peaks were typically seen in the  $\delta$ 7-8 region which is where aromatic protons usually occur (see appendix 1.1.1 for <sup>1</sup>H NMR spectra of compound **1**, 1.2.1 for compound **2** and so on). Infra-red spectroscopy showed weak peaks at 1645 cm<sup>-1</sup> across all the derived spectra, correlating to the C=C bond stretch in the aromatic ring. The C-F and C-CI stretch around 800 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 1000 cm<sup>-1</sup> were seen across all halogenated compounds such as 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 8, 9 and 10.

Compound **9**'s synthesis did not require the addition of sodium hydroxide to induce a colour change or precipitation. The amino group on the 4-aminoacetophenone bears a lone pair of electrons on the nitrogen. This could have facilitated the



nucleophilic addition of the benzaldehyde with the acetophenone in solution (scheme 5).

Scheme 5: Mechanism of Reaction between 4aminoacetophenone & 4-bromobenzaldehyde Image source: author's own

The TLC of the compound showed one spot (solvent system: hexane & DCM, 1:1). The <sup>1</sup>H spectrum supports the proposed structure. The aromatic protons formed doublets at  $\delta 8.03$ ,  $\delta 7.80$ ,  $\delta 7.65$  and  $\delta 7.24$  respectively whilst the benzylidene proton can be seen as a singlet at  $\delta 8.41$ . The GCMS data of the compound produced a pair of M+ peaks at *m/z* 303/305 indicative of bromine being present in the molecule. HMBC correlations were used to assign the aromatic doublets as belonging to ring A or ring B.

Also, the NOESY spectra for compound **9** does not show a correlation between the protons with asterisks (see figure 17) suggesting the compound is of this shape.

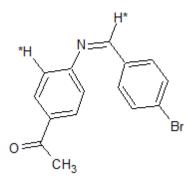


Figure 17: Shape of Compound 9 Image source: author's own

The use of Lawesson's Reagent to convert the carbonyl to a thiol in this particular compound would have been possible (see scheme 6). However, the spectra for the attempted conversion, compound **14**, was consistent with the oxa-thio-phosphorane compound which is further discussed in the next section.

Upon analysing Nuclear Overhauser Effect Spectroscopy (NOESY) data, a cross peak correlating the  $\alpha$ - $\beta$  unsaturated proton was seen across a majority of the spectra (see appendix 1.1.6 for compound **1** spectrum), which suggests the cis (Z) isomer of the chalcones was synthesised. However, the high J coupling constants of these protons, typically seen at 16Hz in this project, (see table 7) indicate the conformation of the chalcones to be trans (E) isomers as well as geometrically pure (Tran et al, 2012). These are the thermodynamically most stable form (Aksöz et al, 2011).

In any chemical reaction in which two isomers can be formed, there is always a kinetic product and a thermodynamic product. The kinetic product is usually formed when the reaction time is short, not giving the thermodynamic product time to form. The use of a strong base minimises the chances of reversibility at the intermediate step, enhancing the formation of the thermodynamic product – the trans (E) isomer (see scheme 2).

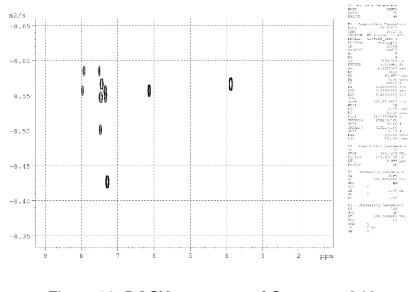
A possible explanation for the appearance of this cross peak was the interaction of a chalcone molecule with another molecule by way of pi stacking. Seeing as NOESY data aims to show signals that arise from protons that are of close proximity in space, this theory fits. The formation of aggregates in solutions is a naturally occurring phenomena that occurs with supramolecules (Perez et al, 2013). It is likely that a trans (E) isomer was in close contact with a neighbouring trans (E) isomer aggregate, resulting in a strong signal on the NOESY data. The high coupling constants of the  $\alpha$ - $\beta$  protons still suggest that the trans (E) isomer is the abundant product. So, it became imperative to understand why this peak was being shown.

It was hypothesised that the use of an aprotic solvent as well as a dilute sample for NMR would reduce the formation of aggregates and this would result in the loss of the cross peaks in the NOESY spectrum. The <sup>1</sup>H NMR data of aggregates are different from those of monomeric species depending on the concentration and temperature that the data is acquired (Perez et al, 2013).

A suggestion was made to acquire new NOESY data and diffusion-ordered spectroscopy (DOSY) NMR data to make a comparison. DOSY separates the NMR signals of different compounds according to their diffusion coefficient. Ideally, signals arising from the same compound should appear in one consecutive row. By acquiring NOESY data from both a concentrated and dilute sample, this was meant to show the cross peak caused by pi stacking of trans (E) isomers due to the concentrated sample and its disappearance with a dilute sample. In terms of DOSY data, two rows of peaks were expected from the concentrated sample – one caused by the pi stacked aggregate and the by the free trans (E) isomer. In the dilute sample, only a row caused by the trans (E) isomer was expected.

Compound **10** was used to acquire this new data. The new DOSY data from both its concentrated and dilute sample showed the expected set of peaks.





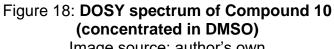


Image source: author's own

The concentrated sample showed two rows of signals. The first row showed two peaks, most likely corresponding with the  $\alpha$ - $\beta$  unsaturated protons of the pi stacked aggregates of the trans (E) isomer. The second row showed a number of peaks, corresponding with the free trans (E) isomer.

The dilute sample of **10** showed a single row of peaks caused by the trans (E) isomer.



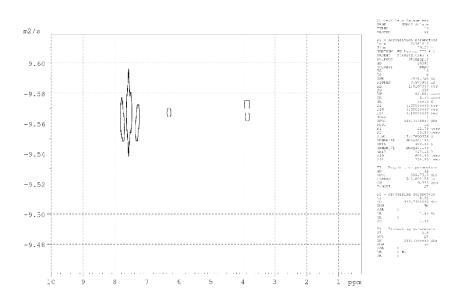


Figure 19: DOSY spectrum of Compound 10 (dilute in DMSO) Image source: author's own

Also, as a standard experiment, new <sup>1</sup>H proton data was derived. There was a considerable difference between the original (concentrated) data derived in chloroform compared to the new (dilute) data derived in DMSO. The peaks of the dilute sample had shifted down the ppm scale, giving the peaks new chemical shift values (see appendix 1.1.18). The shift was considerably large, too large to be caused solely by solvent alterations. This was thought to support the hypothesis that the aromatic stacking of the trans (E) aggregates and free trans (E) conformations was at play.

However, the large coupling constants of the  $\alpha$ - $\beta$  unsaturated protons highly suggest the presence of the exclusively trans (E) isomer. Further reading suggested that the cross peaks seen on the NOESY spectra could be caused by the strong COSY correlation between the protons, resulting in the false NOESY peak (Claridge, 2009). In a third attempt to confirm whether this cross peak was a result of pi stacking or a strong COSY correlation, new NOESY and DOSY data was obtained (concentrated and dilute samples in both deuterated chloroform and DMSO) and it was clear that the cross peak was false. The new data was obtained in both chloroform and DMSO to negate the differing effects across the solvents. It was also taken at 600MHz for increased sensitivity. From the DOSY data (see figures 20 and

21), it is clear that a single compound is present under both the concentrated and the dilute sample conditions.

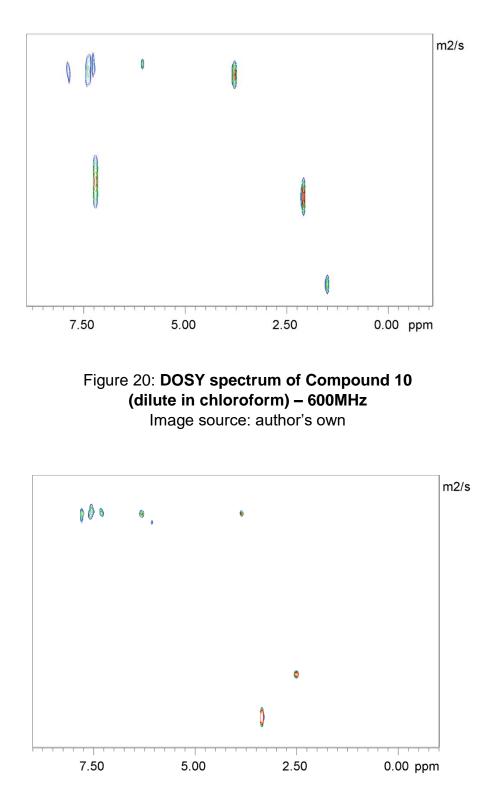
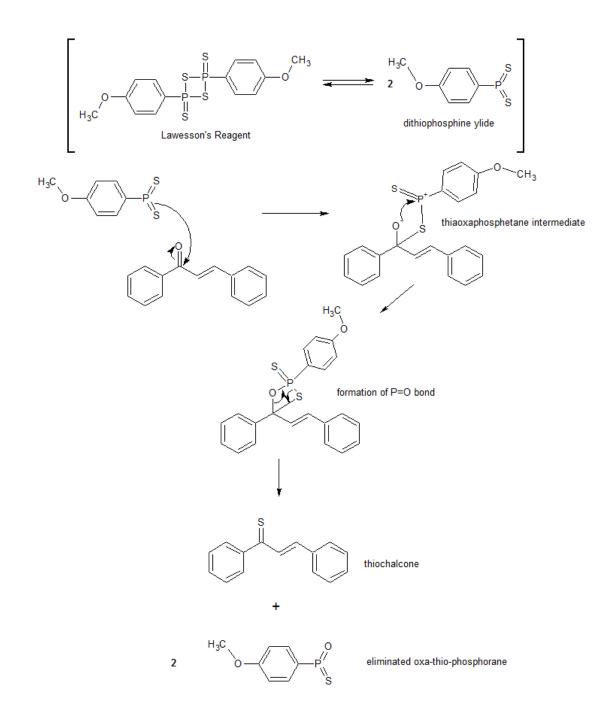


Figure 21: DOSY spectrum of Compound 10 (dilute in DMSO) – 600MHz Image source: author's own In a former project, previous attempts to synthesise chalcones using the Claisen-Schmidt condensation method using similar reagents produced a two-step synthesis: the reaction of the benzaldehyde and acetophenone to give an aldol which was further dehydrated to form the required chalcone. It was suggested that using a stronger base such as potassium or lithium hydroxide to catalyse the benzaldehyde and acetophenone reaction would have avoided the synthesis of the aldol. During this project, sodium hydroxide was the base used and it was not changed as it facilitated the reactions without forming an aldol; it was not detected during analysis. The expected colour changes (clear-yellow) were seen in all the chalcone reactions. If this was not seen after the addition of the sodium hydroxide solution, this would have given a reason to either make use of a stronger base or allow for longer reaction times.

A typical Claisen-Schmidt condensation is carried out at room temperature but the reactions in this project were carried out at 50-65°C, maximising the chance for the thermodynamic product to be made in situ. The synthesis of exclusively cischalcones is underreported in literature but they are also the thermodynamically less stable isomer and so tend to decompose before their presence can be denoted (Zhuang et al, 2017). There has been a report of isomerisation of the trans (E) chalcone to the cis (Z) chalcone by exposing the methanolic solution of the chalcone to visible white light (Iwata et al, 1997). The chances of this photo-isomerisation occurring to the synthesised chalcones was small as they were kept in a dark place until required.

#### 4.2 Thiochalcones

A mechanism of the conversion of chalcones to thiochalcones is as follows: Lawesson's reagent in solution exists in equilibrium as two molecules of dithiophosphine ylide. A single molecule of the ylide attacks the carbon of the chalcone's carbonyl bond (C=O) via the P=S bond, producing a thiaoxaphosphetane intermediate. This intermediate undergoes an intramolecular attack forming the P-O bond, which is the driving force of this reaction (similar to the Witting Reaction). This produces the thiochalcone and two molecules of oxa-thio-phosphorane.



# Scheme 6: Mechanism for Conversion of Chalcones to Thiochalcones Using Lawesson's Reagent

Image source: author's own

As stated in the literature review (1.1.3), the thionation reaction can produce a mixture of products. Krstić et al utilised Lawessons's Reagent to convert  $\alpha$ - $\beta$  unsaturated steroidal ketones to their thio- equivalents. They noticed that the type of products and their ratio was dependent on reaction conditions. When using anhydrous toluene for 8 hours at refluxing temperature, the reaction produced a mixture of the steroidal ketones' corresponding dimer-sulfides and the starting

ketone. The desired product was not seen after the 8-hour reaction but was isolated when the reaction time was 25-45 minutes (Krstić et al, 2010). Even though reaction times did not reach 8 hours (excluding compound **14** that had a reaction time of 12 hours), they did exceed 25-45 minutes, so it is assumed this was the case with compounds **11**, **13** and **14**. Upon analysing their analytical data, it is clear that the eliminated oxa-thio-phosphorane is the abundant product (see table 10). Compound **12** is the exception as a mixture of the thiochalcone, starting chalcone and oxa-thio-phosphorane compound is present upon analysis of <sup>1</sup>H, <sup>13</sup>C and <sup>31</sup>P NMR data (see tables 7, 8 and 9).

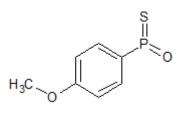


Figure 22: **oxa-thio-phosphorane** Image source: author's own

The <sup>1</sup>H and <sup>13</sup>C NMR of **11**, **13** and **14** (see appendices 1.11, 1.12 and 1.13) resembles that of the predicted NMR of the oxa-thio-phosphorane compound (see appendices 1.1.16 and 1.1.17). The spectra share the following factors in common: the presence of a doublet of doublets at both  $\delta$ 7.6 -  $\delta$ 7.8 and  $\delta$ 7 -  $\delta$ 6.7 as well as a singlet at  $\delta$ 3.8 corresponding with the methoxy group on the ring. The protons are also coupled on their respective <sup>1</sup>H-<sup>1</sup>H COSY spectra. The C=S bond that should appear around 200ppm, is missing on the <sup>13</sup>C NMR of all the compounds as well as the C=O bond that should appear around 180ppm, but a number of aromatic carbons appear in the region of 110-130ppm. The  $\alpha$ - $\beta$  unsaturated carbon peaks, that should appear around 130ppm and 110ppm respectively, are also not seen on <sup>13</sup>C data. It should also be noted that a peak seen at 193.2ppm on the <sup>13</sup>C of **12** could correspond with the C=O bond whilst a peak at 200.8ppm could be the C=S peak (see appendix 1.12.7). No I.R data was obtained as it was clear from the NMR data that the expected products were not formed.

The GCMS data of some of the thionated compounds shows that their most abundant peak corresponds to the M+ peak of their corresponding starting chalcones (see table 6). Compound **12**'s M+ peak is the same M+ peak as its starting chalcone, compound **3** (m/z – 306) as is the case with compound **14**'s M+ peak and compound **9** (m/z – 303). This evidence suggests that the thiochalcones

were made but possibly decomposed, as its monomeric species is unstable (Krstić et al, 2010).

Another method of ascertaining the presence of thionated products is a colour change. A purple colour is associated with the presence of a thionated product and this was reflected in the synthesis of compound **14**, which retained this colour after the completion of the reaction whilst the remaining compounds had a colour change of bright orange to yellow. Compound **11** maintained a bright orange colour.

<sup>15</sup>P NMR was conducted to ascertain the presence of phosphorous in all the thiochalcone samples. The peaks seen on their respective spectra (see appendix 1.11.8 for <sup>15</sup>P spectrum of compound **11**) also support the presence of oxa-thiophosphorane.

#### 4.3 Effect of Substituents Positions on Aromatic Rings on the Reaction

Aldehydes bearing electron-withdrawing groups favour base-catalysed condensations whilst aldehydes bearing electron-donating groups favour acidcatalysed condensations (Zhuang et al, 2017). The below average yields of the compounds could be explained by this fact. 2, 4, 6-trimethoxybenzaldehyde was used to synthesise compounds **2**, **3** and **10**. The methoxy group is electrondonating. The use of sodium hydroxide to catalyse its reaction suggests the aldehyde combining with the acetophenone was the rate-determining step of this reaction, resulting in the average yields of 52.37%, 30.72% and 55.65% respectively.

Halogen groups are strongly electronegative and withdraw electron density from the ring via induction. They are ortho/para-directors when it comes to electrophilic substitution, due to the ability of the lone pairs to stabilise the carbocation formed during the substitution process when in the ortho and para positions. The overriding effect on the aromatic ring in the chalcones studied here, would be one of electron-withdrawing induction as we are not looking at electrophilic substitution (see figure 23).

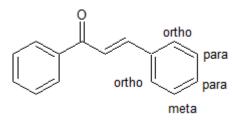


Figure 23: Non-hydrogen positioning on aromatic ring relative to ketone moiety Image source: author's own

4-chlorobenzaldehyde, 4-fluorobenzaldhyde and 4-bromobenzaldehyde were used in the synthesis of compounds **1**, **5**, **6**, **7**, **8** and **9** that produced yields of 100.7%, 40.28%, 51.97%, 64.92%, 89.51% and 93.32% respectively. These compounds produced a mixture of good and average yields.

The electron-withdrawing effects of the halogens in the para position means the reactions would have produced good yields under basic conditions. The below-average yields of compound **6** could be due to an inadequate reaction time whilst the higher yields of compounds **1** and **9** could mean the products were a mixture of starting material and desired product.

Compound **4** was synthesised using sodium hydroxide, but the precipitate did not form until the use of concentrated sulphuric acid followed by a liquid-liquid extraction. Its uncharacteristically high yield of 138% is most likely due to the presence of water. Further drying would be needed for an accurate yield.

# 4.4 Antimicrobial Activity

Out of all the synthesised products, only two supposed thiochalcones displayed any antimicrobial activity. The remaining compounds, chalcones especially, did not display any activity. The reasons for this could be due to a number of factors but it is most likely the substituents on the A and B rings.

A free hydroxyl group on the B ring of a chalcone is necessary for biological activity, regardless of the substituents on the A ring (Ávila et al, 2008). Compound **4** bears a free hydroxyl group on the B ring, but no antimicrobial activity was noticed when the compound was tested. A hydroxyl group in the meta position has been noted to bring about a diminished level of antimicrobial activity previously (Silva et al, 2013) but compound **4**'s hydroxyl group was in the para position.

More than 2 methoxy groups on the B ring have been seen to eradicate any biological activity of a chalcone regardless of the substituents on the A ring (Baba et al, 2013) as is reflected in the results of compounds **2** and **10**, which are structural isomers. Compound **3** has a methoxy group in the para position. Such a group in the meta position proved useful in the Ávila et al study but the success of their compounds was attributed to hydrophobic groups such as prenyl or geranyl groups on the A ring (Ávila et al, 2008).

The lack of activity from the synthesised halogen-bearing chalcones was unexpected. Halogens such as chlorine, bromine and fluorine are universally known to increase the biological activity of chalcones. The most prominent presumption to explain this feat is the negation of the halogens, present on both the A and B rings of the chalcone. Chalcones with halogens present on only one ring of the structure are seen to be antimicrobially active, as documented in studies conducted by Osório et al (2010), Burmaoglu et al (2017) and Karthikeyan et al (2007).

Fundamentally, there are two pathways by which antibiotics can enter a bacterial cell: via a lipid-mediated pathway for hydrophobic antibiotics or through diffusion porins for hydrophilic antibiotics (Delcour, 2009).

Bacterial membranes have a high phospholipid content which is negatively charged (Osório et al, 2010). Lipophilicity is an important factor of antimicrobial agents as they have to infiltrate the cell wall envelope of bacteria. Chlorine and bromine are rather lipophilic, but their electronegativity does not differ much compared to carbon. However, fluorine is more hydrophilic than other halogens so the presence of fluorine on the aromatic rings could have caused this lack of activity.

There is a difference between the MIC and MBC values of compound **11** and **14**. The compounds were very brightly coloured in nature, causing the determination of inhibition or otherwise difficult to distinguish. The determination of MBC requires the MIC results. When recording the MBC, the section with the smallest amount of growth prior to the section with zero growth was used to confirm the MIC. For instance, with compound **11**, the MBC was recorded as 2.5 mg/ml but there was turbidity across all the wells during the MIC experiment. The section of the petri dish prior to 2.5 mg/ml had a very small amount of growth, meaning this correlates with the MIC of compound **11**.

Existing antibiotics are split into classes: Beta-Lactams, Sulfonamides, Aminoglycosides, Tetracyclines, Chloramphenicol, Macrolides, Glycopeptides, Oxazolidinones, Ansamycins, Quinolones, Streptogramins and Lipopepties. The groups classify available antibiotics based on their target bacteria (Gram-negative or Gram-positive), mode of action (bactericidal or bacteriostatic) and chemical structure (Brunning, 2014).

Antibiotics have five basic mechanisms of action against bacteria (Rollins and Joseph, 2000):

- 1. Inhibition of cell wall synthesis
- 2. Inhibition of protein synthesis
- 3. Alteration of cell membranes
- 4. Inhibition of nucleic acid synthesis
- 5. Antimetabolite activity

Peptidoglycan, a component of the cell walls of both Gram-positive and Gramnegative bacteria, is made up of long, cross-linked polymers of B-N-acetyl-Dglucosamine and N-acetylmuramic acid (Volmer et al, 2008).

It is the D-alanyl-D-alanine portion of a peptide chain that is cross-linked in the presence of penicillin binding proteins (PBP). Beta-lactam and glycopeptide antibiotics target PBPs. Beta-lactam rings are thought to mimic the D-alanyl-D-alanine portion of the peptide chain. They bind strongly with PBPs, thus weakening the peptidoglycan layer, resulting in the lysis of the bacterial cell (Tipper, 1985). Glycopeptides bind to the D-alanyl-D-alanine portion of the peptide chain, which disallows PBPs from binding, leading to the inhibition of cell wall synthesis (Nagarajan, 1991).

