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11	Diversity focused semisyntheses of tetronate polyether
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15	Pedersen ¹ , Peter Nørby ¹ , Thomas Tørring ² , Thomas B. Poulsen ^{1,*}
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17 18	¹ Department of Chemistry, Aarhus University, Langelandsgade 140, DK-8000, Aarhus C,
19	² Department of Engineering – Microbial Biosynthesis, Aarhus University, Gustav Wieds Vej
20	10, DK-8000, Aarhus C, Denmark
21	
22	
23 24	*e-mail: thpou@chem.au.dk
25	[‡] These authors contributed equally
26	
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28 Abstract

The polyether ionophores are complex natural products capable of transporting cations 29 across biological membranes. Many family members possess highly potent 30 antimicrobial activity and a few selected compounds have ability to target particularly 31 32 aggressive cancer cells. Despite these interesting perspectives, a detailed understanding of the cellular mode-of-action of polyether ionophores is generally lacking. In principle, 33 34 broad mapping of structure-activity relationships across several biological activities could provide mechanistic insights as well as identification of lead structures but access 35 to structural diversity within the overall class is synthetically very challenging. In this 36 manuscript, we demonstrate that novel polyether ionophores can be constructed by 37 recycling components of highly abundant polyethers. We provide the first examples of 38 39 synthetically incorporating halogen-functionalized tetronic acids as cation-binding 40 groups into polyether ionophores and we identify analogs with strong anti-bacterial activity and minimal effects on mammalian cells. 41

42

43 Introduction

44 The polyether ionophore natural products have been a constant fix-point for organic chemistry since the 1960s.¹ The daunting complexity of compounds such as monensin, salinomycin, and 45 46 X-206 challenged the abilities of chemists to identify their precise molecular structures^{2,3} and has served as inspiration for the development of novel synthetic methods^{4,5,6,7,8} and 47 retrosynthetic analysis.⁹ Elegant syntheses of members of this superfamily (>100 molecules) 48 of natural products have been reported, the majority during the 1980–1990s.^{10,11,12} Since then, 49 50 the raison d'être of natural product synthesis has changed substantially: Ideality in synthesis-51 design has become a fulcrum for methodological innovation^{13,14} which has also inspired 52 remarkably efficient routes to members of the polyether ionophores.^{12,15,16,17}

Through strategic integration ¹⁸ of complex molecule synthesis with studies of biological mechanisms, the field of synthesis can catalyze new discoveries within the life sciences. Diversity oriented synthesis, ¹⁹ biology oriented synthesis, ²⁰ analogue oriented synthesis, ²¹ diverted total synthesis, ²² complexity-to-diversity-strategies, ²³ and pharmacophore-directed retrosynthesis ²⁴ are all different strategic flavors directed towards generating innovative complex structures with potential pharmacological utility.^{25,26}

59 The polyether ionophores have thus far escaped attention from efforts that seek to harness their complex structures as fundamental entities of diversity.^{2,27} There may be several reasons 60 61 for this, but the most important is likely that these compounds are typically considered biologically uninteresting as the perturbation of ion gradients is thought to result in pleiotropic 62 effects on cellular systems. At least in eukaryotic cells, this highly simplistic view of the activity 63 64 of polyether ionophores is almost certainly deceptive: we do not really know in which of the 65 many endomembranes ionophores operate and which ions they transport. In fact, recent discoveries concerning the biological activity of salinomycin (Sal),²⁸ a canonical potassium-66 ionophore and surprising selective inhibitor of stem-like cancer cells,²⁹ suggest that the 67 68 compound does not even act as an ionophore, but instead sequesters iron in lysosomes which 69 can trigger a type of regulated oxidative cell death known as ferroptosis/oxytosis³⁰ or directly bind protein targets as was recently shown with nucleolin.³¹ 70

The main feature of polyether ionophores is their antibiotic activity and they are extensively applied in the agricultural industry to control parasitic infections in poultry and as growth promoters in ruminating animals.^{32,33} The latter effect presumably is due to remodeling of the rumen microbiota by the ionophores. Importantly, studies show that polyether ionophores do not display cross-resistance with other major antibiotics and are therefore active in drugresistant bacterial strains³⁴ although their activity is currently restricted to gram-positive strains. The lack of gram-negative activity is not mechanistically understood. As antibiotic

resistance continues to spread, agents such as the colistins, that were previously shelved due to safety issues, have now been reintroduced to the clinic. We suggest that it is due diligence to seriously consider the antibiotic potential that may lie in the polyether ionophores³⁴ and that the field of synthesis should consider how we can deliver truly novel molecules within this class.

