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Studies on bioactive 6-gingerol derivatives and thymoquinone-protoflavone hybrid molecules

Ph.D. Thesis

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AA	Arachidonic acid
AAPH	2,2'-Azobis(2-methyl-propionamidine) dihydrochloride
AcN	Acetonitrile
ADME	Adsorption, distribution, metabolism, and elimination
BBB	Blood brain barrier
CDCl ₃	Deuterated chloroform
CNS MPO	Central nervous system multiparameter optimization
CRC	Colorectal carcinoma
CVDs	Cardiovascular diseases
COX-1	Cyclooxygenase-1 enzyme
DCC	Dicyclohexylcarbodiimide
DMAP	4-Dimethylaminopyridine
DMF	Dimethylformamide
DMSO	Dimethyl sulfoxide
DPPH	1, 1-Diphenyl-2-picrylhydrazyl
FBS	Fetal bovine serum
6-G	6-Gingerol
HPLC	High performance liquid chromatography
LLE	Ligand lipophilic efficiency
MCF-7	Estrogen receptor positive breast cancer cell line
m-CPBA	Meta-chloroperbenzoic acid
MDA	Malondialdehyde
MEM	Minimal essential medium
ONOO ⁻	Peroxynitrite
ORAC	Oxygen radicle absorbance capacity
PA	Protoapigenone
PAMPA	Blood-brain barrier specific parallel artificial membrane permeability assay
PBS	Phosphate buffer saline
PDB	Protein data bank
PIFA	[bis(trifluoroacetoxy)iodo]benzene

PTsOH	p- Toluenesulphonic acid
ROS	Reactive oxygen species
RP-HPLC	Reverse phase high performance liquid chromatography
rt	Room temperature
SAR	Structure-activity relationship
SEM	Standard error of mean
TLC	Thin layer chromatography
TMZ	Temozolomide
TQ	Thymoquinone
WHO	World health organization
XO	Xanthine oxidase

1. INTRODUCTION

Cardiovascular diseases (CVDs) and cancer are currently considered as the first and second leading cause of death; respectively [1, 2]. Despite modern therapeutic options, CVDs are responsible for more than 17 million deaths annually [3]. This urges scientists to continually search for agents that can at least improve the quality of life for patients, even if a complete cure seems hardly achievable.

Great efforts have been devoted toward the discovery of therapeutic agents against these pathologies and many drugs have reached the market, nevertheless, it is still far from reaching the coveted goals.

Nature serves as a great inspiration for drug discovery. The majority of small molecule approved drugs are either natural products or had their origin somehow in nature, either a natural starting material for semi-synthesis or an inspiring natural model compound [4, 5].

One of the drug discovery portals that medicinal chemistry scientists seek is to synthesize derivatives inspired by the structure of natural agents reported to be potentially active against certain diseases. These derivatives are then subjected to bioactivity testing to compare them with the parent compounds and to characterize their pharmacophores [6-9]. *In silico* studies into pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics of agents under development also greatly save time and cost invested in drug discovery research [10-13].

This thesis summarizes semi-synthetic work on three natural phenolic compounds: 6-Gingerol (6-G), protoapigenone (PA) and thymoquinone (TQ). Compounds prepared from 6-G were tested for their CVD-related therapeutic potential. Further, the antitumor potential of TQ and PA inspired the preparation of new hybrid compounds containing these two natural products as key building blocks.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Gingerol and its derivatives; isolation, semi-synthesis, and bioactivity

Ginger, *Zingiber officinale* Rosc. (Zingiberaceae), a plant from Asia has been widely used since ancient times as a flavoring spice and a home remedy for many diseases. According to many reports, its root extract proved its effectiveness against a wide spectrum of illnesses [14-17].

Investigations into the chemical composition of ginger root extract revealed a versatile group of constituents. The volatile fraction is composed mainly of sesquiterpene hydrocarbons, mostly zingiberene, curcumin and farnesene, along with monoterpenoid hydrocarbons, the most abundant of which are 1,8-cineole, linalool, geranial, borneol, and neral. Non-volatile constituents of ginger roots are mainly phenolic compounds, among which the gingerols, shogaols, paradols, and zingerone are the most important. Ginger also contains vitamins, organic acids, lipids, and fibers [18, 19].

Ginger phenolics were reported to play a major role in its extracts' bioactivity [19-21]. Different gingerols, which are partially responsible for the pungent flavor of ginger, were isolated from the root extract; the most abundant of which is 6-gingerol [17, 22].

6-Gingerol (6-G), i.e., an aromatic hydrocarbon, (*S*)-5-hydroxy-1-(4-hydroxy-3-methoxy phenyl)decan-3-one (**Fig. 1**), was claimed to possess a wide range of activities [23-33]. The antiplatelet effect of 6-G might be of particular interest since it points out a potential role in cardiovascular disease (CVD) prevention and/or treatment [30, 31].

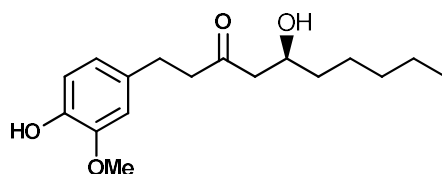


Figure (1): The structure of 6-Gingerol (1)

The possibility for the use of ginger extract as a supportive measure in CVDs was reported [16, 34]. Some studies proposed that this effect might be due to the inhibition of platelet aggregation [15, 35-38], which in turn suggested being mediated through interfering with Cyclooxygenase-1 (COX-1) enzymatic function and reactive oxygen species formation [34, 39]. Inhibition of AA-induced platelet aggregation by an aqueous ginger extract was investigated. A reduction in thromboxane formation was noted which was suggested to be mediated via the inhibition of COX-1 enzyme activity [40]. The impact of ginger consumption on platelet aggregation and coagulation was also clinically investigated in healthy volunteers, and no effects were observed [41, 42]. However, the consumption of ginger in combination with nifedipine was found to potentiate its antiplatelet effects on patients with coronary artery disease [43]. Isolated 6-G was also studied against CVDs and promising results were reported [44-47]. COX-1 enzyme, also known as the prostaglandin G/H synthase or prostaglandin-endoperoxide synthase (PTGS), is expressed constitutively in all tissues and controls the production of prostanoids [48]. It is a homodimer integral membrane protein and a bifunctional enzyme with cyclooxygenase and peroxidase functionality. It converts free arachidonic acid (AA) into prostaglandin H₂ (PGH₂); which in turn is converted to thromboxane A₂ (TXA₂) in platelets via thromboxane A₂ synthase enzyme. TXA₂ is an inducer of platelet activation and aggregation. Increased levels of TXA₂ may play a role in atherosclerosis, stroke, myocardial infarction, pulmonary hypertension, and even angiogenesis and metastasis in cancer [49].

The crystal structure of *h*-COX-1 (PDB: 6Y3C) was recently revealed by Miciaccia et al. [50], before this, the crystallographic data for ovine COX-1 isoenzyme were available [51, 52]. COX-1 is a homodimer, with three structural domains for each monomer: a C-terminal catalytic domain, a membrane binding domain, and a short N-terminal epidermal growth factor domain. The first domain contains the peroxidase (POX) and the COX active sites, they are positioned opposite to each other with the heme prosthetic group located at the base of the former [50, 53].

Studies revealed the identity of some key amino acids present in the COX active site, which may play a crucial role in the process of binding to the substrates e.g., S350, Y385, I523, V349,

and W387. The amino acids R120, Y355, and E524 form an H-bonding network that allows for a constriction at the base of the active site [50, 54]. The channel at the top of the active site contains the amino acid G533 which was considered to be important for the AA-oxidation. This was confirmed via mutagenesis studies. Replacing bulky substituents at this position inhibited the AA-oxidation process [55]. Similarly, R120 mutagenesis was reported to render the enzyme resistant to inhibition by substrates [54].

As mentioned earlier, platelet activation could also be influenced by high reactive oxygen species (ROS) levels [39]. The antioxidant activity of ginger extract and 6-G was well investigated [16, 26, 56, 57]. A study reported that feeding of 1% ginger to malathion-treated rats for four weeks significantly attenuated oxidative stress and lipid peroxidation induced by malathion, and, remarkably, this was as effective as ascorbic acid treatment [34]. 6-G was reported to protect cardiac tissues against alcohol-induced ROS-mediated damage in rats fed with an alcohol/6-G mixed diet [58], and to prevent hypoxia-induced cardiomyocyte injury, which was attributed to its antioxidant effects [59]. It also reduced hydrogen peroxide-induced oxidative stress and cellular death in zebrafish [60].

Tremendous efforts were dedicated to the synthesis of derivatives out of 6-G for further potential bioactivity testing. So far, over 150 compounds have been synthesized and tested as we have recently reviewed [61]. Our in-depth literature survey led us to the conclusion that the antiplatelet activity might be the most promising for this group of compounds [62, 63]; gingerol derivatives that were studied for their antiplatelet properties are shown in **Fig. 2**.

Shih et al. reported the synthesis and antiplatelet-aggregation testing of 6-G (**1**) and other (natural/ synthetic) derivatives (**Fig. 2**; compounds **2–15** and **17–47**). Compounds of the paradol series were the most active, especially 6-paradol (**7**) ($IC_{50} = 0.070 \mu\text{g/mL}$ compared to $1 \mu\text{g/mL}$ for 6-G). The introduction of a double bond or a hydroxyl group at the β -position resulted in a reduction in the activity, however, increasing the alkyl side chain length increased it (e.g. the dehydroparadol compound **40** showed an IC_{50} value of $0.160 \mu\text{g/mL}$). The epoxide derivatives (**41–46**) showed a lower potency compared to *n*-paradols ($IC_{50} = 0.96–2.38 \mu\text{g/mL}$) [62]. Koo et al. investigated the effect of 6-G (**1**) and its synthetic analogues (**Fig. 2**; compounds **3**, **48**, **49**, **52**, **54** and **55**) on the AA-induced platelet serotonin release and aggregation, a lower platelet aggregation inhibitory activity for all compounds ($IC_{\text{max}} = 10–25 \mu\text{M}$) as compared to acetylsalicylic acid ($IC_{\text{max}} = 6 \mu\text{M}$) was noted. To examine the underlying mechanism, COX-inhibitory activity was studied. Compounds **55**, **3**, and **54** induced similarly potent inhibitory activity ($IC_{50} = 1.2, 1.5, \text{ and } 3.3 \mu\text{M}$, respectively) as the positive control indomethacin ($IC_{50} = 0.76 \mu\text{M}$), compared to $50 \mu\text{M}$ for 6-G (**1**). Notably, their COX inhibitory activity correlated with their hydrophobicity, with compound **55** being the most active and the most hydrophobic at the same time [63].

The anti-platelet and COX-1 inhibitory activity were also assessed for another set of gingerol derivatives (**Fig. 2**; compounds **2–4**, **7–9**, **12**, **16**, **50**, **51** and **53–61**). 8-Paradol (**8**) was reported as the most promising among all (75% inhibition at $2 \mu\text{M}$ compared to 3.4% for 6-G (**1**) at the same concentration). Studies into the SAR highlighted the importance of the carbonyl function

at C3 for activity, any other substituents on the alkyl chain interfere with the activity. This was obvious through comparison of compound **8** and compound **57** activity ($IC_{50} = 20 \mu M$) [158].

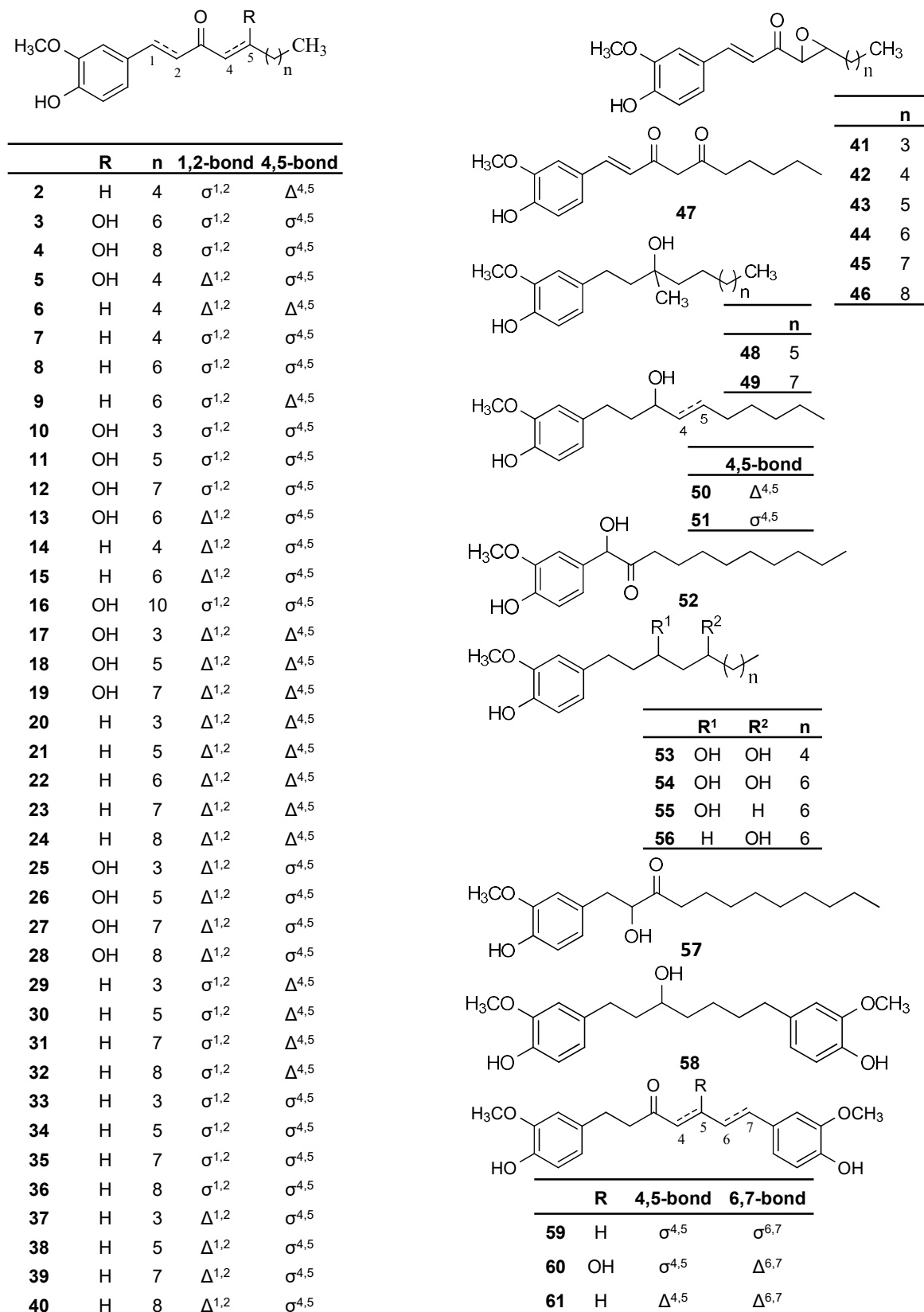


Figure 2. Gingerol derivatives with *in vitro* anti-platelet activity

2.2. Protoflavones, thymoquinone, and their hybrid molecules with antitumor properties

Among the different types of cancer, breast cancer is ranked the second leading cause of cancer death among women after lung cancer in western countries in 2022 [64], whereas, cervical cancer represents the fourth most common cancer type in women with more than 600,000 new cases recorded only in 2020 [65]. Glioblastoma is another very challenging type of cancer that occurs in the brain or the spinal cord. It is the most common and devastating brain tumor in adults. Different treatment modalities are adopted in cancer management, from chemotherapy, and radiotherapy to surgical intervention [66]. A great body of phytochemicals-based cancer-related research has been conducted [67-72]. Among these is the research on *Thelypteris torresiana* and *Nigella sativa* and their constituents.

2.2.1. Antitumor potential of protoapigenone and its derivatives

Extracts of *Thelypteris torresiana* Gaud. (Thelypteridaceae), a fern native to Taiwan, were studied against different kinds of cancer and encouraging results were obtained [73]. A group of compounds was isolated from the whole plant including flavonoids, phenols, sesquiterpenes, and steroids [74]. Protoapigenone (PA); 5,7-dihydroxy-2-(1-hydroxy-4-oxocyclohexa-2,5-dien-1-yl) chromen-4-one (Fig. 3), a rare protoflavone from this plant was identified as the main active constituent responsible for its anti-cancer potential [73]. This flavonoid has a very characteristic unusual *p*-quinol B-ring that was described as the main pharmacophore [75]. Hunyadi et al. reported the first semisynthetic preparation of PA from apigenin, and identified new structure-activity relationships concerning the 1'-*O*-alkyl substituents [76].

