

Continuous flow synthesis and antimicrobial evaluation of NHC* silver carboxylate derivatives of SBC3 *in vitro* and *in vivo*

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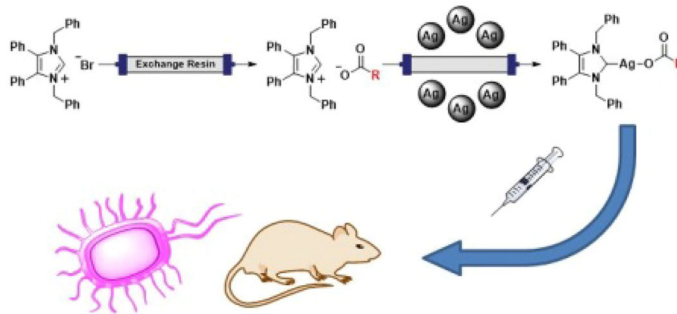
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Significance statement: This paper allows for a deeper understanding of silver and silver carbene complexes as potential antibiotics through innovative synthesis and *in vitro* as well as *in vivo* models.

Abstract

N-heterocyclic silver carbene compounds have been extensively studied and shown to be active agents against a host of pathogenic bacteria and fungi. By incorporating hypothesized virulence targeting substituents into NHC–silver systems via salt metathesis, an atom-efficient complexation process can be used to develop new complexes to target the passive and active systems of a microbial cell. The incorporation of fatty acids and an FtsZ inhibitor have been achieved, and creation of both the intermediate salt and subsequent silver complex has been streamlined into a continuous flow process. Biological evaluation was conducted with *in vitro* toxicology assays showing these novel complexes had excellent inhibition against Gram-negative strains *E. coli*, *P. aeruginosa*, and *K. pneumoniae*; further studies also confirmed the ability to inhibit biofilm formation in methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) and *C. Parapsilosis*. *In vivo* testing using a murine thigh infection model showed promising inhibition of MRSA for the lead compound **SBC3**, which is derived from 1,3-dibenzyl-4,5-diphenylimidazol-2-ylidene (NHC*).

Graphical abstract



Virulence factor and unorthodox intracellular modality-targeting groups have been incorporated into N-heterocyclic carbene silver complexes, and further adapted to a continuous flow synthesis, to be evaluated against pathogenic bacteria and fungi in both *in vitro* and *in vivo* environments.

Introduction

The need for new antimicrobial agents remains a priority for combating antimicrobial resistance.^{1–3} Recent reports from both the Centre for Disease Control (CDC)⁴ and the United Nations (UN)⁵ have highlighted the continuing cost in both life and national funds relating to this global problem, further emphasizing that new medicines are required to tackle a worldwide challenge that will claim up to 10 million lives per year by 2050.^{5,6}

In this context, there has been an upsurge in the interest of utilizing metals as antimicrobial agents over the past several years.⁷ While there are comparatively few metal-based antimicrobial treatments currently available, there exists a reservoir of extensively studied metal-based compounds that can be employed in the development of future clinical antimicrobials; be it as standalone compounds or in combination therapies.^{7,8} To this end, silver has a widely known usage as an antibiotic⁹ and even some

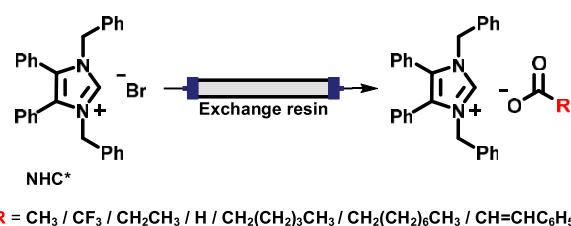
further reaching antimicrobial activity.^{10,11} Interest in silver, past its use as a potent antimicrobial element in burn wound cream,¹² still remains high, with multiple different approaches still being investigated for a way to exploit its multimechanistic action against a wide range of both pathogenic bacteria and fungi.^{13–16} Further understanding of mechanism of action of silver against bacteria was recently reported by the Sun group,^{17,18} by elucidating several definitive intracellular interactions between silver and essential enzymes in the glycolysis pathway in *E. coli*, silver now has at least one thoroughly defined mechanism of action that can be cultivated as a pathway in developing new metal-based antimicrobials.