Here, we outline an approach that can be used to prepare numerous novel polyether 83 84 ionophores and which takes advantage of two key aspects of this class of compounds: 1) the availability of selected members - the feedstock polyether ionophores e.g. lasalocid, 85 86 salinomycin, monensin – on a massive scale and 2) the overall structure of polyethers being essentially a series of connected "modules" (Figure 1a). We suggest that by disassembling these 87 88 modules and then re-combining them with material made through total synthesis, we will be able to access - in a concise manner - an interesting new structural domain related to the 89 90 natural polyether ionophores (Figure 1a). Some of the resulting compounds will maintain 91 ionophore-activity, but in others, due to subtle structural alterations, this activity will be 92 erased. As the molecular complexity will remain high such "ionophore-dead polyethers" may 93 carry novel biological activities which - with the advent of new methods for small molecule 94 bioactivity-profiling - it is becoming increasingly possible to explore. Importantly, this synthetic approach harnesses the tremendous knowledge generated during prior synthesis 95 96 efforts for the construction of building blocks and for effecting fragment coupling.^{10,11,12}

а



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Figure 1 | Accessing structural diversity within the polyether ionophores. (a) Flowchart 98 99 depicting the overall concept of reconstructing new polyether scaffolds by recycling elements from abundant feedstock polyether ionophores. The resulting "hybrid" molecules (non-red 100 101 squares) are plotted in a hypothetical structure and bioactivity space to illustrate the relation 102 of these compounds to the natural polyethers (red squares). The compounds that possess strong ionophore activity constitute a sub-space of a larger bioactivity-space that can be 103 explored using hybrid polyethers. (b) Chemical structures and biological properties of 104 105 polyether ionophores nonthmicin and ecteinamycin. The X-ray structure³⁵ depicts 106 ecteinamycin bound to a single sodium-ion and chemical groups on the hydrophopic periphery 107 that have been altered in the target hybrid polyether **6** have been circled in pink. No crystal 108 structure of nonthmicin is available. (c) Chemical structure of the hybrid polyether 6 and

109 indication of the required fragments and the origin of these fragments. The main fragment,

110 ketone **4**, can be obtained in a single synthetic step from lasalocid.

- 111
- 112 **Results**

113 Degradation of abundant polyether ionophores as the foundation of diversity synthesis

114 of complex polyethers

115 To provide a proof-of-concept example, we placed our focus on a novel polyether ionophore, nonthmicin (1) (Figure 1b), recently reported to possess several types of interesting biological 116 117 activities including antibiotic and neuroprotective activity.³⁵ Nonthmicin is of particular 118 interest also for structural reasons as this natural product features an unprecedented chloromethylidene tetronic acid building block, that comprise the cation-binding group of the 119 120 molecule. Another compound, ecteinamycin (2), which differs from 1 only by the absence of the 121 chlorine-atom was reported almost simultaneously by the Bugni lab to be a potent anticlostridial antibiotic (Figure 1b).³⁶ As we carefully inspected the structure of **1** and **2**, we 122 123 noticed that the eastern portion (the C-D rings) displayed significant similarity to lasalocid (3) 124 which is available on multi-kg scale. Based on knowledge generated during the classic 125 structure-elucidation studies and then total synthesis of **3**,^{37,38} we postulated that we could first liberate ketone 4 through a retro-aldol reaction and then develop a short and convergent route 126 127 to advanced analogs of **1** (Figure 1c). Furthermore, inspection of the published X-ray crystal structure of **2**-Na³⁵ indicated that none of the resulting structural changes (pink in Figure 1b-128 129 c) would directly perturb coordination of the metal ion, at least from the solid-state structure. 130 If successful, this approach would first of all test the fundamental question if swapping modules 131 from different polyether ionophores would even be compatible with sustained antibiotic 132 activity of the resulting hybrid molecules, with **6** as the initial target structure.