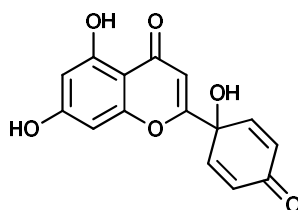


Figure (3): The structure of protoapigenone (62)

PA has been studied against different types of cancer and different mechanisms of action have been suggested [76-82]. It may be of particular interest that it inhibits the ATR-dependent phosphorylation of Chk1 kinase, a key step of DNA damage response (DDR) signaling [83]. PA also promoted apoptosis of MDAH-2774 cell line and induced cell cycle arrest [77]. The induction of apoptosis was related to the activation of p38 mitogen-activated protein kinase and c-Jun NH₂-Terminal Kinase (JNK) in prostate cancer cell lines [84]. PA was also found to inactivate the PIK3/AKT1 signaling pathway in cervical cancer cells [79]. Its cell cycle arrest and apoptosis-inducing effects were proposed to be oxidative stress-mediated [77, 84-86]. PA is studied in many currently ongoing clinical trials, e.g., NCT02487095, NCT04616534, NCT04802174, NCT05338346, etc.

Several studies aimed to synthesize new antitumor agents inspired by PA. WYC0209, a synthetic PA analog, exerted much stronger antitumor effects than its parent compound; it reduced the viability and growth of urothelial cancer cell lines in a dose-dependent manner by

interfering with the cell cycle and enhancing apoptotic cellular death [87]. It also induced apoptosis and inhibited cellular proliferation of colorectal carcinoma (CRC) [88], and prostate cancer cell lines [86]. RY10-4, a synthetic analog possessing the minimum pharmacophore of PA, showed enhanced activity against breast, ovarian, prostate, liver, and pancreatic cancer cell lines compared to PA [89]. Different mechanistic pathways were deciphered for this compound, e.g., the downregulation of P-gp expression [90], induction of autophagy [91] and apoptosis [92, 93], and the suppression of angiogenesis [94] and metastasis in breast cancer cell lines [95]. It was also claimed to be effective against the human lung adenocarcinoma A549 cell line [96].

2.2.2. Antitumor potential of thymoquinone

Nigella sativa L. (Ranunculaceae), commonly known as black seed or black cumin, is widely consumed for food seasoning and medicinal purposes. It is grown in western Asia, eastern Africa, and the middle east. It has been widely used for the treatment of headache, as an analgesic and diuretic, and against skin and gastrointestinal disorders. Its biological activity was attributed to the main constituent in its essential oil, the monoterpene thymoquinone [97-99]. The seeds contain many other bioactive compounds including thymohydroquinone, dithymoquinone, carvacrol, *t*-anethol, 4-terpineol, α -pinene, *p*-cymene, and thymol [98].

Thymoquinone (TQ); 2-methyl-5-propan-2-ylcyclohexa-2,5-diene-1,4-dione (**Fig. 4**); was described to possess a wide array of bioactivities including antioxidant, anti-inflammatory, antimicrobial, immunomodulatory, neuromodulatory, and anticancer activities [100-108]. Encouraging results were reported against many cancer types, such as colorectal carcinoma, squamous cell carcinoma, prostate cancer, colon cancer, myeloblastic anemia, and fibrosarcoma [109]. TQ was also claimed to potentiate the effect of existing chemotherapeutics [99], and to provide protective effects against their toxicities [101, 105, 110]. A sensitizing effect to radiotherapy was also reported [111], while it was found to be safe in many normal cell lines [112-114].

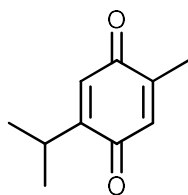


Figure (4): The structure of Thymoquinone (**63**)

TQ was studied against different types of cancer and different mechanistic pathways were suggested. It was proposed to affect multiple signaling pathways, such as nuclear factor kappa- β (NF- κ β), phosphatidylinositol-4,5-bisphosphate 3-kinase (PI3K)/serine/ threonine-specific protein kinase B (AKT), mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK), signal transducer and activator of transcription (STAT), eukaryotic elongation factor 2 kinase (eEF-2 K), and p53 signaling pathways, thus, influencing cancer cells proliferation, metastasis, and angiogenesis. It also influenced the cell cycle progression by regulating miRNAs expression [97, 115-117]. Furthermore, TQ induced apoptosis via p53-independent pathways in p53-null myeloblastic leukemia HL-60 cells [109]. Its combination with doxorubicin was found to increase the

Bax/Bcl2 ratio, and to subsequently promote apoptosis in doxorubicin-induced senescent and proliferative breast and colon cancer cells [118]. The prooxidant-antioxidant properties of TQ were also studied. Its effects on apoptotic genes were correlated to the enhancement of cellular malondialdehyde (MDA), reactive oxygen species (ROS), and nitric oxide (NO) levels in MDA-MB-231 cell lines [119]. Likewise, it increased ROS levels in pancreatic cancer cell lines [120].

TQ was also studied against glioblastoma. It exerted selective toxicity against glioblastoma cells compared to primary astrocytes, besides its ability to cross the BBB. It was reported to affect cellular redox state and mitochondrial function leading to cell cycle arrest and apoptosis [121], inhibit telomerase activity leading to telomere attrition and DNA damage [113], and inhibit autophagy and induce a caspase-independent glioblastoma cells death [122]. It reduced the migration and invasiveness of glioblastoma cells through the downregulation of the Focal Adhesion Kinase (FAK) protein [123], and potentiated the effects of temozolomide [124, 125]. Even in TMZ-resistant glioblastoma cells, it induced apoptosis via P38-mitogen activated protein kinase signaling pathway [126]. Several derivatives were synthesized based on the structure of TQ, and many showed effectiveness against different types of cancer cell lines. TQFL12, an aromatic imine derivative of TQ, demonstrated superior antiproliferative effects on TNBC cells compared to the parent molecule [127].

2.2.3. Hybrid compounds previously prepared using thymoquinone or protoflavones

The field of drug discovery has witnessed an increasing popularity of molecular hybridization as a rational drug design approach. It means designing new molecules that are based on fragments of known, complementary bioactivities and joining them into a hybrid molecule through linkers or direct fusion. This aims for multitarget candidates that may simultaneously exploit the synergistic bioactivities of its fragments. This approach may especially be promising in combating diseases of multifactorial nature like cancer [128-130]. Such molecules might have a bioactivity superior to their building blocks and may offer new ways to overcome drug resistance [131-133]. Our group previously reported the preparation of two series of antitumor hybrids containing a protoflavone fragment. Natural, or semi-synthetic protoflavonoids were linked to chalcone [134] or indole derivatives [135]. In both series, a protoflavone fragment was included as an ATR signaling inhibitor, and it was combined either with an oxidative stress inducing fragment (i.e., a ferrocene or a chalcone), or with an activator of p53 (i.e., a spiropyrazole oxindole). Both hybrid compound series demonstrated greatly improved efficacy against breast cancer cell lines.

Some synthetic efforts were also dedicated to preparing hybrid compounds based on TQ. It was combined with 5-fluorouracil into hybrid structures using different linkers, and this resulted in molecules that are active against CRC cell lines [136]. TQ was also combined with artemisinin into hybrid molecules, among which a TQ-artesunic acid hybrid was the most effective (IC₅₀ of 2.4 μM) in CRC cell line, being up to 20 folds more active than the parent compounds [137].

3. OBJECTIVES

In this PhD work, it was our main objective to prepare and study natural phenolic compounds and their semi- or total synthetic derivatives, and to evaluate their bioactivities. Two distinct groups of target compounds and bioactivity profiles were targeted, according to the following.

3.1. 6-Gingerol derivatives

Inspired by the antiplatelet activity of 6-gingerol and its derivatives, in this part of the work we aimed to

1. synthesize, purify, and characterize semi- or total synthetic derivatives of 6-G, and
2. in research collaboration, to study their AA-induced platelet aggregation inhibitory activity, COX-1 enzyme inhibitory activity, and antioxidant activity, and to assess their ADME behavior using experimental and *in silico* tools, and
3. to predict their interaction with *h*-COX-1 enzyme utilizing *in silico* molecular docking.

3.2. Thymoquinone-protoflavone hybrids

Inspired by the antitumor activity of protoflavones and thymoquinone, their ability to interfere with DNA damage response signaling at different levels, and the previous work reported on hybrid compounds containing either of these compounds, in this part of the work we aimed to

1. combine TQ with different protoflavone derivatives into ester-linked hybrid structures,
2. in research collaboration, to assess the antiproliferative potentials of these compounds together with their parent fragments (alone and in combination) against gynecological and glioblastoma cell lines, and
3. to evaluate structure-activity relationships and interpret bioactivity data in view of the compounds' chemical stability.

4. MATERIALS AND METHODS

4.1. General information

Reagents were purchased from Sigma (Merck KGaA, Darmstadt, Germany) unless otherwise stated. Solvents (analytical grade for synthetic work and flash chromatography purifications and high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC)-grade for analytical and preparative HPLC work) were obtained from Macron Fine Chemicals (Avantor Performance Materials, Center Valley, PA, USA), Chem-Lab NV (Zedelgem, Belgium), VWR International S.A.S., and Fontenay-sous-Bois, France. A commercial ginger extract was purchased from Xi'an Pincredit Bio-Tech Co., Ltd., China. COX-1 kit was obtained from VWR International Kft. Debrecen, Hungary (original source: Biovision Inc., Milpitas, CA, USA). For purification of the compounds, flash chromatography was used on a CombiFlashfi Rf+ Lumen apparatus (TELEDYNE Isco, Lincoln, NE, USA) equipped with evaporative light scattering (ELS) and diode array detectors, and the stationary phases were RediSep prefilled silica columns and RediSep cartridges (Teledyne Isco Inc., Lincoln, NE, USA).

Hereinafter, solvent system compositions are always given in volumetric ratios. Preparative purifications over RP-HPLC were performed on a Kinetex XB C18 (5 μ m, 250 \times 21.2 mm) column on an Armen Spot Prep II integrated HPLC purification system (Gilson, Middleton, WI, USA) with dual-wavelength detection, with an adequately chosen combination of acetonitrile and water, and a flow rate of 15 mL/min. Semi-preparative purification was performed on an Agilent 1100 series (Waters Co., Milford, MA, USA) connected to a Jasco UV-2075 detector (Jasco Co., Tokyo, Japan) utilizing a C18 column (5 μ m, 250 \times 10 mm) with a flow rate of 3 mL/min. The purity of the compounds obtained was determined by RP-HPLC analyses on a system of two Jasco PU 2080 pumps, a Jasco AS-2055 Plus intelligent sampler connected to a JASCO LC-Net II/ADC equipped with a Jasco MD-2010 Plus PDA detector (Jasco International Co. Ltd., Hachioji, Tokyo, Japan) utilizing a Kinetex C-18 (5 μ m, 250 \times 4.6 mm) column (Phenomenex Inc., Torrance, CA, USA) and applying a gradient of 30%–100% aqueous AcN in 30 min followed by 100% AcN for 10 min with a flow rate of 1 mL/min. Analysis of samples from the PAMPA and kinetic solubility assays was performed the same way, by using 3-point calibrations and integrating each compound at its UV absorption maximum.

¹H- and ¹³C NMR spectra were recorded in CDCl₃ or CD₃OD using 5 mm tubes at room temperature on a Bruker DRX-500 spectrometer at 500 (¹H) and 125 (¹³C) MHz with the deuterated solvents' signal taken as reference. The heteronuclear single quantum coherence (HSQC), heteronuclear multiple bond correlation (HMBC), ¹H-¹H correlation spectroscopy (COSY), and nuclear Overhauser effect spectroscopy (NOESY) spectra were obtained using the standard Bruker pulse programs. High resolution mass spectroscopy (HRMS) spectra were recorded on a Q-Exactive Plus hybrid quadrupole-orbitrap mass spectrometer (Thermo Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) equipped with heated electrospray ionisation (HESI-II) probe that was used in positive or negative mode per needed.

All bioactivity data processing, including the calculation of inhibition percentage, mean and corresponding standard error of the mean (SEM), and IC₅₀ values, was performed by GraphPad Prism 8.0 or 9.5.1 (GraphPad Software, San Diego, CA, USA) (La Jolla, CA, USA). IC₅₀ values were calculated from the sigmoidal dose–response curves obtained by the log(inhibitor) vs. response and variable slope (DPPH assay) or the log(inhibitor) vs. normalised response and variable slope nonlinear regression model. For the gingerols work, no statistical evaluation was performed on the results obtained; instead, differences greater than two-fold were considered relevant. Plotting of the antiplatelet and COX-1 inhibitory IC₅₀ values and the linear regression of the data was performed by Microsoft Excel, while GraphPad was used for the hybrids.4.2. 6-Gingerol derivatives; isolation, synthesis, and testing

4.2.1. Isolation and synthesis

4.2.1.1. Purification of 6-gingerol ((*S*)-5-hydroxy-1-(4-hydroxy-3-methoxyphenyl) decan-3-one) (1)

Ginger extract was purchased from Xi'an Pincredit Bio-Tech Co., Ltd., Xi'an, China. 6-G (1) was purified from the crude extract at up to a 4 g scale using flash chromatography (Silica,

gradient elution of 0–10% of acetone in *n*-hexane) and obtained as a dark yellow oil (36.8% yield). 6-G (**1**) was then utilised to synthesize 6-shogaol (**2**), and subsequently 4,5-dihydro-6-shogaol (**7**), as published previously [138]. Compound **47** was derived from vanillin (**67**) and 2,4-nonanedione (**70**), and compound **72** from compound **47**, as published previously [139].

4.2.1.2. Synthesis of 1-(4-hydroxy-3-methoxyphenyl)decan-3-one oxime (**64**)

Hydroxylamine hydrochloride (228 mg, 3.3 mmol) was added to a solution of compound **7** (304 mg, 1.1 mmol) in MeOH (5 mL) at room temperature. The reaction was monitored by thin-layer chromatography (TLC), the reaction mixture was purified by flash chromatography (Silica, gradient elution of 0–30% of EtOAc in *n*-hexane) to afford compound **64**, a pale-yellow solid (255 mg, 74.8%) [140].

Compound 64. HRESIMS: C₁₇H₂₇NO₃, [M+H]⁺ *m/z* = 294.20694 (calcd 294.20692), ¹H NMR (500 MHz, in CDCl₃): δ_H 6.83 (m, 1H), 6.70 (dd, 2H, *J* = 13.8, 7.6 Hz), 3.88 (d, 3H, *J* = 3.5 Hz), 3.48 (s, 1H), 2.77 (q, 2H, *J* = 8.0 Hz), 2.60 (m, 1H), 2.46 (m, 1H), 2.36 (m, 1H), 2.10 (t, 1H, *J* = 7.6 Hz), 1.50 (m, 2H), 1.31 (m, 2H), 1.28 (m, 7H), 0.88 (td, 3H, *J* = 7.0, 2.9 Hz) ppm. ¹³C NMR (125 MHz, in CDCl₃): δ_C 161.8, 161.7, 146.6, 144.1, 144.0, 133.6, 133.4, 121.0, 114.5, 111.1, 56.1, 36.4, 34.6, 32.5, 31.9, 31.9, 31.5, 30.0, 30.0, 29.4, 29.2, 27.9, 26.4, 25.8, 22.8, 14.2.

4.2.1.3. Synthesis of (3*R*,5*S*)-1-(4-hydroxy-3-methoxyphenyl)decane-3,5-diol (**65**) and (3*S*,5*S*)-1-(4-hydroxy-3-methoxy phenyl)decane-3,5-diol (**66**)

Compound **1** (100 mg, 0.34 mmol) was dissolved in EtOH (10 mL) and NaBH₄ was added (38 mg, 1 mmol). The reaction was monitored by means of TLC and after completion (1 h) the solvent was evaporated in vacuo and water (20 mL) was added to the residue. The aqueous phase was extracted with EtOAc (3 × 20 mL), and the combined organic phase was dried over Na₂SO₄, filtered, and evaporated in vacuo resulting in a yellow oil (85 mg, 84%), which contained the gingerdiols in high purity (>95%), which were separated via preparative HPLC (50% aqueous AcN) to yield compound **65** as a faint yellow oil, and compound **66** as a white powder. The compounds' MS and NMR spectra were in good agreement with the literature data [141].