Protein synthesis requires the action of DNA being used to synthesise mRNA via transcription. The bacterial 70S ribosome, a macromolecule required to translate mRNA to amino acids is made up of two subunits: 30S and 50S subunits. Aminoglycosides, chloramphenicol, tetracycline, oxazolidinones and macrolides work by affecting the process of translation by inhibiting certain parts of the ribosomal subunits. The inhibition of protein synthesis leads to a disruption of a

number of bacterial processes required for life, resulting in the death of the bacterial cell (Sigma-Aldrich, 2006).

Quinolones inhibit the bacterial enzyme (deoxyribose nucleic acid) DNA gyrase, which is responsible for the ATP-dependent negative super-coiling of doublestranded DNA. This is necessary to prevent the excessive positive supercoiling of the DNA strands when they separate for the commencement of replication or transcription. DNA gyrase is also made up of subunits, two A subunits and two B subunits. Quinlonines bind to the A subunits, disallowing the cutting and resealing of the DNA strands (Aldred et al, 2014).

In terms of antimetabolite activity, sulfonamides, the "cousin" of the synthesised thiochalcones, inhibit bacterial folic acid production. They inhibit dihydropteroate synthase competitively, thus blocking the enzyme's regular substrate, *p*-aminobenzoic acid from binding. This prevents the production of folic acid in the bacterial cell. All living cells require folic acid for growth but it cannot cross bacterial cell walls via diffusion, so it is synthesised from *p*-aminobenzoic acid within the bacterial cell (Walzer et al, 1988).

The varying antibiotic mechanisms of action shed light on the importance of enzymes in their activity. No concrete link has been made to define how chalcones work as antimicrobial agents. More studies would need to be carried out to determine the mode of action of chalcones and ascertain whether enzymes are involved in this process.

At present, there are two theories that describe how enzymes bind to substrates: Lock and Key Theory and Induced Fit Theory. The conventional Lock and Key theory was introduced by Emil Fisher in 1894, postulating that a substrate was a key and the enzyme was the lock and that only the correctly shaped substrate would fit into the active site of the enzyme, thus activating it (Ophardt, 2003). The Induced Fit theory was suggested by Daniel Koshland in 1958 as experimental evidence of enzymatic activity could not be fully explained by the Lock and Key theory. Koshland suggested that it was the substrate that determined the final shape of the enzyme, meaning an enzyme's active site is flexible in nature (Koshland, 1958). This means, a substrate would need to be recognisable to the active site in terms of functional groups, side chains or structure. This partially explains how enzymes can bind to competitive molecules that permanently block its active site. A hypothesis developed in this study is that chalcones may follow a similar mode of action to generate antimicrobial activity. Chalcones could irreversibly block the active site of some bacterial enzymes, thus preventing its necessary action from being carried out, causing either bactericidal or bacteriostatic consequences.

Sivakumar et al synthesised a series of substituted chalcones and tested their activity against *S. aureus* and *E. coli*. The study found that the active compound, with a methoxy group in the para position on the A ring and a hydroxyl group in the ortho position on the B ring, damaged the cell walls of the bacteria, reminiscent of the mechanism of action of glycopeptide antibiotics (Sivakumar et al, 2009). This mechanism involves blocking the active site of the enzyme D-alanyl-D-alanine carboxypeptidase/transpeptidase (Goodsell, 2002). This provides evidence that the mode of action chalcones undertake to behave as antimicrobial agents could possibly involve enzymatic inhibition.

Relating back to the lipophilicity of the compounds, compounds **11** and **14** were the only biologically active compounds. To an extent, their activity could be caused by the presence of oxa-thio-phosphorane (see figure 22). If the activity shown was entirely due to this compound, activity would have been seen in compounds 12 and **13** as well. Compound **11** does bear a fluorine atom on its B ring but it showed activity against the Gram-positive S. epidermidis. Gram-positive bacteria have a large peptidoglycan content in their cell wall (see figure 25). It may have been easier for this compound to cross the cell wall of S. epidermidis, supposedly boosted by the lipophilic sulphur atom on the thione moiety. With compound 14, it showed activity against both Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria: S. epidermidis, P. aeruginosa and E. coli. The compound contains nitrogen, sulphur and bromine. Nitrogen is lipophobic whilst sulphur and bromine are more lipophilic. The presence of these atoms in the compound may be the reason for the compound's dual activity, allowing for passage across both cell walls, via a lipid-mediated pathway and through porins (Delcour, 2009), increasing the likelihood of the compound infiltrating the bacteria.

The solubility of chalcones proved problematic during the bacterial screening of this project. An ideal solvent to work with in microbiology is either water or a physiological diluent as this would eliminate the possible effect of solvent interaction on any seen antimicrobial activity. DMSO was used as a compromise: it was the least bacterially disruptive solvent that the chalcones were soluble in. It was noticed

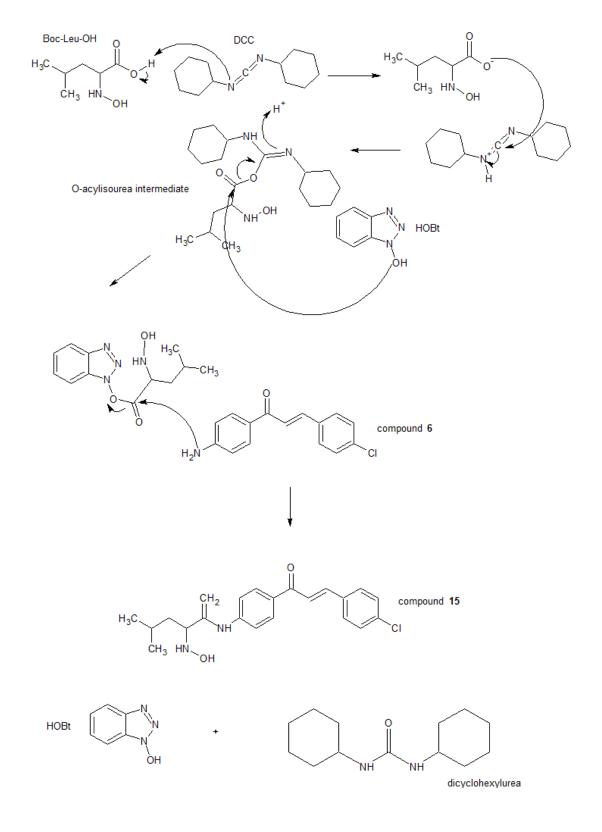
that when the chalcone solutions were introduced to the inoculated agar plates, there was a degree of precipitation of the chalcones. The most likely cause for this is the presence of water in the agar. Water is used during chalcone synthesis to initiate its precipitation. Antimicrobial susceptibility is usually tested using broth dilution, disk diffusion or gradient method (Reller et al, 2009). All these methods still utilise either agar or broth which requires water for its preparation. This antagonism between the chalcones and agar could have affected any activity or lack thereof.

The synthesis of compound **15** was attempted in a bid to increase the solubility of chalcones in water, in turn, improving its bioavailability. Peptide couplings are usually facilitated by coupling reagents such as DCC and 4-Dimethylaminopyridine (DMAP). This synthesis made use of DCC and HOBt. DCC activates the carboxyl group of the amino acid by forming an O-acylisourea intermediate that forms a complex with HOBt. This complex couples with the amino end of compound **6**, forming the desired product, the reformed catalyst HOBt and the by-product dicyclohexylurea (scheme 7). The reaction is usually carried out at low temperatures, facilitated by a mixture of dry ice and ether, to minimise the formation of this by-product. Freezing it overnight prompts its precipitation which can be filtered off before the work-up stage of the reaction. The strong smell of urea was used as an indicator of its presence throughout the reaction.

It appears the Boc protecting group had been removed during the synthesis of compound **15** as the expected peak around  $\delta 3.5$  on the <sup>1</sup>H spectra correlating with the group's methyl substituents is missing. Usually, this removal is facilitated by the use of a strong acid such as trifluoroacetic acid. The workup section of the synthesis utilised 4% hydrochloric acid which would seem too weak to remove the protecting group but there was no other acid use in the synthesis.

Compound **6** was chosen because of the presence of chlorine, with hopes of this compound being soluble in water but also antimicrobially potent due to the halogen. The <sup>1</sup>H NMR of **15** (see table 11) showed that there was a mixture of starting chalcone (see appendix 1.15) and compound **15**. However, starting reagent is evident on the <sup>1</sup>H spectrum of **6** (see appendix 1.6) so this error was carried forward.

It was difficult to clean compound **15** during column chromatography. Using a silica column still produced a very sticky compound. Its complete synthesis became secondary in a bid to continue synthesising chalcones with an increased premise of biological activity.



Scheme 7: DCC/HOBt amino acid-chalcone coupling mechanism

Image source: author's own

## 5. Conclusion

The aim of this project was to synthesise a series of chalcones from a variety of substituted benzaldehydes and acetophenones. The prospect of a biologically active chalcone with a carbon-sulphur bond prompted the use of Lawesson's Reagent in a bid to convert these chalcones to their thio-equivalents. To an extent, this was achieved upon analysis of the obtained NMR and GCMS data. The conformation of the synthesised chalcones has been confirmed as trans (E) from derived NOESY and DOSY data.

The lack of activity from the synthesised chalcones could be caused by a multitude of reasons including the substituents made to their structures and the methodology selected to test their activity.

The activity seen by thiochalcones **11** against *S. epidermidis* and **14** against *E.coli*, *P. aeruginosa* and *S. epidermidis* could be attributed to the eliminated oxa-thiophosphorane molecule, an inevitable by-product of the use of Lawesson's Reagent. Compound **12**, shown to have a higher ratio of the desired product did not show any activity against the bacteria used. However, the compounds could still be biologically active but towards other organisms such as viruses, protozoa and fungi (Zhuang et al, 2017).

It has been repeatedly reported that modifications made to the chalcone structure enhances its biological activity. The chalcones synthesised during this study bore a variety of substituents including methoxy, hydroxyl and halogenic groups. The positioning of these groups has been linked to the biological activity and lack thereof in chalcones, as is reflected by the results of this study.

The data from this project could contribute to the ever-expanding field of chalcone synthesis and their biological activity. It could also add to what is known of their structure-activity relationships, especially the importance of substituents and their positioning on the aromatic rings.

## 6. Future Works

A bid to separate and isolate the products within compounds **11-14** could be undertaken to better understand the dynamics of a Lawesson's Reagent-mediated thionation and to further understand what was displaying antimicrobial activity during this project. To expand on the biological activity of the synthesised chalcones, their cytotoxicity could be determined by running bio-assays on mammalian cells both normal and cancerous, possibly to reveal any anti-tumour behaviour.

Reports of synergy between chalcones and antibiotics have been made (Belofsky et al, 2004). The possibility of this could be determined using the synthesised compounds, testing their efficacy with a variety of antibiotics and seeing whether it is worth further investigating in the use of chalcones in medicine as synergistic agents.

Also, to understand the exact mode of action chalcones use to act as antimicrobial agents, a modelling/docking study in the active sites of key enzymes could be carried out. This would indicate whether enzymatic interaction is a possible cause for a chalcone's antimicrobial activity.

The purification of compound **15** should be undertaken. Solubility tests should also be conducted to ascertain whether the addition of an amino acid improves the solubility of a chalcone and whether it has an effect on its antimicrobial activity, if it displays any.

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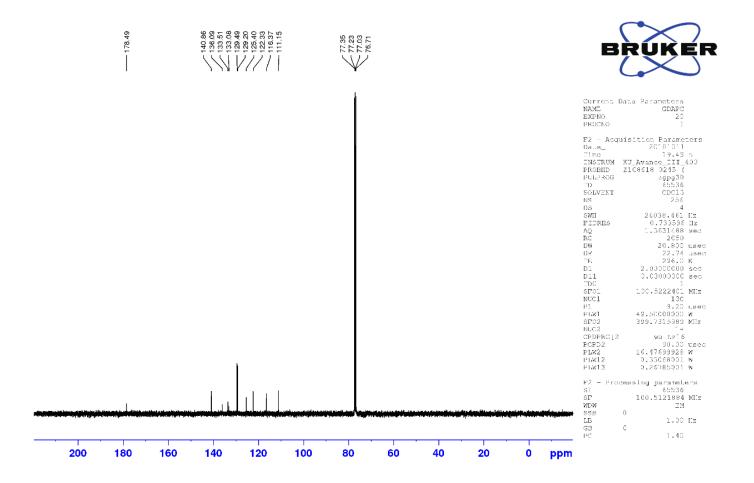
# Appendix

1. Compound 1 *1.1 <sup>1</sup>H NMR* 

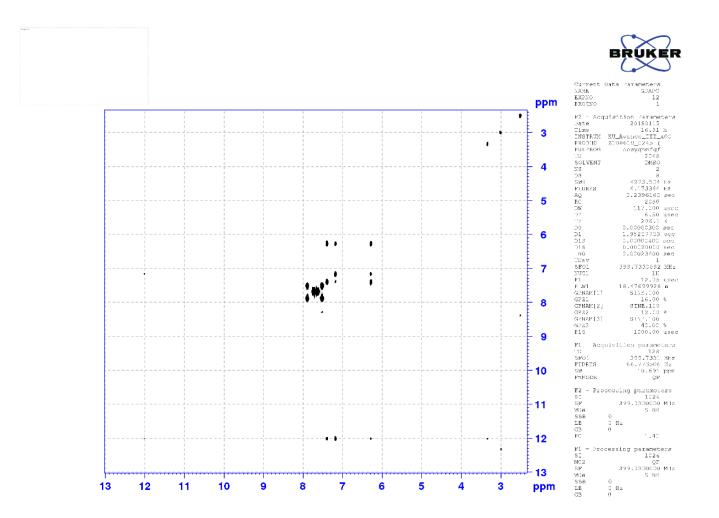
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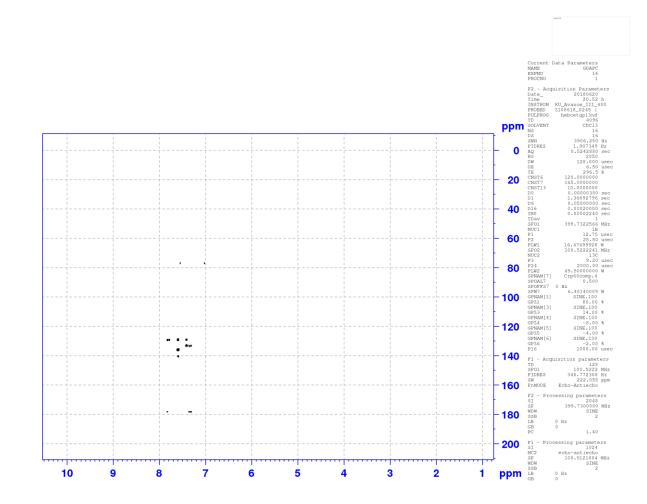
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F2 - Processing perameters 81 - 63538 85 - 399.7300000 MHz WDW EM
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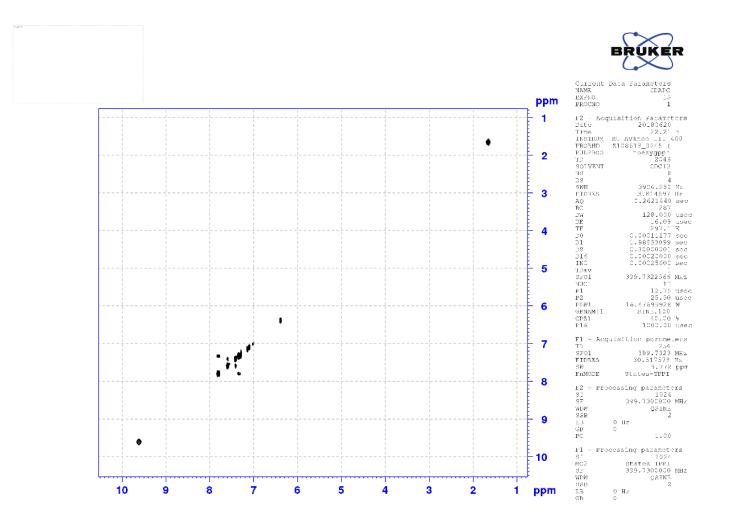
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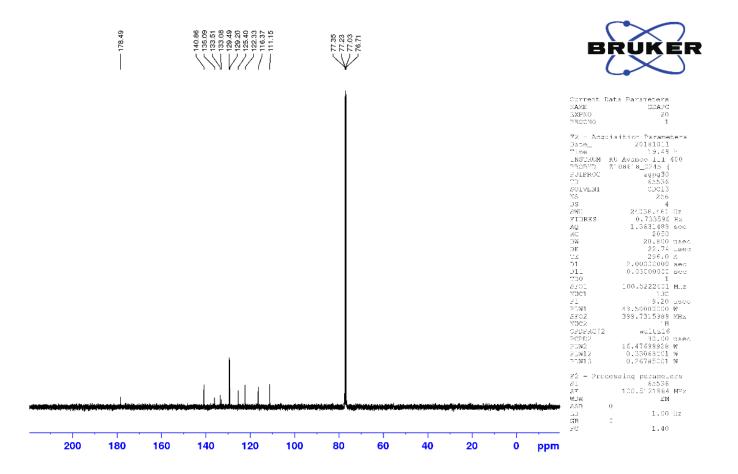


1.1.3 <sup>1</sup>H-<sup>1</sup>H COSY





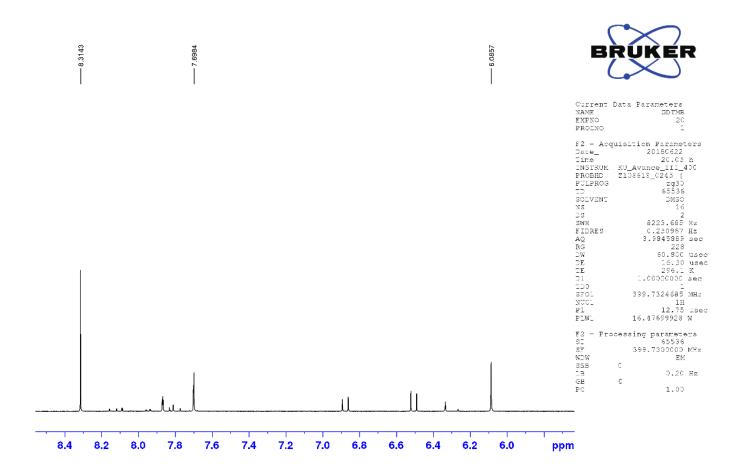




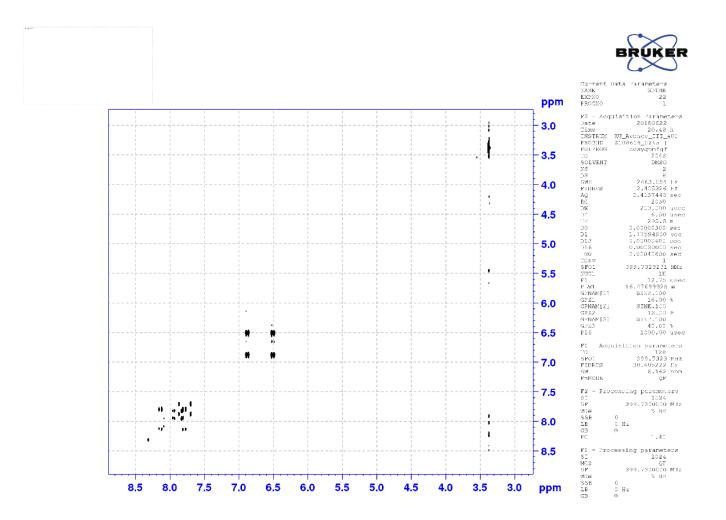
1.2 Compound 2

1.2.1 <sup>1</sup>H NMR

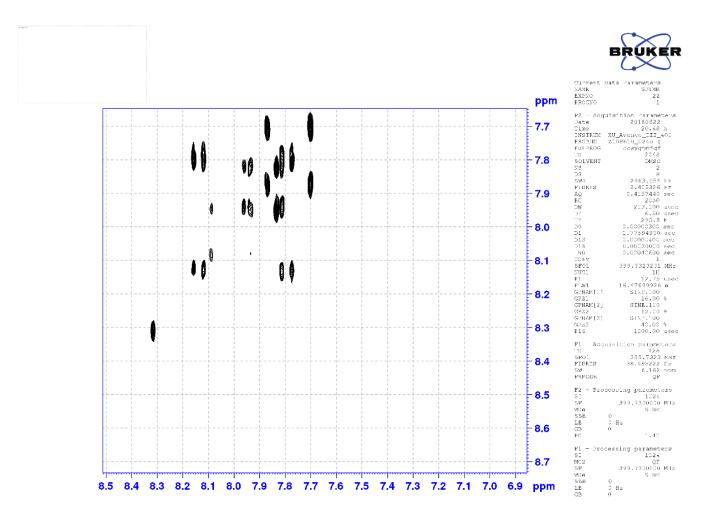
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		PULPROG 2930 TD 65536 SOLVENT DMSO NS 16
		DS 2 SWE 8223.685 Hr FIDRES 0.250967 Hz AQ 3.9845886 sec RG 228
		DW 60.600 used DE 16.30 used TE 296.1 K D1 1.0000000 sec
		TD0 1 3F01 399.7324665 MHr NUC1 1H P1 12.75 usec PLM1 16.47893926 W
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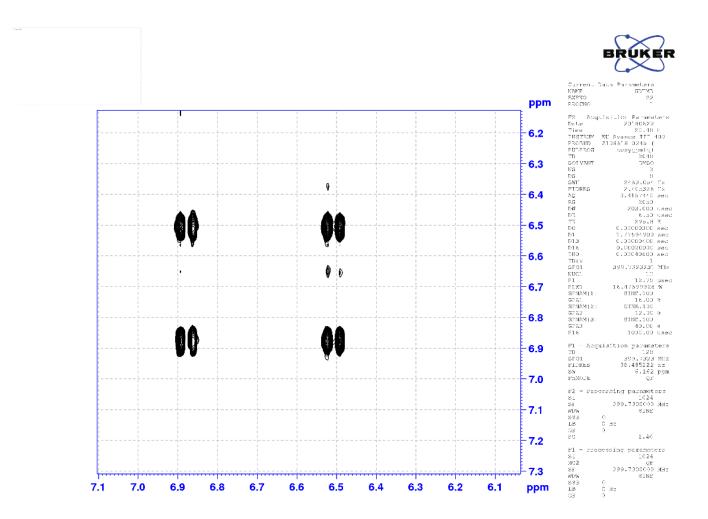