We started our studies by optimizing the retro-aldol reaction of **3** and found that exposure to LiHMDS at low temperature could result in the formation of ketone **4** in excellent yield (94%). This reaction has been carried out on >10 gram scale which underscores the high availability of an advanced building block such as **4**. We next focused our attention on the preparation of the two remaining building blocks, tetrahydropyran-derivative **7** and the challenging halomethylidene tetronic acid moiety **5** found in both **6** and **1**.

139

140 **Construction of tetrahydropyran building block**

141 The preparation of the targeted tetrahydropyran-derivative was started from (-)-2,4dimethylglutaric acid (+)- α -methylbenzylamine salt (**9**)^{39,40} (Figure 2). This salt was readily 142 processed to the diol, which underwent mono-TBS protection followed by TEMPO/PhI(OAc)₂ 143 oxidation⁴¹ to afford aldehyde **11**. We initially proposed that the target building block could be 144 145 constructed via an intramolecular oxa-Michael reaction⁴² following initial cross-aldol coupling 146 and Horner-Emmons reaction. However, only a trace of the cyclization product was observed 147 and this route was eventually abandoned. Inspired by the Guindon's Narasin fragment synthesis,⁴³ we envisioned that the Mukaivama aldol addition of a silvlketene acetal to an 148 149 oxocarbenium intermediate could also deliver the desired tetrahydropyran-derivative. 150 Towards this end, aldehyde **11** first underwent a CrCl₂-catalyzed Nozaki-Hiyama-Kishi 151 crotylation reaction⁴⁴ followed by the cleavage of the silyl ether with HOAc/THF/H₂O and 152 TEMPO/PhI(OAc)₂-promoted lactone formation⁴⁵. This afforded an inseparable diastereomeric 153 mixture (1.8:1, 65% isolated yield) of lactone 12 which was reduced by DIBAL-H to deliver the 154 lactol that was trapped *in situ* with Ac₂O to afford the corresponding acetate. At this stage, the 155 major diastereomer 13 – ultimately found to be the desired configuration at C12 and C13 – 156 could be isolated in 52% yield. Using BF_3 ·OEt₂ as the Lewis acid, **13** was then exposed to ((1-157 methoxyvinyl)oxy)trimethylsilane at low temperature which provided methyl ester 14 as a

158 single diastereomer (confirmed by X-ray) in excellent yield. Finally, ozonolysis of **14** followed

159 by reductive work-up with triphenylphosphine generated aldehyde **7** (Figure 2).

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161



162 Figure 2 | Stereoselective synthesis of tetrahydropyran (THP) building block 7. Two C-C coupling reactions are used to construct the stereocenters at C12 and C8, the latter being a 163 164 highly selective addition of a silvl ketene acetal to the oxacarbenium-ion derived from 13 to generate the desired *trans*-C8,C12 relative configuration. In turn, the sequence was initiated 165 166 from optically pure salt **9**, which is accessible via a known procedure. An alternative route to 167 closure of the THP-ring via an oxa-Michael cyclization failed. THF = tetrahydrofuran, TBSCl = 168 *tert*-butyldimethylsilyl chloride, TEMPO = (2,2,6,6-tetramethylpiperidin-1-yl)oxyl, DMAP = 169 *N*,*N*-dimethylpyridine-4-amine, DIBAL-H = diisobutylaluminium hydride.

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171 Synthesis of the halomethylidene tetronic acid building block