4.2.1.4. Synthesis of (*E*)-1-(4-hydroxyphenyl)dec-1-ene-3,5-dione (**71**)

p-Hydroxybenzaldehyde **68** (1000 mg, 8.2 mmol), boron trioxide (2280 mg, 32.8 mmol), and 2,4-nonanedione **70** (2800 mg, 24.6 mmol) were mixed with 2 mL of DMF and heated to 90 °C. A solution of isobutylamine (150 mg = 202 μL, 4 mmol) in 2 mL of DMF was added dropwise over 2 h. The reaction mixture was stirred at 90 °C for 1 h then 50 mL of water was added. The resulting mixture was stirred at 60 °C for 1 h at room temperature overnight. The reaction mixture was extracted with EtOAc and the solvent was evaporated. Purification by flash chromatography (Silica, gradient elution, 5–10% EtOAc in *n*-hexane) afforded compound **71**, a yellow solid (179 mg, 8.5%) [139].

Compound 71. HRESIMS: C₁₆H₂₀O₃, [M-H]⁻ *m/z* = 259.1332, (calcd 260.13342), ¹H NMR (500 MHz, in CD₃OD): δ_H 7.57 (d, 1H, *J* = 15.9 Hz), 7.50 (d, 2H, *J* = 8.6 Hz), 6.84 (m, 2H), 6.51 (d, 1H, *J* = 15.9 Hz), 2.42 (m, 2H), 1.67 (p, 2H, *J* = 7.7, 7.3 Hz), 1.39 (m, 4H), 0.97 (t, 3H, *J* = 7.0 Hz) ppm. ¹³C NMR (125 MHz, in CD₃OD): δ_C 201.6, 179.6, 160.9, 141.3, 2 × 131.0, 128.1, 120.6, 2 × 116.9, 44.3, 40.9, 32.6, 26.5, 23.5, 14.3.

4.2.1.5. Synthesis of 2-methoxy-4-(2-(3-pentyl-1H-pyrazol-5-yl)ethyl)phenol (73), 4-(2-(3-pentyl-1H-pyrazol-5-yl)ethyl)phenol (74), and (E)-4-(2-(3-pentyl-1H-pyrazol-5-yl)vinyl)phenol (75)

To a stirred solution of compounds **47** or **71** (164 mg, 0.57 mmol/100 mg, 0.38 mmol) in ethanol (2 mL), hydrazine monohydrate (71 mg = 71 μL, 1.4 mmol/134 mg = 48 μL, 2.67 mmol) and a catalytic amount of concentrated HCl were added. The reaction mixture was refluxed for 6 h, cooled to ambient temperature, evaporated in vacuo, and purified using preparative HPLC (AcN: H₂O 40:60 for compound **73** and 42:58 for **74** and **75**) to afford compounds **73** (270 mg, 17.8%), **74**, (22 mg, 22.3%) or **75**, (23 mg, 23.6%) as pale-yellow solids [142].

Compound 73. HRESIMS: C₁₇H₂₄N₂O₂, [M+H]⁺ *m/z* = 289.19111 (calcd 289.19160). ¹H NMR (CDCl₃, 500 MHz): δ_H 6.83 (d, 1H, *J* = 8.0 Hz), 6.70 (dd, 1H, *J* = 8.0, 2.0 Hz), 6.67 (d, 1H, *J* = 2.0 Hz), 5.84 (s, 1H), 3.84 (s, 3H), 3.48 (s, 1H), 2.89 (m, 4H), 2.59 (t, 2H, *J* = 7.7 Hz), 1.64 (m, 2H), 1.35 (m, 2H), 1.33 (m, 2H), 0.90 (t, 3H, *J* = 7.1 Hz) ppm. ¹³C NMR (125 MHz, in CDCl₃): δ_C 146.6, 144.2, 133.6, 121.2, 114.5, 111.3, 102.6, 56.1, 35.6, 31.7, 29.6, 29.2, 27.0, 22.6, 14.1.

Compound 74. HRESIMS: C₁₆H₂₂N₂O, [M+H]⁺ *m/z* = 259.18057 (calcd 259.18104), ¹H NMR (500 MHz, in CDCl₃): δ_H 6.99 (d, 2H, *J* = 8.4 Hz), 6.71 (d, 2H, *J* = 8.5 Hz), 5.86 (s, 1H), 3.48 (s, 1H), 2.88 (t, 2H, *J* = 3.9 Hz), 2.87 (t, 2H, *J* = 4.2 Hz), 2.59 (t, 2H, *J* = 7.7 Hz), 1.63 (m, 2H), 1.34 (m, 2H), 1.31 (t, 2H, *J* = 3.9 Hz), 0.90 (t, 3H, *J* = 7.1 Hz) ppm. ¹³C NMR (125 MHz, in CDCl₃): δ_C 154.7, 149.4, 148.9, 133.1, 2 × 129.6, 2 × 115.6, 102.6, 34.9, 31.6, 29.3, 29.1, 27.1, 22.6, 14.1.

Compound 75. HRESIMS: C₁₆H₂₀N₂O, [M+H]⁺ *m/z* = 257.16489 (calcd 257.16539), ¹H NMR (500 MHz, in CD₃OD): δ_H 7.34 (d, 2H, *J* = 8.6 Hz), 7.01 (d, 1H, *J* = 16.5 Hz), 6.85 (d, 1H, *J* = 16.5 Hz), 6.77 (d, 2H, *J* = 8.6 Hz), 6.24 (s, 1H), 2.62 (t, 2H, *J* = 7.6 Hz), 1.67 (m, 2H), 1.38 (m, 2H), 1.36 (m, 2H), 0.92 (t, 3H, *J* = 6.8 Hz) ppm. ¹³C NMR (125 MHz, in CD₃OD): δ_C 158.6, 131.1, 130.2, 2 × 128.8, 2 × 116.6, 103.8, 32.6, 30.3, 23.4, 14.3.

4.2.1.6. Synthesis of (E)-2-methoxy-4-(2-(3-pentylisoxazol-5-yl)vinyl)phenol (76) and (E)-4-(2-(3-pentylisoxazol-5-yl)vinyl)phenol (77)

Hydroxylamine hydrochloride (144 mg, 2.1 mmol/134 mg, 1.9 mmol) and pyridine (165 mg = 169 μL, 2.1 mmol/152 mg = 155 μL, 1.9 mmol) were added to a stirred solution of compounds **47** and **71** separately (122 mg, 0.42 mmol/100 mg, 0.38 mmol) in ethanol (4 mL) and refluxed for 6 hrs. The reaction was monitored by TLC. Subsequently, the mixture was cooled to ambient temperature, evaporated in vacuo, and purified by flash chromatography (Silica, gradient elution, 0–20% acetone in *n*-hexane) to afford compound **76**, a pale-yellow solid (96 mg,

79.3%), while product **77** was obtained as a pure compound from the reaction mixture as a pale-yellow solid (98 mg, 99%) [142].

Compound 76. HRESIMS: $C_{17}H_{21}NO_3$, $[M+H]^+$ $m/z = 288.15999$ (calcd 288.15996), 1H NMR (500 MHz, in $CDCl_3$): δ_H 7.22 (d, 1H, $J = 16.4$ Hz), 7.04 (dd, 1H, $J = 8.1, 2.0$ Hz), 7.01 (d, 1H, $J = 2.0$ Hz), 6.92 (d, 1H, $J = 8.1$ Hz), 6.77 (d, 1H, $J = 16.4$ Hz), 6.06 (s, 1H), 5.77 (s, 1H), 3.95 (s, 3H), 2.66 (t, 2H, $J = 7.5$ Hz), 1.68 (m, 2H), 1.37 (m, 2H), 1.36 (m, 2H), 0.91 (t, 3H, $J = 7.2$ Hz) ppm. ^{13}C NMR (125 MHz, in $CDCl_3$): δ_C 168.5, 164.6, 147.0, 134.6, 128.5, 121.5, 114.9, 111.3, 108.9, 100.6, 56.1, 31.5, 28.2, 26.2, 22.5, 14.1.

Compound 77. HRESIMS: $C_{16}H_{19}NO_2$, $[M-H]^-$ $m/z = 256.13644$ (calcd 256.13375). 1H NMR (500 MHz, in $CDCl_3$): δ_H 7.39 (dd, 2H, $J = 8.6, 1.8$ Hz), 7.23 (d, 1H, $J = 16.4$ Hz), 6.85 (dt, 2H, $J = 8.6, 2.9, 2.1$ Hz), 6.77 (d, 1H, $J = 16.4$ Hz), 6.06 (s, 1H), 3.49 (s, 1H), 2.66 (t, 2H, $J = 7.5$ Hz), 1.68 (m, 2H), 1.36 (m, 2H), 1.35 (m, 2H), 0.90 (t, 3H, $J = 7.2$ Hz) ppm. ^{13}C NMR (125 MHz, in $CDCl_3$): δ_C 168.7, 164.6, 157.1, 134.4, 2×128.8 , 128.6, 2×116.0 , 111.2, 100.6, 31.5, 28.2, 26.2, 22.5, 14.0.

4.2.1.7. Synthesis of *N*-heptyl-3-(4-hydroxyphenyl) propenamide (**81**)

A solution of compound **79** (300 mg, 1.5 mmol) in dry CH_2Cl_2 (10 mL) was cooled to 0 °C, DCC (316 mg) and DMAP (18 mg, 0.2 mmol) were added, and the mixture was stirred for 1 h at 0 °C, then heptylamine **80** (153 mg = 0.197 mL) was added and the reaction was monitored over TLC. Subsequently, the solvent was evaporated, redissolved in dichloromethane, washed with $NaHCO_3$ solution, and the organic phase was evaporated to dryness. The product was purified by flash chromatography (Silica, gradient elution of 20-30% acetone in *n*-hexane) to yield compound **81** as a white solid (431 mg, 92.7%) [143].

Compound 81. HRESIMS: $C_{17}H_{27}NO_3$, $[M+H]^+$ $m/z = 294.20680$, (calcd 294.20692), 1H NMR (500 MHz, in $CDCl_3$): δ_H 6.83 (d, 1H, $J = 8.1$ Hz), 6.72 (d, 1H, $J = 2.0$ Hz), 6.68 (dd, 1H, $J = 8.0, 2.0$ Hz), 5.47 (s, 1H), 3.87 (s, 3H), 3.20 (td, 2H, $J = 7.2, 5.7$ Hz), 2.89 (t, 2H, $J = 7.5$ Hz), 2.42 (t, 2H, $J = 7.5$ Hz), 1.43 (m, 2H), 1.26 (m, 8H), 0.88 (t, 3H, $J = 6.9$ Hz) ppm. ^{13}C NMR (125 MHz, in $CDCl_3$): δ_C 172.2, 146.6, 144.2, 133.0, 121.0, 114.5, 111.2, 56.3, 39.7, 39.2, 31.9, 31.7, 29.8, 29.1, 27.0., 22.7, 14.2.

4.2.2. Antiplatelet activity

Antiplatelet activity was studied in collaboration with the group of Prof. Chin-Chung Wu, Graduate Institute of Natural Products, Kaohsiung Medical University, Kaohsiung, Taiwan. Human platelet suspension (3×10^8 /mL in Tyrode's buffer) was prepared as previously described [144]. The protocol for this study was approved by the institutional review board of Kaohsiung Medical University Hospital (Kaohsiung City, Taiwan). Platelets pre-treated with DMSO (vehicle control) or test compounds were stimulated with AA, and platelet aggregation was measured using turbidimetric aggregometer (Chrono-Log Co., Havertown, PA, USA) at 37 °C under stirring conditions (1200 rpm).

4.2.3. COX-1 inhibitory activity

COX-1 inhibitory activity was tested based on the fluorometric method as described in BioVision's COX-1 inhibitor screening kit leaflet (K548-100, BioVision, CA, USA). Sample solutions were prepared by dissolving in DMSO and subsequently buffer, to get the desired concentrations. In a 96-well white plate (655101, F-bottom, Grenier bio-one, Germany), 80 μL reaction mix (containing 76 μL assay buffer, 1 μL COX Probe, 2 μL COX cofactor, and 1 μL COX-1 enzyme) was added to 10 μL sample solution, DMSO and assay buffer to get test wells assigned for sample screen (S), negative control (N) and blank, respectively. An aliquot of 10 μL of AA/NaOH solution was added to each well using a multichannel pipette to initiate the reaction at the same time, and the fluorescence of each well was measured kinetically at Ex/Em 550/610 nm, at 25 °C for 10 min using a FluoStar Optima plate reader (BMG Labtech, Ortenberg, Germany). The COX inhibitory activity of SC560, a standard inhibitor, was also determined.

The change in fluorescence between two points, T1 and T2 were determined, and relative inhibition was calculated according to the following equation:

$$\% \text{ Inhibition} = (\Delta N - \Delta S) / \Delta N \times 100 \quad (1)$$

where N is the absorbance of the negative control, and S is that of the sample.

Dose-effect studies on the compounds were used to determine the concentration that inhibits 50% of the enzyme activity. The sigmoidal dose–response curves were obtained by using the software GraphPad Prism 8.0 (La Jolla, CA, USA), and these were used to determine the IC₅₀ values of the compounds.

4.2.4. Physicochemical character and blood–brain barrier specific permeability

In vitro and *in silico* pharmacokinetic characterization of the compounds was performed in collaboration with Prof. György T. Balogh, Department of Pharmaceutical Chemistry, Semmelweis University, Budapest, Hungary. Basic physicochemical parameters for drug design and candidate selection were calculated by Percepta Software Package (ACD/Labs, Toronto, Ontario, Canada) [145]. Tautomers and their distributions for compounds **47**, **71** and **72** were generated by Marvin Sketch and Tautomer Generator (Chemaxon Ltd., Budapest, Hungary) [146], which is freely accessible with academic license.

For kinetic aqueous solubility studies each sample was dissolved in DMSO to make 10 mM stock solutions. In a 96-well polypropylene plate (Greiner Bio-One, Kremsmünster, Austria), 15 μL stock solutions were added to 285 μL PBS (pH 7.4) to make starting donor solution with 500 μM as target concentration. For each sample, 3 replicates were measured. The samples were covered and shaken at 37 °C, 300 rpm for 2 h (Heidolph Titramax 1000, Heidolph Instruments GmbH & Co. KG, Schwabach, Germany). After that, each sample was transferred into a filter plate (MSSBLPC, Multiscreen Filter plate, Merck kGaA) and filtered (Vacuum Manifold, Merck kGaA, Darmstadt, Germany). The filtrates were transferred into HPLC vials, and acetonitrile (AcN) was added to aliquot to avoid precipitation. The final solvent ratio was AcN:PBS (70:30). Filtrate concentration was determined by HPLC-UV (see Section 4.1, page 11) using 3-points calibration.

Blood–brain barrier-specific (BBB) permeability measurements were carried out using the PAMPA-BBB model. First, solutions with 500 μM target concentration were prepared as described for the kinetic solubility study. The solutions were sonicated for 10 min at room temperature. To prepare the artificial BBB-specific membrane, 16 mg BPLE were dissolved in 600 μL of *n*-dodecane:*n*-hexane (25:75). Each well of the donor plate (MultiscreenTMIP, MAIPNTR10, pore size 0.45 μm , Merck kGaA) was coated with 5 μL lipid solution and fitted into the acceptor plate containing 300 μL PBS (pH 7.4) with 5% DMSO, and 150–150 μL of the PBS solutions (made from the DMSO stock solutions) were placed on the donor plate’s artificial membrane. The sandwich plate system was covered with a tissue of wet paper and a plastic lid to avoid evaporation of the solvent, and it was incubated at 37 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 4 h. In the end, the initial 500 μM solutions ($c_D(0)$), the donor ($c_D(t)$) and acceptor solution ($c_A(t)$) were analysed by HPLC-UV (see Section 4.1, page 11). BBB permeability was calculated using the effective permeability equation used for iso-pH conditions described by Avdeef [147] as follows.

$$P_e = \frac{-2.303}{A \cdot (t - \tau_{ss})} \cdot \left(\frac{1}{1+r_v} \right) \cdot \lg \left[-\tau_v + \# \left(\frac{1+r_v}{1-MR} \right) \cdot \frac{c_D(t)}{c_D(0)} \right] \quad (1)$$

$$MR = 1 - \frac{c_D(t)}{c_D(0)} - \frac{V_A c_A(t)}{V_D c_D(0)} \quad (2)$$

where A is the filter area (0.3 cm^2), V_D and V_A are the volumes in the donor (0.15 cm^3) and acceptor phase (0.3 cm^3), t is the incubation time (s), τ_{ss} is the time to reach steady state (s), $c_D(t)$ is the concentration of the compound in the donor phase at time point t (mol/cm^3), $c_D(0)$ is the concentration of the compound in the donor phase at time point zero (mol/cm^3), $c_A(t)$ is the concentration of the compound in the acceptor phase at time point t (mol/cm^3), r_v is the aqueous compartment volume ratio (V_D/V_A).

