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Thiazole-pyrazoline hybrids as potential antimicrobial agent: Synthesis, biological evaluation, molecular docking, DFT studies and POM analysis

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A B S T R A C T

In this study, an efficient synthesis of new thiazole-pyrazoline hybrids was investigated and hybrids were screened for their antimicrobial activities against four species of pathogenic bacteria and one fungal strain utilizing the well-diffusion and MIC assays using ciprofloxacin and fluconazole as the positive controls. The obtained results revealed excellent to moderate antibacterial and antifungal activity. Among them, compound **11b** showed potent antibacterial activity against *A. baumannii* with MIC of 16 μg/mL, while ciprofloxacin was ineffective. Molecular docking studies showed that compound **11b** had a stronger binding affinity of about 1 kcal/mol to gram-positive and gram-negative bacteria than compared with compound **11a**. Furthermore, the results of the POM (Petra, Osiris, Molinspiration) bioinformatics investigations show that the two studied heterocycles present a very good non toxicity profile, a bad bioavailability, and pharmacokinetics. Finally, an antibacterial pharmacophore (N^{δ−}, HN^{δ−}) and two antifungal pharmacophores (Nδ−, Sδ−) and (Nδ−, Nδ−) were evaluated in the POM investigations and deserves all our attention to be tested against other pathogenic microorganisms. The more potent compound **11b** compared to that of **11a** can also be attributed to its lower HOMO-LUMO gap which is an indicator of greater reactivity.

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1. Introduction

Heterocyclic analogs have received continuous attention from scientists over the years due to their promising pharmacological characteristics $[1-3]$. They were developed as active agents in the design and discovery of new drug candidates [\[4,5\]](#page-14-0). Interestingly, heterocyclic compounds containing oxygen, nitrogen and sulfur atoms such as thiazoles and pyrazolines are considered as a basic platform for the building blocks of newer entities in medicinal chemistry [\[6\].](#page-14-0) The former are five-membered heterocyclic com-

 $¹$ All these coauthors participated equally to this research.</sup>

pounds that contains a nitrogen and a sulfur (or an oxygen) atom [\[7\],](#page-14-0) while the latter are five-membered heterocyclic compounds that contains two nitrogen atoms $[8,9]$ [\(Fig.](#page-1-0) 1). The aromaticity of sulfur thiazoles is driven by the delocalization of non-bonding electron pairs from electron donating sulfur atoms to electron withdrawing nitrogen atoms to fulfill Huckle's rule [\(Fig.](#page-1-0) 2). The structural pattern of thiazole derivatives can be activated by substituting hydrogen atoms with desirable moieties at positions 2, 4 and 5. To synthesize a thiazole compound, the Hantzsh synthesis still remains the most convenient method, although other methods such as Cook-Heilbron synthesis and Gabriel synthesis has also been used. Although the Hantzsh synthesis is the most convenient method, it often produces low yields. These prompted researchers to search for methods that can produce higher yields. Aldehydes or ketones are generally used as reagents in condensation reactions

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Fig. 1. Generic structures of thiazole and pyrazoline compounds.

Fig. 2. Resonance structures of the thiazole ring.

with primary amines in ethanol or methanol in the synthesis of thiazoles [\[7\].](#page-14-0) The synthesis of pyrazoles can be achieved through various methods which includes, ultrasonic irradiation, microwave irradiation, ionic liquid, grinding technique and the conventional condensation method. Pyrazolines can be produced in a two stage process where the first stage involves the Claisen-Schmidt condensation reaction between acetophenone and aldehyde analogs to produce the desired α , β -enone. The second stage then involves the reaction between the α , β -enone and a hydrazine or a diazoalkane. The pyrazoline structure is an active site that can provide many biological activities [\[8,10\]](#page-14-0).

Thiazole and pyrazoline derivatives can be effectively used as potential anti-microbial $[2,11-14]$, anti-cancer $[15-18]$, antiviral [\[19\],](#page-15-0) anti-inflammatory [\[20–22\],](#page-15-0) anti-oxidant [\[23\]](#page-15-0) agents. Some of these compounds have also shown anti-cholinesterase [\[24,25\]](#page-15-0), anti-malarial [\[2](#page-14-0)[,26\]](#page-15-0), and anti-analgesic [\[27,28\]](#page-15-0) properties. [Fig.](#page-2-0) 3 shows thiazole and pyrazole compounds where (4- (4-bromophenyl)−2-(pyridin-4-yl)thiazole **1** acted as a potent an-tibacterial inhibitor [\[11\].](#page-14-0) Mor et al. combined thiazole and pyrazole pharmacophore moieties in one molecular scaffold and assayed it for inhibitory activity against various bacterial and fungal strains. Among the tested compound, **2** was the found to be the most potent inhibitor [\[29\].](#page-15-0) In another study, Asad and co-workers successfully synthesized a series of novel *N*-trifluoroacetyl-2-pyrazolines and evaluated them for their antibacterial activity against *E. coli* and *P. aeruginosa*. From these tests, Compound **3** exhibited significant inhibitory activity $[12]$. Eissa et al. have reported derivative containing thiazole core **4** as promising anti-fungal agents [\[30\].](#page-15-0)

In light of the above-mentioned findings, we expected that these two active pharmacophores would produce new thiazolepyrazoline hybrids to act as potent novel anti-microbial agents for pharmacological activities against four bacterial strains (*Staphylococcus aureus, Escherichia coli, Pseudomonas aeruginosa,* and *Acinetobacter baumannii*) and one fungal strain (*Candida albicans*). Computational investigation of their structure and reactivity was also carried out *via* conceptual density functional theory (CDFT), molecular docking studies and POM (Petra/Osiris/Molinspiration) analysis in order to identify the factors responsible for their relative biological activity towards the various bacterial strains.