Previous work by our group has shown that when coordinated to a suitable ligand, such as *N*-heterocyclic carbenes (NHCs), the transport and slow release of silver to a cell can be biologically facilitated, resulting in a silver-based antimicrobial capable of eliciting antibacterial effects¹⁹ and even clinical level antifungal activity.²⁰ NHCs have a broad usage in both organometallic chemistry^{21,22} and organic synthesis,²³ where tuning both the electronic and physicochemical properties of NHCs allows for developing suitable biomolecules to combine with silver.^{19,24–26}

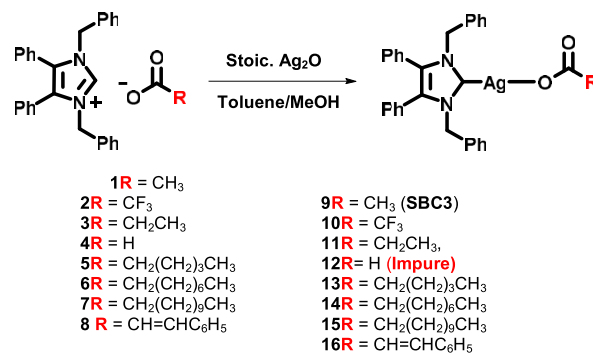
Previous *N*-heterocyclic silver complexes have been synthesized by our group via either Youngs' method (using two parts silver acetate and an imidazolium salt),^{25–31} or the widely exploited Arduengo method of generating a free carbene.³² The Tacke group has produced a large suite of compounds by Youngs' method resulting in our most potent antimicrobial NHC–silver(I) complex to date.^{24,27–31} This has been matched in antimicrobial activity against several pathogenic strains (including methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*, MRSA) with several complexes made via the free carbene method.²⁰ It is now hoped to incorporate additional physicochemically enhancing, or possibly virulence factor targeting, substituents in order to see a marked improvement in activity against pathogenic microbial strains such as MRSA and *Candida albicans*.^{33,34} To realize more effective and scalable entries toward these important entities, we wished to exploit continuous flow processing to streamline their assembly. Flow chemistry is widely recognized as a powerful technology for preparing simple building blocks and advanced structures in academia and industry alike.^{35–39}

Commonly cited advantages such as improved heat and mass transfer derive from miniaturization of reactor components that consequently impart better process control, while continuous processing allows for increased scale and throughput. Furthermore, in continuous flow mode heterogeneous reagents can be incorporated via packed bed reactors to provide improved contact between substrate solution and reagent that in turn leads to faster and cleaner reactions.⁴⁰ Although a scarcity of examples that outline these principles in the context of organometallic synthesis are noted,⁴¹ this work was encouraged by earlier reports from McQuade *et al.* and Willans *et al.*, detailing the generation of NHC–copper species through the use of flow synthesis.^{42,43}

Herein, a novel route for the synthesis of several NHC–silver(I) complexes, containing previously hypothesized virulence factor targeting and intracellular protein targeting moieties, is demonstrated, including the subsequent flow synthesis in high yield and high purity. Several of these complexes were screened for biological activity against multiple pathogenic microbial species, including MRSA, using *in vitro* assays and *in vivo* methods, including murine models.



Scheme 1. Flow pathway of anion exchange.



Scheme 2. Synthesis of silver complexes 9–16.

Results and discussion

Synthesis of complexes and adaptation to a flow synthesis

The investigation into a more desirable pathway for the creation of *N*-heterocyclic carbene silver(I) complexes had led to the creation of a more atom-efficient synthesis route. As Youngs' and Arduengo's methods for synthesizing previous compounds required long reaction times, have several side products, result in moderate yields, and, in the case of the free carbene pathway, require partial or full Schlenk conditions, it is desirable to realize a process that would eliminate these limitations.

Through the use of an anion exchange process we have generated several imidazolium salts (**1–6, 8**) that can then be complexed with silver to produce the corresponding metal complex. The imidazolium salt precursor, 1,3-dibenzyl-4,5-diphenyl imidazolium bromide (given the shorthand of NHC*), was synthesized as per literature method.²⁴ The imidazolium salt intermediates (**1–6, 8**) were achieved through the use of a Vapourtec E-series flow reactor system in combination with Omnifit glass columns that were packed with the appropriate anion exchange resin.

The intermediate salts, **1–6** and **8**, were then produced by dissolving the NHC* imidazolium salt in methanol and passing it through a packed bed column containing the previously prepared exchange resin containing the newly desired anion (Scheme 1) and isolated in yields of 79–96%. Compound **7** was not generated via the flow apparatus due to solubility issues within the flow system. This salt was synthesized in a benchtop procedure, using a biphasic dichloromethane/water solvent system and reacting sodium laurate with the NHC* precursor for 24 h.