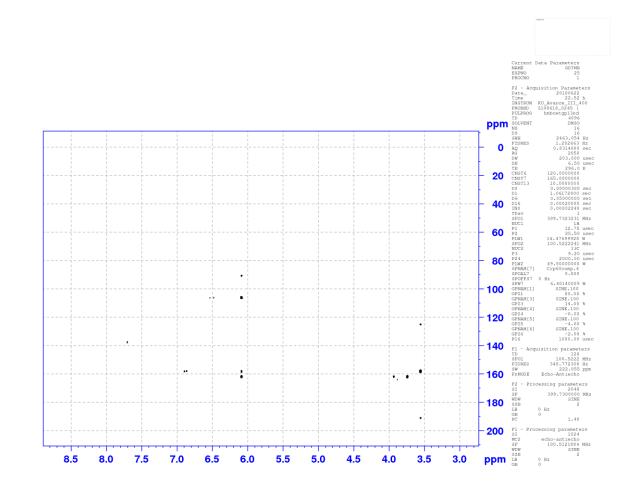
1.2.3 <sup>1</sup>H -<sup>1</sup>H COSY

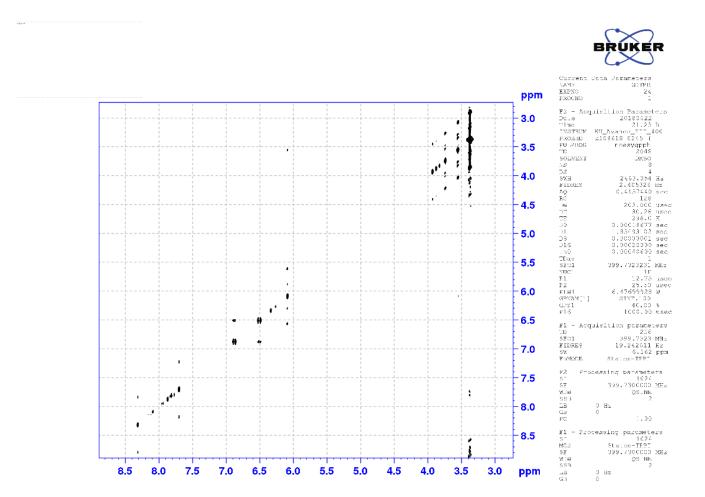


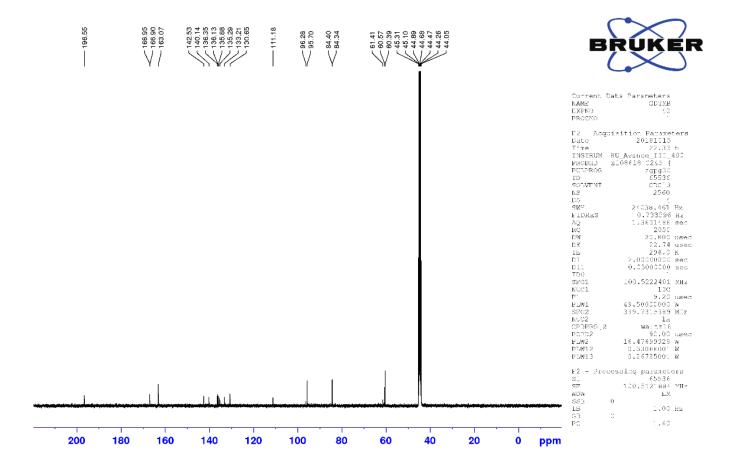
1.2.4 Expansion of COSY



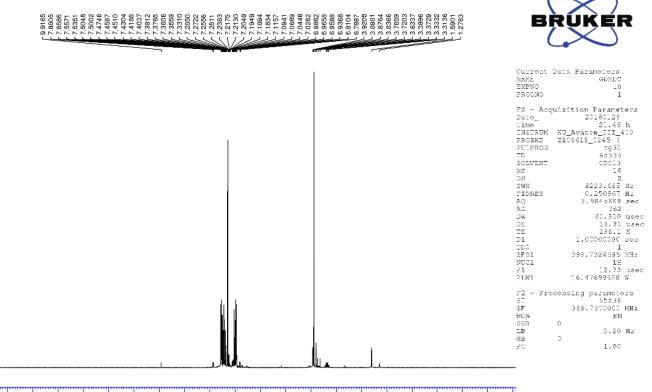




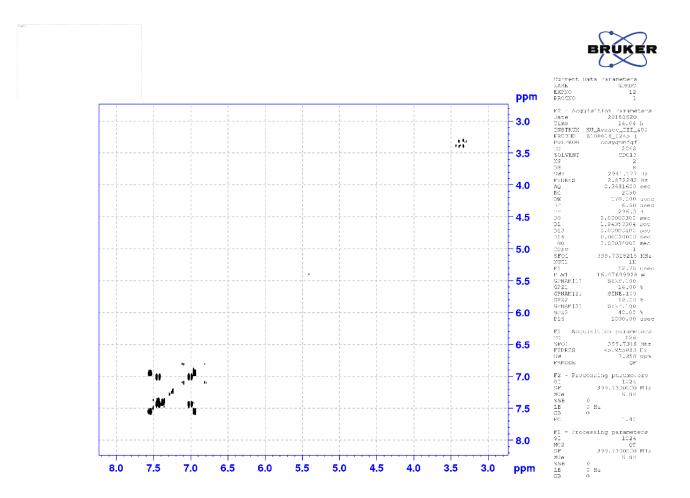


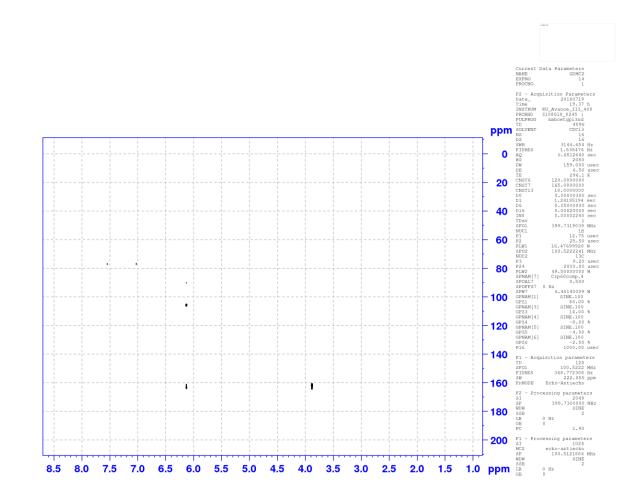


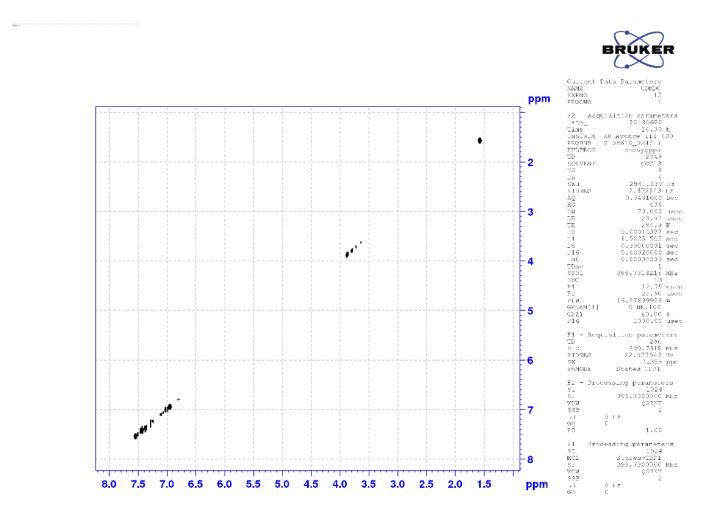
1.3 Compound 3 1.3.1 <sup>1</sup>H NMR

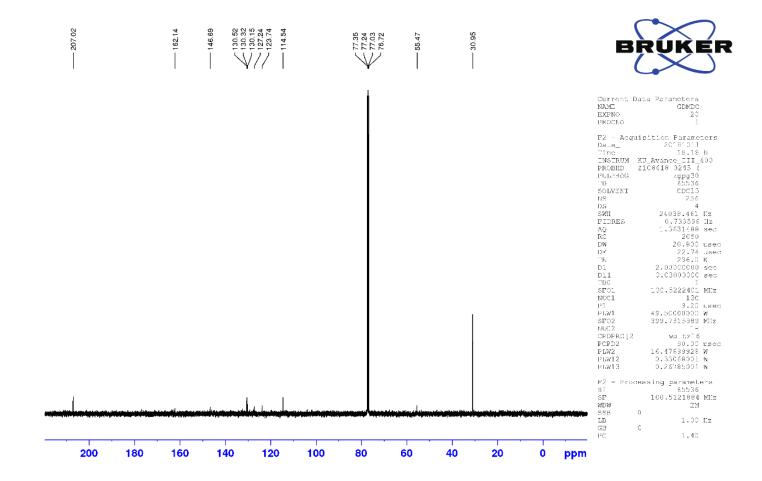


16 15 14 13 12 11 10 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 0 -1 -2 ppm