As the most intriguing structural subunit of nonthmicin and **6**, the 3-acyl-5-chloromethylidene tetronic acid became the next focus. With the overall aim to facilitate structural diversity within the polyether ionophores, the ideal approach to this building block should also allow access to other variants such as the methylidene and bromomethylidene species (Figure 3a). Although 176 the construction of this small and densely functionalized unit has not previously been realized. 177 published syntheses of natural products containing the nonhalogenated version provide precious lessons (Figure 3b).⁴⁰⁻⁴³ We opted not to pursue strategies based on organolithium 178 reagent addition⁴² due to the demand of fully protected coupling partners and the uncertain 179 180 stability of the chlorovinyl moiety to organolithium chemistry. Likewise, approaches based on the Eschenmoser methenvlation⁴³ were not considered due to unavailability of the chlorinated 181 182 version of the reagent. Mindful of the presumed lability of the halomethylidene species and the 183 multiple functional groups present in the coupling partner, we selected a DCC-mediated late-184 stage coupling as the most appealing strategy⁴¹ and we therefore decided to target the tetronate building blocks bearing an easily-removable protecting group (TMSE). After a series of 185 186 unsuccessful attempts (direct NMe₂/Cl exchange, construction of organotin or organoselenium intermediates, see Supporting Information Figure S1 for more details), we realized the 187 188 synthesis of the halomethylidene tetronate via a formal C-H halogenation approach (Figure 3c). 189 The *O*-TMSE protected tetronate **19** was prepared via intramolecular Wittig cyclization⁴¹ from 190 trityl protected α -hydroxyl TMSE ester **17** and the Bestmann reagent, and the methylidene 191 group was installed via MsCl-mediated elimination. The formal C-H halogenation was then 192 facilitated by dichlorination (KMnO₄-TMSCl)⁴⁴/dibromination (Br₂)⁴⁵ of methylidene tetronate 193 and subsequent elimination (DBU) to furnish the target halomethylidene tetronates 8a and 8b 194 with desired (*Z*)-configuration.

195



197 Figure 3 | Development of a synthesis of TMSE-protected 5-(halo)methylidene tetronic acid. 198 (a) Chemical structure of the targeted 3-acyltetronic acid-derivatives found in nonthmicin/ecteinamycin and **6**. No previous syntheses of the halogenated variants have been 199 200 reported. (b) Examples of known methods used to prepare non-halogenated variants. (c) From 201 several synthesis strategies attempted (see also Figure S1, supporting information) a formal C-202 H halogenation of protected 5-methylidene tetronic acid was developed. Construction of the 203 required TMSE-protected 5-methylidene precursor **19** for these reactions was carried out in 6 steps from the commercial racemic acetonide-protected glycerate **15**. This sequence allowed 204 205 for preparation of both the chlorine and bromine-variants (8a and 8b).