Having achieved the improved generation of these imidazolium salts (**1–8**), the corresponding NHC–silver(I) complexes were synthesized on the benchtop by reacting the respective salts with a stoichiometric amount of silver oxide, leaving only water as a by-product (Scheme 2).

Table 1. Yields of silver complexes using (A) stoichiometric amounts of silver oxide and (B) excess silver oxide; *see the Supplementary information for details

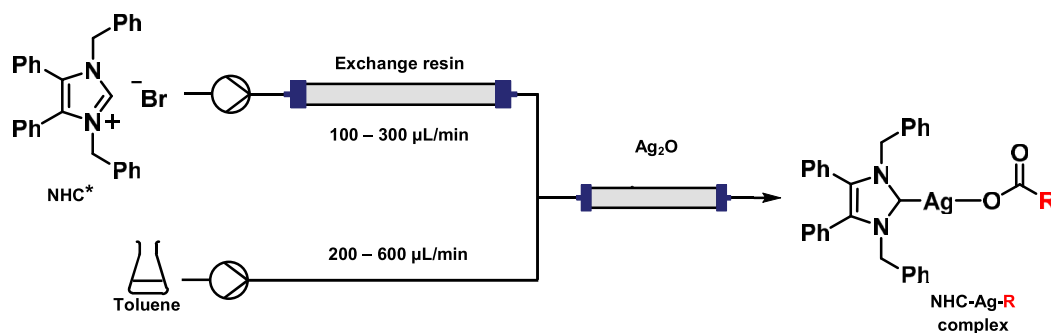
Complex	(A) Stoic. Ag ₂ O yield (%)*	(B) Excess Ag ₂ O yield (%)*
9	72	93
10	24	86
11	66	95
12	20	39
13	53	94
14	93	96
15	82	82
16	71	97

The successful synthesis of complex **9**, given the moniker **SBC3**, via the new atom-efficient pathway proved that this alternate method was applicable for creating other NHC–silver complexes. In addition to utilizing this new pathway, our attention turned to examining whether it was possible to replace halogenated solvents, outright; previous complexes made by other routes have utilized halogenated solvents as the most effective medium for synthesis.²⁴ In this new process, the chlorinated solvent dichloromethane is replaced by a greener alternative, namely toluene:methanol (3:1).⁴⁴

This new method showed that complexes **9–16** can be obtained in an atom-efficient way, on the benchtop, in good yields, 23–93%, requiring only minimal workup (Table 1). In this series of new NHC–silver complexes, the only compound that proved difficult to obtain in pure form was complex **12**, synthesized from the imidazolium salt containing a formate anion. Nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy confirmed the presence of the complex in 60% conversion, but elemental analysis proved the complex impure (see the Supplementary information).

During both the reaction and subsequent workup, a silver mirror formed on two separate occasions. This comes as no surprise as formate can readily act as a reducing reagent to reduce silver to its elemental state.⁴⁵

Now that this improved route was demonstrated, we wished to determine a way to increase the yield for all complexes. This was done by utilizing an excess of silver oxide; this process proved successful, resulting in uniformly high yields of 82–93% (Table 1). Though high yields were obtained for all complexes, the long reaction time was still a challenge to be overcome. As the majority of the intermediate imidazolium salts were generated using a flow apparatus, a continuous flow process was designed to incorporate both the anion exchange and the silver complexation steps in a telescoped manner (Scheme 3).



Scheme 3. Flow process for synthesis of NHC–silver(I) complexes.

Table 2. Process time, residence time, and final yield for the flow synthesis of NHC–Ag(I) complexes

Complex	Process time (h)	Residence time (min)	Yield (%)
9	4	17	98
11	8	35	97
12	8	35	73
13	12	26	86
14	6	26	93
16	8	35	99

The anion exchange is performed via the same route as previously to generate the intermediate salts, with the eluent then fed combined with toluene to give a 3:1 toluene/methanol mixture, as is used in the benchtop synthesis. This solvent system containing the exchanged substrate is then pumped through a second column containing an evenly distributed mixture of silver oxide and activated 3 Å molecular sieves as a scavenger for water that is generated as a by-product.

The resulting product is collected in a covered flask that excludes light and the solvent then removed to give the NHC–Ag products in yields ranging from 73 to 98%. The longest total process time is 12 h for the total synthesis of complex **13** and shows a greater than 6-fold decrease in overall reaction time from the standard 3D benchtop synthesis.

Table 2 highlights the corresponding residence and processing times of the respective flow synthesis for each complex.