2. Results and discussion

2.1. Chemistry

1-(4-((4-chlorobenzyl)oxy)phenyl)ethan-1-one **7** was prepared in excellent yield (97%) based on Williamson synthesis of ether

by direct benzylation of *para*–hydroxy acetophenone **5** with 4 chlorobenzylchloride **6**, in the presence of anhydrous potassium carbonate in ethanol. The synthesis of pyrazoline derivatives **(9ab)** accomplished *via* the condensation reaction of compound **7**, substituted benzaldehydes **(8a-b)** with thiosemicarbazide in dilute ethanolic sodium hydroxide solution [\[31\].](#page-15-0) Treatment of derivatives **(9a-b)** with bromophenacylbromide **10** in boiled ethanol afforded titled compounds **(11a-b) (**[Scheme](#page-3-0) 1).

The structures of synthesized thiazoles **(11a-b)** were characterized by FT-IR, 1 H NMR, 13 C NMR, and UV–Vis. spectroscopic measurement. The FT-IR data of condensed thiazoles **(11a-b)** showed two bands at (1591–1602) cm⁻¹ and (1552–1512) cm⁻¹ attributed to C=C and C=N stretching vibrations, respectively. Moreover, the disappearance of $(NH₂)$ stretching vibrations of the carbothioamide group attached to the pyrazoline ring at $(3400-3200)$ cm⁻¹ was very informative and good evidence for the formation of thiazole rings in the desired compounds. The $1H$ NMR spectra of thiazoles **(11a-b)**, displayed three doublet to doublets (dd) peaks, because of the ABX spin system, which is the result of nonequivalence of three protons attached to the C_{11} and C_{12} carbon atoms of the pyrazoline ring. The 1H NMR spectral measurement of thiazole **(11a)**, showed three (dd) doublet to doublet signals at (3.29, 3.86 and 5.60) ppm for (-CH₂₋H_a-C₁₁, -CH₂₋H_b-C₁₁ and -CH-H_x-C₁₂) consequently, also three singlet signals to $(-O-CH₂-C₁₇, -O-CH₂-C₅$ and -CH–C₂₄) groups were appeared at $(5.01, 5.10$ and $6.81)$ ppm respectively, and the other peaks between (6.92–7.73) for aromatic hydrogen atoms. Whereas**,** the 1H NMR spectrum of thiazole **(11b)**, exhibited three (dd) doublet to doublet signals at (3.32, 3.87 and 5.59) ppm for (-CH₂₋H_a-C₁₁, -CH₂₋H_b-C₁₁ and -CH-H_x-C₁₂) consequently. On the other hand, three singlet signals to $(-O-CH₂-C₁₉)$ -O-CH_{2–}C₅ and –CH–C₂₈) groups were appeared at (5.02, 5.08 and 6.77) ppm respectively, and the other signals between (6.86–8.25) for 20 aromatic protons

The 13C NMR spectra of thiazole compounds **(11a-b)** showed four characteristic peaks in the high field region corresponding to (C_{11} , C_{12} , C_{17} and C_{5}) and (C_{11} , C_{12} , C_{19} and C_{5}) carbon atoms at [(43.51, 64.05, 69.22 and 69.28) and (43.56, 64.42, 68.69 and 69.33)] ppm for each compound **(11a-b)** respectively. A characteristic band at (165.15 and 165.12) ppm attributed to $(S-C=N)$ (C_{22} and C26) carbon atoms for each synthesized compound **(11a-b)** confirm the expected structure of thiazole ring. The UV–Vis. spectra of synthesized thiazoles **(11a-b)** show a blue shift with respect to λ_{max} of the reactant pyrazolines **(9a-b)** in the range (294–360) nm, since it gave λ_{max} in the range (218–254) nm, which is attributed to cyclization of thiocarbamyl group.

2.2. Antibacterial and antifungal activities

The antibacterial and antifungal activities of synthesized compounds **(11a-b)** were evaluated *in vitro* against *S. aureus, E. coli, P. aeruginosa, A. baumannii* and *C. albicans*. The newly synthesized compounds were evaluated as antibacterial and antifungal references, in comparison to ciprofloxacin and fluconazole. The results of the antimicrobial activity tests and the minimum inhibitory concentrations (MICs) of compounds **(11a-b)** are summarized in [Fig.](#page-3-0) 4 and [Table](#page-2-0) 1. Compound **11b** showed interesting antibacterial activity at the concentration used, in particular against *E. coli, A. baumannii, S. aureus* and *P. aeruginosa* with inhibition diameters of 25, 23, 22 and 22 mm, respectively, compared to ciprofloxacin with zones of inhibition of 28, 30 and 28 mm diameter, while ciprofloxacin was ineffective against *A. baumannii*.

The MIC for **11b** showed inhibition at 16 μg/mL against *S. aureus, E. coli* and *A. baumannii*, however, *S. aureus* had a smaller standard error of 0.022 than the other bacterial strains. Also, compound **11b** showed potent antibacterial activity against *P. aeruginosa* at 8 μg/mL, and the standard error was 0.012. Furthermore,

Fig. 3. Reported antimicrobial inhibitors which contain pharmacophores such as thiazole, pyrazoline and our newly designed compounds.