4.2.5. Antioxidant activity

4.2.5.1. 1,1-Diphenyl-2-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH) scavenging activity

DPPH (1,1-diphenyl-2-picrylhydrazyl) was purchased from Thermo Fisher Scientific. DPPH free radical scavenging assay was performed with some modifications based on the method by Fukomoto et al. [148]. Briefly, in a 96-well microplate, microdilutions of samples (100 μL , starting from 200 μM in HPLC grade MeOH) were made and 100 μL of DPPH reagent (100 μM in MeOH) was added. After 30 min at room temperature in the dark, the absorbance was measured at 550 nm using a FluoStar Optima plate reader (software version 2.20R2, BMG Labtech Ortenberg, Germany). For the blank control, MeOH was used. The scavenging activity was calculated as Inhibition (%) = $(A_0 - A_s)/A_0 \times 100$, and IC_{50} values were calculated by GraphPad Prism 8.0 (La Jolla, CA, USA).

4.2.5.2. Oxygen radical absorbance capacity (ORAC)

AAPH ((2,2'-Azobis(2-methyl-propionamide) dihydrochloride) and Trolox standard were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich Hungary. Fluorescein was purchased from Fluka Analytical, Tokyo, Japan. ORAC assay was carried out in a 96-well microplate based on the method from

previous study [149]. Briefly, 20 μL of the samples (1 μM final concentration, dissolved in phosphate buffer, $\text{pH} = 7.4$, containing 1% MeOH) were mixed with 60 μL of AAPH (12 mM final concentration, dissolved in phosphate buffer, $\text{pH} = 7.4$) and 120 μL of fluorescein solution (70 nM final concentration, dissolved in phosphate buffer), then the fluorescence was measured (excitation at $\lambda = 485$ nm, and emission at $\lambda = 520$ nm) through 3 h with 1.5-min cycle intervals with a BMG Labtech FluoStar Optima plate-reader. All experiments were carried out in triplicate, and Trolox was used as standard. The antioxidant capacity is expressed as Trolox Equivalent (TE), as calculated using GraphPad Prism 8.0 (La Jolla, CA, USA).

4.2.5.3. Xanthine oxidase inhibitory activity

The xanthine oxidase (XO) inhibitory activity of the compounds was determined using continuous spectrophotometric rate based on a modified protocol of Sigma. The samples were prepared in a 96-well plate, and the final reaction mixture consisted of 10 μL of sample (dissolved in DMSO, 30 mM stock solution, 100 μM final), 100 μL of xanthine solution (0.15 mM, $\text{pH} = 7.4$), 140 μL of buffer (potassium phosphate, $\text{pH} = 7.5$) and 50 μL of XO (0.2 units/mL). When measuring the enzyme activity, control buffer was used in place of the sample. Allopurinol was applied as a control. The reaction was initiated by the automatic addition of 50 μL of XO solution. The absorbance of XO-induced uric acid production from xanthine was measured at 290 nm for 3 min in a 96-well plate on a BMG Labtech FluoStar Optima plate reader. The inhibitory percentage values were calculated by using Graph Pad Prism 8.0 (La Jolla, CA, USA).

4.2.5.4. Peroxynitrite scavenging activity

Peroxynitrite was synthesised by a continuous flow system using syringe pumps as published previously [150]. Briefly, an acidic solution of hydrogen peroxide (0.6 M H_2O_2 , 0.7 M HCl) was pumped to a junction alongside of sodium nitrite solution (0.6 M) at a flow rate of 1.5 mL/min. After passing 10 cm of tubing, it was mixed with a sodium hydroxide solution (1.5 M), also pumped at 1.5 mL/min. The resulting peroxynitrite solution was a bright yellow colour. The tubing around the reaction was submerged in ice. The concentration of the solution was determined by spectrophotometry and was adjusted to 30 mM with 0.1 M NaOH solution. In a 96-well microplate 245 μL of pyrogallol red (100 μM final concentration, dissolved in 0.1 M glycine buffer) was mixed with 50 μL of sample (0.5 mM final concentration, dissolved in DMSO) and 5 μL ONOO⁻ solution (500 μM final concentration, freshly prepared). After mixing and keeping it at room temperature for 30 min the absorbance was measured at 550 nm using a FluoStar Optima plate reader (software version 2.20R2, BMG Labtech, Ortenberg, Germany).

4.2.6. Molecular docking

Compounds' structures were drawn and saved in PDB format using ChemDraw 12.0.2 software (ACD/LABS, Advanced Chemistry Development, Inc.). The *h*-COX-1 enzyme structure was retrieved from the PDB database. PDB files for the enzyme and compounds were converted to the PDBQT format using the graphical user interface of AutoDock4 (The Scripps Research Institute) [151]. A grid box (X: -33.050, Y: -47.920, and Z: 0.234; the number of grid points in

the three dimensions [npts]: X: 40, Y: 60, and Z: 60; spacing: 0.375) was set to include the amino acids mentioned by Tóth et al. to characterize the binding site [152]. Docking parameters were set to the default values and ligands were docked via the Lamarckian algorithm. The binding energies were obtained from the resulting DLG files, and interactions visualisation was achieved via Biovia (Discovery Studio visualizer version 21.1.0.20298; Dassault Systèmes, Vélizy-Villacoublay, France) after conversion of the docked PDBQT files into PDB files using OpenBabel GUI software version 2.4.1 [153].

4.3. Thymoquinone-protoflavone hybrids; synthesis, stability, and bioactivity testing

4.3.1. Synthesis

4.3.1.1. Synthesis of 2-isopropyl-5-methylcyclohexa-2,5-diene-1,4-dione (**63**)

An aliquot of 2g (0.013 mol) of compound **82** was dissolved in 9:1 of AcN: H₂O (50 mL) at room temperature, then (5.7g, 0.013 mol) PIFA was added. The reaction mixture was stirred for 1hr, quenched, and solvents were evaporated under reduced pressure. The resulting mixture was directly purified using flash chromatography (Silica, gradient elution of 0-10% of EtOAc in *n*-hexane) to obtain compound **63** as a yellow crystalline solid (1.11 g, 50.6 %) [76].

4.3.1.2. General procedure for the synthesis of compounds **89–96**

The method reported by Z. Szakonyi et al. was used with modifications [143]. Compound **83** or **84** (50 mg, 0.21 mmol/ 30 mg, 0.126 mmol) was dissolved in 2 mL of dry CH₂Cl₂ (5 mL), DMAP was added (2.6 mg, 0.021 mmol/ 1.6 mg, 0.013 mmol) and the mixture was cooled to 0 °C, then a solution of DCC in dry CH₂Cl₂ was added (44 mg, 0.21 mmol/ 26 mg, 0.126 mmol). The mixture was stirred for 1 h at 0 °C, after which the corresponding amount (1 eq.) of compounds **62**, **86**, **87**, or **88**, was added and left to stir overnight. The reaction mixture was washed with saturated NaHCO₃ solution. The organic layer was collected, dried over Na₂SO₄, filtered and solvent was evaporated under reduced pressure. The resulting mixtures were purified using preparative RP-HPLC (Kinetex, C18, 5µm, 250 x 21.2 mm). Some of them undergo further purification using semipreparative techniques (Agilent, C18, 5 µm, 250 x 10 mm) using wisely selected AcN: H₂O solvent mixtures.

Compound 83: Yellow wax, 12.4%, C₁₃H₁₆O₄, HRESIMS: [M+H]⁺ *m/z* = 237.11199, (calcd 237.11269) ¹H NMR (500 MHz, in CDCl₃): δ_H = 6.50 (s, 1H), 3.04 (hept, 1H, *J*=6.9 Hz), 2.83 (t, 2H, *J*=7.6 Hz), 2.52 (t, 2H, *J*=7.8 Hz), 2.06 (s, 3H), 1.11 (d, 6H, *J*=6.8 Hz) ppm. ¹³C NMR (125 MHz, in CDCl₃): δ_C = 188.17, 186.9, 177.5 (only detected on HSQC), 154.9, 142.9, 141.5, 130.4, 32.6, 26.9, 22.4, 21.6, 11.9.

Compound 84: Yellow wax, 2.7%, C₁₃H₁₆O₄, HRESIMS: [M+H]⁺ *m/z* = 237.11191, (calcd 237.11269) ¹H NMR (500 MHz, in CDCl₃): δ_H = 6.48 (s, 1H), 3.06 (hept, 1H, *J*=7.0 Hz), 2.85 (t, 2H, *J*=7.9 Hz), 2.48 (t, 2H, *J*=8.0 Hz), 2.01 (s, 3H), 1.28 (d, 6H, *J*=6.9 Hz) ppm. ¹³C NMR (125 MHz, in CDCl₃): δ_C = 188.1, 187.7, 177.8, 149.9, 144.7, 141.9, 134.6, 33.4, 29.4, 21.6, 21.2, 15.7.

Compound 89: Yellow oil, 12.2 %, C₂₈H₂₄O₉, HRESIMS: [M-H]⁻ *m/z* = 503.13453, (calcd 503.13421) ¹H NMR (500 MHz, in CDCl₃): δ_H = 12.39 (s, 1H), 6.85 (d, 2H, *J*=9.6 Hz), 6.72 (s, 1H), 6.66 (s, 1H), 6.56 (s, 1H), 6.52 (s, 1H), 6.41 (d, 2H, *J*=9.6 Hz), 3.05 (hept, 1H, *J*=7.0 Hz), 2.92 (t, 2H, *J*=7.7 Hz), 2.73 (t, 2H, *J*=7.7 Hz), 2.09 (s, 3H), 1.12 (d, 6H, *J*=6.8 Hz) ppm. ¹³C NMR (125 MHz, in CDCl₃): δ_C = 188.0, 186.9, 184.4, 182.9, 170.1, 166.4, 162.1, 156.8, 156.2, 154.9, 2 x 145.3, 142.4, 141.7, 2 x 130.6, 130.5, 109.0, 107.9, 106.0, 101.3, 69.7, 33.0, 26.9, 22.4, 21.6, 12.1.

Compound 90: Yellow oil, 8.3 %, C₂₉H₂₆O₉, HRESIMS: [M+H]⁺ *m/z* = 519.16564, (calcd 519.16551) ¹H NMR in (500 MHz, in CDCl₃): δ_H = 12.43 (s, 1H), 6.75 (d, 2H, *J*=9.7 Hz), 6.70 (s, 1H), 6.63 (s, 1H), 6.58 (s, 1H), 6.56 (s, 1H), 6.53 (d, 2H, *J*=10.9 Hz), 3.41 (s, 3H), 3.05 (hept, 1H, *J*=6.9 Hz), 2.92 (t, 2H, *J*=7.7 Hz), 2.72 (t, 2H, *J*=7.7 Hz), 2.09 (s, 3H), 1.12 (d, 6H, *J*=6.8 Hz) ppm. ¹³C NMR (125 MHz, in CDCl₃): δ_C = 188.0, 186.9, 184.3, 182.9, 170.1, 165.4, 162.1, 156.7, 156.2, 154.9, 2 x 145.1, 142.4, 141.7, 2 x 133.6, 130.5, 109.1, 108.5, 105.9, 101.2, 74.9, 52.9, 33.0, 26.9, 22.4, 21.6, 12.1.

Compound 91: Yellow oil, 8 %, C₃₀H₂₈O₉, HRESIMS: [M+H]⁺ *m/z* = 533.18104, (calcd 533.18116) ¹H NMR (500 MHz, in CDCl₃): δ_H = 12.44 (s, 1H), 6.79 – 6.74 (m, 3H), 6.62 (s, 1H), 6.56 – 6.51 (m, 4H), 3.58 (q, 2H, *J*=6.9 Hz), 3.05 (hept, 1H, *J*=6.9 Hz), 2.92 (t, 2H, *J*=7.7 Hz), 2.72 (t, 2H, *J*=7.7 Hz), 2.09 (s, 3H), 1.29 (t, 3H, *J*=6.9 Hz), 1.12 (d, 6H, *J*=6.8 Hz) ppm. ¹³C NMR (125 MHz, in CDCl₃): δ_C = 188.0, 186.9, 184.5, 182.9, 170.1, 165.7, 162.1, 156.7, 156.1, 154.9, 2 x 145.6, 142.4, 141.7, 2 x 133.1, 130.5, 109.1, 108.6, 105.9, 101.2, 74.6, 61.1, 33.0, 26.9, 22.4, 21.6, 15.8, 12.1.

Compound 92: Yellow oil, 13.6 %, C₃₂H₃₂O₉, MS: [M+H]⁺ *m/z* = 561.4, (calcd 561.2) ¹H NMR (500 MHz, in CDCl₃): δ_H = 12.45 (s, 1H), 6.80 – 6.72 (m, 3H), 6.62 (s, 1H), 6.57 – 6.50 (m, 4H), 3.51 (t, 2H, *J*=6.3 Hz), 3.05 (hept, 1H, *J*=7.0 Hz), 2.92 (t, 2H, *J*=7.7 Hz), 2.72 (t, 2H, *J*=7.3 Hz), 2.09 (s, 3H), 1.68 – 1.58 (m, 2H), 1.48 – 1.39 (m, 2H), 1.12 (d, 6H, *J*=6.9 Hz), 0.94 (t, 3H, *J*=7.3 Hz) ppm. ¹³C NMR (125 MHz, in CDCl₃): δ_C = 188.0, 186.9, 184.5, 182.9, 170.1, 165.7, 162.1, 156.7, 156.1, 154.9, 2 x 145.7, 142.4, 141.7, 2 x 133.1, 130.5, 109.1, 108.6, 105.9, 101.2, 74.6, 65.2, 33.0, 32.2, 26.9, 22.4, 21.6, 19.4, 13.9, 12.1.

Compound 93: Yellow oil, 10.9 %, C₂₈H₂₄O₉, HRESIMS: [M+H]⁺ *m/z* = 505.15037, (calcd 505.14986) ¹H NMR (500 MHz, in CDCl₃): δ_H = 12.37 (s, 1H), 6.86 (d, 2H, *J*=10.1 Hz), 6.72 (s, 1H), 6.67 (d, 1H, *J*=2.0 Hz), 6.58 (d, 1H, *J*=2.0 Hz), 6.50 (d, 1H, *J*=1.6 Hz), 6.41 (d, 2H, *J*=10.0 Hz), 3.08 (hept, 1H, *J*=7.0 Hz), 2.95 (t, 2H, *J*=7.1 Hz), 2.68 (t, 2H, *J*=7.1 Hz), 2.02 (d, 3H, *J*=1.6 Hz), 1.31 (d, 6H, *J*=7.0 Hz) ppm. ¹³C NMR (125 MHz, in CDCl₃): δ_C = 188.2, 187.5, 184.3, 182.9, 169.9, 166.3, 162.1, 156.8, 156.4, 150.1, 2 x 145.2, 144.7, 141.5, 134.7, 2 x 130.7, 109.1, 108.0, 106.1, 101.2, 69.8, 33.9, 29.5, 21.7, 21.3, 15.7.

Compound 94: Yellow oil, 25.8 %, C₂₉H₂₆O₉, HRESIMS: [M+H]⁺ *m/z* = 519.16604, (calcd 519.16551) ¹H NMR (500 MHz, in CDCl₃): δ_H = 12.41 (s, 1H), 6.75 (d, 2H, *J*=10.3 Hz), 6.70 (s, 1H), 6.64 (d, 1H, *J*=2.1 Hz), 6.58 – 6.54 (m, 3H), 6.50 (d, 1H, *J*=1.6 Hz), 3.41 (s, 3H), 3.08 (hept, 1H, *J*=7.0 Hz), 2.95 (t, 2H, *J*=7.1 Hz), 2.67 (t, 2H, *J*=7.1 Hz), 2.02 (d, 3H, *J*=1.5 Hz), 1.31 (d, 6H, *J*=7.0 Hz) ppm. ¹³C NMR (125 MHz, in CDCl₃): δ_C = 188.1, 187.5, 184.2, 182.9, 169.8, 165.5, 162.1, 156.8, 156.3, 150.1, 2 x 144.9, 144.7, 141.5, 134.7, 2 x 133.6, 109.2, 108.6, 105.9, 101.2, 75.1, 52.9, 33.9, 29.5, 21.7, 21.3, 15.7.