Thus, by incorporating both the anion exchange and complexation steps into a single flow process, reaction times were reduced significantly, while yields for several complexes increased by 2–5%. The synthesis of complex **12** was also telescoped using the total flow process in an attempt to circumvent the auto-reducing nature of the reaction. However, this proved unsuccessful with elemental analysis confirming an impure product, comparable to the product of the benchtop synthesis. The identity and purity of each complex were established using NMR and infrared spectroscopy, and elemental analysis (see the Supplementary information for details).

The crystal structure of complex **10** was obtained by the slow diffusion of pentane into a super-saturated solution of complex **10** in chloroform, and the crystal structures of complexes **11**, **13**, and **16** were obtained by the slow diffusion of pentane into a super-saturated solution of the respective complex in dichloromethane (Fig. 1). NHC–silver and silver–oxygen bond lengths, along with NHC–Ag–oxygen bond angles, correspond to previously reported values associated with this class of compounds.^{20,24}

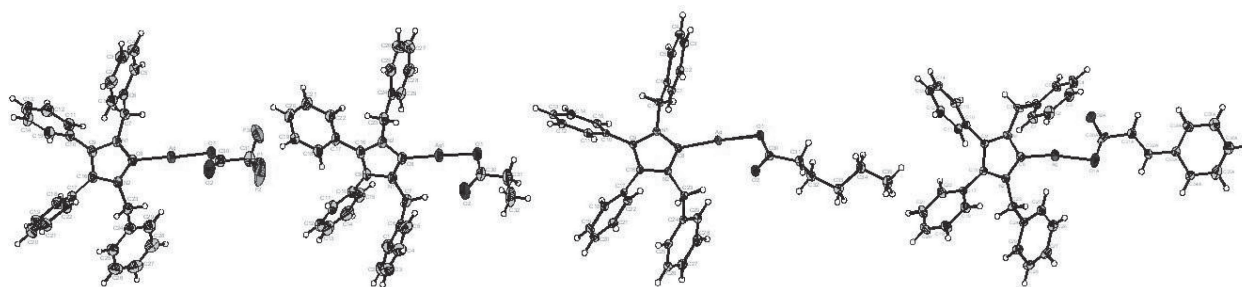


Fig. 1 Molecular structures of complexes 10, 11, 13 and 16; thermal ellipsoids are drawn on the 50% level.

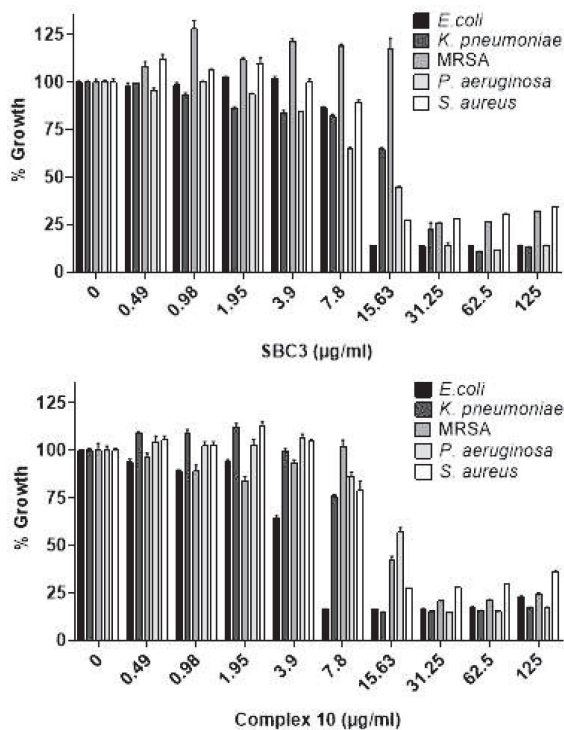


Fig. 2 Antibacterial evaluation of complexes 9 (SBC3) and 10.

The only outlier from the usually near-linear bond angles of these NHC–silver species is the bond angle of complex 16 at 165.33(12)° as seen before in this compound class.⁴⁶ In the crystallographic structure, two molecules of the compound are present within the unit cell and interactions between the bonding oxygen and silver atom of both molecules form a 4-coordination interaction in the dimer. This provides reason for the non-linear bonding between the silver and cinnamate moiety in the single molecule structure. These crystallographic data, bond angles, and bond lengths can be found in the Supplementary information.

In vitro and in vivo biological evaluation

Following on from the success of adapting the synthetic procedure to a flow system, several complexes were evaluated for antimicrobial activity.²⁷ This activity of selected complexes was first demonstrated by *in vitro* toxicity assays against the selected bacterial strains of *E. coli*, *K. pneumoniae*, MRSA, *P. aeruginosa*, and *S. aureus* (Figs 2 and 3).