The MIC values in μg/mL exhibited by the tested compounds **(11a-b)** against selected species of microorganisms using the microplate serial dilution method.

Compounds	MIC values in μ g/mL expressed by the test compound							
	Bacterial strains	Fungi						
	Staphylococcus aureus	E. coli	Pseudomonas aeruginosa	Acinetobacter baumannii	Candida albicans			
11a	32	16	16	32	32			
11 _b	16	16		16	32			
Ciprofloxacin		0.5	0.5	-	-			
Fluconazole	-	-	-	-	16			

compound **11a** showed a good antibacterial activity against *E. coli, A. baumannii, S. aureus* and *P. aeruginosa* with inhibition diameters of 24, 21, 20 and 19 mm respectively. The MIC for **11a** highly inhibited *E. coli* and *P. aeruginosa* at 16 μg/mL, and the standard errors were 0.024 and 0.027 respectively.

On the other hand, the antifungal results shown in Table 1, the antifungal activities of compounds **(11a-b)**, showed considerable antifungal activity against *C. albicans* with 12- and 16-mm diameter zones of inhibition, respectively, compared to fluconazole with 24 mm diameter zone of inhibition. The MIC for **(11a-b)** against *C. albicans* showed inhibition at 32 μg/mL. The standard error for **11a** was 0.024. Based on the antibacterial and antifungal results listed in Table 1, it may be concluded that compounds **(11a-b)** exhibited a broad spectrum of antibacterial activity against all tested.

Regarding the derivatives **(11a-b)**, it was found that the presence of an electron-withdrawing group on the terminal phenyl ring of the pyrazoline moiety enhanced the antibacterial activity. Replacing the chlorine atom at the para position with nitro at the meta position enhanced the antibacterial activity and the meta position was preferred. The nitro atom is also superior to the halogens for monosubstituted derivatives in terms of effectiveness, since it has a higher electronegativity. In addition, with respect to SAR studies of synthesized compounds as antibacterial agents, it was discovered that there is no specific substituent on the phenyl ring directly bonded to the pyrazoline nucleus of compounds **(11a-b)**. This could determine the activity of electron withdrawing groups and enhanced antibacterial activity to be attributed to the improvement of the physicochemical properties and thus, to the im-

Scheme 1. Synthesis of hybrids **(11a-b)**.

provement of the permeability of the bacterial cells. Regarding SAR studies for antifungal activities of the newly synthesized derivatives, it was found that the presence of an electron-withdrawing group on the terminal phenyl ring of the pyrazoline moiety enhances the antifungal activity, and para or meta position is optimal for the antifungal activity for monosubstituted derivatives.

2.3. Molecular docking analysis

The selected two thaizole-pyrazoline hybrids docked against Tyrosyl-tRNA synthetase (PDB ID: 1jij) (gram- positive bacteria) [\[32\],](#page-15-0) Type IIA topoisomerase (PDB ID: 2xct) (gram- negative bacteria) and CYP51 (PDB: 3juv) (sterol 14-alpha demethylase) [\[33\]](#page-15-0) re-

sulted to series of values (binding affinity) that revealed the potency of the studied compounds. As shown in Table 2, the calculated binding affinity for synthesized compounds **(11a-b)** against Tyrosyl-tRNA synthetase (PDB ID: 1jij) were −10 kcal/mol and −10.9 kcal/mol, against Type IIA topoisomerase (PDB ID: 2xct) were −9.4 kcal/mol and −9.3 kcal/mol, and against CYP51 (sterol 14-alpha demethylase) (PDB: 3juv) were and −8.3 kcal/mol and −9.4 kcal/mol. It was reported that the lower the binding affinity value, the better the inhibiting activity [\[34,35\]](#page-15-0); thus, compound **11b** with −10.9 kcal/mol and −9.4 kcal/mol proved to have greater tendency to inhibit Tyrosyl-tRNA synthetase and CYP51 (sterol 14 alpha demethylase) than **11a** [\(Figs.](#page-4-0) 5–7). However, as reported in Table 2, compound **11a** proved to be a potential Type IIA topoisomerase inhibitor and this proved that its inhibiting activity was more potent than the activity of **11b** against Type IIA topoisomerase **(**[Fig.](#page-4-0) 6**)**. The inhibiting activity of the docked selected compounds were compared with the inhibiting activity of the referenced drug used in this research; therefore, the selected com-

Fig. 5. 3D structure of **11b**-Tyrosyl-tRNA synthetase (PDB ID: 1jij) complex.

Fig. 6. 3D structure of **11a**-Type IIA topoisomerase (PDB ID: 2xct) complex.

Fig. 7. 3D structure of **11b**-CYP51 (sterol 14-alpha demethylase) (PDB: 3juv) complex.

Fig. 8. The concept and applications of POM Theory in the identification and optimization of pharmacophore sites of various classes of drugs*,* was developed with success by Prof. T. Ben Hadda (Principal Inventor of POM Theory) in collaboration with NCI and TAACF of the USA [\[32\].](#page-15-0)

pounds **(11a-b)** proved to be more potent in inhibiting TyrosyltRNA synthetase, Type IIA topoisomerase (as well as CYP51 (sterol 14-alpha demethylase) than the referenced drugs.