Compound 95: Yellow oil, 13.2%, C₃₀H₂₈O₉, HRESIMS: [M+H]⁺ *m/z* = 533.18172, (calcd 533.18116) ¹H NMR (500 MHz, in CDCl₃): δ_H = 12.42 (s, 1H), 6.77 (d, 2H, *J*=10.3 Hz), 6.75 (s, 1H), 6.63 (d, 1H, *J*=2.0 Hz), 6.56 (d, 1H, *J*=2.1 Hz), 6.53 (d, 2H, *J*=10.2 Hz), 6.50 (d, 1H, *J*=1.6 Hz), 3.59 (q, 2H, *J*=7.0 Hz), 3.08 (hept, 1H, *J*=7.0 Hz), 2.95 (t, 2H, *J*=7.1 Hz), 2.67 (t, 2H, *J*=7.1 Hz), 2.02 (d, 3H, *J*=1.6 Hz), 1.32 – 1.2 (m, 9H) ppm. ¹³C NMR (125 MHz, in CDCl₃): δ_C = 188.1, 187.5, 184.4, 182.9, 169.9, 165.7, 162.1, 156.8, 156.2, 150.1, 2 x 145.5, 144.7, 141.5, 134.7, 2 x 133.1, 109.2, 108.6, 105.9, 101.2, 74.7, 61.2, 33.9, 29.4, 21.7, 21.3, 15.8, 15.7.

Compound 96: Yellow oil, 11.3%, C₃₂H₃₂O₉, HRESIMS: [M+H]⁺ *m/z* = 561.21316, (calcd 561.21246) ¹H NMR (in CDCl₃, 500 MHz): δ_H = 12.45 (s, 1H), 6.77 – 6.73 (m, 3H), 6.63 (d, 1H, *J*=2.0 Hz), 6.56 (d, 1H, *J*=2.1 Hz), 6.53 (d, 2H, *J*=10.1 Hz), 6.50 (d, 1H, *J*=1.6 Hz), 3.52 (t, 2H, *J*=6.3 Hz), 3.07 (hept, 1H, *J*=7.0 Hz), 2.94 (t, 2H, *J*=8.8 Hz), 2.67 (t, 2H, *J*=8.8 Hz), 2.02 (d, 3H, *J*=1.6), 1.67 – 1.59 (m, 2H), 1.48 – 1.39 (m, 2H), 1.31 (d, 6H, *J*=7.0 Hz), 0.95 (t, 3H, *J*=7.4 Hz) ppm. ¹³C NMR (in CDCl₃, 125 MHz): δ_C = 188.1, 187.6, 184.5, 183.0, 169.9, 165.7, 162.1, 156.7, 156.2, 150.1, 2 x 145.7, 144.7, 141.5, 134.6, 2 x 133.1, 109.1, 108.6, 105.9, 101.3, 74.6, 65.2, 33.8, 32.2, 29.5, 21.6, 21.3, 19.4, 15.7, 13.9.

4.3.2. Enzymatic hydrolysis assay

A 0.1 M solution of compound **90** or **94** in AcN was prepared and added to 0.025 M PBS (pH=7.4) equilibrated in a water bath at 37 °C. (170 units/ mg protein) Porcine esterase was diluted with 0.025 M PBS then this volume was completed to 2.5 mL with PBS to result in a final compound concentration of 8×10⁻⁴ M and 1.3 units of enzyme/mL. After 24 hrs. incubation at 37 °C, the enzyme activity was quenched and the samples were analyzed via RP- HPLC (Kinetex, C18, 5 μm, 250 x 4.5 mm column, 30-100% AcN gradient elution) [154].

4.3.3. *In vitro* antiproliferative activity

In vitro cell culture-based assays described below were performed in collaboration with Dr. Renáta Minorics and Mr. Bizhar A. Tayeb, Department of Pharmacodynamics and Biopharmacy, Faculty of Pharmacy, University of Szeged, Szeged, Hungary.

4.3.3.1. Cell lines and culture conditions

A collection of gynecological cancer cell lines of human origin including breast cancer like the triple negative MDA-MB-231 and estrogen receptor positive MCF-7, HPV16-positive cervical adenocarcinoma (HeLa) and human glioblastoma (U-87) cell lines were used as *in vitro* models to study the antiproliferative effects of the evaluated compounds. All cell lines were cultivated in T-75 flasks in a minimal essential medium (MEM) supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum (FBS), 1% antibiotic-antimycotic mixture (penicillin-streptomycin-amphotericin B) and 1% non-essential amino acids. The cells were incubated at 37 °C in a 5% CO₂ incubator. The cells were seeded in 96-well plates at a density of 5 x 10³ in 100 μL per well, except for the U-87 that were seeded in 1 x 10⁴ and incubated at the same conditions for overnight to allow the cells' attachment to the well's bottom before the treatment.

4.3.3.2. Treatment with the compounds

Each of the fifteen prepared compounds was dissolved in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) as a 10 mM standard stock solution and kept at -20 °C with minimum light exposure. Immediately before each experiment, the stock solution was used and diluted with a culture medium to get the final concentrations. The values of half-maximal inhibitory concentration (IC_{50}) were determined by exposure of the cells into eight different concentrations of each tested compound (0.39, 0.78, 1.56, 3.125, 6.25, 12.5, 25 and 50 μ M). Temozolomide (TMZ) and cisplatin were used as positive controls in the case of U-87 and the gynecological cell lines, respectively. The negative control wells included the cells with only MEM treatment. The plates were incubated for up to 72 hours under the same abovementioned incubation conditions.

4.3.3.3. Antiproliferative activity measurements

The colorimetric MTT assay was used to assess the ability of the prepared compounds to inhibit cellular proliferation. After cells were incubated with the different concentrations of the compounds, 20 μ L of the MTT solution ([3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide], 5 mg/mL in PBS, Duchefa Biochemie BV, Haarlem, The Netherlands) was added to each well including the negative controls and kept under the usual incubation conditions for additional four hours. Subsequently, the media was carefully aspirated and 100 μ L of DMSO was added to each well and the plates were gently shaken for 30 min to solubilize the precipitated crystals of purple formazan. Absorbance was measured at a wavelength of 545 nm using a microplate UV-VIS reader (SPECTROstar Nano, BMG Labtech GmbH, Offenburg, Germany) [155]. The same procedure was performed using MRC-5 cells to determine the cancer selectivity of the most promising test compounds.

4.3.3.4. Combination Assay

In the case of experimental combination study, cell viability data obtained for equimolar mixtures of the reference fragments were tested in comparison with their corresponding building blocks, as well as with hybrid compounds. The hybrid compounds were regarded as mixtures composed of building fragments in a 1:1 ratio. In this bioassay, at least two separate experiments were performed, each in triplicate. The dataset was then subjected to appropriate statistical analysis. The calculated IC_{50} values were subsequently employed to quantitatively assess the extent of pharmacological benefit obtained through the hybridization of fragments in comparison to the cytotoxic effect produced by the experimental combination of PA or its derivatives and TQ fragments.

4.3.3.5. Statistical analysis

The data from two separate experiments in triplicates were collected to assess the antiproliferative activity of the compounds. The data were calculated and evaluated using the GraphPad Prism 9.5.1 (GraphPad Software, San Diego, CA, USA). The IC_{50} (half-maximal inhibitory concentration) values were determined using log inhibitor vs normalized response of nonlinear regression model of the software. The error bars represent the standard error of mean

(SEM) of the IC₅₀ values. The value of the parameter is derived from the ratio of IC₅₀ value of test compound on MRC-5 cells and that on U-87 cells. The higher the value, the better the cancer selectivity of the test compound.

5 RESULTS

5.1. 6-Gingerol derivatives

5.1.1. Chemistry

6-G (**1**) was isolated from an ethanolic ginger extract via a feasible extraction process resulting in a pure product with up to 36% yield (**Fig. 5**).

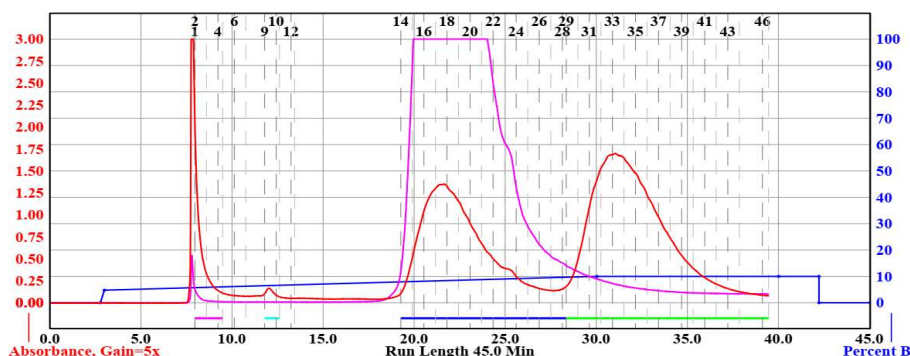
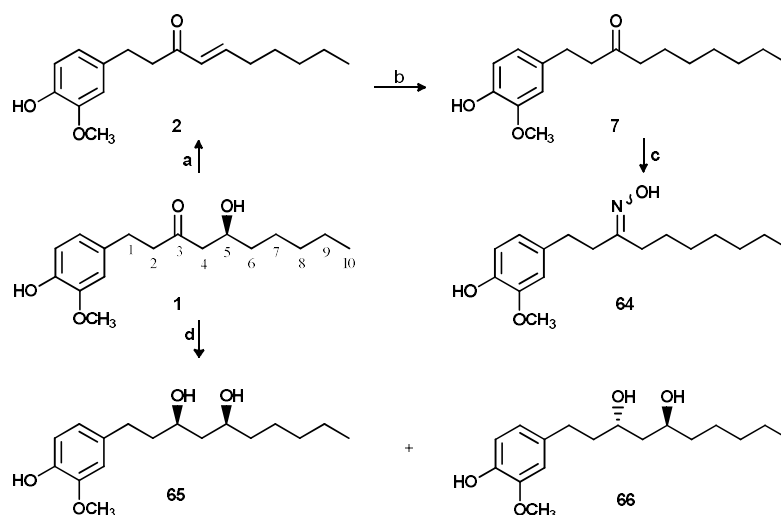


Figure 5. The process of 6-gingerol isolation from the extract via flash chromatography technique using Silica as a stationary phase and n-hexane: acetone as mobile phase ($\lambda_1=225$, $\lambda_2=366$) The purified 6-G was subsequently utilized as a starting material for the synthesis of five compounds (**2**, **7**, and **64–66**). Except for compound **64**, all of them are naturally present in ginger root. Further derivatives were inspired by the structure of 6-G, and in total fourteen compounds were synthesized (**Schemes 1**, **2**, and **3**); eight of them are new (i.e., compounds **64**, **71**, **73–77**, and **81**) according to the SciFinder database.



Scheme 1. Semi-synthesis of compounds **2**, **7**, and **64–66** from 6-gingerol (**1**). Reaction conditions: **a.** *p*TsOH/toluene/110 °C; **b.** H₂/Pd/C/EtOAc/r.t.; **c.** NH₂OH.HCl/EtOH/rt; **d.** NaBH₄/MeOH.

Compound **2**, 6-shogaol was obtained through a dehydration process using P-TsOH, while 6-gingerdiol epimers, compounds **65** and **66** were gained in a 3:2 ratio mixture product upon 6-G reduction (**Scheme 1**). They were separated using the preparative HPLC technique (**Fig. 6**). Reductive amination of 6-G resulted in compound **64**, an oxime isostere of 6-paradol (compound **7**) and it was obtained as an isomeric mixture of both *E* and *Z* isomer.

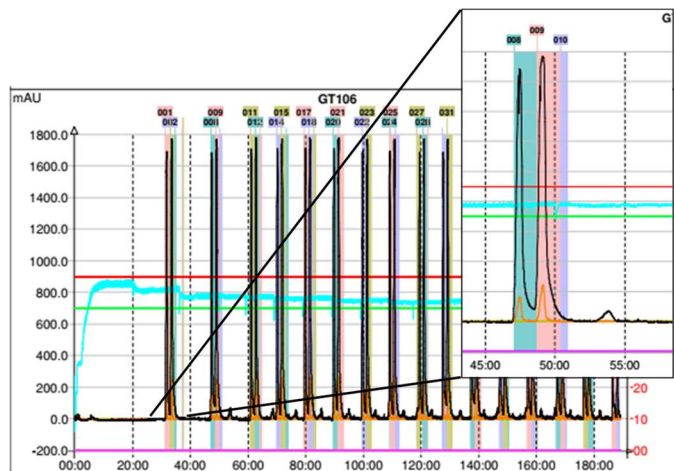
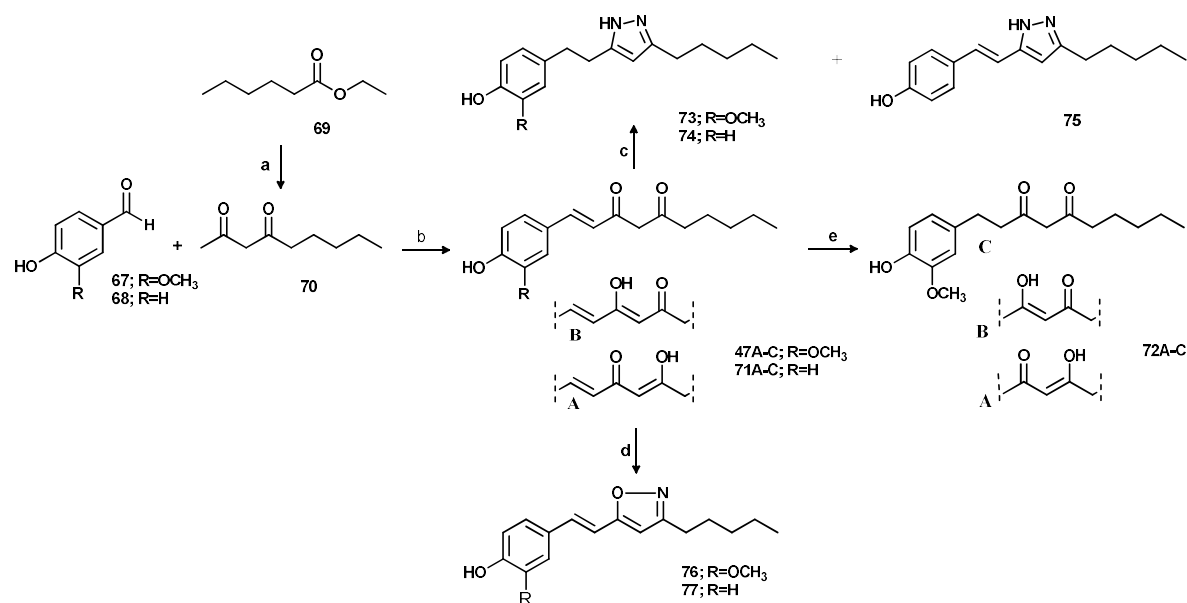


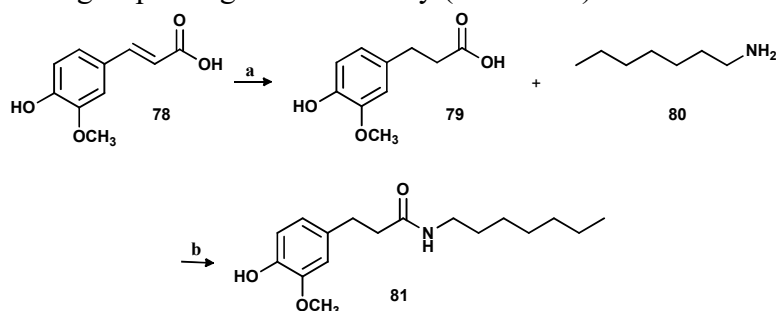
Figure 6. The process of separation of 6-gingerdiol epimers; compounds **65** and **66** using preparative HPLC technique (using Kinetex 5 μ m XB C-18 250 x 21.2 mm, 50% aqueous AcN).

6-Dehydrogingerdione (**47**) was utilized as a starting material for synthesis of another three products (viz; **72**, **73**, and **76**) (**Scheme 2**). A similar set of compounds (**74**, **75**, and **77**) was synthesized from compound **71**, a synthetic analogue of **47** prepared similarly to that with the only difference of using 4-hydroxybenzaldehyde **68** instead of vanillin **67**.



Scheme 2. Preparation of gingerdione derivatives **47**, **71** and **72** and their heterocyclic analogues **73–77**. Reaction conditions: **a**. 1. NaH/Et₂O/Acetone/0 °C, 2. EtOH/HCl; **b**. B₂O₃/*i*BuNH₂/DMF/ 90 °C; **c**. H₆N₂O/HCl/EtOH/80 °C; **d**. NH₂OH.HCl/pyridine/ethanol/80 °C; **e**. H₂/Pd/C/EtOAc /rt. Major tautomers of compounds **47**, **71** and **72** are indicated with **A**, **B**, and **C**.