The SBC3 molecule, complex 9, was chosen alongside its trifluoroacetate derivative (10) to determine the relative inhibition

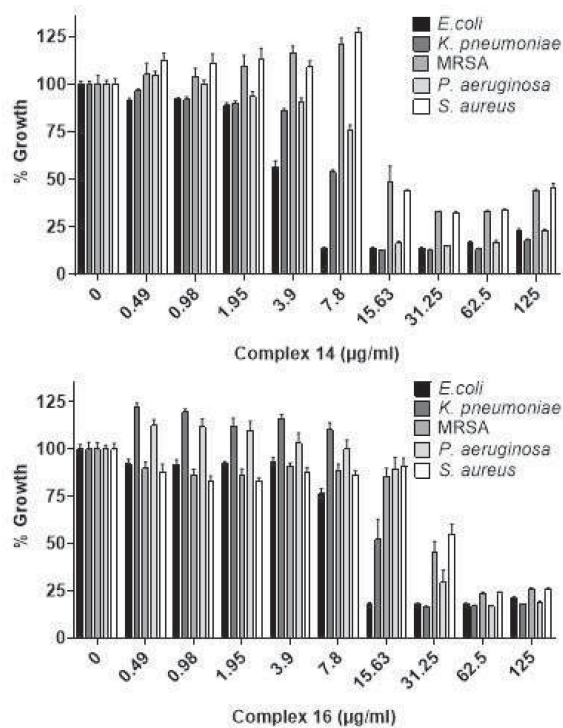


Fig. 3 Antibacterial evaluation of complexes 14 and 16.

efficacies of these molecules and to set the base-level activity for testing of future NHC–silver compounds. Two other compounds, 14 and 16, containing previously hypothesized additional antimicrobial moieties, were also chosen for evaluation. Complex 14 incorporates a medium-chain fatty acid with the aim of disrupting biofilm formation,³⁴ while complex 16 contains a confirmed FtsZ inhibitor moiety, shown previously to disrupt cell division in bacteria.³³

SBC3 elicits the most potent activity against the Gram-negative species *E. coli*, *K. pneumoniae*, and *P. aeruginosa*. Maximum growth inhibition (89%) was achieved against *K. pneumoniae* at a concentration of 62.5 µg/mL, and *E. coli* (86%) at the 15.63 µg/mL concentration. The complex also demonstrated good activity against Gram-positive species, reducing MRSA growth by 74% at the 31.25 µg/mL concentration (Fig. 2).

Complex 10 significantly reduced *E. coli* growth from 86 to 16% at 7.8 µg/mL. *Klebsiella pneumoniae* was also more susceptible at lower concentrations with 85% inhibition at 15.63 µg/mL. A lower dose of complex 10 (15.63 µg/mL) reduced *S. aureus* growth by 73%,

having a similar effect as **SBC3** on MRSA with 79% inhibition at 31.25 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ (Fig. 2).

Complex **14**, containing the nonanoate moiety, exhibited excellent inhibition (86%) against *E. coli* at a concentration of 7.8 $\mu\text{g/mL}$, while also showing 84% and 87% inhibition versus *P. aeruginosa* and *K. pneumoniae* at the 15.63 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ concentration, respectively. At the same concentration, *S. aureus* and MRSA were inhibited by ~50% (Fig. 3).

The antimicrobial activity of complex **16**, containing the cinnamate FtsZ inhibitor moiety, remained consistent with previous findings showing greatest activity against Gram-negative species, particularly against *E. coli*, reducing growth by 82% at 15.63 $\mu\text{g/mL}$. This complex also showed activity against the Gram-positive strains with 76% inhibition against MRSA at 62.5 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ (Fig. 3).

Two pathogenic fungal species, *C. albicans* and *C. parapsilosis*, were also screened for antifungal alongside the selected bacteria. *Candida* species are among the most prevalent causes of fungal infection in immunocompromised individuals^{47,48} and previous publications have shown preferential activity of NHC–silver complexes against both strains, providing an opportunity to confirm a continuous broad-spectrum activity of this compound class against clinically relevant fungal pathogens.²⁰

All complexes show good inhibition against *C. parapsilosis* with complex **10** showing 77% inhibition at 7.8 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ concentration and complex **14** showing similar inhibition at the 15.63 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ concentration. **SBC3** showed less activity against *C. parapsilosis*, but still maintained 60% inhibition at the 15.63 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ concentration. **SBC3** and complex **14** showed inhibition of *C. albicans* but only at high concentrations (62.5–125 $\mu\text{g/mL}$), with complex **10** showing little to no inhibition, even at high concentrations.