2.4. POM analyses of compounds (11a-b)

POM Theory (Petra/Osiris/Molinspiration) that is invented by group of Taibi Ben Hadda in collaboration with the American NCI and TAACF, led us to a real success in pharmacology and drug design fields [\[36,37\]](#page-15-0). Here we treat the series of the tested compounds **(11a-b)** in the goal to identify their pharmacophore sites, according to the POM organigram (Fig. 8).

So the two compounds **(11a-b)** were also screened for the *insilico* POM study to calculate various general properties along with the prediction of antibacterial/antifungal bioactivity [\[36,37\]](#page-15-0). Data were analyzed and compared with standard anti-microbial drugs. Osiris and Molinspiration are two cheminformatic-based software tools that help in the calculation of toxicity risks and molecular properties as well as in the forecasting of bioactivity scores of the screened compounds [\[38,39\]](#page-15-0). As our tested compounds **(11ab**) have a molecular weight of more than 500 g/mol, they may be slowly absorbed because most of the traded drugs (i.e., approximately 80% of them) have molecular weights in this range [\(Table](#page-5-0) 3). This directly impacts compounds **(11a-b)**, which have a negative drug score. The drug-likeness of compounds **(11a-b)** are −4.16 and −0.80, respectively, and their drug scores are low limited to 5–8%, respectively [\(Table](#page-5-0) 3).

From Molinspiration data [\(Table](#page-5-0) 4), it was concluded that the series of tested compounds **(11a-b)** doesn't satisfy the rule of Lipinski and needs more work on their properties. The cLog*P* value of

Osiris analysis of compounds **(11a-b)**.

Table 4

Molinspiration analysis of compounds **(11a-b)**.

the compounds **(11a-b)** doesn't fall in the standard range, (i.e., less than 5); therefore, these compounds may be highly hydrophobe and, thus, do not meet the criteria of market drugs because all of their bioactivity scores are negative (Table 4).

2.5. Identification of antibacterial/antifungal pharmacophore sites of (11a-b)

The invention of POM Theory leads us to identify each type of pharmacophore site with real success on the basis of semiempirical data of about 7.000 antibacterial, antifungal, antitumor and antiviral commercial and known and new drugs. All details of therapeutic applications of POM Theory are given in the literature, and the identification of different and various types of pharmacophore sites is well established [\[36–43\]](#page-15-0) with real success.

The atomic charge calculation of compounds **(11a-b)** (Table 4) show that all nitrogen and sulfur atoms are negatively charged [\(Fig.](#page-6-0) 9). The distance between any couple of two heteroatoms can be obtained after optimization of molecular structure [\(Fig.](#page-6-0) 9 and [Table](#page-6-0) 5). The Nitrogen atom (N2) is the most negatively charged. So, it plays a crucial role in regenerating two combined (N2 δ ⁻ – N1^{δ −}) and/or (N2 δ [−] −S1 δ [−]) antifungal pharmacophore sites. The rest of the substituents are overdose. They are less interesting and certainly not needed here. Excess of substituents has a poor impact on the bioavailability.

The number of antifungal pharmacophore sites is now well determined, but what about the antibacterial pharmacophore sites?

To reply to the query given above, we should take into consideration that bacteria regenerate folic acid, which constitutes an evident source of protonation of compounds **(11a-b)**, as shown in [Fig.](#page-7-0) 10.

So the identification of Pharmacophore sites of compounds **(11a-b)** based on the atomic charge of optimized structures (Figs. 9–10) confirms our [hypothesis](#page-6-0) [\(Fig.](#page-8-0) 11).

Fig. 9. Atomic charge of compounds **(11a-b)**.

Fig. 10. Microspecies distribution (%) of compound **11a** leading to bioactive metabolites.

2.6. DFT calculations

2.6.1. Frontier molecular orbitals

The chemical reactivity parameters were obtained using frontier molecular orbital (FMO) data reactivity descriptors such as chemical hardness (η), global softness (δ), ionization potential (*IP*), electron affinity (*EA*), electrophilicity index (ω), electronegativity (χ) etc. These parameters can be calculated using Koopman's theorem [\[44\].](#page-15-0)

$$
IP = (-E_{HOMO})
$$
 (1)

$$
EA = (-E_{LUMO})
$$
 (2)

Mulliken theory [\[45\]](#page-15-0) states that χ can be calculated as

$$
\chi = \left(\frac{IP + EA}{2}\right) \tag{3}
$$

while η and δ can be calculated as

$$
\eta = \left(\frac{IP - EA}{2}\right) \tag{4}
$$

$$
\delta = \frac{1}{\eta} \tag{5}
$$

The chemical potential (μ) can be calculated using the Parr and Pearson relation [\[46\]](#page-15-0)

$$
\mu = -\left(\frac{IP - EA}{2}\right) \tag{6}
$$

The Parr and Yang theory [\[47\]](#page-15-0) states that the electron-accepting tendency of a species can be measured by the electrophilicity index (ω)

$$
\omega = \frac{\mu^2}{2\eta} \tag{7}
$$

The maximum amount of electronic charge index (ΔN_{max}) can be calculated with the relation

$$
\Delta N_{\text{max}} = \frac{-\mu}{\eta} \tag{8}
$$

The resistance of an atom to charge transfer (CT) can be measured by η [\[48,49\]](#page-15-0), while the ability of an atom or a group of atoms to receive electrons can be measured by δ [\[50\],](#page-15-0) and ω predicts the stabilization energy when electrons are saturated, which can be used to estimate biological activities [\[46,51–53\]](#page-15-0). The latter is defined as the change in energy of an electrophile when it meets a suitable nucleophile [\[51,](#page-15-0)[54–56\]](#page-16-0). An organic molecule can display both electrophilic and nucleophilic behavior, which can

Fig. 11. Identification of closed antibacterial and antifungal pharmacophore sites.