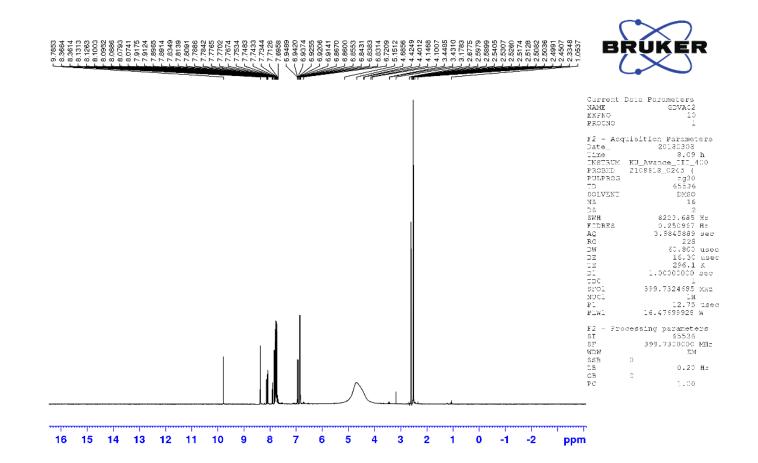




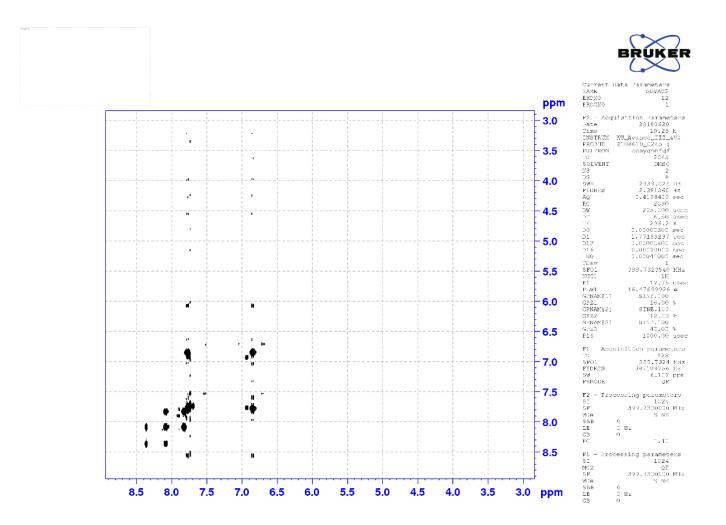


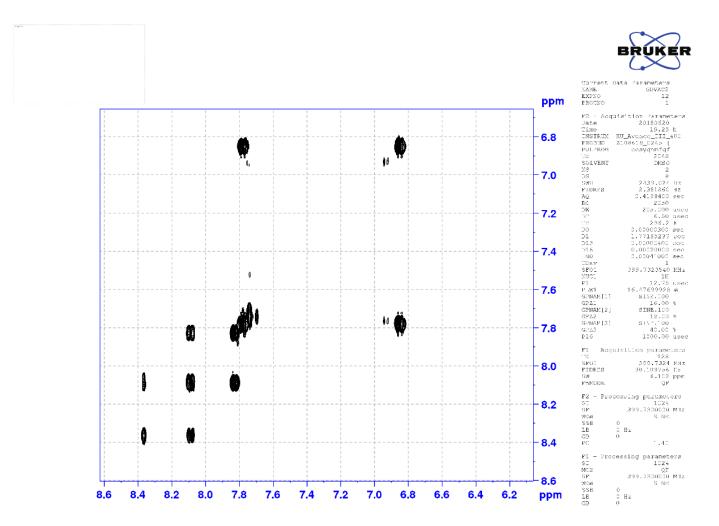


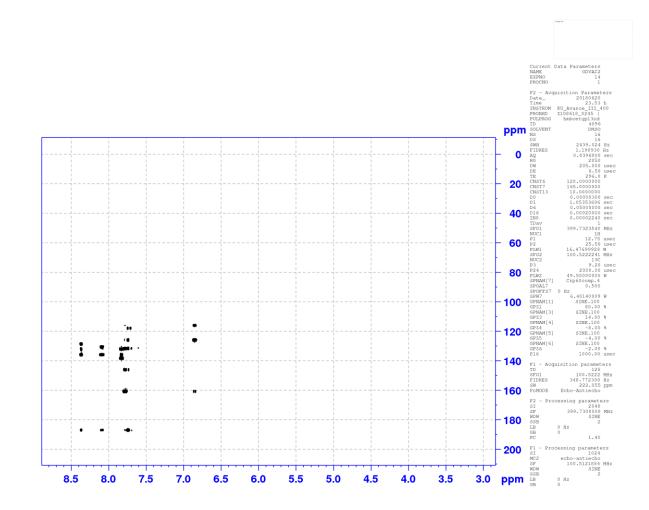
1.4 Compound 4 1.4.1 <sup>1</sup>H NMR

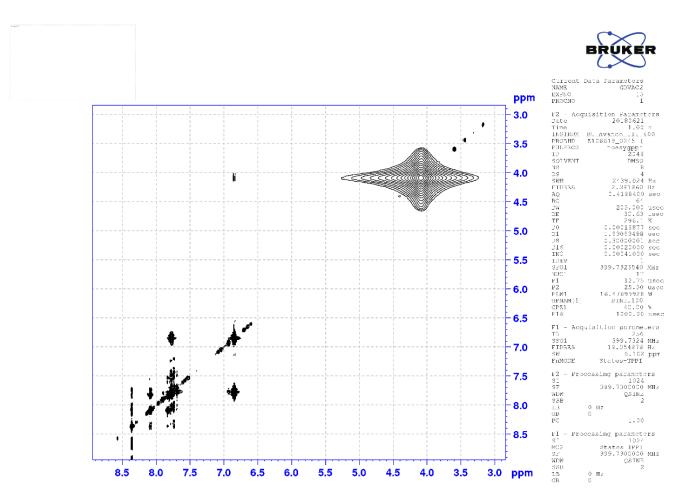


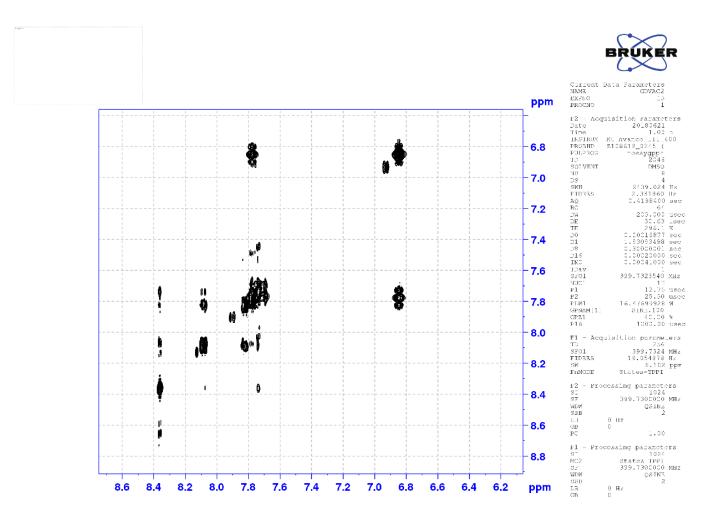
1.4.2 <sup>1</sup>H -<sup>1</sup>H COSY

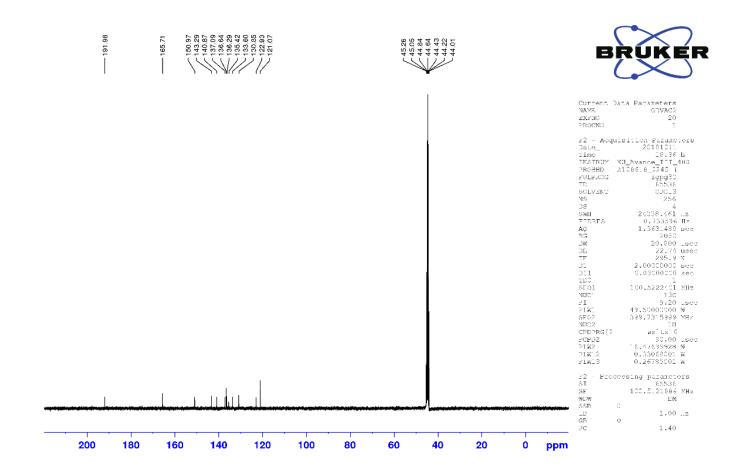




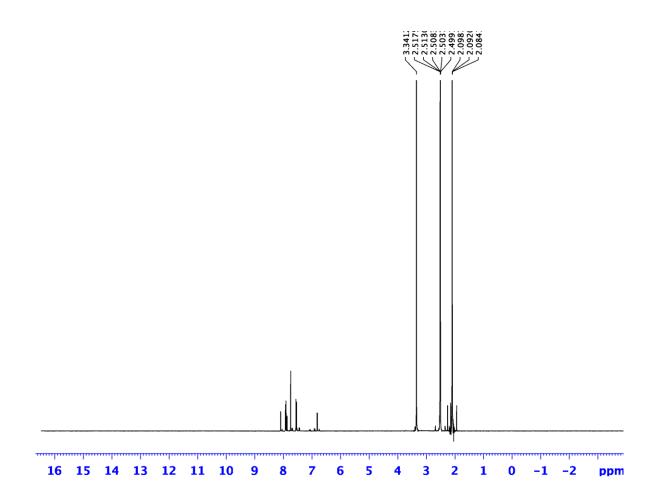


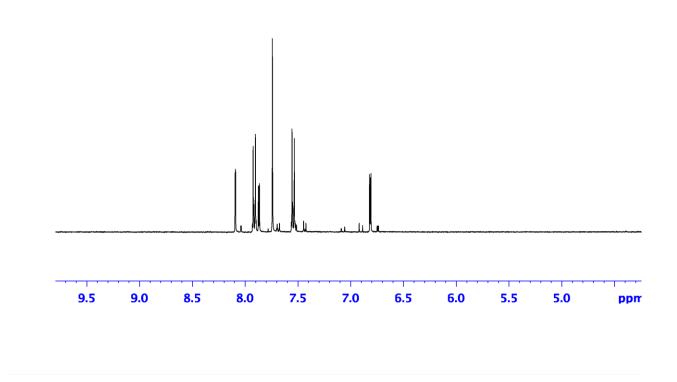


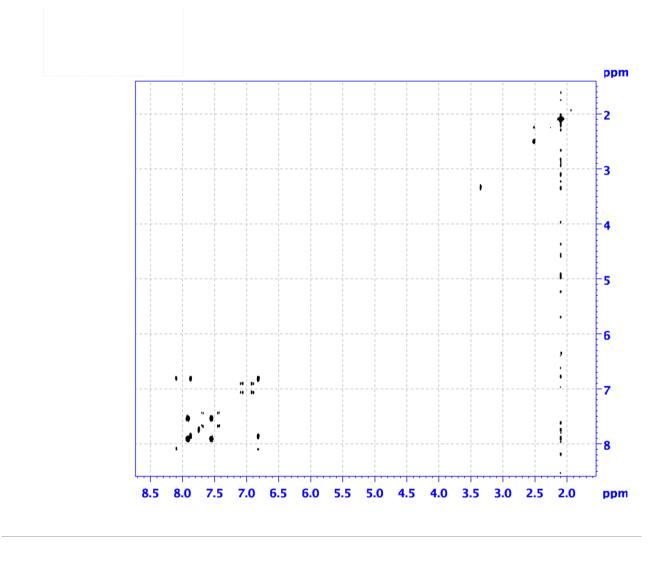


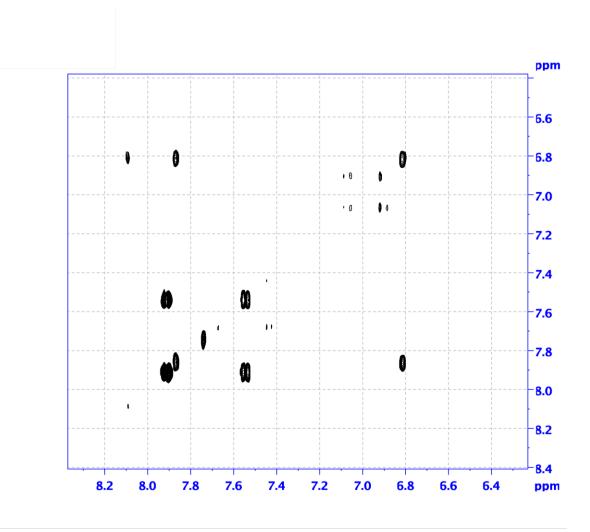


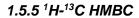
1.5 Compound 5 1.5.1 <sup>1</sup>H NMR

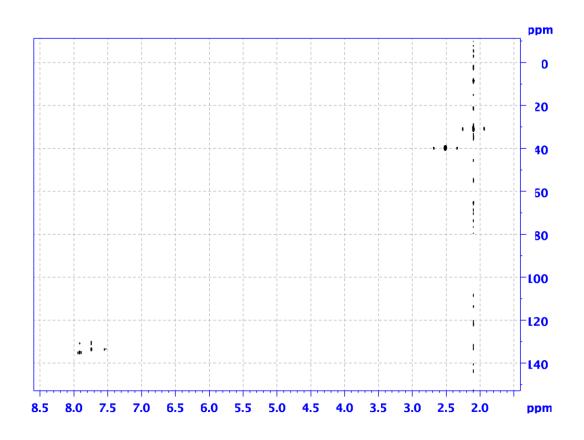


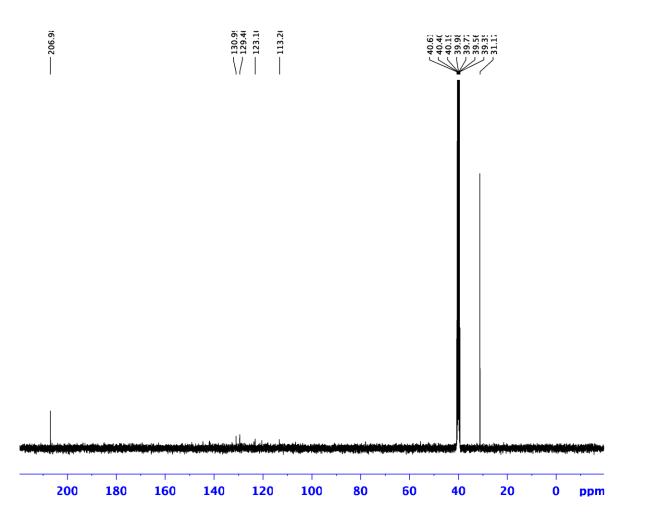




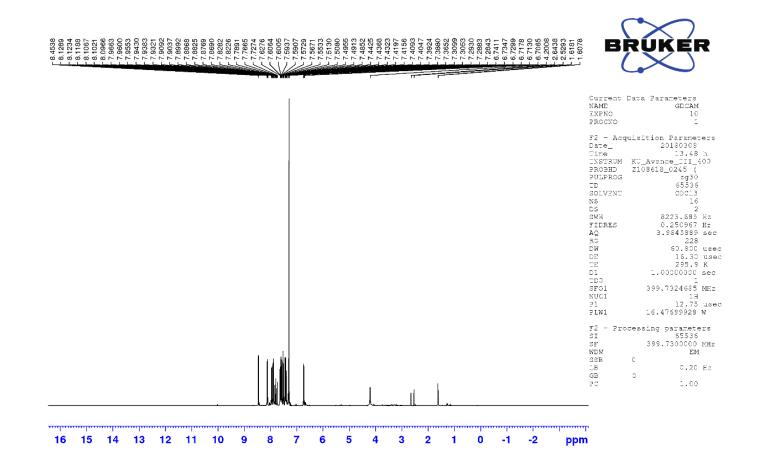


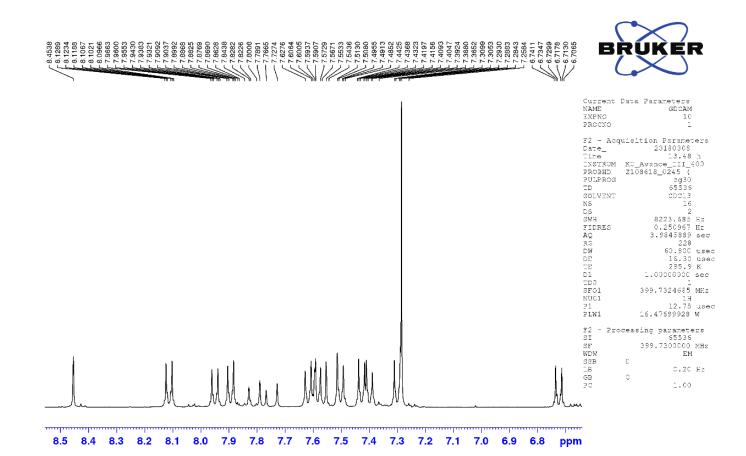




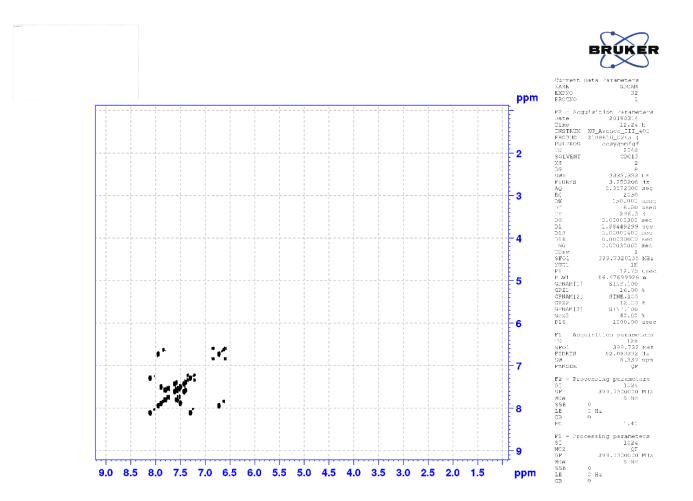


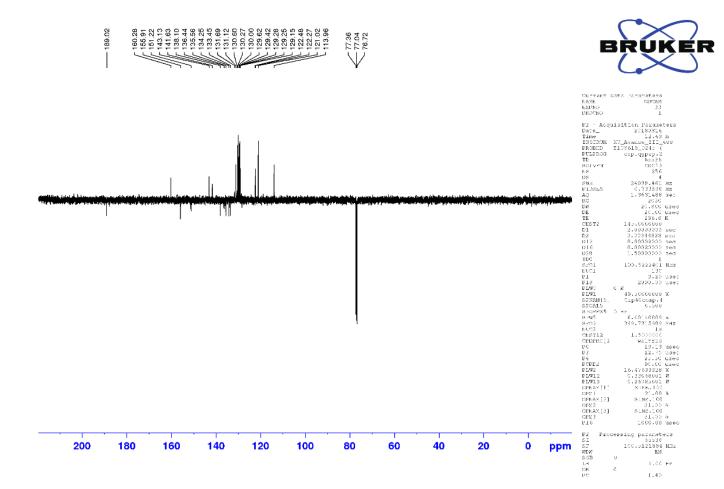
1.7 Compound 6 1.6.1 <sup>1</sup>H NMR



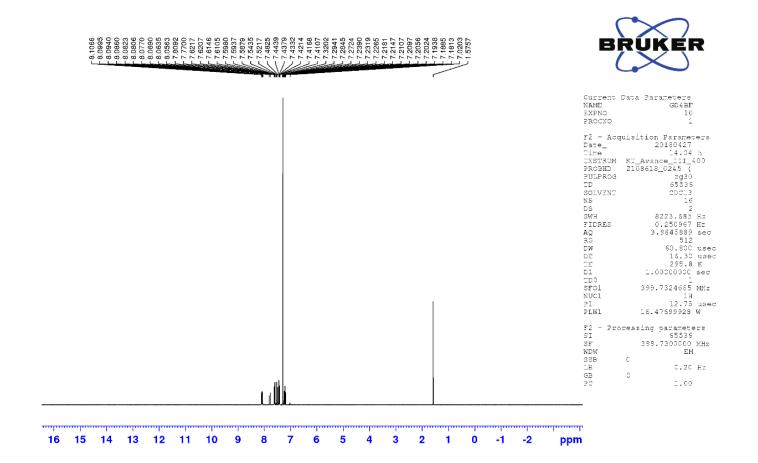


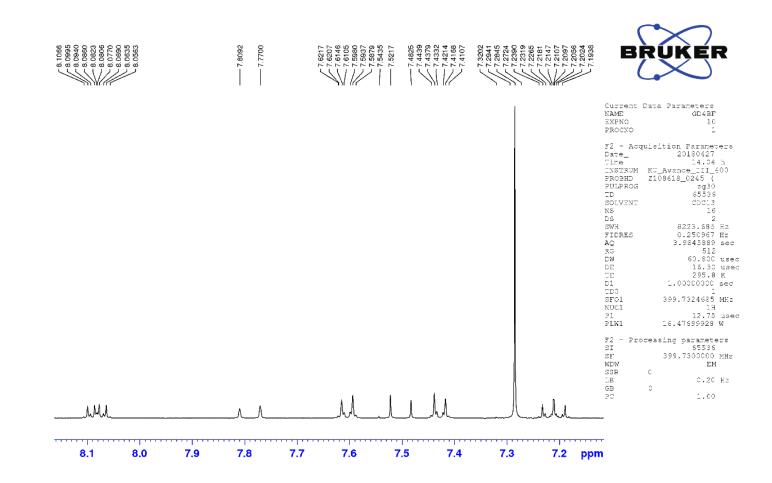
1.6.3 <sup>1</sup>H -<sup>1</sup>H COSY



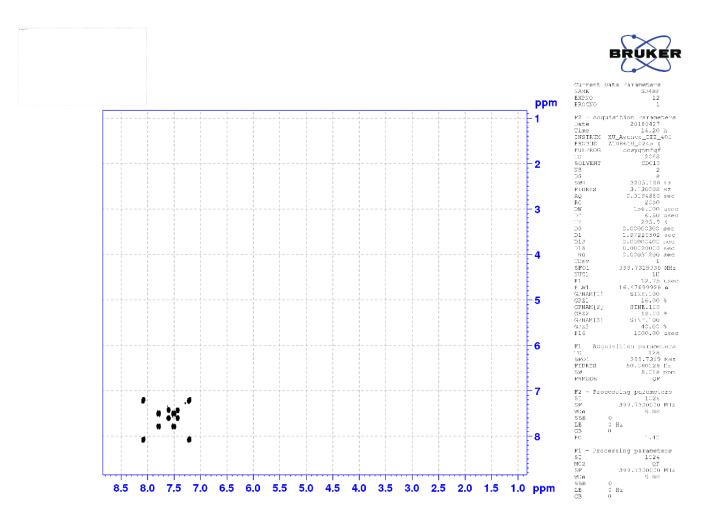


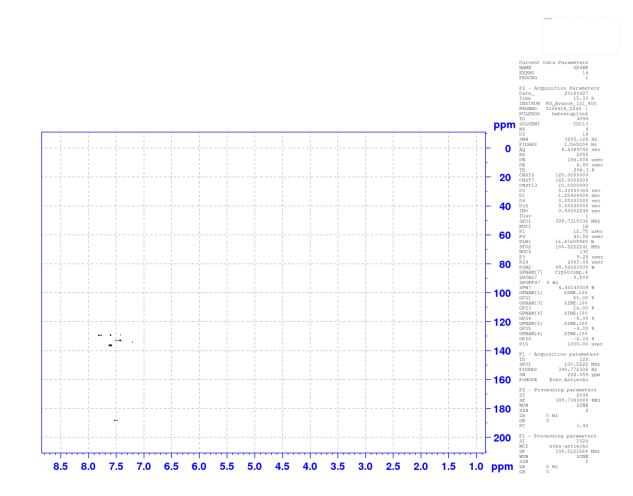
1.7 Compound 7 1.7.1 <sup>1</sup>H NMR

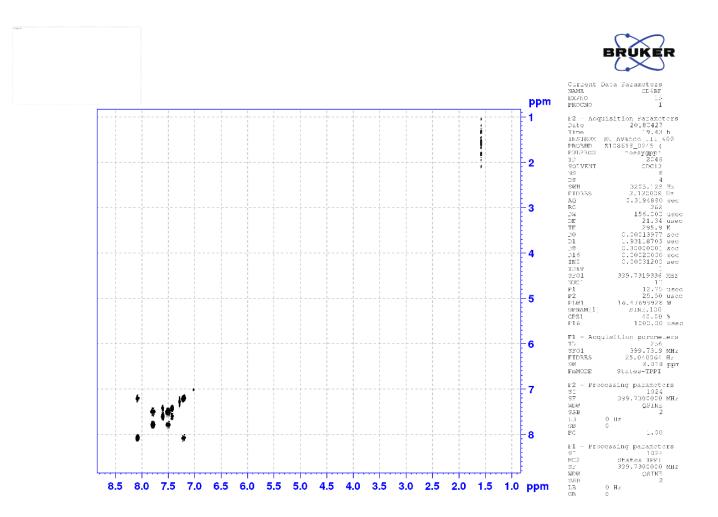


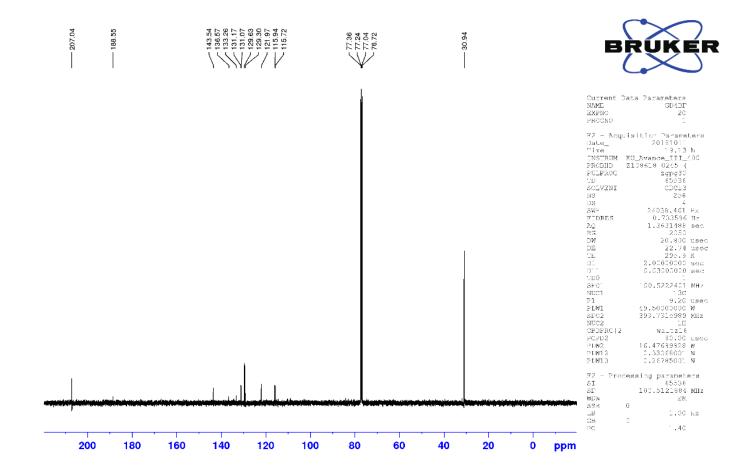


1.7.3 <sup>1</sup>H -<sup>1</sup>H COSY



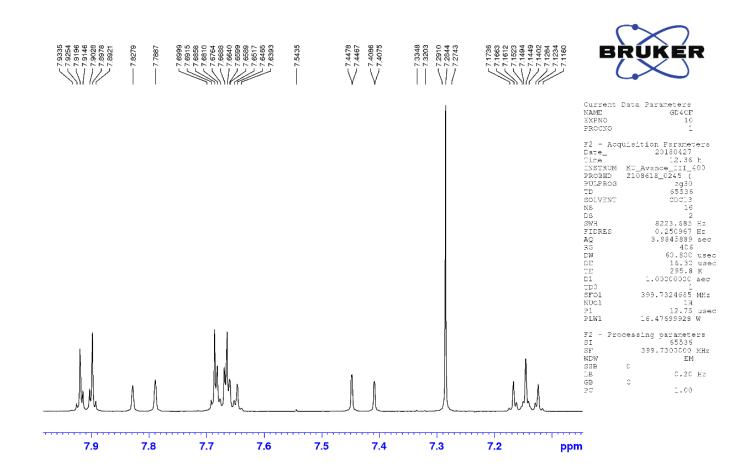


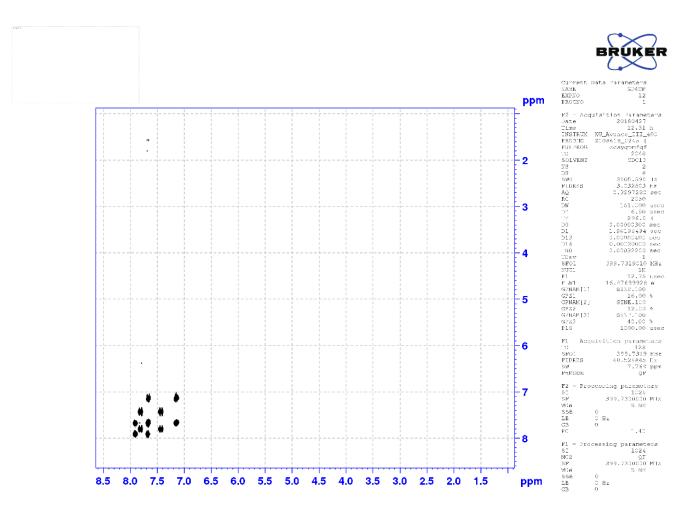


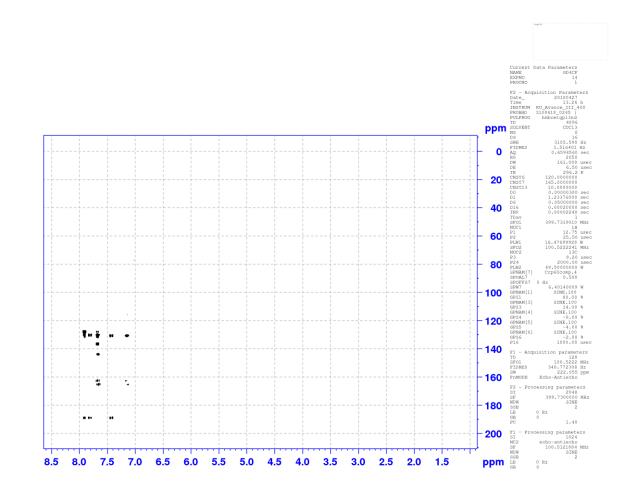


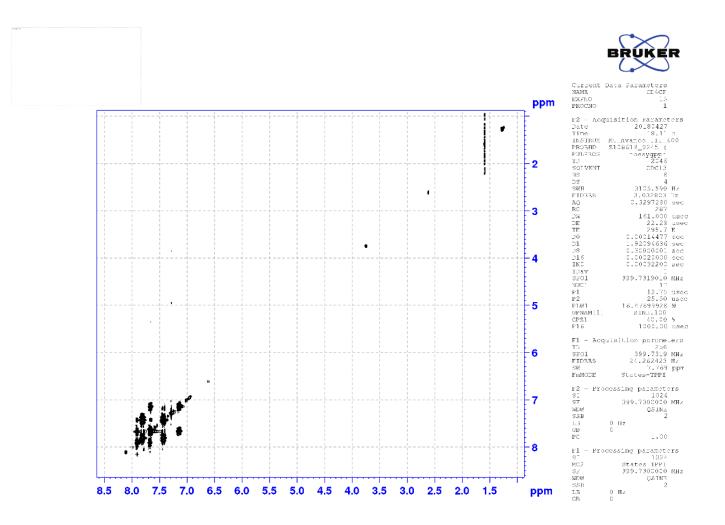
1.8 Compound 8 *1.8.1 <sup>1</sup>H NMR* 

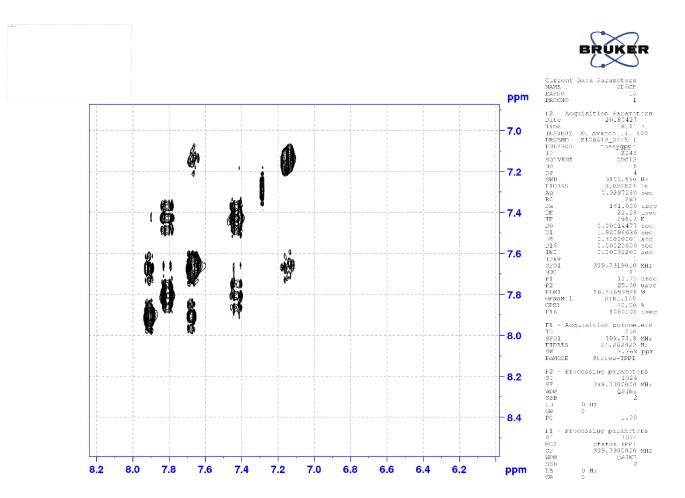
	Current Data Parametera NAME GD4CF EXPNO 10 PROCNO 1
	F2         Acquisition Farametric           Date_         20180427           Time         12.36           INSERTM         KT_Avance_III_4           PROBHD         2108618_0245           PULFROG         cf30           PD         65553           SOLVENT         CDC13           NS         16           DS         22           SWH         8223,685           FIDRES         0.2526967           AQ         3.9845889           RG         406           DW         60.800           DE         18.30           DI         1.50000000           TE         295.8           D1         1.00000000           TC         1           SFOI         399.7324863           NUCL         1H           P1         12.75
	FLW1 16.47693928 F2 - Processing paramete S1 65536 SF 399.730000 WDW EM SSB 0 LB 0.20 33 0 FC 1.00