Testing of complexes **14** and **16** highlighted a more pronounced inhibitory effect of both strains of *C. albicans* compared with **SBC3** and complex **10**, with 95% inhibition shown at 62.5 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ (complex **14**) and 94% at 125 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ (complex **16**).

Complex **10** resulted in 90% inhibition of *C. parapsilosis* at 31.25 $\mu\text{g/mL}$, and an increased dose of 62.5 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ reduced growth by 85% (complex **14**) and 88% (complex **16**). Previous research by Browne *et al.* focused on the activity of **SBC3** against *C. albicans* where ~86% growth inhibition was achieved at a concentration of 25 $\mu\text{g/mL}$.²⁷ Although the current study did not reach this same level of success in treating *C. albicans*, the results obtained for *S. aureus* were comparable (~71% at 25 $\mu\text{g/mL}$); see the Supplementary information for additional graphical data.

The overall inhibition of cell growth ascertains a compound effect as an antimicrobial agent; however, this does not give specific insights into its mode of action. To supplement the activity shown by the complexes tested, the effect on the specific inhibition of biofilms was measured.⁴⁹ Biofilms are important virulence factors in many bacterial and fungal species, playing key roles in adhesion and allowing microbial colonies to form and grow.^{50,51} As biofilms represent an important infection process, the previously chosen complexes were screened to determine whether there is specific biofilm inhibition against *P. aeruginosa*, MRSA, and *C. parapsilosis*.

The treatment of *P. aeruginosa* with selected complexes showed no significant inhibition of biofilm in all concentration ranges. However, treatment of MRSA and *C. parapsilosis* did result in significant growth inhibition (Figs 4 and 5); all further inhibition results can be found in the Supplementary information.

Against MRSA, it can be seen that all complexes have an inhibitory effect on biofilm formation at the higher concentrations tested. At the higher cell density of Optical Density (OD) = 0.1, the standout activity is shown by complexes **10** and **16**, with 50% inhibition achieved at 2 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ concentration. This result is interesting as the medium-length fatty acid chain of the complex **14**

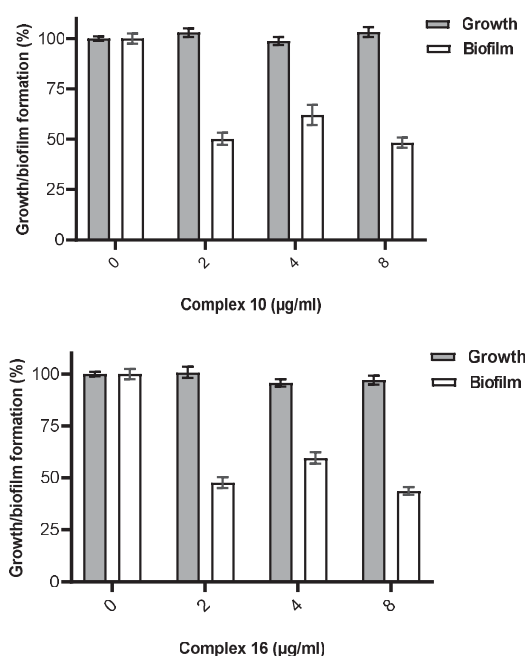


Fig. 4 Inhibition of MRSA biofilms by complexes **10** and **16**; 'Growth' portrays overall growth of bacterial cells and 'Biofilm' portrays biofilm growth to highlight specific inhibition of biofilm; cell concentration: OD = 0.1.

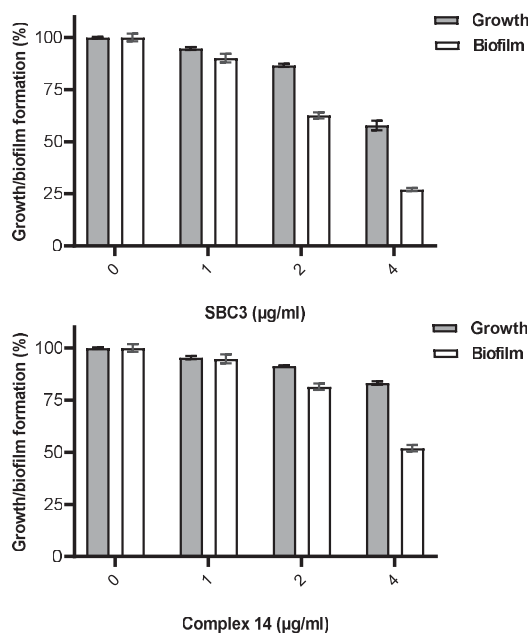


Fig. 5 Inhibition of *C. parapsilosis* biofilms by **SBC3** and complex **14**; 'Growth' portrays overall growth of bacterial cells and 'Biofilm' portrays biofilm growth to highlight specific inhibition of biofilm; cell concentration: OD = 0.1.

was hypothesized to be the better biofilm disruptor,³⁴ and this is seen in the lower cell concentration assay at OD = 0.01, where complexes **10** and **16** have shown greater activity at the higher cell concentration (Fig. 4).