Comparisons of the energies for highest occupied molecular orbitals, lowest unoccupied molecular orbitals, energy gaps and Ionization Potentials for the compounds.

be measured by the nucleophilicity index (*N*) [\[50\].](#page-15-0) The energy released when an electron fills up the lowest unoccupied molecular orbital (LUMO) can be measured by the *EA* of the electron accepting power of an accepting molecule [\[48\].](#page-15-0) The energy required to remove an electron from its highest occupied molecular orbital (HOMO) is denoted by *IP*, which is a measurement of the electron donating power of a donor molecule [\[57\].](#page-16-0) The HOMO-LUMO energy gaps usually determine the stability of a compound, with lower energy gaps resulting in more reactive compounds [\[58\].](#page-16-0) Previously it was believed that an electron that occupies the HOMO will automatically be excited to the LUMO, but this theory was debunked by Bulat et al., which investigated twelve compounds where only five amongst the twelve contained electrons that occupied the HOMO level that were excited to the LUMO level. The study observed that an electron's position in atomic space and the contour of the molecule also played roles in excitation processes [\[59\].](#page-16-0) Although this is the case, it is still generally accepted that HOMO-LUMO energy gaps plays a significant role in chemical sta-bilities and reactivities of many organic molecules [\[60\].](#page-16-0) Table 6 shows a lower HOMO-LUMO energy gap for **11b**, which results in a slightly larger *IP*. Its lower LUMO induces higher *EA* and lower η means that it is less resistant to CT, which results in electrons becoming more saturated. Thus, it should have higher biological activities than **11a** because of its lower HOMO-LUMO gap.

2.7. Average localize ionization energy (ALIE)

The molecular topology can be used to reveal the average localized ionization energy (ALIE), which can provide information about local reactive sites on the molecule through resonance, thus, explaining the stability of the compound. ALIE can be expressed as

$$
\langle ct \rangle \bar{I} \langle 0t \rangle = \frac{\sum_{i} \rho_i(r) |\varepsilon_i|}{\rho(r)}
$$
\n(9)

As $I(r)$ can be used to remove an electron at point *r* in atomic or molecular space, ρ is the electron density and ε_i is the energy of an electron in an orbital φ_i . Lower $\bar{I}(r)$ values indicates that electrons are weakly bound at point *r* and can be easily removed. Although $\bar{I}(r)$ has widespread uses such as revealing atomic shell structures, measuring electronegativities, predicting p*K*a, quantifying local polarizability and hardness, the most important purpose is predicting reactive sites of electrophilic or radical attacks. This is revealed by the minima of ALIE on the van der Waals surface [\[61–63\].](#page-16-0) When performing an ALIE analysis on **11a**, minima 36 displayed the lowest $I(r)$ value of 9.86 eV, which was found to be S17 and minima 19 in **11b** displayed the lowest $\bar{I}(r)$ value (9.94 eV), which was observed on C16 [\(Fig.](#page-9-0) 12).

2.8. Electron localization function (ELF)

Electron localization function (ELF) studies the empirical concepts of electron localization, specifically, the electron pair localization in the spirit of Lewis structures. ELF is defined as follows

$$
ELF = \frac{1}{1 + x_{\sigma}^2} \tag{10}
$$

Fig. 12. Minimum ALIE indices for thiazoles.

Fig. 13. Electron localization function of thiazoles across the N–C-S plane.

Where $x_{\sigma} = \frac{D_{\sigma}}{D_{\sigma}^0}$, which allowed ELF to obey the following inequality

$0 \leq$ ELF \leq 1

An ELF value close to one correspond to a region in atomic space where electrons are highly localized, whereas a value close to one-half correspond to gas like behavior [\[64\].](#page-16-0) Fig. 13 displays both two-dimensional and three-dimensional across the N10-C13- S17 plane. The red color indicates a high concentration of electrons across these atoms, while the blue color indicates that electrons are delocalized across these atoms. We observed that electrons are less localize at a length in the region 10.31–12.38 Bohr (in the xdirection) in **11b**.

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Fig. 14. Localize orbital locator of thiazoles across the N–C-S plane.

2.9. Localize orbital locator (LOL)

In addition to ELF, localize orbital locator (LOL) was also performed on the compounds. Although both ELF and LOL locate the regions of localized electrons, the latter simply recognises that gradients of localized orbitals are maximised when orbitals overlap [\[65\].](#page-16-0) Fig. 14 displays the localized orbital locator (LOL) regions for the thiazoles across the N–C-S planes where high electron localizations are observed between all the bonding regions.