206

207 Aldol Fragment coupling

With access to the required building blocks, we initiated the fragment coupling sequence. Analysis of the composition of the stereotriad at C13-C15 in **6** suggests that the desired configuration could be achieved via the effectuation of an *anti*-aldol reaction with Felkincontrol of the secondary alcohol at C14. This type of stereocontrol is usually reinforcing⁴⁶ 212 although in the present case, due to the stereogenic center at C17, double stereodifferentiation 213 in the aldol reaction is required.⁴⁷ We first attempted formation of the (*E*)-boron enolate from **4** or the C25-OTES protected derivative **21** using (*c*Hex)₂BCl-NEt₃ but useful conversion to the 214 215 enolate could not be achieved. In fact, the only known aldol reactions using **4** were carried out 216 in the classic syntheses of lasalocid **3**4 and utilized *in situ* formation of the zinc-enolate from **4** 217 which generates preferentially the configuration found in **3** – also *anti*-aldol-Felkin – and which 218 differs from the configuration needed to make **6** at all of the three stereocenters. Although this 219 aldol coupling utilized a different aldehyde compared to 7, we evaluated the possibilities for 220 favoring the desired aldol product as being low. Consequently, we decided to instead rely on 221 the Lewis acid catalyzed Mukaiyama aldol reaction which is known to maintain Felkinselectivity. ⁴⁸ Importantly, double stereodifferentiation in Mukaivama aldol reactions is 222 established from classic studies by Evans⁴⁹ thus providing a theoretical framework for the 223 224 analysis of the key fragment coupling reaction. Despite the lack of very closely related reactions 225 in the literature, we expected that formation of the desired *anti*-aldol isomer (14R,15R; *anti* 226 15,17-Me↔Et) would still be challenging due to the intrinsic preference for *svn*-aldol products 227 in the Mukaiyama-aldol reaction and the combined diastereofacial bias from the stereocenters 228 already present in aldehyde 7 and ketone 4. Formation of the anti-aldol products would 229 demand use of the (*Z*)-silylenolate, whereas the corresponding (*E*)-enolate could be expected 230 to reinforce the formation of a syn-aldol product (14R,15S; syn 15,17-Me \leftrightarrow Et). Our first attempts at enolizing ketone **4** afforded some surprising results: While the (*Z*)-TES-enolate **20a** 231 232 could be readily formed with excess TESOTf and 2,6-lutidine with concomitant protection of 233 the tertiary alcohol at C25, formation of the corresponding (*E*)-enolate could not be accessed 234 cleanly (Figure 4a). After extensive experimentation, we found that substitution of 2,6-lutidine 235 with less hindered pyridine and inverting the sequence of reagent addition (pyridine added to 236 a pre-equilibrated solution of C25-OTES protected ketone **21** and TESOTf) could afford a nearly 237 1:1 mixture of the (Z)/(E)-TES-enolates (**20a**/**20b**) which could be partially separated by flash 238 chromatography. Gratifyingly, upon exposure of the enolates to aldehyde 7 at low temperature 239 in the presence of BF₃•OEt₂, aldol coupling proceeded in excellent yield (Figure 4b). Although 240 we could detect formation of all four putative aldol diastereomers by TLC (P1-P4 based on 241 silical gel mobility), the reaction using an enriched (ratio 1:2.3 Z/E) (E)-TES-enolate was highly 242 selective for the P3-isomer (P2: 7%, P3: 81%) whereas the pure (Z)-TES-enolate afforded a 243 mixture of P2 and P3 (P2: 56%, P3: 30%). Subsequent stereochemical assignment of the 244 respective compounds by X-ray crystallography revealed P3 to be the (14R,15S)-configured 245 product (23) in accord with the above analysis and P2 to be the desired isomer (14R,15R) (22).

246

247 End game coupling and purification

Both aldol products (22 and 23) underwent a two-step deprotection sequence, involving first
Olah's reagent to remove the C25-OTES group and then trimethyltin hydroxide to cleave the
methyl ester (Figure 4c).⁵⁰ The latter conditions were found to be critical to avoid retro-aldol
cleavage.



Figure 4 | Fragment-coupling via boron trifluoride-mediated Mukaiyama-aldol reaction. (a) The (*Z*)-TES-enolate **20a** could be readily obtained, but special procedures had to be developed to access mixtures of (*E*)- and (*Z*)-TES-enolates. Purification could be used to further enrich the (*E*)-TES-enolate **20b**. (b) Aldol reaction affords two major products (**22** and **23**) depending on the configuration of the silyl-enolate derived from ketone **4**. Compound **22** was confirmed by

- X-ray analysis of derivative 24 to be the initially targeted aldol-product (c) Both aldol products
 22 and 23 could be processed towards the final fragment coupling in two high-yielding steps.
- 260 TESOTf = triethylsilyltrifluoromethanesulfonate, DCE = 1,2-dichloroethane.
- 261

262 With the desired acid fragments (26 and 27) and *O*-TMSE protected tetronates (19 and 8a-b) in hand, we started to investigate the final fragment coupling reaction. After TBAF-mediated 263 264 deprotection of the *O*-TMSE group on **8a** and simple extraction, the crude tetronic acid was submitted to DCC coupling with carboxylic acid **26** (Figure 5a). Fortunately, the desired product 265 266 **6** was smoothly formed in 24 hours with full conversion of **26**, and 59% yield (as the sodium salt, 6-Na) was obtained by preparative HPLC using MeCN-10 mM NH₄HCO₃ as eluent.³⁵ It is 267 worth to note that the sodium salt (formed by subsequent NaHCO₃ treatment and extraction) 268 269 show much better solubility in organic solvents than the acid form, which indicates the 270 formation of a lipophilic complex, a featured property of polyether ionophores. Encouraged by 271 this result, the bromine-analog **29** and hydrogen-analog **30**, as well as the chlorine-analog **31** 272 bearing 15-(*S*) configuration, were synthesized following the same procedure in 42-58% yields 273 (Figure 5a). We managed to prepare crystals that were suitable for X-ray diffraction from both 274 6, 29, and 31 and the resulting structures revealed the formation of a cage-like structure by the "naturally-configured" 15-(*R*) analogs 6 and 29 while a dimeric complex was formed by the 275 276 corresponding 15-(*S*)-configured compound **31**. This clearly indicates the critical role played by evolutionary conformational design⁵¹ on the cation-binding properties of the polyether 277 278 ionophores. Anticipating that small structural changes would potentially have a large impact 279 on the biological activities, we finally generated an additional derivative of **32** (Figure 5a) by performing an *anti*-selective Evans-Saksena⁵² reduction of the carbonyl group in **26** followed 280 281 by coupling with the tetronic acid derived from **8a** (Figure S2).