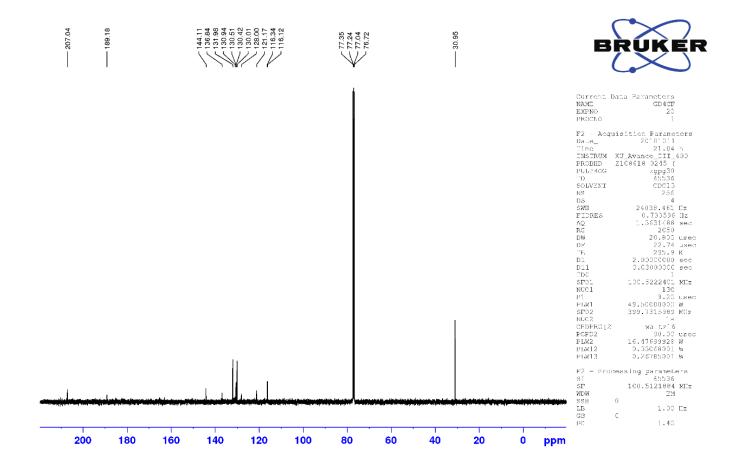




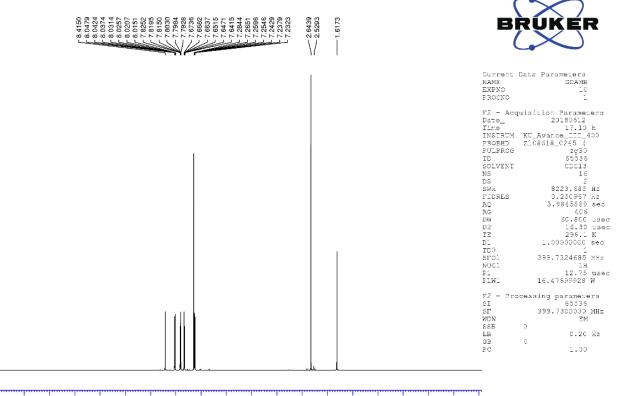




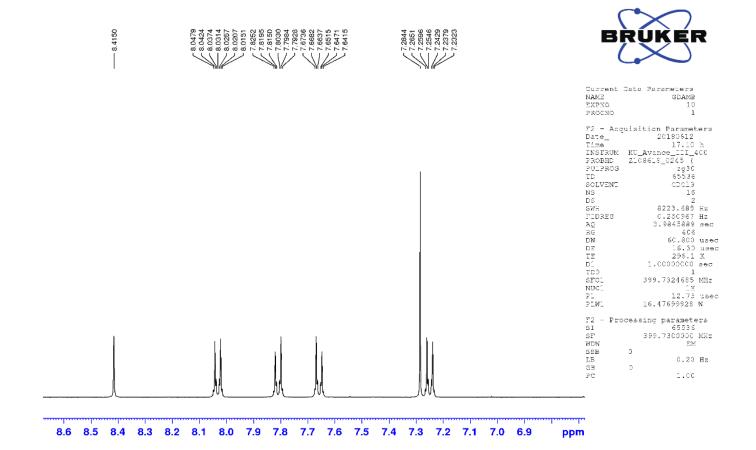


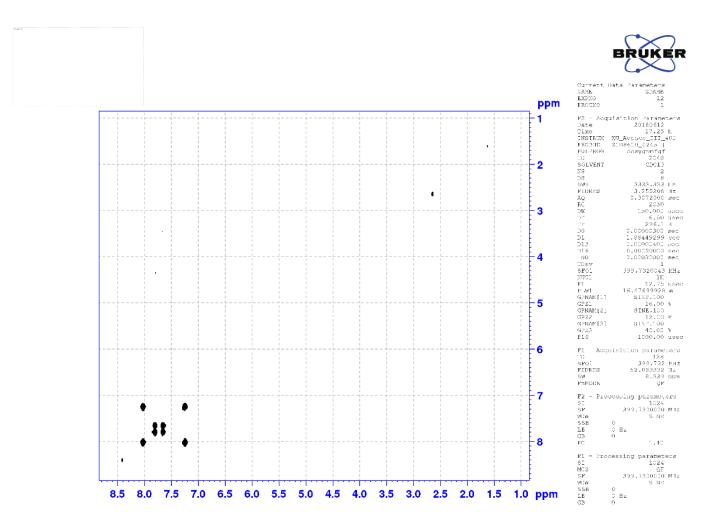


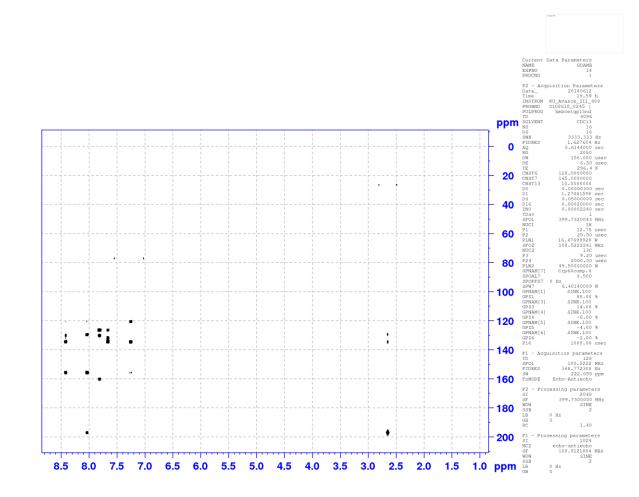
1.9 Compound 9 1.9.1 <sup>1</sup>H NMR

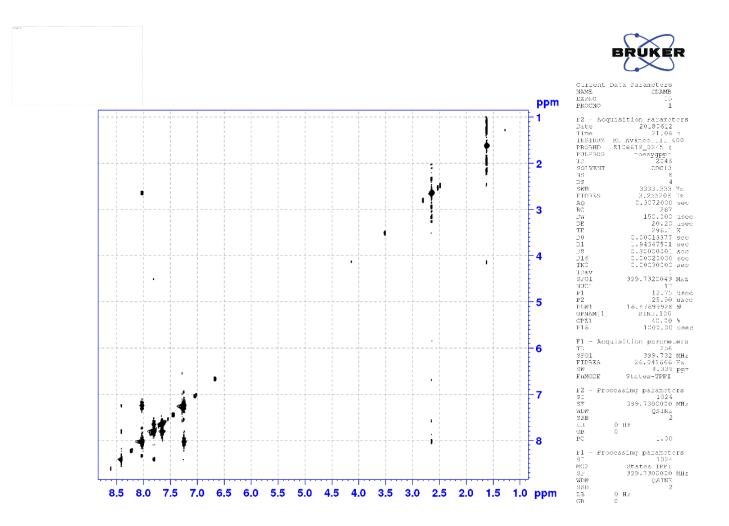


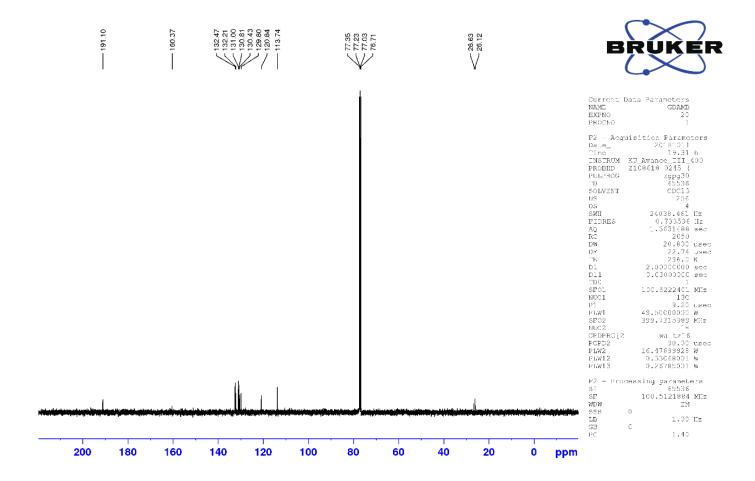
16 15 14 13 12 11 10 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 0 -1 -2 ppm





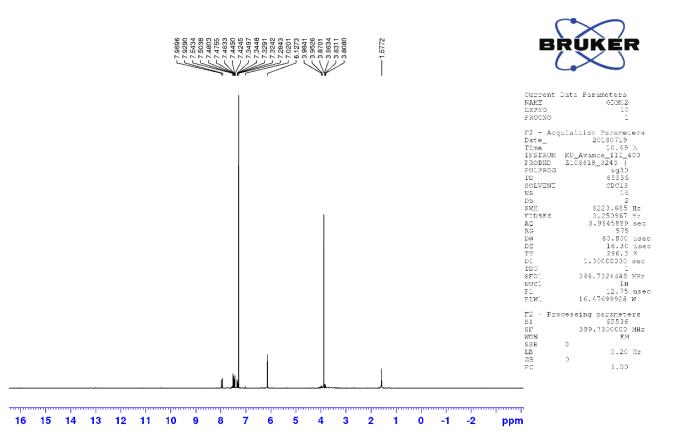


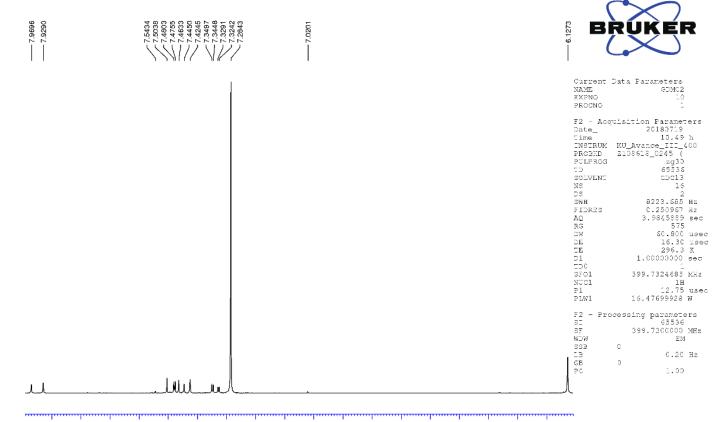




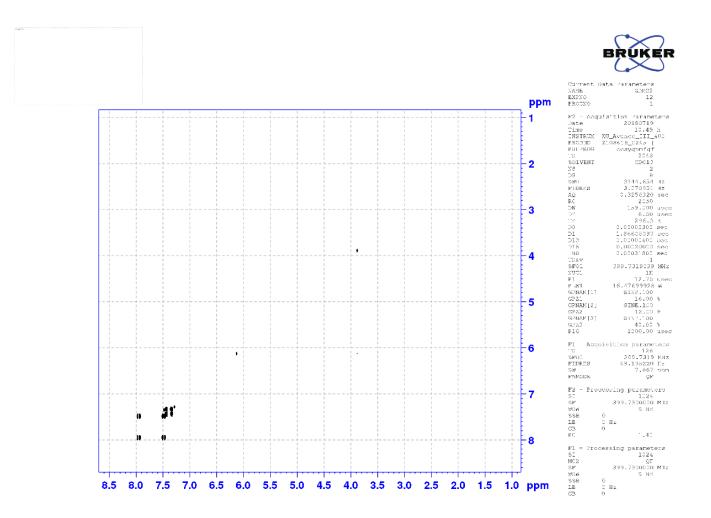
1.10 Compound 10

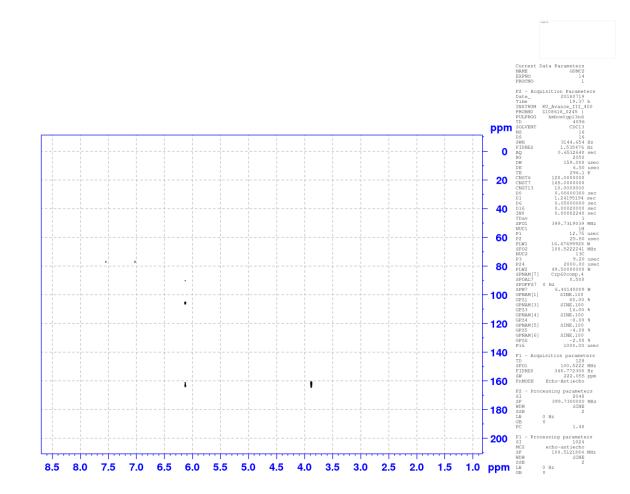
1.10.1 <sup>1</sup>H NMR

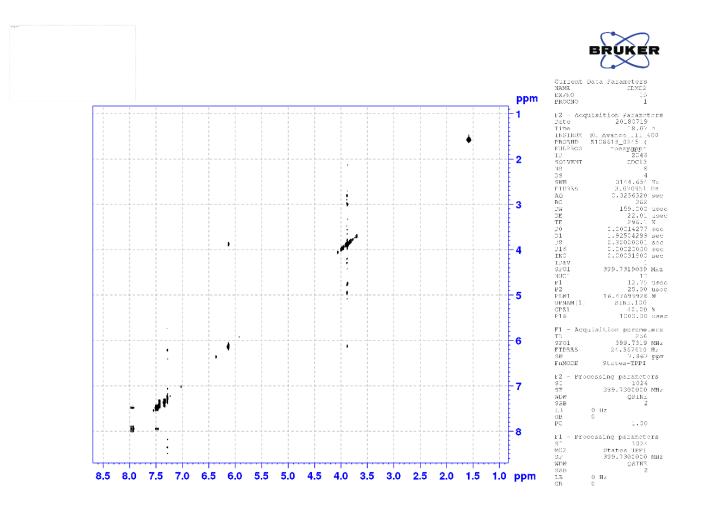


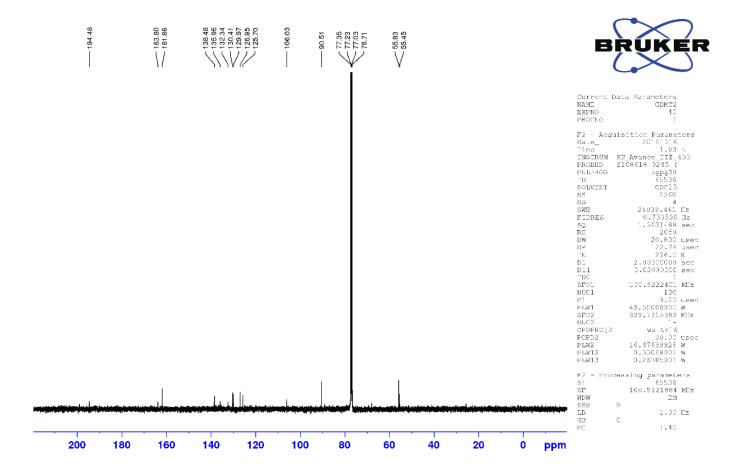


7.9 7.8 7.7 7.6 7.5 7.4 7.3 7.2 7.1 7.0 6.9 6.8 6.7 6.6 6.5 6.4 6.3 ppm



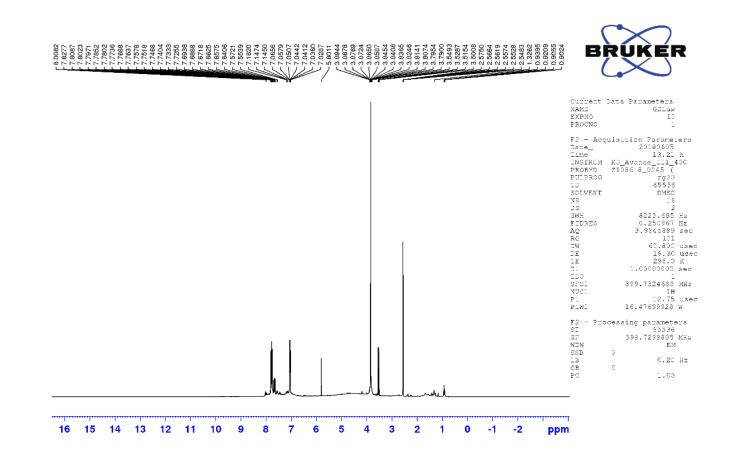






1.11 Compound 11

1.11.1 <sup>1</sup>H NMR

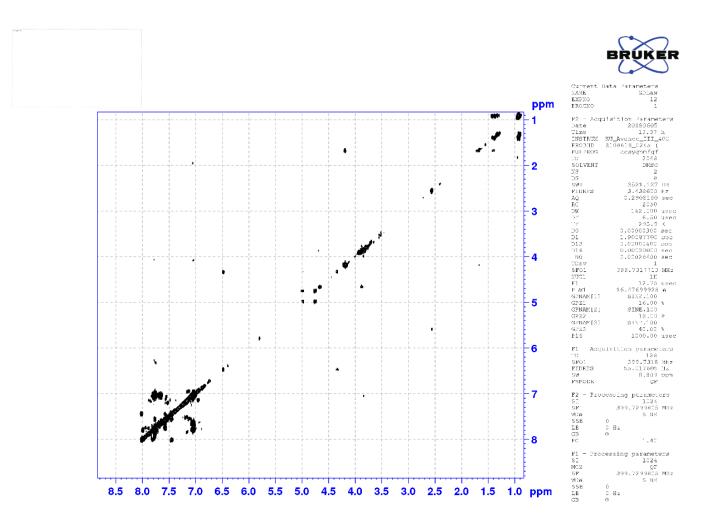


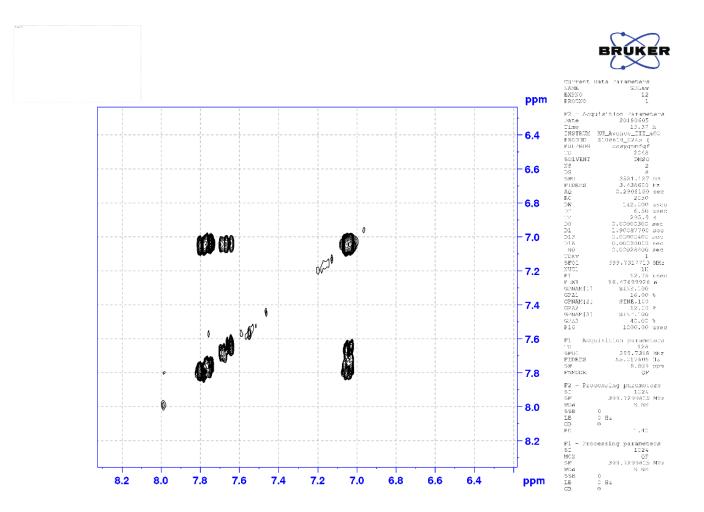
1.11.2 Expansion of aromatic region

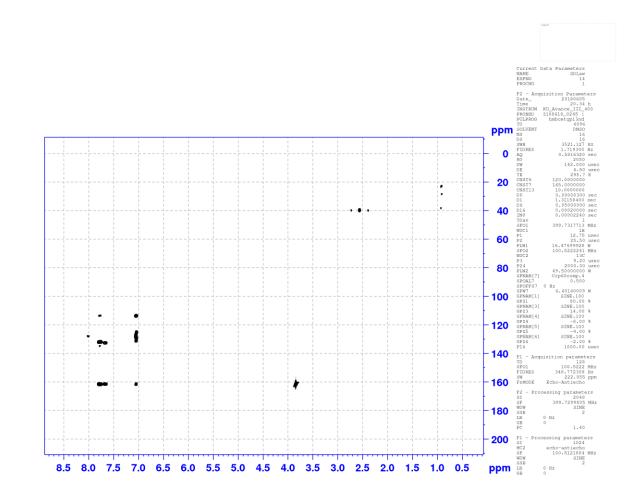


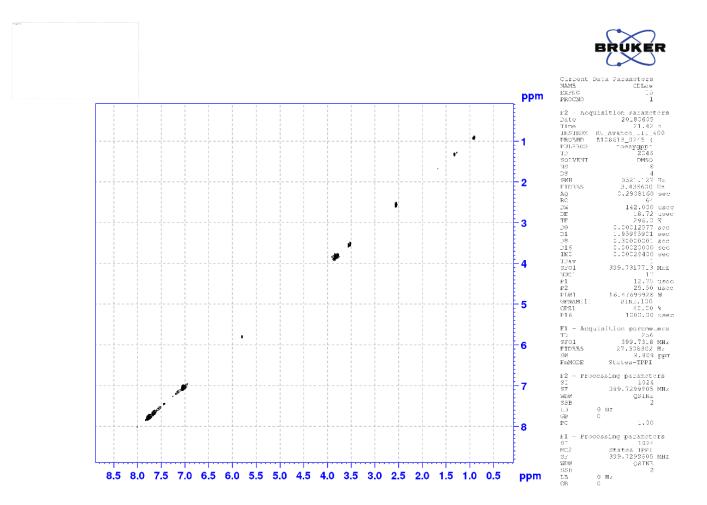
	NAME	GDLaw
	EXPNO	10 1
	PROCNO	1
	-0.	
	32 - Adq.	isition Parameters
	Date_	20180605
	Time	13.21 h
		KU_Avance_III_400
	PROBHD	z1C8618_C245 (
	PULPROG	zg30
	50	65536
	SOLVENT	DMSO
	NS	DMS0 16 2
	DS	2
	SWH	8223.685 Ez
	FIDRES	0.250967 Hz
	AQ	3.9845889 sec
	RG	101
	DW	60.800 usec
	DE	16.30 usec
	TE	296.0 K
	Dl	1.00000000 sec
	TD 0	1
	SF01	399.7324685 MHz
	NUCL	1 H
	91	12.75 used
	PLW1	16.47599928 W
	$\mathbf{Z}^2 = \mathbf{D} \mathbf{x} \mathbf{x}$	essing parameters
	52 1200	63536
	37	399.7299805 MHz
	NDW	EM
A DECEMBER OF	333	Ū
		0.20 Hz
	13 GB	C 0,20 H2
1°1	2C	1.00
NºM XMA		2.00

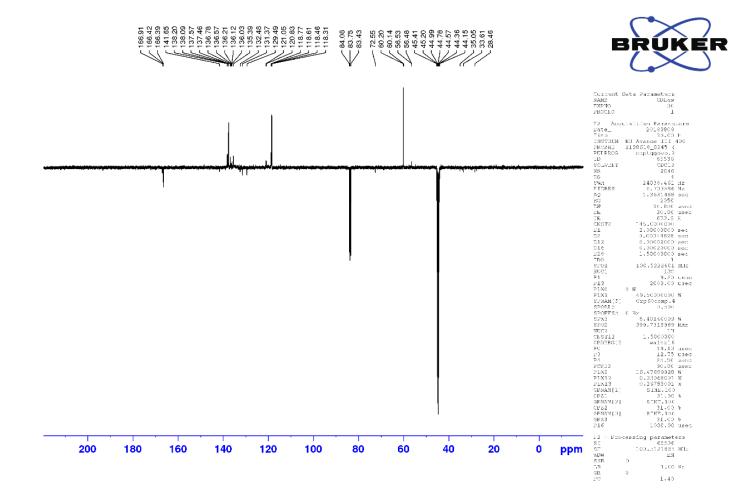
8.3 8.2 8.1 8.0 7.9 7.8 7.7 7.6 7.5 7.4 7.3 7.2 7.1 7.0 6.9 6.8 6.7 6.6 6.5 ppm