2.10. Non-covalent-interactions (NCI)

Non-covalent-interactions (NCI) is a quantitative and qualitative tool that analyses the interactions that stabilizes compounds and can reveal information about the locations of these interactions. This descriptor uses a method based on electron density (ρ) calculations where it analyses the domains of weak ρ by obtaining low electron density gradients $(s(\rho))$, which identifies indices below the identification threshold of quantum theory of atoms in molecules (QTAIM) analysis. Loci of the space where the Reduced Electron Density Gradient (RDG) *is close to zero* and forms welldefined troughs is revealed by the NCI index **(**[Fig.](#page-11-0) 15**)**. These RDG regions are called isosurfaces and characterized by well-defined electron density values that arises from small gradients along each of them. To define a weak interaction, both s and ρ must be weak by definition. Red isosurfaces are caused by steric repulsion between atoms, while green and blue isosurfaces results from van der Waals attractive forces and hydrogen bonding. More intense colours result in stronger interactions. The strength of the interaction is measured by the index ρ , which is revealed by a welldefined trough, where the strongest interaction is revealed by the highest ρ . All forces are denoted by the eigenvalue λ_2 [\[66\].](#page-16-0) Although visible troughs for van der Waals attractive and repulsive interactions appears in [Fig.](#page-11-0) 15, they do not appear as well-defined to indicate strong interactions. No hydrogen bonding interactions are also observed.

Three-dimensional NCI isosurfaces appears as red pill shapes, green/red sheets, and blue disks due to the closure of benzene rings, van der Waals attractive and repulsive forces and hydrogen

Table 7 Molecular electrostatic potential (MEP \times 10⁻³) for the Thiazoles.

	11a	11 _b	
N ₁₀	-61.4	-65.7	
C13	-69.6	-34.4	
S ₁₇	285	256	

bonding [\[66\]](#page-16-0) **(**[Fig.](#page-11-0) 16**)**. Other than hydrogen bonding, all these interactions were observed. This also verifies our observations for the two-dimensional isosurfaces.

As the critical points (CP) is defined as the gradient path where the ρ originates and terminates where the gradient path $\nabla \rho$ vanishes [\[67\],](#page-16-0) it is observed that all the CPs arises from bonds between atoms and the closure of the benzene ring **(**[Fig.](#page-11-0) 17).

2.11. Molecular electrostatic potential (MEP)

Molecular electrostatic potential (MEP) is a chemical descriptor that probes the electronegativities of atomic sites on molecules. Since electrostatic forces are primarily responsible for long range interactions, this descriptor is useful in rationalizing molecular recognition processes and molecular interactions [\[68\].](#page-16-0) A visual inspection was performed on the structures of these compounds to establish regions where nucleophilic or electrophilic attacks can occur with colours that includes red, orange, yellow, green, and blue [\(Fig.](#page-12-0) 18). These colours are an indication of the reduction potential on each atomic site and reduces in the order blue>green>yellow>orange>red. Thus, a blue region denotes a nucleophilic attack, while a red region denotes an electrophilic attack.

When we select the N–C-S plane [\(Fig.](#page-12-0) 19), we observe quantitative MEP measurements (Table 7) for these three atoms that makes up this plane. As the ALIE analysis showed that electrons on S17 in **11a** can be ionized more easily than electrons on S17 in **11b**, the quantitative values in Table 7 rationalized this further, as positive MEP values are more ionizable than negative MEP values.

Fig. 15. Two-dimensional non-covalent-interaction analysis of thiazoles.

Fig. 16. Three-dimensional isosurfaces of non-covalent-interactions for thiazoles.

Fig. 17. Interacting paths and bond critical points for thiazoles.

Fig. 18. Molecular electrostatic potential of thiazoles.

Fig. 19. Atomic labels for thiazoles.

Table 8 Conceptual density functional parameters for **11a**-**b**.

						CDD.		
Atom	11 a	11 b	11 a	11 b	11 a	11 _b	11 a	11 b
N ₁₀	0.0648	0.0636	0.0057	0.0028	0.0352	0.0332	-0.0591	-0.0608
C13 S ₁₇	0.0153 0.0928	0.0152 0.0928	0.0172 0.0586	0.0079 0.0213	0.0162 0.0757	0.0116 0.0570	0.0019 -0.0342	-0.0074 -0.0715

2.12. Conceptual density functional theory (CDFT)

In addition to MEP analysis, conceptual density functional theory (CDFT) can also be used as a chemical descriptor to probe reactive sites on compounds. Moreover, the latter can locate atomic sites where radical attacks can occur, amongst other parameters, which includes local softness/hardness, local electrophilicity/nucleophilicity etc., making it a useful descriptor for both chemical and biological processes [\[69\].](#page-16-0)

The reactive sites can be measured by the Fukui Function which is defined in Eq. (11)

$$
f(\vec{r}) = \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial N} v(\vec{r}) = \left(\frac{\delta \mu}{\delta v \vec{r}}\right) N \tag{11}
$$

The condensed Fukui Functions (*f* −*, f* + and *f ⁰*) and charge density difference (CDD) are depicted in [Table](#page-3-0) 2. The Fukui Function can be calculated with the following equations

$$
f^+(\vec{r}) = q_r(N+1) - q_r(N) \tag{12}
$$

for a nucleophilic attack

$$
f^-(\vec{r}) = q_r(N) - q_r(N-1)
$$
\n(13)

for an electrophilic attack

$$
f^{0}(\vec{r}) = q_{r}(N+1) - q_{r}(N-1)
$$
\n(14)

for a radical attack where CCD is the difference between $f^+(\vec{r})$ and *f*[−](\vec{r}) [\[8\].](#page-14-0) Other than C13 in **11a**, the *f*[−] and *f*⁺ values support with our observations for MEP analyses **(**Table 8**)**. We also observe a high probability for a radical attack on S17 in **11a**. This further support our observation for the ALIE analysis on this atom. As radical attacks are an indicator of potential sites that can act as a broom that sweeps up reactive oxygen species (ROS), it acts as useful input for structure-activity relationships during molecular docking analysis.