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Figure 5. Final coupling sequence and biological activities of the hybrid tetronate polyethers. 283 284 (a) Mild conditions were developed for effecting the coupling of unprotected (halo)methylidene tetronates to acids **26** or **27**. The structures of **6**, **29** (see supporting information) 285 286 and **31**, all as the sodium salts, were solved by X-ray diffraction. (b) Anti-bacterial activity and effects on mammalian cell viability were evaluated for all compounds using canonical polyether 287 288 ionophores (salinomycin and lasalocid) and vancomycin as the controls. For full inhibition 289 curves see supporting information Fig. S3 and Fig. S4. MIC-values is mean (N=3) and 290 mammalian cell viability is mean \pm sd (*N*=3). nd = not determined.

292 Antibacterial and anti-proliferative activity of hybrid tetronate polyethers

293 In order to probe the biological properties of the hybrid polyethers, we first performed an 294 evaluation of their anti-bacterial activity against a small panel of S. aureus strains (gram-295 positive) and two different gram-negative strains (*P. auroginosa* and *E. Coli*). To our delight, 296 these experiments showed that compounds 6 and 29 did indeed maintain antibacterial activity 297 with a potency comparable to lasalocid and salinomycin against both wild-type and drug-298 resistant *S. aureus* (Figure 5b and Fig. S3). Comparing the activity of **6**, **29**, and **30**, it is clear 299 that the halogen augments the contribution of the tetronic acid as the methylene-analog **30** was 300 significantly less active. Compound **31**, being epimeric to **6** at C15, was completely devoid of 301 activity (MIC >32 µg/mL), while **32** was equally active to **6**. None of the compounds were active 302 against gram-negative strains. Next, we evaluated inhibitory activity against human cancer cell lines (U2OS and MCF7, Figure 5b) which afforded micromolar IC₅₀'s of all the compounds. We 303 304 noted however distinctively more shallow inhibition curves for the natural products, especially 305 salinomycin (Figure S4), indicating that these compounds perturb mammalian cells over a 306 larger span of concentrations.

307

308 **Bioactivity analysis using morphological profiling**

309 Modulation of cell viability is a coarse measure of the biological activity of a small molecule. To 310 provide a more nuanced analysis of the activities of the polyethers in mammalian cells, we 311 subjected all compounds to morphological profiling^{53,54} in U2OS osteosarcoma cells. This 312 image-based method can generate bioactivity profiles of small molecules in an unbiased manner that can be used statistically to reveal mechanistic similarities. Given the limited 313 detailed knowledge about the activity of polyether ionophores in mammalian cells, this 314 315 approach could potentially illuminate how structural changes impact the overall cellular 316 perturbation.



Figure 6. Morphological profiling. (a) Bioactivity scores as measured by the Mahalanobis distance to DMSO control. The grey area (Mahalanobis distance < 2) indicates inactivity. Sal and Las show activity at a lower concentration than the hybrid ionophores. (b) Heatmap of full morphological profiles. The color corresponds to the Z-score calculated from averaged profiles. , **29**, **30** and **32** shows similar profiles at the highest concentration (12.5 μM). Note that the shown DMSO treatments are kept separate from the other DMSO controls used in the normalization step. (c) Pearson correlation matrix of active compounds ordered by hierarchical clustering. Two clusters with distinct bioactivities are formed, one containing lower

327 concentrations of Las and Sal and one containing high concentrations of both hybrid
328 ionophores and Las and Sal. The color and size of the squares indicates the Pearson correlation
329 coefficient.