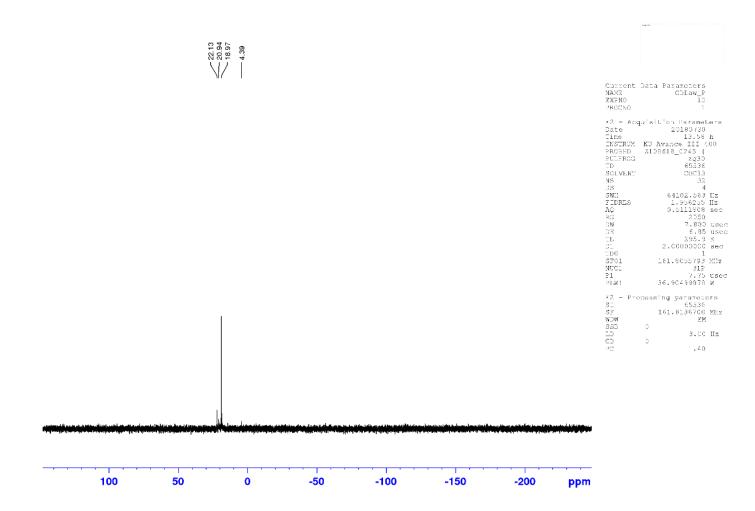


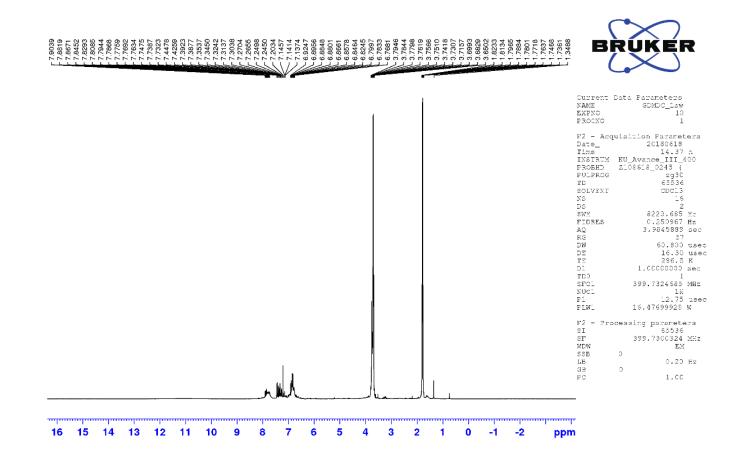




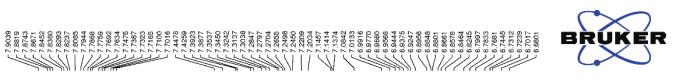






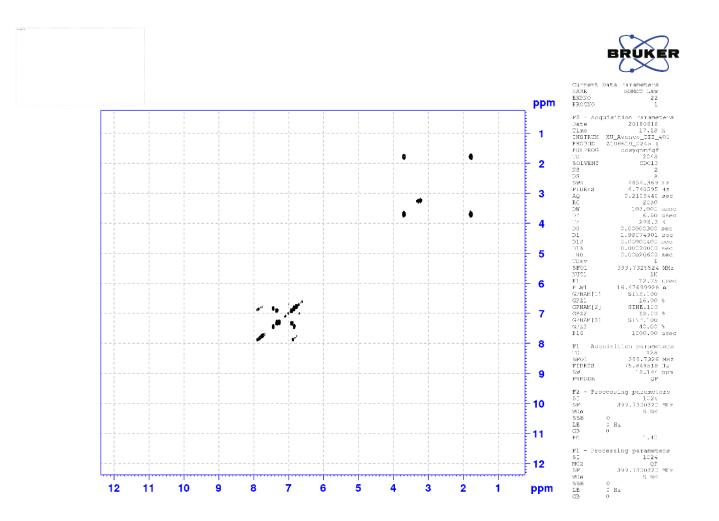


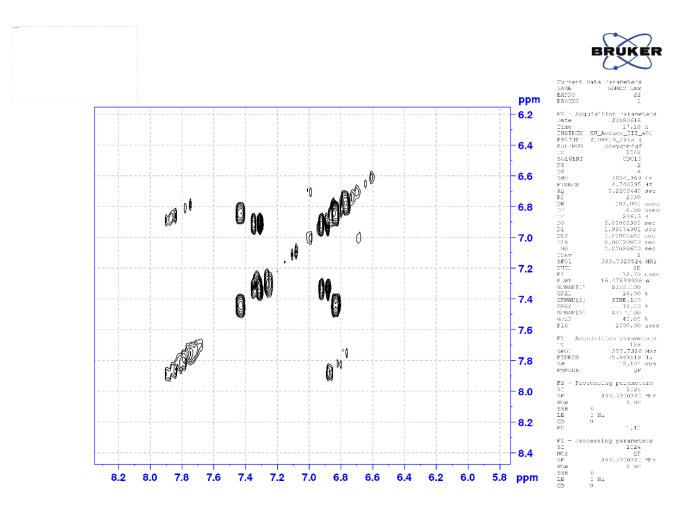
1.12.2 Expansion of aromatic region

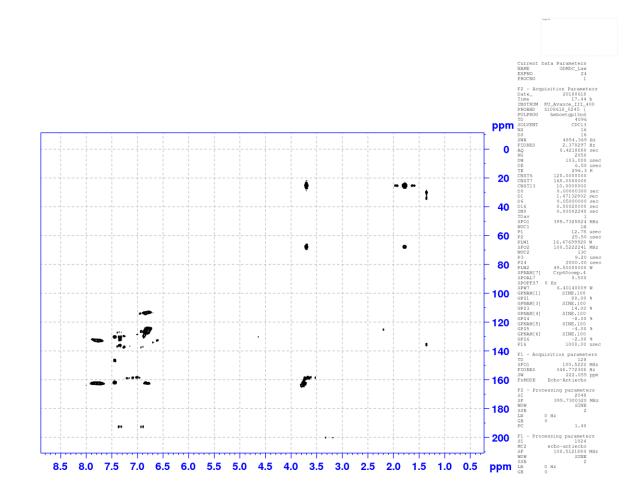


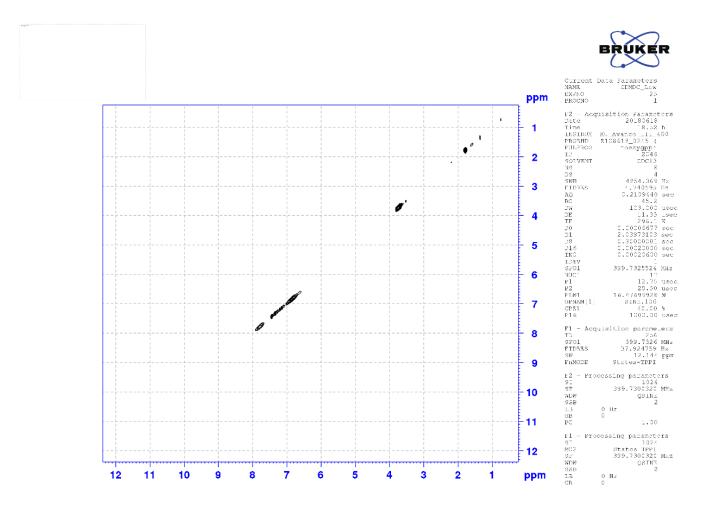
			ELFFERE . NAME EXPNO PROCNO	Data Parameters GDMDC_law 10
				- lisition Parameters
			Date_	20180618
			Time	14.37 h
			INSTRUM PROBHD	KU_Avance_III_400 z108618_0245 (
			PULPROG	2100010_0245 (
			TO DE ROOG	zg30 65536
			SOLVENT	CDC13
			NΞ	16
			03	2
			SWH	8223.685 Hz
			FIDRES	0.250967 Hz
			AQ	3.9845889 sea
			RG DW	57 60.800 use
			⊃~ ⊃E	16.30 use
			TE.	296.5 K
			TE D1	1.00000000 sec
			200	1
			SFOl	399.7324685 MHz
			NUCl	1H
			P1	12.75 use
			PLW1	16.47699928 W
			F2 - Fro	ressing parameters 65536
			50	65536
			SF	393.7300324 MHz
			NOW SSB	EM
			- 3	0.20 Hz
	1		LB GB	0.20
		1 4	PC	1.00
	Mamman A.	1 AWV	- *	
m	www.hum	ment man		
7.9 7.8 7.7 7.6	7.5 7.4 7.3 7.2 7.1	7.0 6.9 6.8 6.7	ppm	

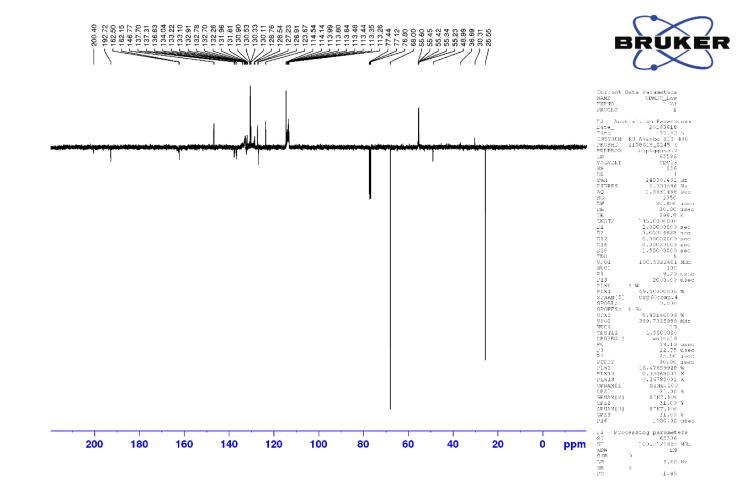
1.12.3 <sup>1</sup>H -<sup>1</sup>H COSY

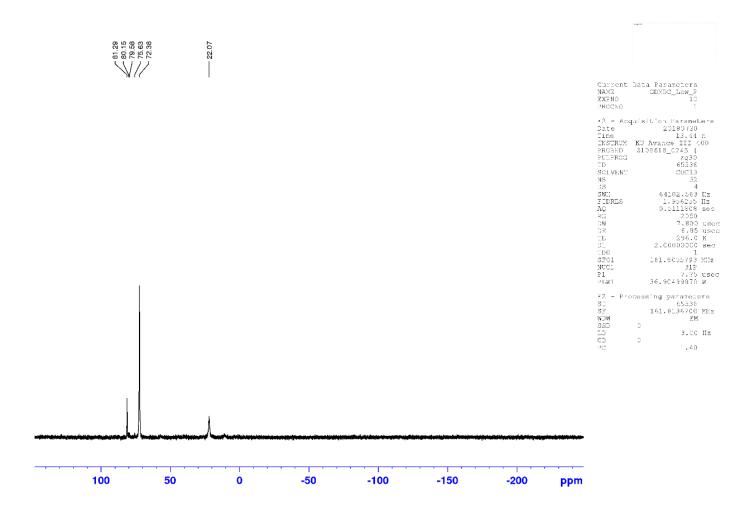


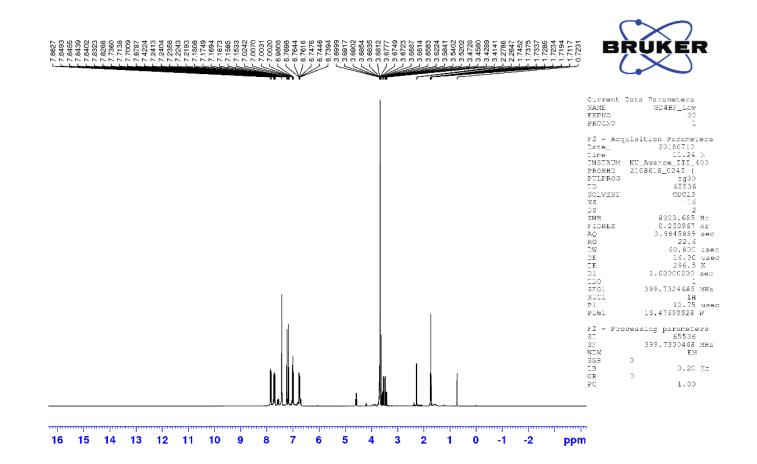




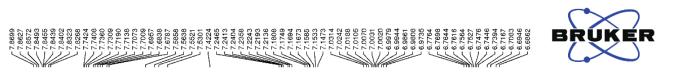






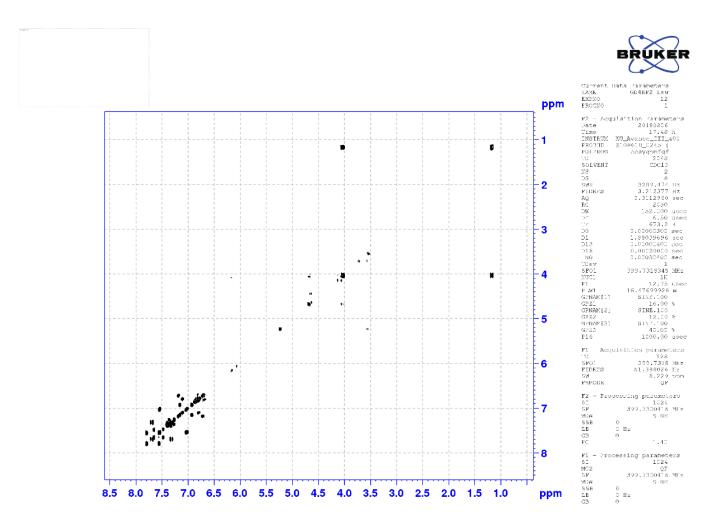


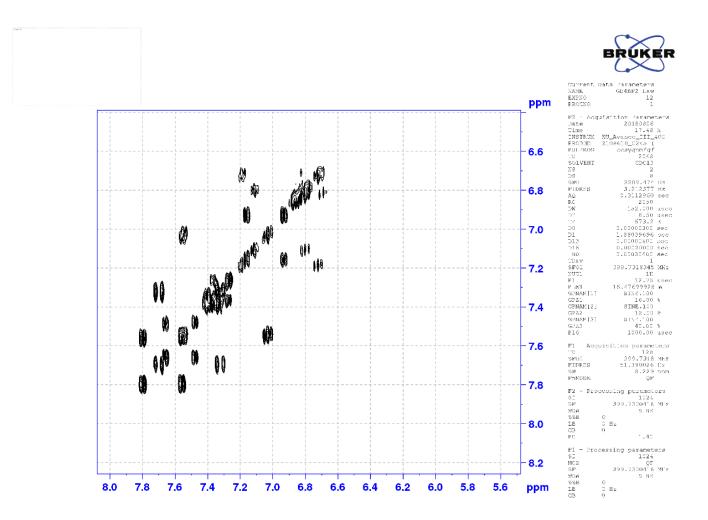
1.13.2 Expansion of aromatic region

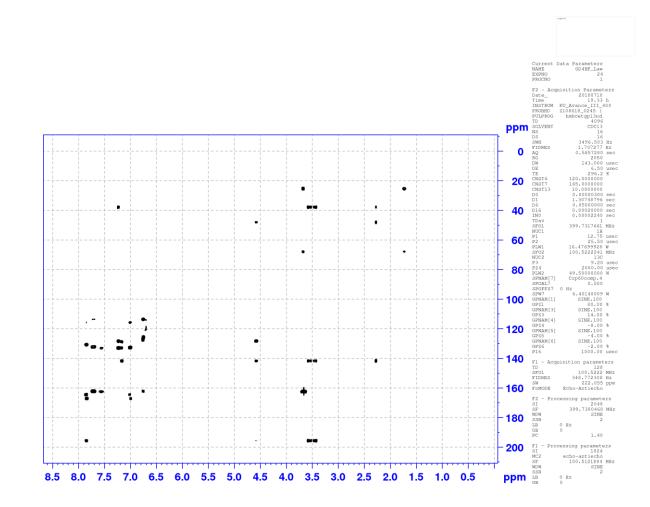


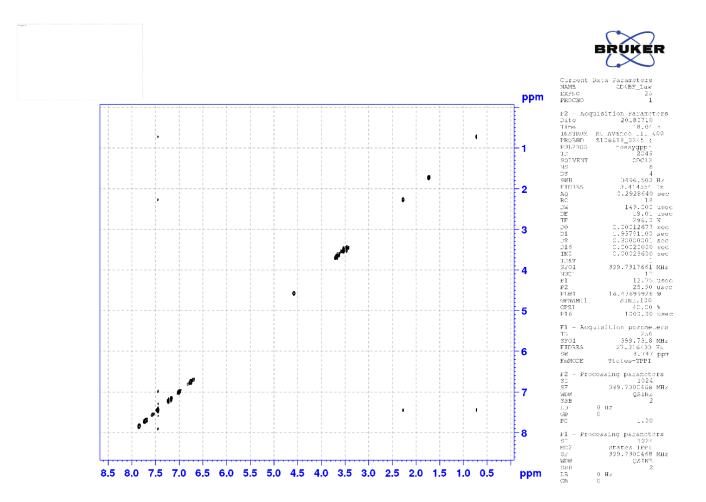
		Current Data Farameters NAME GD4BF_law EXPNO 20 PROCNO 1
		F2 - Acquisition Farameters         Date_       20183710         Time       11.24 h         INSTRUM KU_Arance_III_400       PROBED         PROBED       2108613_0245 (         PULFROG       2033         ID       65536         SOLVENT       CD013         NS       16         DS       2         WH       8223.685 Hz         FIDRES       C.250967 Hz         AQ       3.9845899 sec         RG       22.6         DWH       60.800 usec         DE       16.000000 sec         TD       1.0000000 sec         TD       1.0000000 sec         TD       1.275 usec         PLW1       16.4769928 W         F2 - Processing parameters         ST       0.99.7300468 KHz         WDW       EM         SSB       0         LB       0.200 Hz         GE       0         DSS       0
7.9 7.8 7.7 7.6 7.5 7.4	7.3 7.2 7.1 7.0 6.9	6.8 6.7 ppm

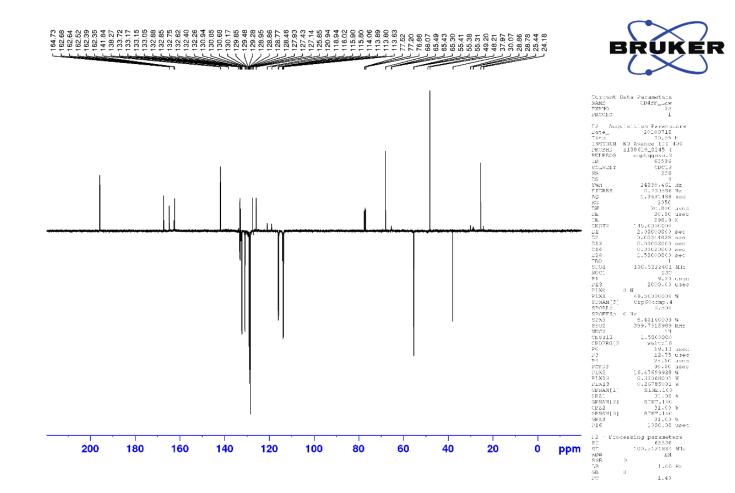
1.13.3 <sup>1</sup>H -<sup>1</sup>H COSY

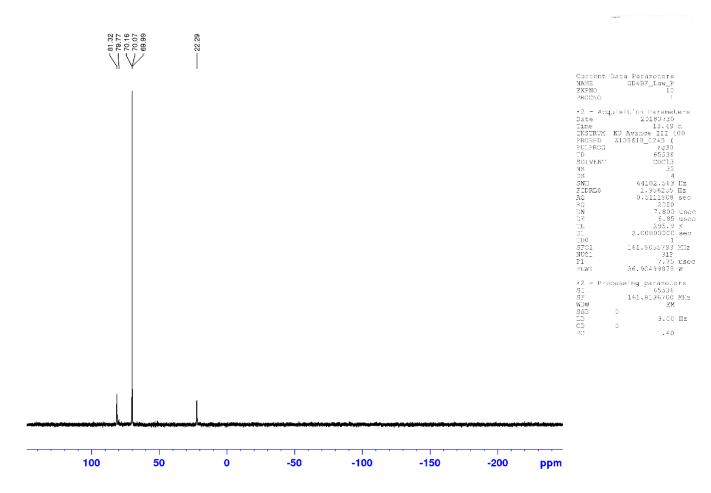




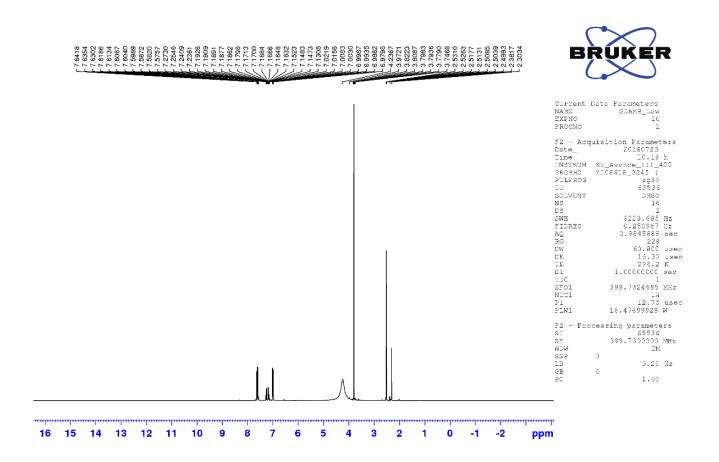








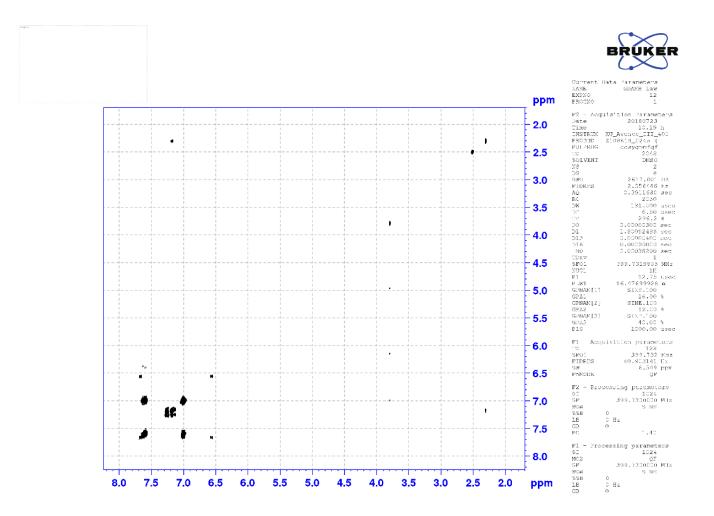
1.14 Compound 14 1.14.1 <sup>1</sup>H NMR