3. Conclusion

Two thiazole-pyrazoline hybrids have been successfully synthesized and characterized by various spectroscopic techniques. The antimicrobial activity of these compounds was evaluated *in vitro* using the well diffusion method. The tested compounds showed excellent antibacterial activity against all bacteria tested. In particular, it was found that the synthesized compounds could inhibit *A. baumannii* at 32 and 16 μg/mL, respectively, compared to ciprofloxacin which was ineffective. Moreover, compounds displayed significant antifungal activity against *C. albicans.* Molecular docking studies demonstrated that the greater effectiveness of compound **11b** was due to its stronger binding affinity to the gram-positive and gram-negative bacteria. DFT studies also indicate that compound **11b** had a lower HOMO-LUMO gap compared to **11a** thus justifying its greater biological activity. The dual antibacterial/antifungal activity presented by the good interaction of the two tested compounds with bacteria and fungus can be explained by the co-presence of two antifungal pharmacophore sites $(X^{\delta-}, Y^{\delta-})$ where $(X, Y) = (N, N)$ and (N, S) but the antibacterial pharmacophore site (N, NH) should be regenerated insitu *via* interaction folic acid with nitrogen atoms. Hence, the identified most active compound, by using POM Theory, may be considered as lead for further study in the search of novel pathogenic microorganisms inhibitory agent. The right formulation will be needed to improve the drug-like properties of these compounds, especially their lipophilicity and solubility.

4. Experimental part

4.1. Synthesis of hybrids (11a-b)

A mixture of pyrazoline derivatives **(9a-b)** (1 mmol), 4 bromophenacyl bromide **10** (0.83 gm, 3 mmol) and absolute ethanol (10 mL, 99.9%) was refluxed with stirring for (1–4 h) until completion the reaction which was monitored by TLC. The precipitate was isolated by suction filtration, washed with ethanol, dried and purified by recrystallization from toluene as a suitable solvent.

4.2. 2-(3,5-bis(4-((4-chlorobenzyl)oxy)phenyl)−*4,5-dihydro-1***H***pyrazol-1-yl)*−*4-(4-bromophenyl)thiazole (11a)*

Yellow; m.p.: 217.1–219.3 °C; yield: 95.9%; R*^f* = 0.49 in *n*-Hex:EtOAc (2:3); FT-IR (KBr) (v max / cm⁻¹): 1606 (C = C), 1548 (C = N); UV $\lambda_{\text{max}} = 218 \text{ nm}$; ¹H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃) (ppm): δ 3.32 (1H, dd, CH₂), 3.83 (1H, dd, CH₂), 5.01 (2H, s, OCH₂), 5.10 (2H, s, OCH₂), 5.59 (1H, d, CH), 6.81 (1H, s, CH), 6.92-7.73 (20H, m, Ar-H); ¹³C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl₃) (ppm): δ 165.15 (C22), 159.83 (C6), 158.04 (C16), 151.53 (C10), 150.31 (C23), 135.39 (C4), 134.99 (C18), 134.34 (C13), 133.94 (C1), 133.74 (C21), 131.44 (C27 and C27), 129.01 (C25), 128.82 (C8 and C8), 128.73 (C26 and C26), 128.20 (C2, C2', C20 and C20'), 127.98 (C3, C3', C19 and C19'), 127.42 (C14 and C14), 124.58 (C9), 121.18 (C28), 115.03 (C7 and C7), 114.89 (C15 and C15), 103.57 (C24), 69.28 (C5), 69.22 (C17), 64.05 (C12), 43.51 (C11).

4.3. 4-(4-bromophenyl)−*2-(3-(4-((4-chlorobenzyl)oxy)phenyl)*−*5-(3- ((3-nitrobenzyl)oxy)phenyl)*−*4,5-dihydro-1*H*-pyrazol-1-yl)thiazole (11b)*

Brown; m.p.: 144.7–146.3 °C; yield: 88.6%; R*^f* = 0.43 in *n*-Hex:EtOAc (2:3); FT-IR (KBr) (v max / cm⁻¹): 1606 (C = C), 15,550 $(C = N)$; UV $\lambda_{\text{max}} = 218$ nm; ¹H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃) (ppm): δ 3.29 (1H, dd, CH₂), 3.86 (1H, dd, CH₂), 5.57 (4H, m, 2XOCH₂), 5.62 (1H, d, CH), 6.77 (1H, s, CH), 6.88–8.25 (20H, m, Ar-H); 13C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl₃) (ppm): δ 165.12 (C26), 159.94 (C6), 158.52 (C15), 151.61 (C10), 150.35 (C22), 148.40 (C27), 143.65 (C13), 139.08 (C20), 135.03 (C4), 134.01 (C1), 133.95 (C25), 133.11 (C29), 131.48 (C31 and C31), 129.94 (C8 and C8), 129.54 (C24), 128.88 (C30 and C30), 128.80 (C17), 128.05 (C2 and C2), 127.46 (C3 and C3), 124.47 (C9), 122.91 (C21), 122.11 (C23), 121.26 (C32), 119.85 (C18), 115.10 (C7 and C7), 114.09 (C16), 113.00 (C14), 103.75 (C28), 69.33 (C5), 68.69 (C19), 64.42 (C12), 43.56 (C11).