Against *C. parapsilosis*, **SBC3** and complex **14** show the greater activity against fungal cells at the higher cell concentration of OD = 0.1. **SBC3** inhibits up to 75% biofilm growth at 4 $\mu\text{g/mL}$, while complex **14** inhibits up to 50% growth at the same concentration (Fig. 5).

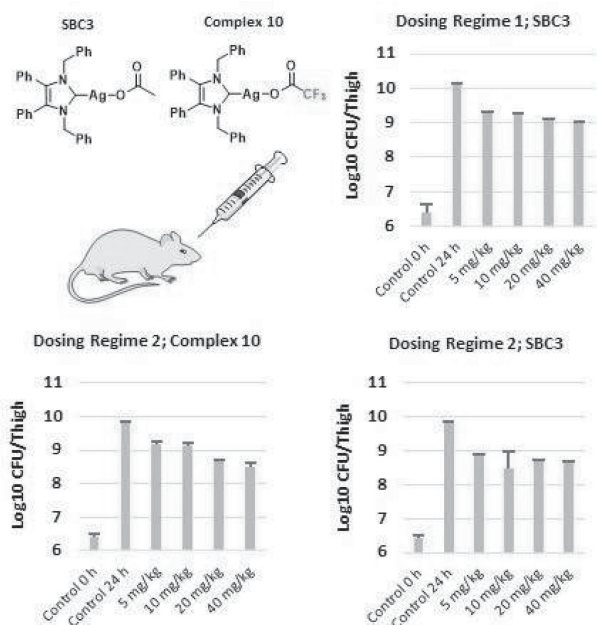


Fig. 6 *In vivo* murine thigh infection model on the efficacy of **SBC3** and complex **10** against MRSA.

The results of this screening have shown that there is definitive inhibition of biofilms in MRSA and *C. parapsilosis* by select complexes. The inhibition of MRSA biofilms highlights targeting virulence factors in resistant pathogens as a feasible option with this compound class.

While the previously hypothesized 'biofilm disruptor' moieties like fatty acids showed better activity against *C. parapsilosis*, the use of more lipophilic or other cellular targeting modalities like that of the FtsZ inhibiting cinnamate may be the more poignant groups for further investigation in treating MRSA.

To gain a complete picture of the antibiotic activity of this class of compounds, an *in vivo* murine thigh infection model was used to determine the activity of **SBC3** and complex **10** against a strain of MRSA (ATCC 33591).^{52,53}

Both complexes had previously shown good activity against the spread of bacterial and fungal pathogens, and inhibition of biofilms, and it was decided that these were the more ideal compounds for murine testing; this would also allow investigating if the incorporation of the trifluoromethyl group on the acetate moiety, and the theorized greater lipophilicity, would lead to a noticeable increased antibiotic activity in an *in vivo* environment.

Two separate dosing regimens were carried out to determine the dosages that were effective for antibiotic efficacy, while also remaining tolerable to the infected mice. The results of this testing are represented in Fig. 6.

In the first regime, **SBC3** was administered in a standalone test to determine the tolerability of the complex by the murine subjects. The MRSA-related log₁₀ colony forming unit (CFU)/thigh values were measured for the control group at 0 and 24 h, respectively. Dosages of **SBC3** were administered in concentrations of 5, 10, 20, and 40 mg/kg; the mice were monitored over a 24 h period. As seen in Fig. 6, there is a consistent concentration-dependent lowering of MRSA-related CFU, with no toxicity.

The second regime of testing included both **SBC3** and complex **10**, with a change of dosage amount from every 12 to ev-

ery 6 h, doubling the dose received by the mice. For this regime, the MRSA-related log₁₀ CFU/thigh values were measured for the control group at 0 and 24 h, respectively. Dosages of the **SBC3** molecule and complex **10** were administered in concentrations of 5, 10, 20, and 40 mg/kg; the mice were monitored over a 24 h period.