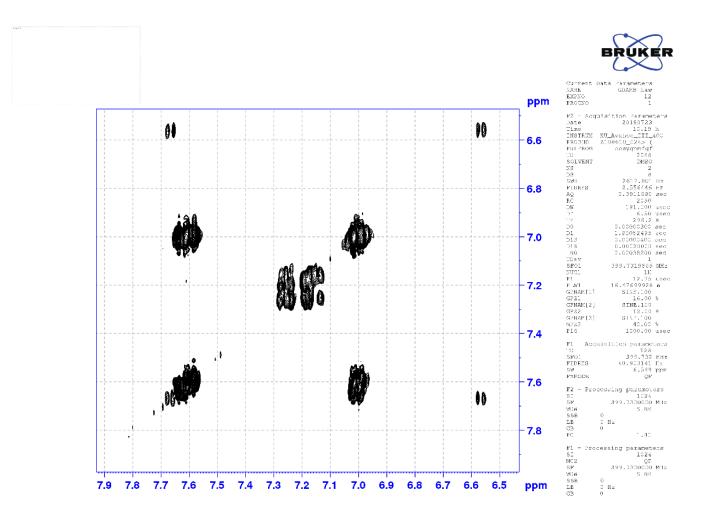


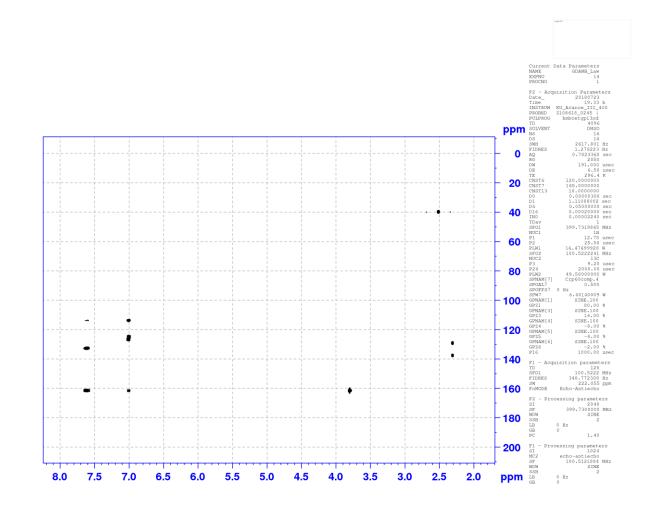
1.14.2 Expansion of aromatic region

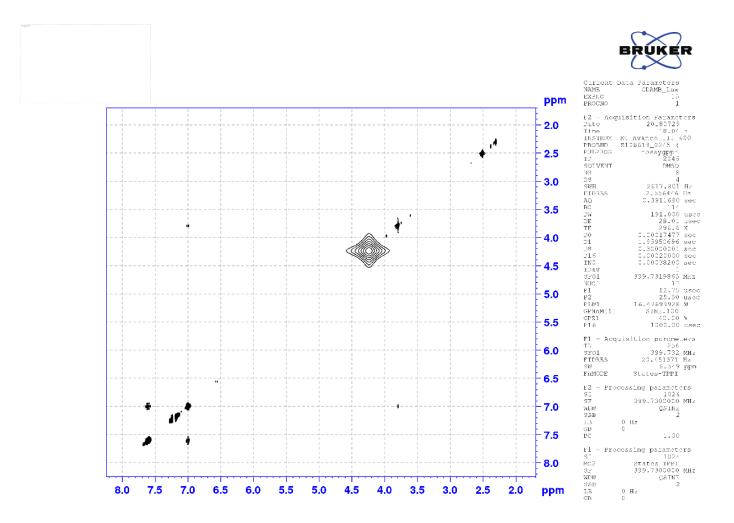
7, 6418 7, 6354 7, 6180 7, 6184 7, 618477, 6084 7, 6084 7, 60847 7, 608477, 60847 7, 60847 7, 608477, 60847 7, 608477, 60847 7, 60847 7, 608477, 608477, 60847 7, 608477, 608477, 6084	7 2546 7 2646 7 2646 7 2646 7 1926 7 1927 7 1926 7 1926 7 1926 7 1927 7 1926 7 1927 7 1927 7 1926 7 1927 7 1927 7 1927 7 1926 7 1927 7 1937 7 19377 7 19377 7 19377 7 19377 7 19377 7 19377 7 19377 7 193777	7.0219 7.0156 7.0030 6.9987 6.9935 6.9935 6.9935 6.9935	BRÚKÉR
			Current Data Parameters NAME GDAME_Law EXFNO 10 PROCNO 1
			F2 - Acquisition Faramete           Date20180723           Tire         10.18 *           INSTRUM_KU_Avance_III_40           PROBHD_2103618_0245 (           PULPROG330           TD         65536           SOLVENTDMSO           NS         16           DS         2           SWH         8223.685 F           FIDRES         0.230967 F           AQ         3.9343889 S           DW         60.800 m           DE         16.30 %           TE         256.2 I           D1         1.00000000 a           TD0         399.7324685 M           NUCL         1H           F1         12.75 0           PUL         16.47699928 W
			P2         Processing parameter           SI         65536           SF         399.7300000           WDW         EM           SS3         0
h Mh M		MM	LB 0.20 H GE 0 FC 1.00

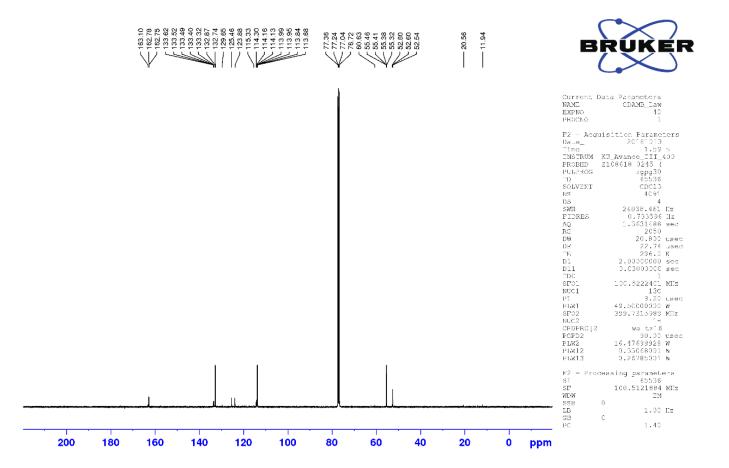
1.14.3 <sup>1</sup>H -<sup>1</sup>H COSY

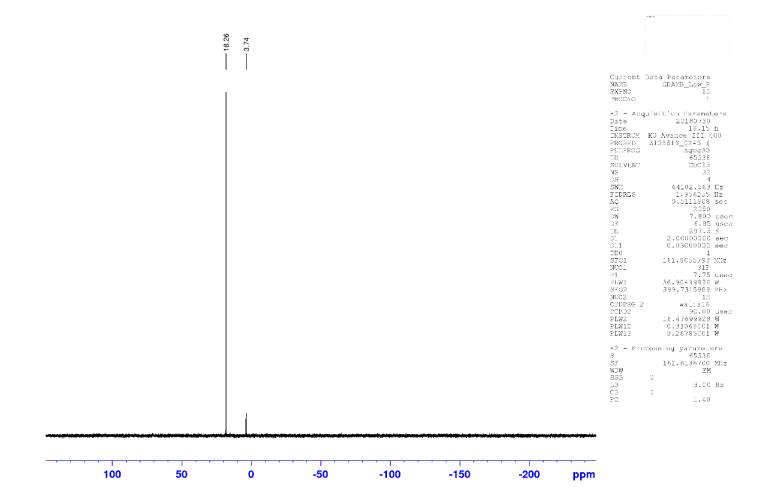




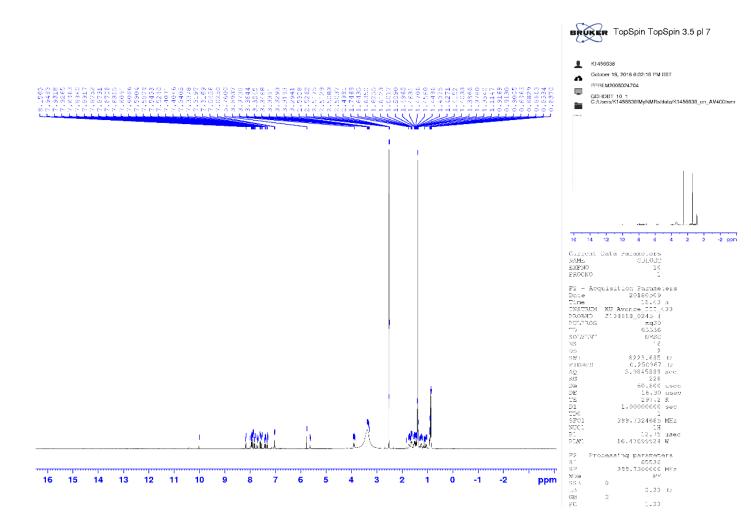




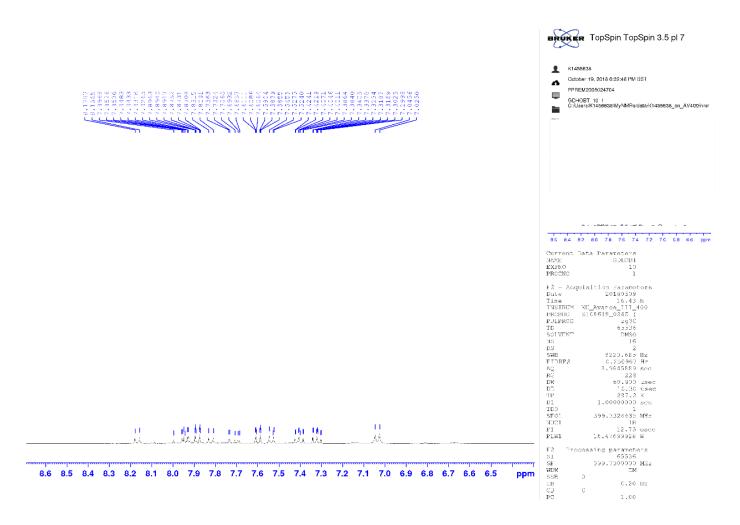


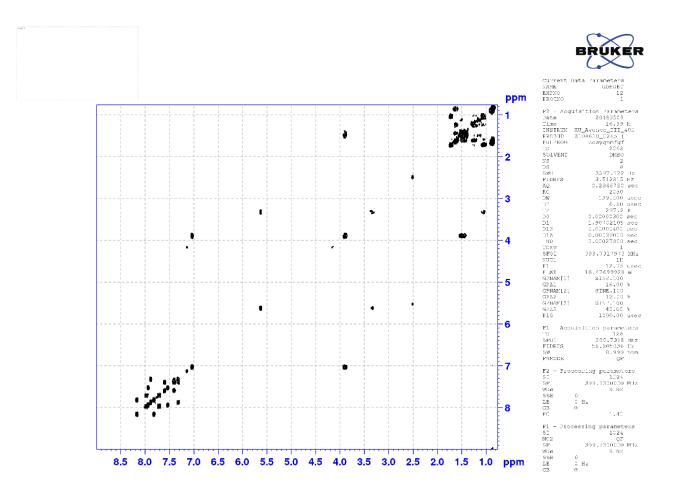


1.15 Compound 15 1.15.1 <sup>1</sup>H NMR

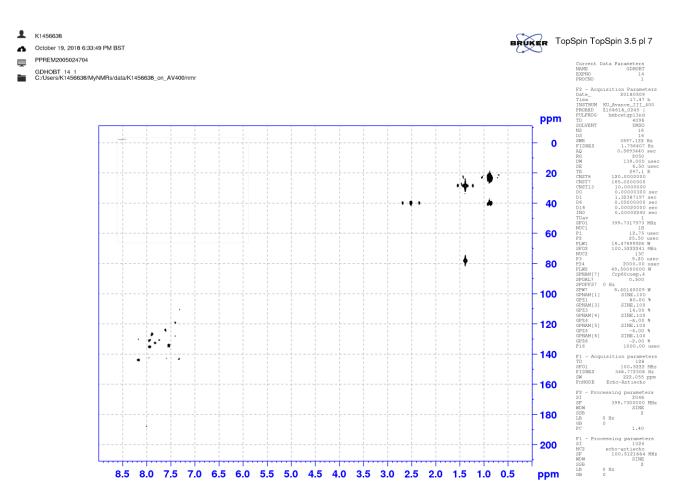


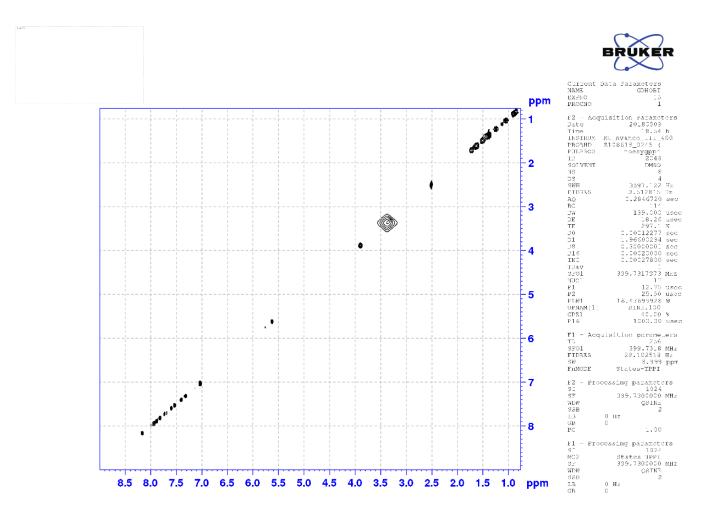
#### 1.15.2 Expansion of aromatic region

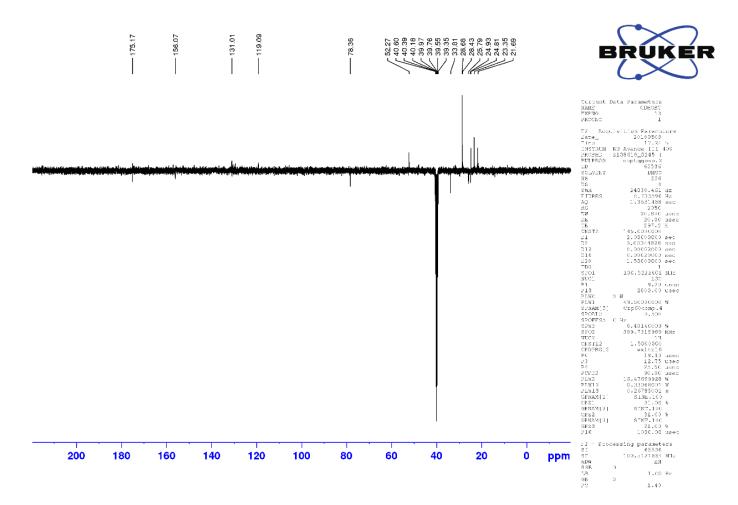




#### 1.15.4 <sup>1</sup>H-<sup>13</sup>C HMBC

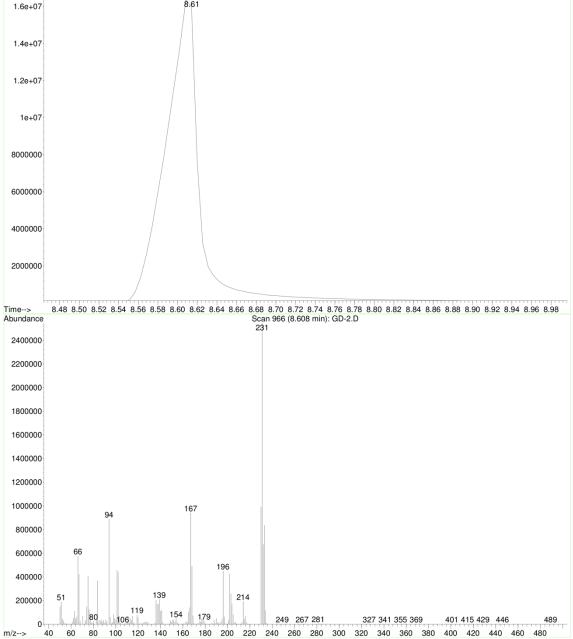




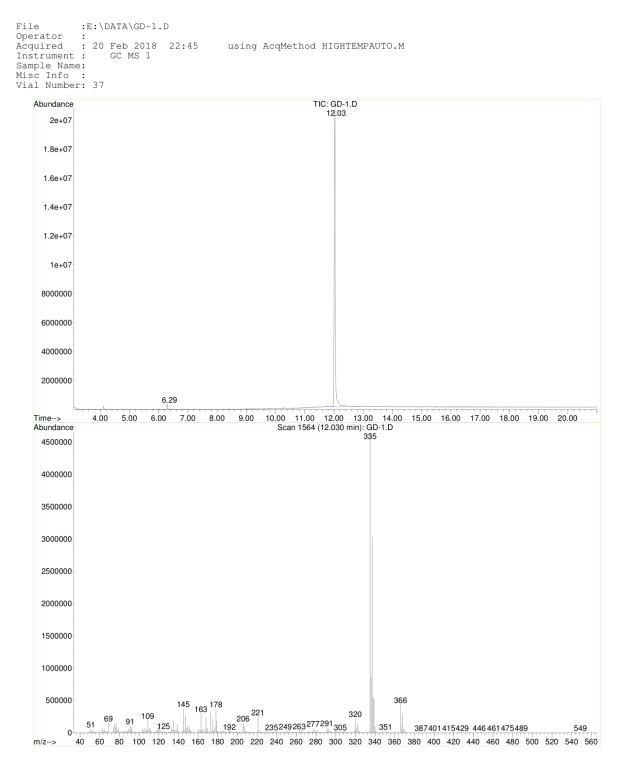


### 2. GCMS 2.1 Compound 1

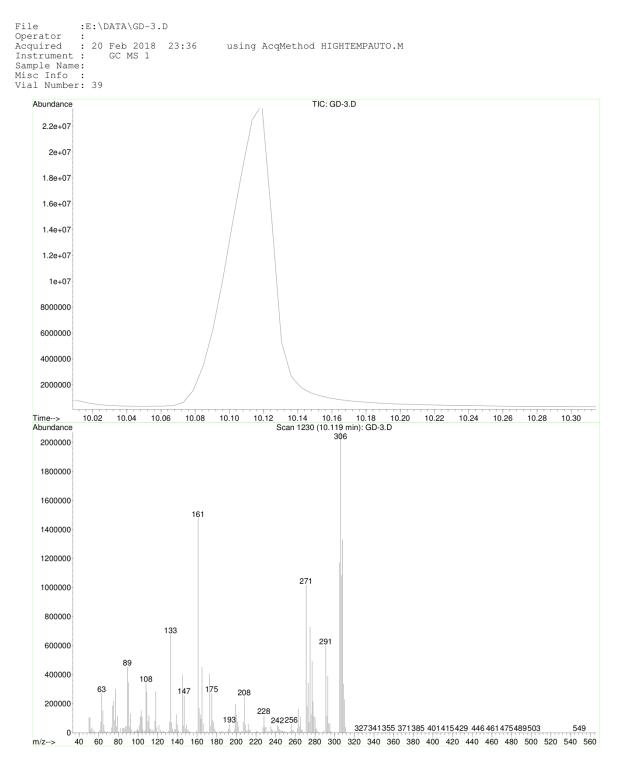




#### 2.2 Compound 2

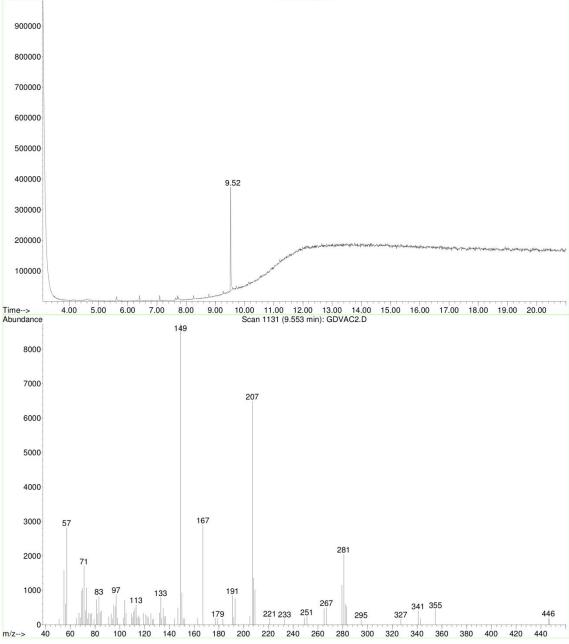


### 2.3 Compound 3



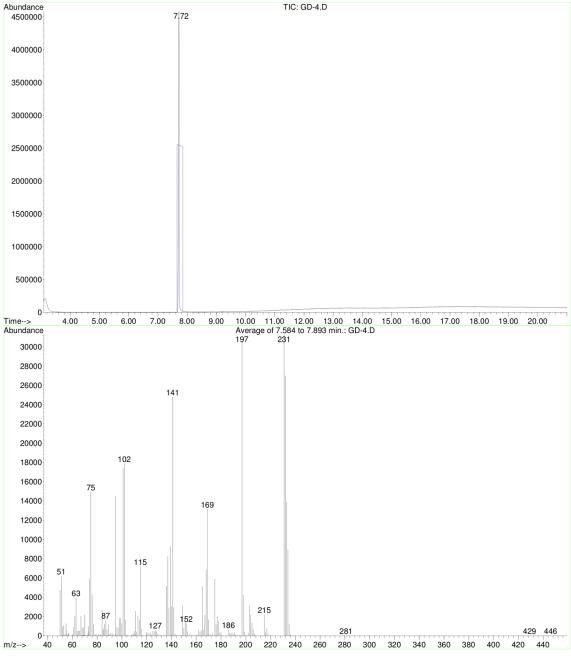
#### 2.4 Compound 4

```
File :E:\DATA\GDVAC2.D
Operator :
Acquired : 19 Oct 2018 9:57 using AcqMethod HIGHTEMPAUTO.M
Instrument : GC MS 1
Sample Name:
Misc Info :
Vial Number: 80
Abundance TIC:GDVAC2.D
```



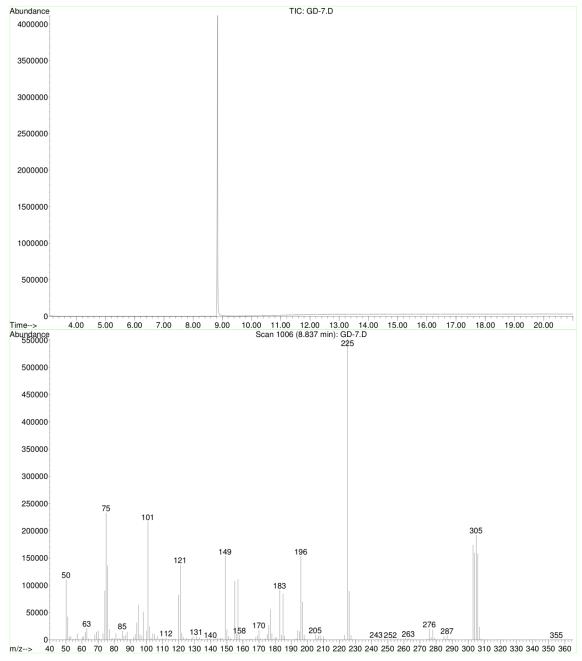
### 2.5 Compound 5

```
File :E:\DATA\GD-4.D
Operator :
Acquired : 10 Jul 2018 11:26 using AcqMethod HIGHTEMPAUTO.M
Instrument : GC MS 1
Sample Name:
Misc Info :
Vial Number: 46
```