Compound **81** was synthesized as an amide derivative mimicking the structure of 6-G to test the effect of this functional group change in the activity (**Scheme 3**).



Scheme 3. Preparation of the amide analogue of 6-paradol (**81**). Reaction conditions: **a.** H₂/Pd /C/EtOAc/rt; **b.** DCC/DMAP/CH₂Cl₂/rt.

5.1.2. Antiplatelet activity

The inhibition of AA-induced platelet aggregation was studied using human platelet suspension. Compound **7** proved to be the most potent among all with an IC₅₀ of 2.1 μM, while compound **76** was the most promising among the synthetic ones (IC₅₀ = 3.1 μM) (**Table 1**). Compounds **65** and **66** were the least active of all.

Table 1. Antiplatelet inhibition assay results. For the assay, washed human platelets were treated with 6-gingerol derivatives for 3 min and then stimulated with arachidonic acid (100 μM); data are presented as mean ± SEM, *n* = 3; aspirin was used as a positive control.

Compound	Antiplatelet IC ₅₀ (μM)	LLE ^a _(Antiplatelet)
1	45.9 ± 5.1	1.46
2	2.8 ± 0.5	1.40
7	2.1 ± 1.0	1.56
64	5.2 ± 0.4	0.47
65	51.7 ± 2.7	1.26
66	45.1 ± 6.0	1.32
47(A) ^b	4.1 ± 1.0	1.89 ^b
71(A) ^b	71.7 ± 28.3	0.24 ^b
72(B) ^b	3.6 ± 0.9	1.94 ^b
73	4.1 ± 1.2	0.72
74	>100	-
75	3.5 ± 0.9	0.63
76	3.1 ± 0.9	1.08
77	32.0 ± 10.1	-0.27
81	35.9 ± 23.7	0.80
Aspirin	106.0 ± 20.2	2.58

^a Ligand–lipophilic efficiency: LLE = pIC₅₀ – log*P*_{predicted}. For LLE, green colouring indicates a satisfactory level (LLE_(Antiplatelet) ≥ 1.5 and IC₅₀ ≤ 10 μM). ^b For the sake of strict characterisation, the tautomer with the highest log*P* value (see **Table 3**) was included in the LLE calculation for compounds **47**, **71** and **72**, i.e., the value for the worst possible case is shown in the table.

5.1.3. COX-1 inhibitory activity

Evaluation of the inhibitory activity of the compounds against COX-1 enzyme was conducted using a fluorometric assay. Results are shown below (**Table 2**).

Table 2. Cyclooxygenase-1 (COX-1) inhibition assay results. Data are presented as mean \pm SEM, $n = 2$.

Compound	COX-1 IC ₅₀ (μ M)	LLE ^a _(COX-1)
1	62.5 \pm 23.8	1.30
2	9.8 \pm 0.6	0.81
7	4.4 \pm 0.2	1.26
64	5.2 \pm 0.3	0.48
65	54.3 \pm 6.5	1.27
66	76.2 \pm 0.3	1.12
47(A) ^b	23.1 \pm 9.3	1.14
71(A) ^b	>200	-
72(B) ^b	11.8 \pm 5.4	1.53
73	3.6 \pm 0.2	0.74
74	>200	-
75	17.5 \pm 0.1	-0.04
76	5.85 \pm 0.04	0.83
77	>200	-
81	>100	-

^a Ligand–lipophilic efficiency: LLE = pIC₅₀—log $P_{\text{predicted}}$. For LLE, green colouring indicates a satisfactory level (LLE_(COX-1) \geq 1.0 and IC₅₀ \leq 10 μ M). ^bFor the sake of strict characterisation, the tautomer with the highest log P value (see **Table 3**) was included in the LLE calculation for compounds **47**, **71** and **72**, i.e., the value for the worst possible case is shown in the table.

5.1.4. Physicochemical character and blood–brain barrier specific permeability

To assess the druggability of these compounds their ADME characteristics were assessed using *in silico* (lead optimisation parameters and the Central Nervous System Multiparameter Optimisation (CNS MPO) compliance [156]) and *in vitro* (determination of kinetic solubility and *in vitro* BBB permeability) approaches. Results along with the calculated descriptors are shown in **Table 3**.

Table 3. *In silico* and experimental data for physicochemical and BBB permeability characterisation. Results are given as mean \pm standard error of the mean (SEM); $n = 3$.

Cmpds ID	Tautomer Distribution (%) ^b	Predicted Values ^a				Experimental Data		
		$pK_{a,base}/pK_{a,acid}$ ^c	$\log P/\log D_{pH7.4}$	TPSA	HBD/HBA	CNS MPO ^d [156]	Kinetic Solubility ^e (μM)	PAMPA-BBB ^{e'} $P_e (\cdot 10^{-7} \text{ cm/s})/\text{MR} (\%)$
1		-/10.0	2.9/2.9	66.8	2/4	5.06	>500	35.2 \pm 2.4/23.8 \pm 1.5
2		-/10.0	4.2/4.2	46.5	1/3	4.18	110.2 \pm 3.8	31.7 \pm 3.6/20.9 \pm 3.9
7		-/10.0	4.1/4.1	46.5	1/3	4.19	45.2 \pm 2.7	-/11.0 \pm 0.7
64		-/10.1	4.8/4.8	62.1	2/4	3.60	75.1 \pm 7.3	-/4.0 \pm 11.1
65		-/10.1	3.0/3.0	69.9	3/4	4.72	>500	33.9 \pm 2.5/9.1 \pm 7.6
66		-/10.1	3.0/3.0	69.9	3/4	4.72	460.7 \pm 10.3	27.4 \pm 1.6/18.5 \pm 2.7
47A	31	-/8.3	3.5/3.5	66.8	2/4	4.81		
47B	60	-/8.3	3.2/3.2	66.8	2/4	4.53	54.0 \pm 1.3	-/-
47C	9	-/8.7	3.3/3.3	63.6	1/4	5.01		
71A	38	-/8.3	3.9/3.8	57.5	2/3	4.62		
71B	54	-/8.4	3.4/3.4	57.5	2/3	4.15	15.6 \pm 0.1	-/-
71C	8	-/8.9	3.5/3.5	54.4	1/3	4.75		
72A	31	-/8.7	3.4/3.4	66.8	2/4	4.58		
72B	60	-/8.7	3.5/3.4	66.8	2/4	4.56	314.6 \pm 23.7	-/-
72C	9	-/9.4	3.3/3.3	63.6	1/4	4.98		
73		3.8/10.1	4.7/4.7	58.1	2/4	3.67	276.7 \pm 5.5	15.8 \pm 0.8/33.6 \pm 4.6
74		3.9/10.1	4.9/4.9	48.9	2/3	3.57	202.9 \pm 5.5	20.7 \pm 4.3/3.1 \pm 5.7
75		3.1/10.0	4.8/4.8	48.9	2/3	3.59	89.4 \pm 3.1	-/-
76		-/9.9	4.4/4.4	55.5	1/4	4.04	10.9 \pm 2.0	-/-
77		-/9.8	4.8/4.8	46.3	1/3	3.87	<LOD	-/-
81		-/10.1	3.6/3.6	58.6	2/4	4.36	482.6 \pm 18.7	32.2 \pm 3.4/12.1 \pm 5.2
Aspirin		-/3,5	1.4/-1.7	63.6	1/4	5.75	-	-

^a Predicted values calculated by ACD/Labs Percepta software [145], ^b Generated by Chemaxon Tautomer Generator [146], ^c strongest acidic pK_a , ^d CNS MPO were determined using predicted $pK_{a,basic}$, $\log P/\log D_{pH7.4}$ (classic and consensus settings, respectively), TPSA and HBD values, ^{e/e'} after 2 h/4 h, at 37 °C in PBS, pH 7.4. *Colours of classification systems:* $\log D_{pH7.4}$: moderate violation (yellow) ≥ 3.5 , high violation (magenta) ≥ 4.0 ; CNS MPO: low (magenta) ≤ 4.0 , moderate (yellow) ≤ 4.7 , good (green) > 4.7 ; Kin.Sol.: low (magenta) ≤ 100 , moderate (yellow) ≤ 300 , good (green) > 300 ; Increased BBB-permeability (green) > 25 .

5.1.5. Antioxidant activity

The antioxidant activity was assessed using multiple models, such as the diphenyl-2-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH) scavenging assay, ORAC assay, ONOO⁻ scavenging, and XO inhibition assays. Compound **65** showed the best activity in the DPPH assay with IC₅₀ value of 6.51 μM (Table 4).

Table 4. The antioxidant activity results of 6-gingerol and its derivatives. Values are given as mean \pm standard error of the mean (SEM). ORAC assay results are given in Trolox equivalents (TE), ONOO⁻ scavenging and xanthine oxidase (XO) inhibition assay results are given in % inhibition at concentrations of 500 and 100 μ M, respectively; $n = 2$ for DPPH; $n = 3$ for ORAC, ONOO⁻ and XO.

Compounds	DDPH		ORAC TE	ONOO ⁻ Scavenging (%)	XO Inhibition (%)
	IC ₅₀ (μ M)	LLE ^a			
1	8.92 \pm 0.46	2.15	1.30 \pm 0.04	<5.0	<5.0
2	11.41 \pm 0.49	0.75	1.10 \pm 0.03	<5.0	<5.0
7	9.43 \pm 0.16	0.93	1.36 \pm 0.02	<5.0	<5.0
64	8.56 \pm 0.07	0.27	0.47 \pm 0.09	<5.0	10.56 \pm 2.30
65	6.51 \pm 0.28	2.19	2.30 \pm 0.05	<5.0	<5.0
66	13.82 \pm 0.03	1.86	1.12 \pm 0.03	<5.0	<5.0
47	9.04 \pm 0.19	1.54	1.98 \pm 0.12	<5.0	<5.0
71	>200	-	2.89 \pm 0.49	<5.0	<5.0
72	10.86 \pm 0.69	1.46	2.60 \pm 0.06	<5.0	<5.0
73	16.16 \pm 0.46	0.09	0.44 \pm 0.07	<5.0	10.13 \pm 1.65
74	>200	-	1.00 \pm 0.02	<5.0	12.30 \pm 0.90
75	18.98 \pm 1.63	-0.08	2.88 \pm 0.16	<5.0	16.01 \pm 4.05
76	8.13 \pm 0.21	0.69	0.77 \pm 0.20	38.40 \pm 3.05	<5.0
77	>100	-	1.76 \pm 0.06	5.64 \pm 1.31	<5.0
81	14.07 \pm 0.21	1.25	1.62 \pm 0.004	<5.0	<5.0
allopurinol	-	-	-	-	98.80 \pm 0.11

^a Ligand–lipophilic efficiency: LLE = pIC₅₀—logP_{predicted}. For LLE, green colouring indicates a satisfactory level (LLE \geq 1.5 and IC₅₀ \leq 10 μ M).

5.1.6. Molecular docking

To predict the interaction of these compounds with COX-1 enzyme, a molecular docking approach was implemented using AutoDock4.

Compound **76** achieved the best binding affinity (-9.5 Kcal/mol) (for its orientation in the binding pocket, see Discussion, page 35, **Fig. 9**). As compounds **47**, **71**, and **72** are present in both enol and keto forms, their respective enol forms were also docked, and their data are displayed below (**Table 5**).

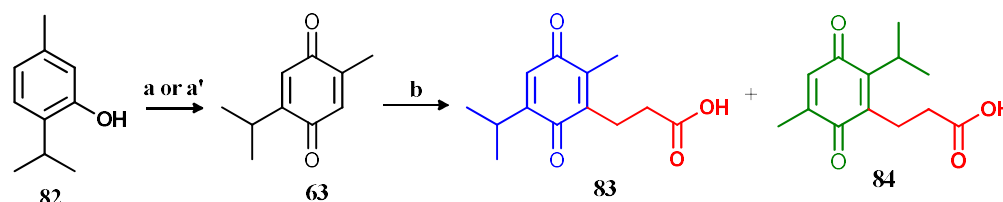
Table 5. Docking results obtained using AutoDockTools 1.5.7 and Discovery Studio visualizer (21.1.0.20298)

Compound	Binding energy (Kcal/mole)	Number of interacting AA	Number of conventional H-bonds	AA involved in H-bonds
1	-8.68	9	2	Val A:349, Ser A:530
2	-8.76	6	-	-
7	-8.50	9	1	Ile A:523
64	-8.38	11	1	Ser A:530
65	-8.01	11	1	Tyr A:355
66	-7.70	8	2	Val A:349, Ser A:530
47A	-9.29	9	-	-
47B	-8.93	9	1	Tyr A:385
47C	-8.21	4	-	-
71A	-9.23	6	3	Tyr A:385, Gly A:533, ASN A:375
71B	-8.76	5	1	GLY A:533
71C	-8.22	5	1	ASN A:375
72A	-8.30	7	1	Arg A:120
72B	-9.20	9	1	ASN A:375
72C	-8.85	11	-	-
73	-8.88	10	-	-
74	-8.36	9	1	Met A:522
75	-8.47	8	1	Gly A:533
76	-9.50	9	-	-
77	-9.32	12	1	Arg A:376
81	-8.54	10	2	Tyr A:385, Ile A:523

5.2. Protoflavone-thymoquinone hybrids

5.2.1. Chemistry

TQ (**63**) was synthesized from thymol (**82**) using two methods (**Scheme 4**): the first using mCPBA [157], while the second utilizing PIFA as an oxidizing agent [76].



Scheme 4. Preparation of TQ (**63**) and its derivatives; compounds **83** and **84**. Reaction conditions: **a.** mCPBA/CHCl₃/rt **a'**. PIFA/AcN: H₂O/rt/1hr **b.** C₄H₆O₄/ AgNO₃/(NH₄)₂S₂O₈/AcN/H₂O/ 100 °C

TQ adducts **83** and **84** were then synthesized using succinic acid (**Scheme 4**) and separated via preparative HPLC technique (**Fig. 7**)

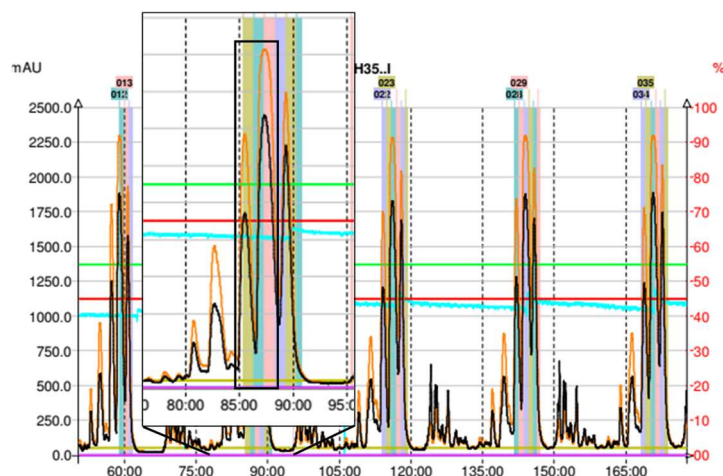
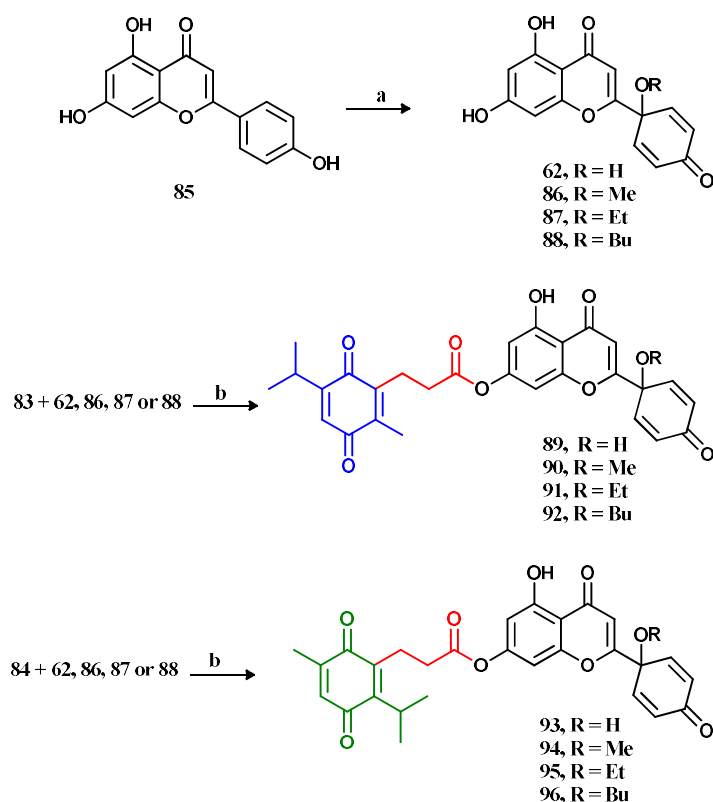


Figure 7: The process of compound **83** and **84** separation using preparative HPLC techniques; (using Kinetex 5 μ XB C-18 250 x 21.2 mm, 50% aqueous MeOH).