At the 5 and 10 mg/kg concentrations, there is a similar decrease in the MRSA-related log₁₀ CFU/thigh values for the corresponding dosages of **SBC3** and complex **10**. While a definitive decrease in MRSA-related log₁₀ CFU is shown, the effects are still not as pronounced as would be expected for a clinical antimicrobial. At the higher concentration ranges of 20 and 40 mg/kg, there is also further increased activity; however, these concentrations resulted in toxicity issues for both **SBC3** and complex **10**, with all mice in these test sub-groups dying during treatment. These new data have highlighted that a different avenue of use should be considered for this class of antimicrobial complexes, most notably as adjuvants for previously resisted clinical antimicrobials.

Conclusions

The use of silver as an antimicrobial has long been explored by researchers for new medicines and as a possible avenue for undermining resistance against clinical antimicrobial agents. The combination of silver with ligands capable of providing a delivery system to bacterial and fungal cells to elicit its effects has been a well-examined route of previously developing biologically active complexes; *N*-heterocyclic carbenes provide suitable scaffolds for this purpose. The incorporation of physiochemically improving and virulence factor targeting carboxylate substituents then provides the opportunity to improve the antimicrobial efficacy of these complexes, by both the direct attack on microbial cells and subversively attacking the attributes that make them effective pathogens. To this end, we have developed a unique method for the synthesis of NHC⁺-Ag complexes by first creating intermediate imidazolium salts that contain unique carboxylate groups via an anion exchange procedure, and a direct method for complexation with silver that leaves only water as a by-product to obtain NHC⁺-Ag complexes in high yields.

In addition to this, we then successfully incorporated the salt metathesis and subsequent silver complexation to a single, continuous flow process, reducing the reaction time from a period of days down to hours, while achieving improved yields with several compounds.

The biological examination of these compounds has elucidated a clear outcome for these NHC⁺-Ag complexes. The resulting effect during *in vitro* tests has shown good activity against the Gram-negative bacterial strains *E. coli*, *K. pneumoniae*, and *P. aeruginosa*, with the effect of complexes **10** and **14** (containing a trifluoroacetate and medium-length fatty acid, respectively) resulting in excellent inhibition (>75%) against *E. coli* at the concentration of 7.8 μg/mL. The findings of antifungal assays have also highlighted the continued activity of this compound class against *C. parapsilosis*, with complexes **10** and **14** again providing >50% inhibition against this fungus at the concentration of 7.8 μg/mL.

To try and elucidate a mechanism by which this compound class elicits microbial growth inhibition, the four selected complexes were screened for their ability to inhibit biofilm formation. As biofilm is a necessary virulence factor in the development of many pathogenic bacteria and fungi, particularly MRSA, this represented a clear target for increasing antibiotic activity. Biofilm

inhibition was achieved against *C. parapsilosis* at the lower concentrations by **SBC3** and complex **14**, with complexes **10** and **16** showing the greatest inhibition of MRSA biofilms at a concentration of 2 $\mu\text{g/mL}$.

The resulting murine model also highlighted the extent of inhibition for this compound class against the resistant Gram-positive strain MRSA in an *in vivo* environment. The complexes tested, **SBC3** and complex **10**, produced a definitive decrease in the presence of MRSA-related cells in mice, though toxicity issues present a problem in an increased dosage regime where the greater effect was witnessed. These murine results show a certain activity of **SBC3** and complex **10** *in vivo*, but for a hit compound a significantly higher bacterial load reduction of 2–3 orders of magnitude could be expected.

These results highlight that the standalone activity of this class of NHC*–Ag compounds may not be sufficient to clinically treat microbial infections. To this end, we see this class of complexes as supplementary adjuvants to frontline antimicrobial agents. As antimicrobial research has more gradually turned toward combination therapies and adjuvants as useful tools,^{54,55} these compounds could be utilized as a resistance-undermining element in a combination therapy in order to re-establish the effect of clinically relevant antimicrobials.^{8,56} Recently, Rubini *et al.* have published a study on the antibacterial mechanism of action of **SBC3**, while also showing its effect as an antibacterial adjuvant for Gentamicin against resistant strains of *P. aeruginosa*.⁵⁷

In tandem with the ability of being able to synthesize NHC*–Ag complexes in an eco- and industry friendly continuous flow system, we have shown that these latest complexes can be suitably derivatized with more biologically active scaffolds and are appropriately robust to be created in high yields and purity. Together with the *in vivo* data presented, there is now a greater likelihood to see clinical trials of an advanced carbene silver antimicrobials in the foreseeable future.

Supplementary material

Supplementary data are available at [Metallomics](https://doi.org/10.1039/C9MT00000A) online.

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Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts of interest to declare.

Data availability

The data underlying this article are available in the article and in its online supplementary material.

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