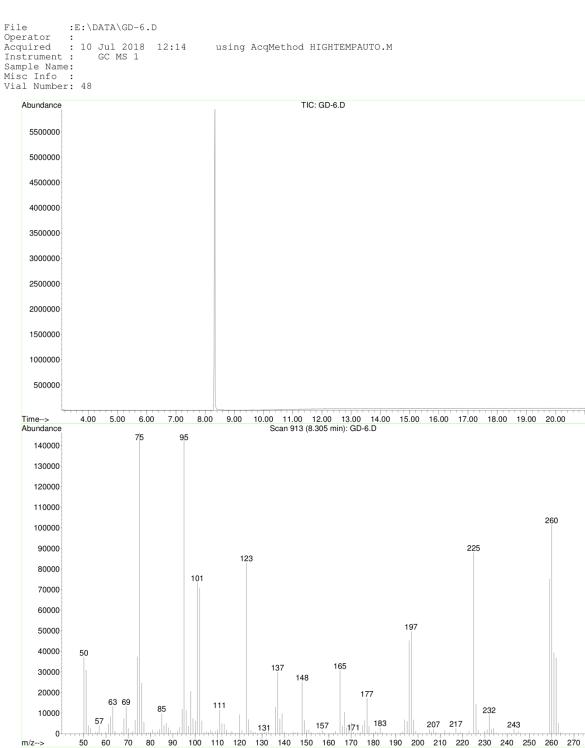


### 2.6 Compound 7

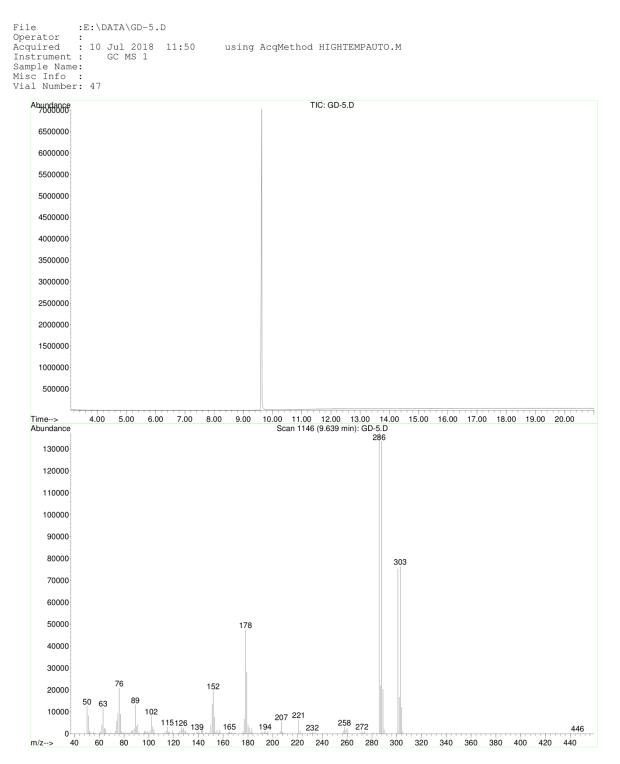
```
File :E:\DATA\GD-7.D
Operator :
Acquired : 10 Jul 2018 12:39 using AcqMethod HIGHTEMPAUTO.M
Instrument : GC MS 1
Sample Name:
Misc Info :
Vial Number: 49
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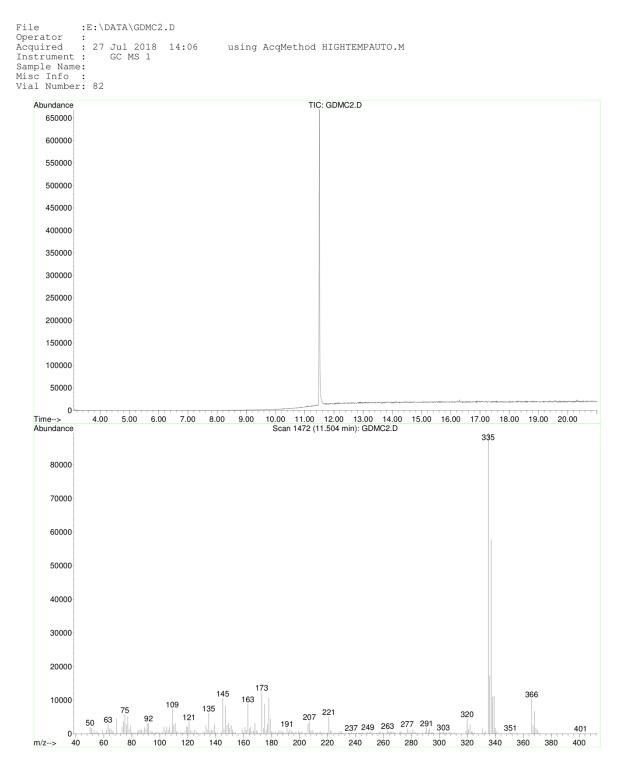
### 2.7 Compound 8



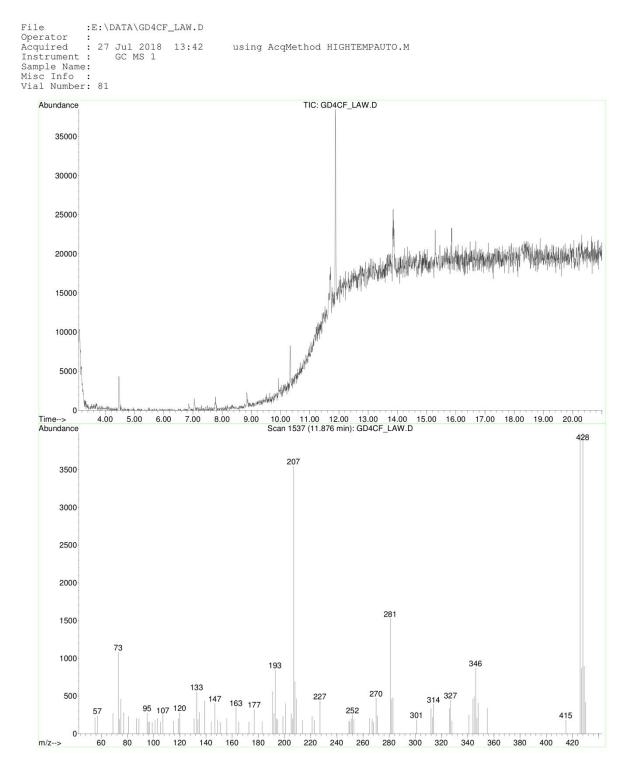
### 2.8 Compound 9



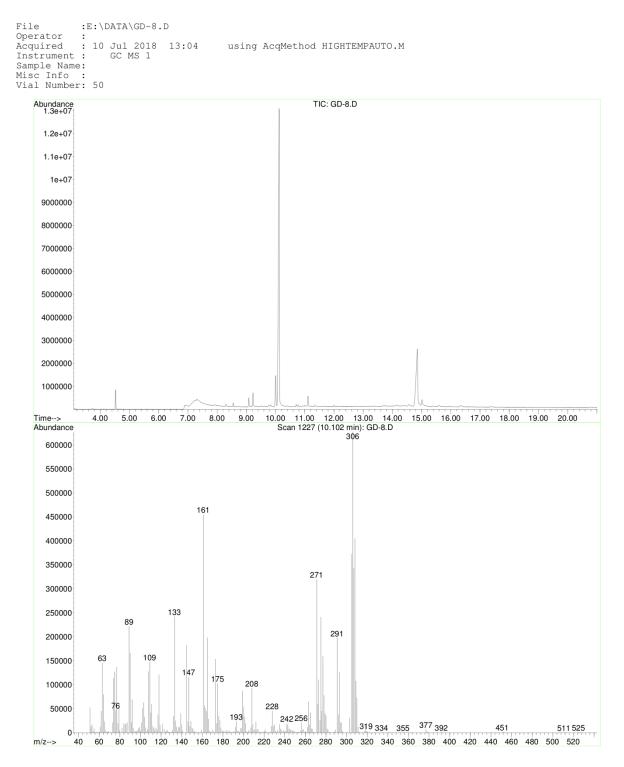
#### 2.9 Compound 10



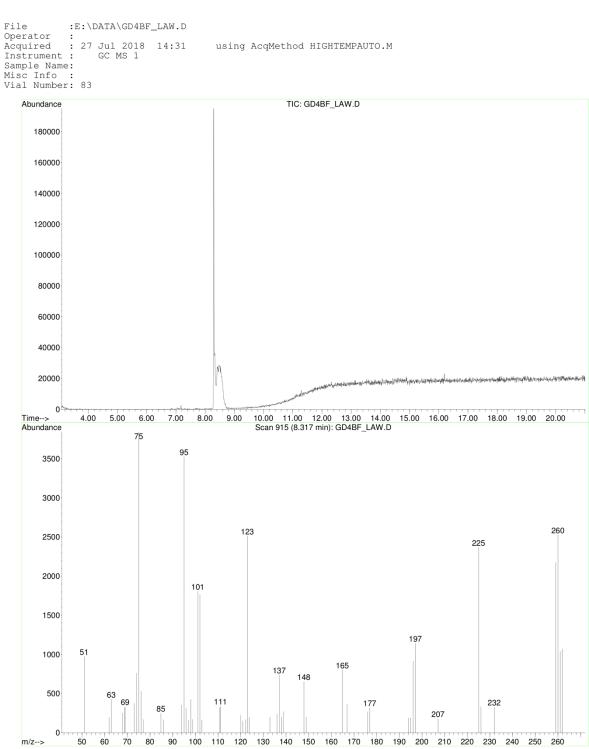
### 2.10 Compound 11



### 2.11 Compound 12



### 2.12 Compound 13



### 2.13 Compound 14

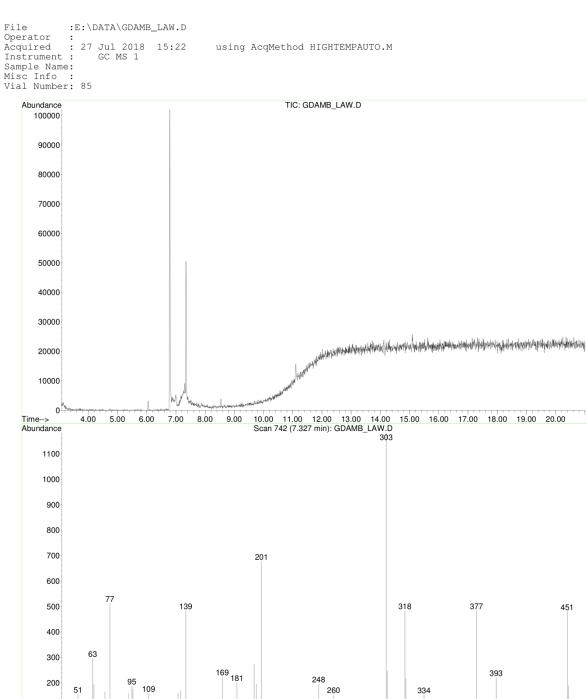
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40

m/z-->

60

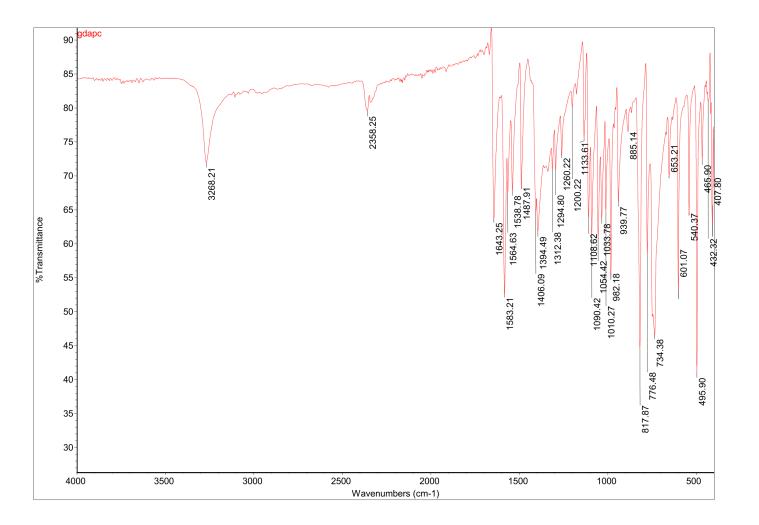
80

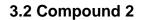


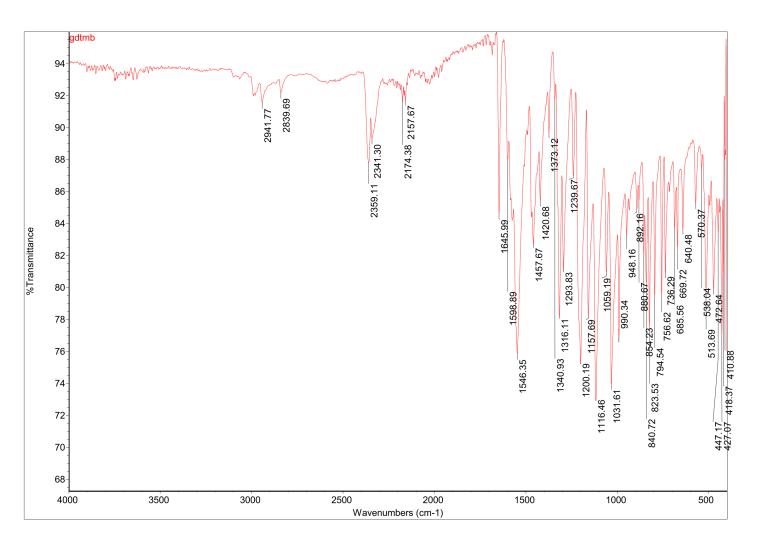
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#### 3. IR Data

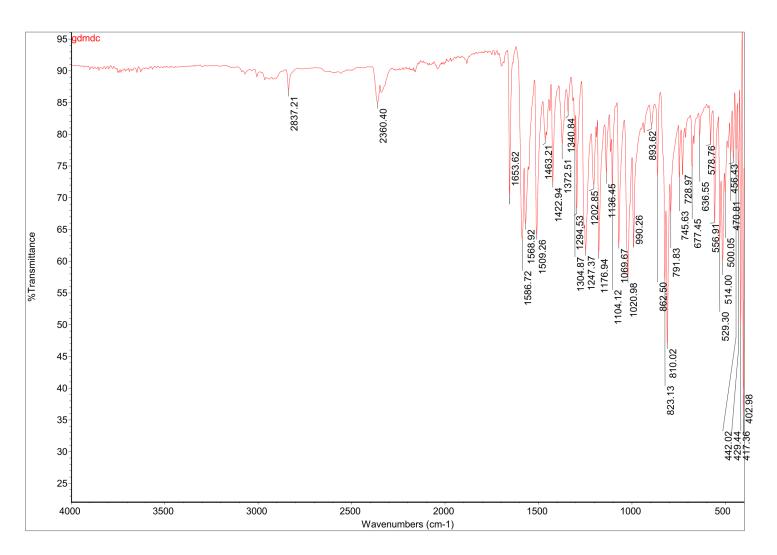
# 3.1 Compound 1



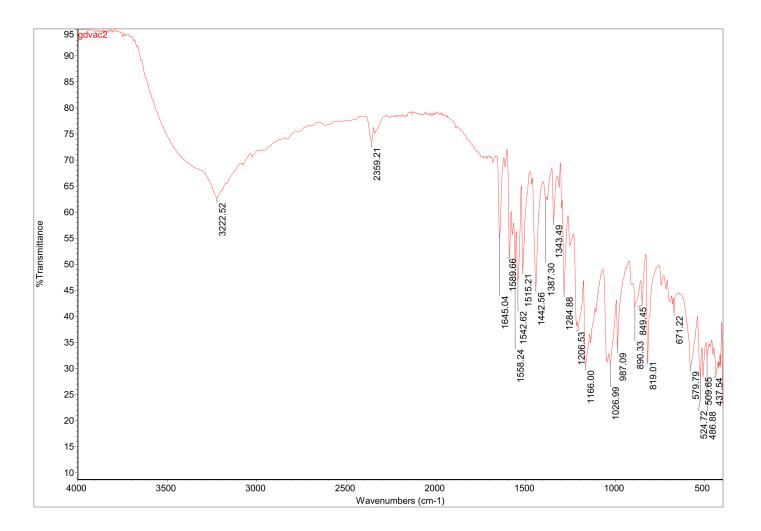




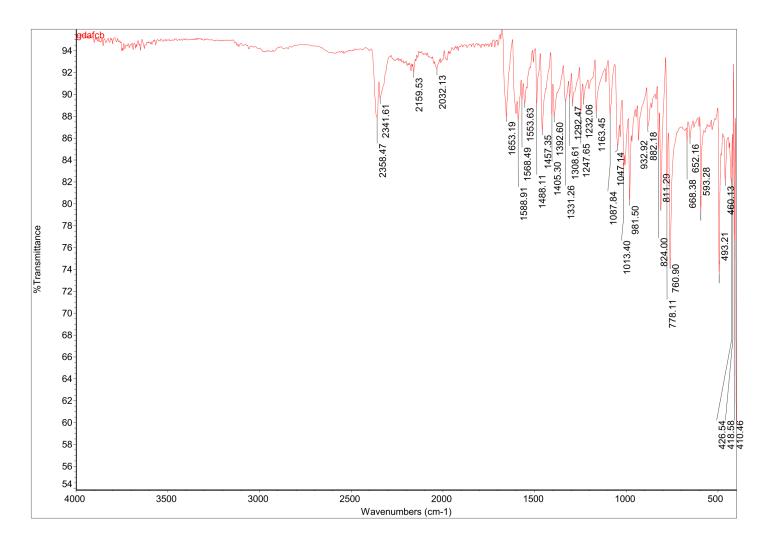
#### 3.3 Compound 3



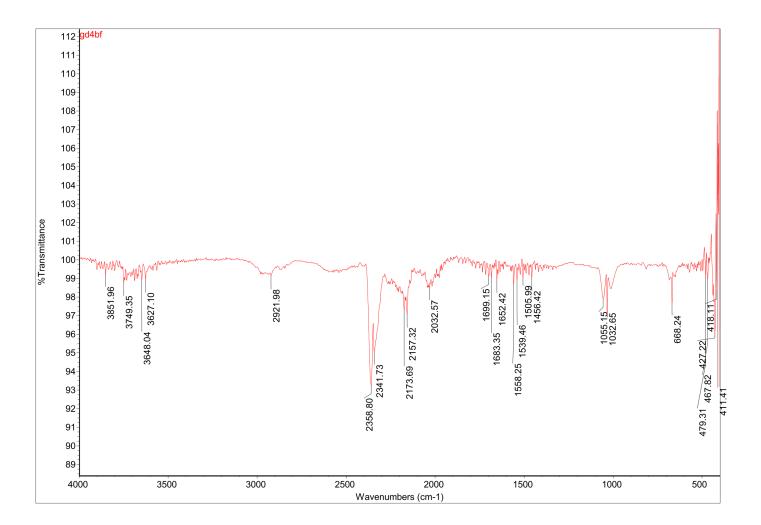
# 3.4 Compound 4



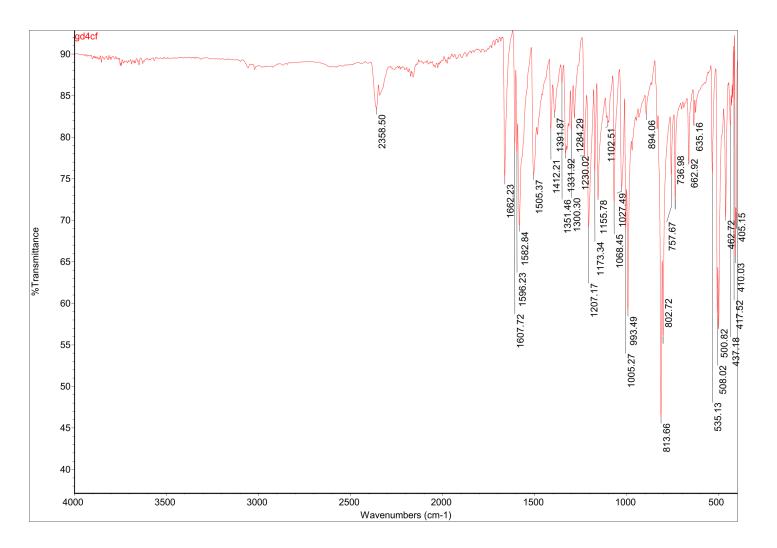
# 3.5 Compound 5



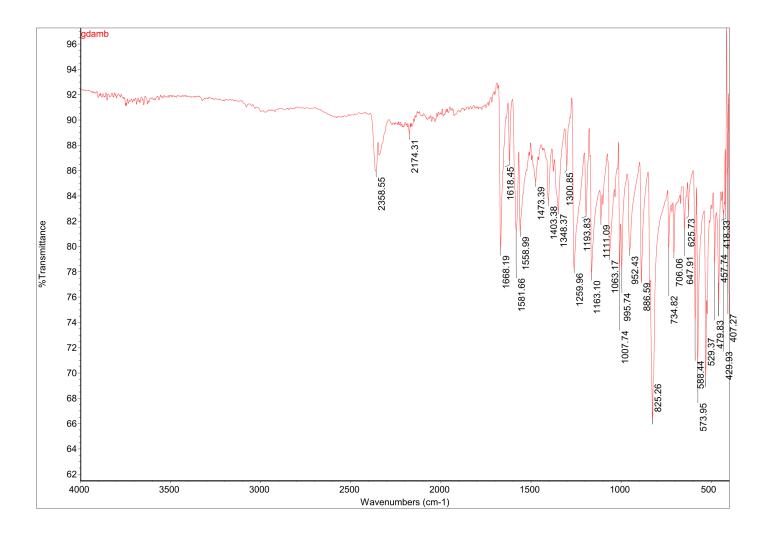
# 3.6 Compound 7



# 3.7 Compound 8



# 3.8 Compound 9



# 3.9 Compound 10