The protoflavones **62** and **86–88** were synthesized according to the method reported by Hunyadi et al. [76]. Eight hybrid compounds were then synthesized containing different 1'-R groups in the protoflavone B-ring.



Scheme 5. Preparation of the protoflavone part (**62** and **86–88**) and the corresponding hybrids (**89–96**). Reaction conditions: **a.** PIFA/AcN: ROH/70 °C/1hr **b.** DDC/DMAP/dry DCM/rt

The hybrids; compounds **90** and **94** were tested for their stability. Kinetic studies demonstrated a tendency towards hydrolysis by many solvents, especially methanol. The stability for these compounds was also tested in PBS, porcine esterase enzyme, MEM media over time compared to a blank, and a total hydrolysis was noted after 1, 3 and 24 hrs.

5.2.2. *In vitro* antiproliferative activity

The *in vitro* antitumor activity of the hybrid molecules and their building blocks was assessed against HeLa, MCF-7, MDA-MB-123, and U-87 cell lines, results are shown below (**Table 6**)

Table 6. Antiproliferative effects of thymoquinone-protodiflavone compounds (hybrids [**90–97**] and their building blocks [**63**, **83**, and **84** and **86–89**]) on tested cancer cell lines.

Compounds	Calculated IC ₅₀ ± SEM; [μM] ^a			
	MDA-MB-231	MCF-7	HeLa	U-87
63	7.02 ± 0.17	23.97 ± 1.37	> 100	39.07 ± 3.53
83	38.17 ± 2.81	> 100	> 100	77.72 ± 1.61
84	12.44 ± 0.37	> 100	> 100	88.73 ± 5.17
62	0.57 ± 0.07	0.66 ± 0.06	1.80 ± 0.09	1.73 ± 0.11
86	2.23 ± 0.13	3.95 ± 0.30	5.51 ± 0.21	7.03 ± 0.11
87	1.22 ± 0.03	2.50 ± 0.11	2.83 ± 0.12	1.73 ± 0.06
88	0.82 ± 0.05	2.01 ± 0.07	1.88 ± 0.10	1.50 ± 0.12
89	1.27 ± 0.04	1.65 ± 0.07	2.00 ± 0.26	6.16 ± 0.49
90	2.25 ± 0.13	2.66 ± 0.11	3.51 ± 0.17	7.63 ± 0.46
91	2.15 ± 0.08	3.21 ± 0.07	2.35 ± 0.15	8.22 ± 0.73
92	0.99 ± 0.05	1.68 ± 0.16	1.40 ± 0.25	3.43 ± 0.25
93	0.52 ± 0.02	1.20 ± 0.03	1.06 ± 0.08	1.16 ± 0.20
94	3.53 ± 0.17	5.44 ± 1.32	6.78 ± 0.28	18.89 ± 3.42
95	1.98 ± 0.06	4.11 ± 0.34	1.71 ± 0.16	6.06 ± 0.40
96	1.075 ± 0.08	2.70 ± 0.09	3.08 ± 0.46	8.65 ± 1.15
Cis ^b	9.71 ± 0.51	6.55 ± 0.77	16.01 ± 2.00	9.13 ± 1.79
TMZ ^c	—	—	—	388.2 ± 43.0

^a Mean value from two independent measurements with three parallel wells

^b cisplatin

^c temozolomide

In addition, the experimental combinations (1:1 mixture of building blocks) were tested on the U-87 cells for their antiproliferative activity for the purpose of comparison with the corresponding hybrid compounds (**Table 7**). Generally, a varying degree of potency was noted as evidenced by an IC₅₀ range from 1.73 to 11.14 μM across all the experimental combinations.

Table 7. Calculated IC₅₀ values of the structural combination (hybrid compounds) and experimental combination of the corresponding thymoquinone and protoflavone building blocks on the U-87 cells. Statistical analysis was performed by using unpaired t-test, * p<0.05; *** p<0.001 as compared to the corresponding 1:1 fragment mixture.

Compounds		Calculated IC ₅₀ ± SEM; [μM] ^a	
Hybrid	1:1 mixture ^b	Hybrid	1:1 mixture
89	83 + 62	6.16 ± 0.49***	2.22 ± 0.43
90	83 + 86	7.63 ± 0.46*	10.03 ± 0.87
91	83 + 87	8.22 ± 0.73***	3.97 ± 0.23
92	83 + 88	3.43 ± 0.25***	1.73 ± 0.08
93	84 + 62	1.16 ± 0.20***	3.68 ± 0.35
94	84 + 86	18.89 ± 3.42	11.14 ± 1.02
95	84 + 87	6.06 ± 0.40	5.82 ± 0.61
96	84 + 88	8.65 ± 1.15***	2.90 ± 0.18
-	63 + 62	-	3.32 ± 0.54
-	63 + 86	-	11.04 ± 0.94
-	63 + 87	-	5.89 ± 0.28
-	63 + 88	-	0.97 ± 0.42

^a Mean value from two independent measurements with three parallel wells

^b Each fragment was administered at the given concentration

Antiproliferative assay on non-cancerous human lung fibroblast cells (MRC-5) to determine their cancer selectivity compared to that of the positive control temozolomide was also conducted using compound **93**, its building blocks (**84** and **62**), their experimental mixture (**84** + **62** in 1:1 ratio), and two additional protoflavone derivatives (**87** and **88**); results shown in table below.

Table 8. Antiproliferative effects of selected compounds on MRC-5 non-cancerous human lung fibroblast cell line and the calculated selectivity indices (SI) of the tested compounds against U-87 glioblastoma cell lines; SI = IC₅₀ (MRC-5)/IC₅₀ (U-87).

Compound	Calculated IC ₅₀ ± SEM; [μM] ^a		SI
	MRC-5	U-87	
84	40.25 ± 1.04	88.73 ± 5.17	0.45
62	2.62 ± 0.20	1.73 ± 0.11	1.51
87	3.79 ± 0.25	1.73 ± 0.06	2.19
88	3.56 ± 0.12	1.50 ± 0.12	2.37
93	5.10 ± 0.21	1.16 ± 0.20	4.40
84 + 62 (1:1 mixture)	4.72 ± 0.10	3.68 ± 0.35	1.28
TMZ^b	1094 ± 45.1	388.2 ± 43.0	2.82

^a Mean value from two independent measurements with three technical replicates each.

^b Positive control; TMZ: temozolomide

6. DISCUSSION

6.1. 6-Gingerol derivatives

6.1.1. Chemistry

Structural elucidation for 6-G and its derivatives was performed through HRMS and NMR. In the case of gingerdiones (**47**, **71**, and **72**), enol-oxo tautomerization driven by intramolecular hydrogen bond formation resulted in the appearance of signals of both tautomers at different intensities in the spectra. For some of the oxazole or pyrazole derivatives, the peaks for the quaternary carbons in the heterocyclic ring were not identifiable and this might be explained by their long relaxation time after the irradiation. Nevertheless, characteristic ¹H proton resonances and HRMS spectra of these compounds allowed the unambiguous establishment of their chemical structures.

Compound **47** was obtained via a total synthetic pathway from vanillin and 2,4-nonanedione according to the method described by Yao et al. [139] (see **Scheme 2**, page 23). The yield of this reaction was very low (11.6%), so different approaches were utilized to improve the yield. A protection-deprotection strategy utilizing different protecting agents didn't really improve the yield (reactions not shown), however, an appreciable increase of *i*-BuNH amount (50% eq. more) and reaction time lead to more than 10% improvement in the yield.

6.1.2. Antiplatelet activity

Platelets represent an important factor in maintaining hemostasis. Imbalances related to them can lead to blood clots resulting in serious conditions like ischemic heart diseases, pulmonary embolism, and stroke. Components of ginger extract were studied for their AA-induced antiplatelet aggregatory activity and encouraging results were reported [30]. The potential antiplatelet activity for isolated 6-G was also reported [46, 158].

One of the pathways that play a crucial role in the process of platelet activation is the arachidonic acid (AA)-cyclooxygenase-1 (COX-1) pathway [159]. To assess the antiplatelet bioactivity of 6-G (**1**) and its derivatives, they were tested for their inhibitory effects on AA-induced platelet aggregation. Except for compound **74**, all compounds showed better platelet-aggregation inhibitory activity compared to the positive control; aspirin (IC₅₀ = 106 μM). Compounds **7**, **2**, **76**, **75**, and **72** showed the most promising results, with around 2–4 μM IC₅₀ values which is more than 20 folds better than 6-G (**1**) and aspirin (see **Table 1**, page 24). Our results come in accordance with what has been reported previously by Shih et al [62] concerning 6-paradol (**7**) that was the most promising among all.

Regarding the structure-activity relationships, our results suggest an important role for the aromatic methoxy group, which is evident through comparing the IC₅₀ values of **47** vs. **71**, **73** vs. **74**, and **76** vs. **77**. Intriguingly, compound **75** didn't follow this rule. This might highlight a possible role of the Δ^{1,2} olefin in some cases, e.g., when it is conjugated with a pyrazole ring. On the other hand, the 5-OH group substitution is greatly unfavourable; as suggested by the increased antiplatelet activity of compounds **2**, **7**, and **64**, as well as its oxidation (compound **72** vs. **1**) or replacement by a heterocycle (e.g., compound **73** vs. **1**).

Compound **81**, the amide derivative of compound **1** was only moderately active. Comparatively, replacing the 3-oxo group by an oxime group led to only a slight, ca. 2-fold decrease in the antiplatelet activity ($IC_{50} = 5.2 \mu M$), which might be explained by different receptor interaction possibilities offered by the hydroxyl group of the oxime functional group.

Ligand-lipophilic efficiency (LLE) is an estimate of drug likeness through linking potency and lipophilicity of a compound, defined as the pIC_{50} of interest minus the LogP of a compound [160, 161]. Notably, most of compounds that showed better results in terms of drug likeness (LLE) are naturally present in ginger root (**72**, **47**, **7**, **1**, and **2**).

6.1.3. COX-1 inhibitory activity:

As cyclooxygenase-1 enzyme represents a key factor in the platelet aggregation process, we investigated the activity of our compounds against COX-1 using a fluorometric assay. The antiplatelet mechanism of action of 6-G and its derivatives has previously been suggested to be COX-1 inhibition [46, 63, 162]. Our results for the newly synthesised compounds agree with this notion.

The results are to a great extent in harmony with the antiplatelet inhibition assay results (the IC_{50} datasets of **Table 2** (page 25) give a linear correlation coefficient (R^2) value of 0.887, suggesting the inhibition mechanism to be COX-1-mediated, **Fig. 8**. Compounds **73**, **7**, **64**, **76**, and **2** showed the best IC_{50} s, while compounds **77**, **71**, and **74** were the least.

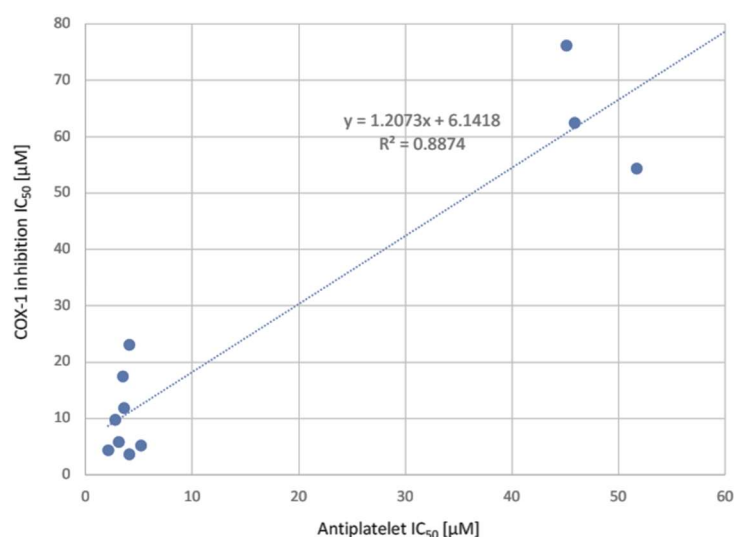


Figure 8: Correlation between the antiplatelet and COX-1 inhibitory activities of the tested compounds. Compounds inactive ($IC_{50} > 100 \mu M$ on either bioassay, i.e., **71**, **74**, **77**, and **81**) are not included but they fit in the general trend.

6.1.4. Physicochemical Character and Blood–brain Barrier Specific Permeability

To gain a deeper insight into the compounds' drug discovery potential, *in vitro* and *in silico* pharmacokinetic characterization was performed. Above its role in cardiovascular diseases, COX-1 is also a relevant target to the prevention and/or treatment of various neurodegenerative

CNS pathologies with a high inflammatory component (e.g., Alzheimer's disease)[163-165]. Because of this, we expanded our scope to also include CNS specific characterization.

In general, all compounds complied with the components of Lipinski's rule of 5 (Ro5) (molecular weight (250 -300 g/mol), LogP value < 5, less than 10 hydrogen bond acceptors (HBA), and less than 5 hydrogen bond donors (HBD)-results not shown) [166, 167]. Based on this rule and CNS MPO [156] criteria systems, the proton dissociation and lipophilicity properties of 6-G derivatives were compared. The compounds can be classified into three groups according to their acid-base properties: (i) monoprotic phenols (**1**, **2**, **7**, and **64–66**, **76**, **77** and **81**), (ii) diprotic amphoteric (imidazole derivatives; **73–75**), and (iii) diprotic acids (gingerdione derivatives; **47**, **71**, and **72**). To investigate the distribution of the A-C tautomeric states of derivatives **47**, **71**, and **72**, Chemaxon Ltd.'s freely available Tautomer Generator plugin was used. The results demonstrated that the enol form to be the predominant form (A:B, ~30:60%), while the dione forms are much less expressed (C, ~10%). The $pK_{a,acid}$ parameters for these compounds refer to the proton-dissociation behaviour of the enol and dione C-H acid functions in comparison to the aromatic OH function of the other gingerols (**1**, **2**, **7**, and **64–66**, **73–77**, and **81**).

In term of lipophilicity, though all compounds has $\log P < 5$, nevertheless, based on the two-level risk classification created by the lead likeness [168] and CNS MPO criteria ($\log D_{pH7.4}$), **2**, **7**, and **64** and **73–77** exceed (see **Table 3**, page 26; magenta: high violation), and **81** approach (yellow: moderate violation) the $\log D_{pH7.4}$ violation limit. The lipophilicity values of the tautomers of **47**, **71**, and **72** also show a significant difference. The enol forms A/B (**47A**, **71A**, **72B**) are more lipophilic than the dione forms (C), which was also reflected in their corresponding CNS MPO values. Regarding the polar surface area (TPSA), all the tested gingerols comply with both the Veber's rule ($30\text{\AA}^2 < \text{TPSA} < 140\text{\AA}^2$) for bioavailability [169] and the CNS MPO range ($40\text{\AA}^2 < \text{TPSA} < 90\text{\AA}^2$) [156]. Based on CNS MPO values; compounds **1**, **2**, **7**, **64**, **65**, **47**, **71**, and **72** (the C tautomer form), **76** and **81** (green-yellow) can be classified as suitable candidates for further CNS-targeted preclinical studies. The results also predicted a higher intestinal absorption for compounds **47**, **71**, and **72** compared to the others.

Experimental kinetic solubility (PBS, pH 7.4) and *in vitro* BBB-specific permeability (PAMPA-BBB) of the compounds were also measured. Using a three-level categorization for the kinetic solubility values, compounds **1**, **2**, **65**, **66**, **72–74** and **81** were in the acceptable range (greater than 100 μM). PAMPA-BBB study was only applied on these gingerols due to the limitation of poor solubility of other gingerols. Compounds **1**, **2**, **65**, **66** and **81**; marked in green ($P_{e, BBB} \geq 25 \cdot 10^{-7}$ cm/s) showed increased BBB permeability (see **Table 3**, page 26). Further, compounds **73–74** demonstrated adequate BBB penetration characteristics. In contrary, the increased hydrophilic character of compound **72** may compromise its BBB permeability. Despite the relatively high pIC_{50} for compounds **73**, **75**, and **76** in COX-1 inhibition (5.44, 4.76, and 5.23, respectively, not shown in tables), their higher hydrophobicity ($\text{LogP} > 4.4$) compromised their LLE (see **Table 2**, page 25). Accordingly, those compounds showed a relatively high log BB value (1.05, 1.11, and 0.71 respectively) together with compounds **64** and **66** compared to the rest of the compounds (not shown in tables).