330

All compounds were tested at six different concentrations (0.05-12.5 μ M) and we used salinomycin and lasalocid as controls. First, we calculated the Mahalanobis distance for all compound treatments to DMSO controls as an overall measure for above-background activity in the assay (Figure 6a and Figure S5-7). Using a rather strict threshold (see Supporting Information for details and Fig. S6), hybrid polyethers **6**, **29** and **30** were scored inactive at all but the highest concentration (12.5 μ M), compound **32** had an active profile also at 4.2 μ M, and epimer **31** was inactive at all tested concentrations.

In contrast to the hybrid polyethers, salinomycin and lasalocid were both active at lower 338 339 concentrations (by 9-27 fold, Figure 6a). The full bioactivity profiles were plotted (Figure 6b) 340 and a Pearson correlation matrix was calculated for all compound treatments exceeding the 341 activity threshold (Figure 6c). We were quite surprised by the outcome of this analysis: The 342 activity profiles of salinomycin and lasalocid over several concentrations were clustered (P 0.83-0.94) whereas the hybrid ionophores – at the highest concentration – formed a distinct 343 344 cluster (Figure 6c). Interestingly, high concentrations of both lasalocid and salinomycin also 345 afforded profiles with significant correlations (P > 0.63) to this cluster as did a subset of a reference panel of different growth inhibitory compounds (Figure S7) suggestive of a general 346 toxicity profile. In contrast, the bioactivity profiles associated with the first cluster (low 347 348 concentration Sal and Las) did not show significant correlations with profiles in our reference 349 panel.

Given the recent strong interest in the cellular activity of salinomycin^{29,30,31} and the significant
 difference in both the chemical structures and ionophore-properties associated with

salinomycin (a K-ionophore as previously mentioned) and lasalocid (a Ca-ionophore), the
apparent mechanistic similarity - which is suggested by our data - demands future attention.
Another important observation from these experiments is that the hybrid polyethers appear to
be more 'silent' in mammalian (U2OS) cells despite having similar anti-bacterial activity
compared to lasalocid and salinomycin.

357

358 **Discussion**

359 As we consider the potential future role of polyether ionophores in biomedicine the following 360 questions are important: 1) Can polyether ionophores be identified with a sufficiently large therapeutic window to be considered as human antibiotics; 2) Can the activity of these 361 362 compounds be expanded to also target gram-negative strains; 3) Which aspects of mammalian 363 cell biology can be modulated by polyethers? To answer all of these questions, a large increase 364 in accessible compounds within the overall polyether-class is needed. For instance, systematic 365 tests in expanded bacterial panels may reveal activity patterns that can inform further 366 structural variations and in combination with investigations of cross-resistance to other 367 antibiotics new synthetic lead structures can be identified. The use of unbiased bioactivity 368 profiling in mammalian cells – as we demonstrate here – may both pinpoint polyethers with 369 unusual activity patterns that can be subjected to focused mechanistic investigations as well as variants that appear 'silent' in mammalian cells while maintaining antibacterial activity. Hybrid 370 polyether **29** is a good example of the latter. The compound has a ratio of 0.5 between the 371 372 average (molar) MIC across the S. aureus strains and the first bioactive concentration in U2OS 373 cells whereas the equivalent numbers for salinomycin and lasalocid are 5.8 and 2.4, 374 respectively. However, we currently do not understand the mechanistic and structural factors 375 that underlie these differences. On a similar note, despite having closely related structures, 376 compounds 6 and 29 are less active (up to 64 fold) compared to the remarkably low MIC-values

377 reported for ecteinamycin (2)³⁶. The specific reason(s) for this difference is also of strong 378 interest. We e.g. note that in the solid state, the sodium-bound forms of 2 and 6/29 differ subtly 379 due to the structural variations close to the C17-C18 bond (Figure S8). How these changes affect 380 the relative selectivity and efficiency of ion-transport should be addressed in future studies.