4.4. Antimicrobial activity

4.4.1. Microbial strains tested

The antimicrobial activity of compounds **(11a-b)** was performed against four bacterial strains (*Staphylococcus aureus, E. coli, Pseudomonas aeruginosa,* and *Acinetobacter baumannii*) and against one fungal strain (*Candida albicans*), derived from hospitalized patients. The test organisms were validated with 0.5 MacFarland turbidity equivalents.

4.5. Well diffusion method

The evaluation of the antimicrobial activity of the synthesized compounds was performed *via* the well-diffusion technique, as screening test [\[70\].](#page-16-0) In this study, an MH (Mueller-Hinton) agar and potato dextrose agar was seeded in Petri dishes with the four selected bacterial strains and the one fungal strain, respectively. The newly synthesized compounds were prepared as a stock solution of 1000 μ g /mL concentration in 5% DMSO solvent. Wells in the solid culture media (6 mm diameter) were impregnated with 20 μ l of the tested compounds. Fungal and bacterial strains were incubated at 30 °C and 37 °C, respectively. For all studied microorganism strains, the diameter of inhibition and the inhibition percentage was measured after 24 h as well as after 48 h for C. *albicans*. The standard drug used was ciprofloxacin and fluconazole as a positive control and 5% DMSO as a negative control.

4.6. Minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC)

The MIC of compounds **(11a-b)** against the four bacterial strains and the one fungal strain was determined utilizing the microdilution technique according to the method described by after 24 h of incubation for bacteria and 48 h for *C. albicans* at 37 °C and 30 °C, respectively and 200 rpm shaking incubator (LabTech) [\[71\].](#page-16-0) Serial dilutions of the tested compounds were prepared at different concentrations of 0.5, 1, 2, 4, 8, 16, and 32 μ g/ml in 96well microtiter plates. Bacterial growth was determined using a microplate reader at 600 nm. All experiments were performed in triplicate. The lowest concentration that inhibited bacterial and fungal growth was taken as the MIC value.

4.7. Statistical analysis

The data are provided as mean value $+$ standard deviation (mean $+$ SD), and each experiment was conducted with three independent replications. For the MIC data's statistical analysis, linear regression was employed. The differences were verified as significant at *p* < 0.05.

4.8. Molecular docking details

The synthesized compounds were optimized using Spartan 14 software [\[72\].](#page-16-0) The optimized chemical compounds were converted to .pdb format in preparation for subjection to Autodock tool software which helped in converting the ligand in .pdb format to .pdbqt format for docking calculation [\[73\].](#page-16-0) Also, tyrosyl-tRNA synthetase (PDB ID: 1jij) [\[32\]](#page-15-0) (gram-positive bacteria), type IIA topoisomerase (PDB ID: 2xct) [\[74\]](#page-16-0) (gram-negative bacteria) and CYP51 (sterol 14-alpha demethylase) (PDB: 3juv) [\[33\]](#page-15-0) were downloaded from online protein database (protein data bank) and were treated by removing water molecules and any small molecules which were downloaded with the target receptors using pymol software and were saved in .pdb format. The clean receptors were further subjected to autodock tool software in order to locate the active site in the treated receptor and convert it to the acceptable format (.pdbqt) before docking calculation *via* autodock vina software [\[75\].](#page-16-0)

Fig. 20. Structures for thiazoles obtained from Mercury 2020.3.0.

4.9. DFT calculations

Thiazoles were constructed using Gaussian 09 software upon which they were subjected to conformer searches through molecular mechanics (MM) using Avogadro software. After obtaining their lowest conformers, optimization was performed at HF/6– 31+Gdp, B3LYP-gD3/6–311++*G*(d,p) and M06–2X/6–311++*G*(d,p) level of theory using Gaussian 09 software [\[76\].](#page-16-0) Frequency calculations were carried out together with the optimized structures so that minimal conformation energies were obtained [\[77\].](#page-16-0) The optimized structures are shown in Fig. 20. From these optimized structures, fchk files were created, which were used as input for multi-wfn [\[78\],](#page-16-0) VMD [\[79\]](#page-16-0) and gnuplot [\[80\]](#page-16-0) software to carry out quantum theory of atoms in molecules (QTAIM) analysis, perform conceptual density functional theory (CDFT), molecular electrostatic potentials (MEP) and reveal non-covalent interactions (NCI). In addition to this, multiwfn software as also used to obtain, electron localization function (ELF), localized orbital locator (LOL) and average local ionization energies (ALIE) [\[81–83\].](#page-16-0)

Credit author statement

Farouq Emam Hawaiz, Faisal A. Almalki and Narmin Hamaamin Hussen: Ttheoretical, experimental analysed, characterizations and interpreted the data; contributed analysis tools and data; wrote paper.

Aso Hameed Hasan and Taibi Ben Hadda: Coordinated the analysis tools and data; wrote paper.

Rezan Huseen Hama Salih and Adedapo S. Adeyinka: Synthesis part.

Taibi Ben Hadda, Louis-Charl C. Coetzee and Abel Kolawole Oyebamiji: Computational parts.

Aso Hameed Hasan, Taibi Ben Hadda and Joazaizulfazli Jamalis: Analysed and checked the validity of data.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

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Supplementary materials

Supplementary material associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at doi[:10.1016/j.molstruc.2023.135191.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.molstruc.2023.135191)

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