6.1.5. Antioxidant activity assay

The antioxidant activity of ginger root extract and its constituents was well reported [170, 171]. Oxidative stress is a hallmark of cardiovascular and neurodegenerative diseases, among many other chronic pathologies [172]. The antioxidant-related cardioprotective effects of 6-G were studied in rats fed with an alcohol/ginger mixed diet. A pronounced suppression of ROS production; restoration of superoxide dismutase and catalase activity, and reduction of alcohol-induced apoptosis in cardiac tissue was noted [58].

We investigated the antioxidant effects of 6-G derivatives in this study using different models. Compound **65** showed the most promising antioxidant activity. Besides its DPPH-scavenging properties, its ORAC value was more than twice as much as that of Trolox. Notably, compound **66**, the 3-epimer of **65**, has only about half of the activity of compound **65** in the DPPH assay and was also weaker in terms of ORAC. Similar to the antiplatelet and COX-1 inhibition assay, the existence of an aromatic methoxy group in the molecule seemed to be important for potent DPPH scavenging activity; except for compound **75**, all compounds without this moiety (**71**, **74**, and **77**) were inactive. In contrary, compounds **71** and **75** were the most promising among all in the ORAC assay, which might point out the complementary value of these two bioassays to evaluate free radical scavenging activity of small molecule antioxidants.

6.1.6. Molecular docking

The *h*-COX-1 enzyme crystal structure was retrieved from the Protein Data Bank (PDB) database (ID: 6Y3C). The binding pocket was identified according to L. Tóth et al. Grid parameters were set to centre at residue Ser530 and to include residues Tyr385, Arg120, and Tyr348 that are in the COX-1 binding pocket [152]. They discussed the importance of Tyr385 and Ser530 in the irreversible binding of aspirin to COX-1 active site. Though the new isoxazole-derivative; compound **76**, showed the highest binding affinity (−9.5 Kcal/mol), nevertheless, it did not show any of the above-mentioned interactions with any of these amino acids (**Fig. 9**), however, compound **1**, **64**, and **66** showed hydrogen bonding interactions with Ser530, while compounds **47B**, **71A**, and **81** appeared to interact via hydrogen bonds with Tyr385 (see **Table 5**, page 28).

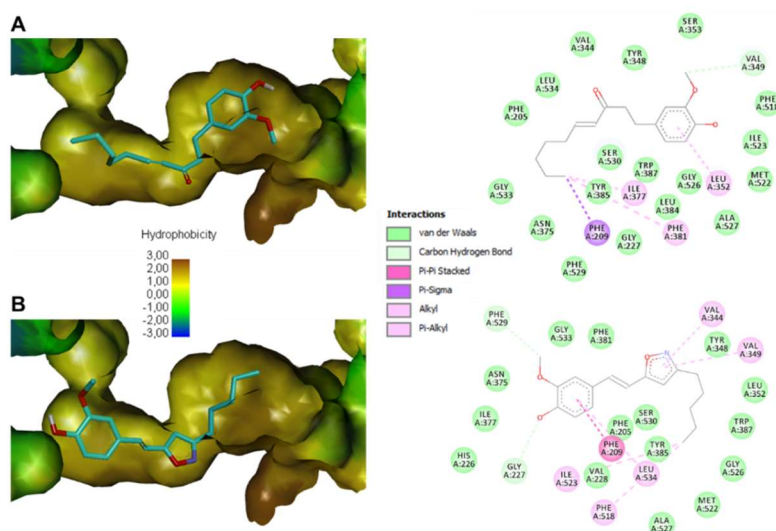


Figure 9. The binding mode of compounds **2** (**A**) and **76** (**B**) on *h*-COX-1 enzyme (PDB ID: 6Y3C) visualised with Discovery studio visualizer (21.1.0.20298); 3D orientation with the enzyme's hydrophobicity surface to the left and 2D representation of the observed interactions to the right. Colour codes for **A** and **B** are identical.

6.2. Protoflavone-thymoquinone hybrids

6.2.1. Chemistry

As TQ (**63**) was synthesized in this work using two different methods, it is worth mentioning that the difference between the two methods was evident in terms of the ease of the purification process and the final yield. The first method was reported by Asakawa et al. using *m*-CPBA as an oxidizing agent. Though this method was reporting a 47% yield of TQ (**63**), we couldn't achieve that due to the co-elution of TQ and thymol (**82**). Different trials using different solvent systems was not helpful, however, the use of polyamide as a stationary phase and DCM as a mobile phase in a second purification step was to some extent helpful. Nevertheless, the use of multiple purification steps negatively affected the yield (24.2%). The second method using PIFA method resulted in a higher yield from the first purification step (up to 50.6%). To the best of our knowledge, this is the first report for the synthesis of TQ from thymol using PIFA as an oxidizing agent.

TQ was known as a photolabile compound [173] and, to some extent, this character seems to have been also inherited by the hybrids based on our observations on light-exposed samples after 24 h or more (results not shown). Though the synthesis of compounds **83** and **84** has been reported before [136, 174], to our knowledge, this is the first time to report that it results in an isomeric mixture and to successfully isolate the isomers (see **Section 5.2.1**, page 29).

The synthesis of PAG and its derivatives was previously reported [76]. HRMS and 1D and 2D NMR techniques were used for the structural elucidation of all compounds, and spectral data of the known compounds were in good agreement with literature reports. All the protoflavones and the hybrids possess the aromatic region peaks characteristic of the protoflavone B-ring hydrogens with a ^1H - ^1H coupling constant of around 10 Hz. For the TQ derivative compound **83**, the carboxylic quaternary carbon peak could only be detected in the HSQC spectrum.

6.2.2. *In vitro* antiproliferative activity

In general, the protoflavones and the hybrids showed significant activities against the cell lines tested with IC_{50} values lower than 10 μM , except for compound **94** on U-87 cell line, and they demonstrated comparable or stronger activity than the positive controls cisplatin and temozolomide (see **Table 6**, page 30). Most of the antitumor activity of the hybrids could be attributed to the protoflavone fragment as evidenced by the relatively high IC_{50} values obtained for TQ (**63**) and its adducts **83** and **84**. Among the hybrids, compound **93** displayed the most promising results against all cell lines except for MCF-7, with IC_{50} values ranging from 0.51 to 1.20 μM . Though most of the activity of compound **93** could be attributed to its protoflavone fragment, i.e., PA (**62**), it was more selective than that toward the triple-negative breast cancer (TNBC) cell line MDA-MB-231 compared to the hormone-dependent MCF-7 cells with ca.

double activity against the former. This is an important finding in view of the major therapeutic challenges and poor prognosis attributed to TNBC [175]. Interestingly, this selectivity was more evident in terms of TQ with ca. three times higher activity against TNBC, which might suggest that this character of compound **93** was inherited from the TQ fragment (see **Table 6**, page 30). These results may highlight cell-type-specific effects on antiproliferative activity, suggesting further investigation into the underlying mechanisms involved.

Regarding the protoflavone fragments' antitumor activity, PA and its derivatives have been investigated against many cancer cell types including MCF-7 and MDA-MB-231 cell lines. It was noted that a 1'-methoxy substitution of PA compromised the activity, which was, however restored when increasing the length of a non-branching alkyl chain until up to four carbon atoms [76]. Our results come in accordance with this notion for most of the hybrids and for all the protoflavones, however, they deviate at the point of PA (**62**) being more active than the butylated derivative (**88**) against both cell lines. This might be attributed to differences in the experimental conditions and/or variations in the cell lines used by the different research groups. Interestingly, a similar pattern was also observed against HeLa and U-87 cell lines, which may suggest cell line specific limitations for previous findings for protoflavones' SAR.

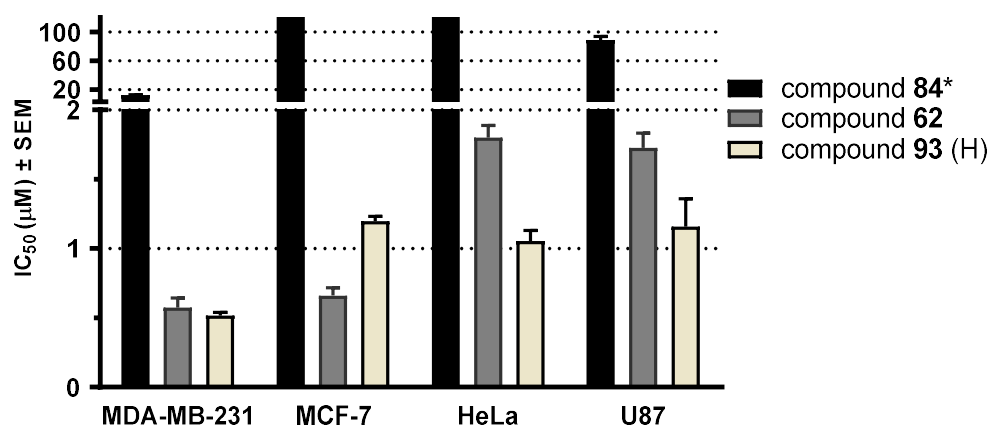


Figure 10. Calculated IC_{50} values of the hybrid (H) compound **93** and its building blocks (compounds **84** and **62**) on the tested cancer cell lines. *Calculated IC_{50} values of compound **84** on MCF-7 and HeLa cells were more than 100 μ M.

When comparing the activity of a 1:1 combination of the fragments to their corresponding hybrids against the U-87 cell line, significant differences were observed in several cases (**Fig. 10**).

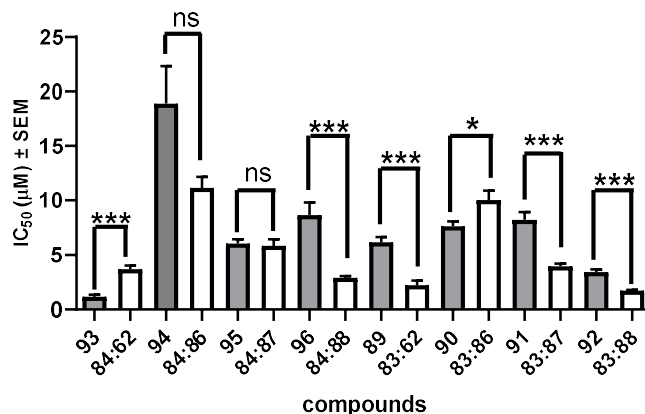


Figure 11. Calculated IC₅₀ values of hybrid compounds (■) compared to that of their corresponding experimental combinations (□) determined on U-87 cell line. Statistical analysis was performed by using unpaired t-test.

Intriguingly, the hybrid compounds **93** and **90** exhibited significantly better results (IC₅₀ values of 1.16 and 7.63 µM, respectively) compared to the 1:1 combination treatment with their fragments, i.e., compound **83** and **62** (IC₅₀=3.68 µM) or **83** and **86** (IC₅₀=10.03 µM). These results highlight that despite the relatively low chemical stability (see Section 5.2.1, page 30), these hybrid compounds are much more potent than their fragments combined. Certainly, at this point a reason for this higher potency is not possible to decipher. It may take place due to pharmacodynamic (e.g., the hybrid may bind to different targets) or pharmacokinetic reasons (e.g., more efficient penetration through the cell membrane as hybrid than as separate fragments), or a combination of these. On the other hand, the combination of the fragments; TQ (**63**) and compound **88** showed better activity (0.97 µM) than both the corresponding hybrids (**92** and **96**; 3.4 and 8.7 µM, respectively) and their relative fragments when tested alone (see Table 7, page 31).

It would be, for instance, of particular interest to evaluate the way compound **93** interferes with p53 and ATR/Chk1 signalling. On one hand, epigenetic reprogramming of p53 by bromodomain-containing protein 8 (BRD8) was most recently discovered as a key to glioblastoma aggressiveness [176]. On the other hand, the inhibition of ATR/Chk1-mediated DNA damage response inhibition is an attractive strategy against glioblastoma [177]. Nevertheless, such studies would require chemically more stable derivatives.

As an initial safety assessment, compound **93**, its building blocks (**84** and **62**), their experimental mixture (**84** + **62** in 1:1 ratio), and two additional protoflavone derivatives (**87** and **88**) were selected for antiproliferative assay on non-cancerous human lung fibroblast cells (MRC-5) to determine their cancer selectivity compared to that of the positive control temozolomide (see Table 8; page 31). Selectivity index of compound **84** is lower than 1, which means that it exhibited stronger antiproliferative effect on MRC-5 cells than on U-87 cells. Cancer selectivity of the remaining test compounds has been proven to be higher than 1, i.e., they were more potent against glioblastoma than MRC-5 cells. As an encouraging finding, the hybrid **93** demonstrated the best cancer selectivity (SI=4.40) among the tested compounds, far

exceeding that of the experimental mixture of its building blocks (SI=1.28) and also exceeding that of temozolomide (SI=2.82). For future, related studies, it is also of interest, that the tested protoflavones demonstrated selectivity indices in the same range as that of temozolomide. This result further confirms the potential anti-tumour applications of protoflavones, as well as their pro-drugs.

Altogether compounds **90** and **93** might be regarded as a good starting point for the design of new, promising leads against glioblastoma and/or TNBC. In future, further studies are warranted to overcome the current limitations concerning chemical stability.

7. SUMMARY

The work presented in this thesis can be briefly summarized as follows.

6-Gingerol derivatives: Fifteen compounds have been synthesized, eight of them are new (**64**, **71**, **73—77**, **81**), while the rest are naturally present in ginger root (**1**, **2**, **7**, **47**, **65**, **66**, and **72**). Chemical changes were introduced into the structure of 6-gingerol (the functional groups of the aliphatic side chain and/or the aromatic methoxy group) through different synthetic strategies, and various chromatographic techniques were used to purify the products. The potential cardiovascular protective and antioxidant effects of the compounds were tested by *in vitro* bioassays combined with *in silico* and *in vitro* pharmacokinetic analysis and *in silico* molecular docking study. Compounds **7**, **2**, **76**, **75**, and **72** showed the most promising antiplatelet activity among all. A linear correlation coefficient (R^2) value of 0.887 for the COX-1 inhibitory activity results suggested this pathway to be responsible for the antiplatelet action. Considering the results of the pharmacokinetic analysis and molecular docking of those compounds, compound **2** may be pointed out as the most promising lead worthy for further preclinical studies, while compounds **7**, **47** and the new semisynthetic compound **76** are hits that require further structural optimization to improve their aqueous solubility. Concerning the antioxidant activity, Compounds **65**, **76**, **64**, **1**, and **47** were the most active in the diphenyl-2-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH) scavenging capacity assay, while compounds **71** and **75** showed the best activity in the ORAC TE assay.

Thymoquinone-protoflavone hybrids: Eight new ester-linked hybrid compounds (**89—96**) have been synthesized and tested for their antiproliferative activity, along with their corresponding fragments **25**, **62**, **83**, **84**, and **86—88** (alone and in combination) against four human cancer cell lines viz. HeLa, MCF-7, MDA-MB-231 and U-87. TQ and the protoflavones were semi-synthesized from their naturally occurring thymol and apigenin, respectively. After introducing a linker moiety into TQ, the adducts were coupled to different protoflavones through DCC-catalyzed esterification. The chemical stability of the hybrids was unfortunately rather poor in cell culture medium, showing complete hydrolysis in MEM after one hour upon incubation at 37 °C. Despite this character, some encouraging antitumor properties were revealed. The bioactivity of the hybrid molecules was mostly attributed to the protoflavones part (**62**, **86—88**), as TQ and its adducts showed much weaker activity. Still, the hybrid compound **93** showed the best activity (ranging from 0.51—1.2 μM) among all hybrids and protoflavones against all cell lines except for MCF-7. Compound **93** also showed the highest selectivity against the TNBC cell line MDA-MB-231 compared to MCF-7, and the highest tumor selectivity against U-87 glioblastoma vs. MRC-5 fibroblasts. Despite their relatively low chemical stability, the hybrid compounds **90** and **93** acted significantly stronger against U-87 cells than the 1:1 combination of their corresponding fragments. This encourages further studies into such hybrid molecules, which, after a necessary improvement of their chemical stability, may provide valuable new antitumor agents.

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