In conclusion, it is evident that complex polyethers can affect both eukaryotic and prokaryotic cells in ways that transcend the canonical model of pleiotropic ion-transporters and therefore that a strategic merger of synthesis and biology broadly across this class of compounds is timely. The overall synthesis principle of reusing parts of the abundant polyethers that we outline in this paper - fueled by novel methods (such as MicroED⁵⁵) to expedite structural assignment of complex molecules and methods to study mechanisms-of-action - may therefore contribute to the effective resurrection of this whole class of compounds.

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395

396 Author contributions

TBP conceived and supervised the study. TBP, SL, and HL designed experiments. SL, HL, and
CNP performed organic synthesis. EBS conducted cell biological experiments and analyzed
data. TT supervised microbiology experiments and analyzed data. PN carried out x-ray
crystallographic analyses. TBP, SL, HL wrote the manuscript with input from all authors.

402 **Competing financial interests**

403 The authors declare no competing financial interests

404

405 Methods

406 Organic Synthesis

407 All reactions were conducted in flame-dried glassware under an atmosphere of argon unless 408 otherwise stated. CH₂Cl₂, MeCN, THF and PhMe were dried over aluminium oxide via an 409 MBraun SPS-800 solvent purification system. DCE, DMF, MeOH and pyridine were purchased as anhydrous. The dryness of solvents was controlled via Karl Fischer tritration. Reagents were 410 411 used as received from commercial suppliers unless otherwise stated (Sigma Aldrich, Merck, AK) Scientific, and Fluorochem). Et₃N and DIPEA were dried by stirring for at least 30 minutes over 412 CaH₂ followed by distillation onto preactivated molecular sieves (4 Å). Concentration *in vacuo* 413 was performed using a rotary evaporator with the water bath temperature at 30 °C, or 40 °C, 414 415 followed by further concentration using a high vacuum pump. TLC analysis was carried out on 416 silica coated aluminum foil plates (Merck Kieselgel 60 F254). The TLC plates were visualized 417 by UV irradiation and/or by staining with either CAM stain ((NH₄)₆Mo₇O₂₄·4H₂O (10 g), Cerric 418 ammonium sulfate (4 g), 10% H₂SO₄ (aq., 400 mL)), ninhydrin stain (ninhydrin (12 g) and AcOH 419 (12 mL) in *n*-butanol (400 mL)) or KMnO₄ stain (KMnO₄ (5.0 g), 5 % NaOH (aq., 8.3 mL) and 420 K_2CO_3 (33.3 g) in H_2O (500 mL)). Molecular sieves were activated by drying in the oven at 120 421 °C for at least 24 hours, before they were heated in a microwave at maximum power for 2 422 minute, followed by evaporation of the formed vapour on the high vacuum line. This was repeated 3-4 times, and finished by gently flame-drying the flask containing the molecular 423 sieves. Flash column chromatography (FCC) was carried out using silica gel (230-400 mesh 424 particle size, 60 Å pore size) as stationary phase. Infrared spectra (IR) were acquired on a 425 426 PerkinElmer Spectrum TwoTM UATR. Mass spectra (HRMS) were recorded on a Bruker 427 Daltonics MicrOTOF time-of-flight spectrometer with positive electrospray ionization, or

428	negative ionization when stated. Nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectra were recorded on
429	a Varian Mercury 400 MHz spectrometer or a Bruker BioSpin GmbH 400 MHz spectrometer,
430	running at 400 and 101 MHz for ^1H and ^{13}C , respectively. Chemical shifts (δ) are reported in
431	ppm relative to the residual solvent signals (CDCl ₃ : 7.26 ppm 1 H NMR, 77.16 ppm 13 C NMR,
432	CD ₃ OD: 3.31 ppm ¹ H NMR, 49.00 ppm ¹³ C NMR, ⁶ d-DMSO: 2.50 ppm ¹ H NMR, 39.52 ppm ¹³ C
433	NMR. Multiplicities are indicated using the following abbreviations: s = singlet, d = doublet, t =
434	triplet, $q = quartet$, $h = heptet$, $m = multiplet$, $br = broad$. LC-MS and HPLC analysis and
435	purification were performed using a Gilson HPLC system.
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- 437 For all remaining methods, see the supplementary information.
- 438

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