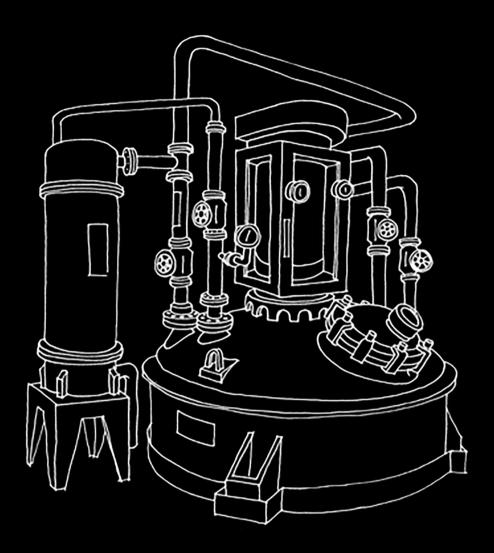
Pedro Paulo Santos | William Heggie



Retrosynthesis in the Manufacture of Generic Drugs

Selected Case Studies

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RETROSYNTHESIS IN THE MANUFACTURE OF GENERIC DRUGS

Selected Case Studies

Pedro Paulo Santos William Heggie This edition first published 2021 © 2021 John Wiley & Sons Ltd

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CONTENTS

	Preface	XV
	A note about the book and its use	XVII
	Abbreviations	XIX
1	Introduction	1
2	GABAPENTIN	5
	2.1 Worldwide sales and patent status	6
	2.2 Gabapentin structure and general retrosynthetic strategy	7
	2.2.1 Using the primary amine for retrosynthesis	7
	2.2.2 Rearrangement as a key synthetic step: taking advantage of symmetrical	
	intermediates	8
	2.2.3 Avoiding the rearrangement and obtaining the amine by a reduction step	10
	2.2.4 Disconnecting only one carbon chain from the cyclohexane ring	10
	2.2.5 Using an aromatic ring to produce the saturated cyclohexane ring	11
	2.3 The first reported synthesis of gabapentin	13
	2.4 The evolution of the chemical synthesis of gabapentin	14
	2.4.1 Initial development of synthetic routes to Gabapentin using a rearrangement	
	step	14
	2.4.2 Routes to the spiro-anhydride or spiro-imide intermediates	16
	2.4.3 Synthetic routes of Gabapentin using a one carbon atom nucleophile	18
	2.4.4 The 1,4-dicarbonyl intermediate routes	23
	2.4.5 Synthetic processes based on a Birch reduction.	25
	2.4.6 Re-visiting the rearrangement as a key step	26
	2.4.7 Other synthetic routes.	26
	2.4.8 Purifying the product	27
	2.5 Strategy comparison and conclusions	28
	2.6 Lessons from the gabapentin case	
	2.7 Reaction conditions for schemes A to D	31
	2.8 References	34

3	CLOPIDOGREL	39
	3.1 Worldwide sales and patent status	40
	3.2 Clopidogrel structure and general retrosynthetic strategy	41
	3.2.1 Chirality and Clopidogrel	41
	3.2.2 Retrosynthetic analysis	44
	3.3 The first reported synthesis of Clopidogrel	49
	3.4 The evolution of chemical synthesis of Clopidogrel	
	3.4.1 Synthetic routes using a resolution step	
	3.4.2 Asymmetric synthesis in Clopidogrel production	
	3.4.3 Other synthetic processes	
	3.4.4 Synthesis of the Thiophene building block	
	3.5 Strategy comparison and conclusions	
	3.6 Lessons from the Clopidogrel case	
	3.7 Reaction conditions for schemes C to J	
	3.8 References	
4	CITALOPRAM AND ESCITALOPRAM	85
	4.1 Worldwide sales and patent status	86
	4.2 Escitalopram/Citalopram structure	87
	4.3 Retrosynthetic analysis of Citalopram	88
	4.3.1 Disconnection of the propylamine side chain	88
	4.3.2 The aromatic nitrile group	89
	4.3.3 Retrosynthesis of the trisubstituted aromatic intermediate	89
	4.4 Escitalopram retrosynthesis	93
	4.5 The first reported synthesis of Citalopram	95
	4.6 The evolution of chemical synthesis of Citalopram	96
	4.7 A quick glimpse of Escitalopram	97
	4.8 The two Grignard phase in Citalopram synthesis	98
	4.8.1 Two Grignard route using 5-bromophthalide as starting material	98
	4.8.2 Two Grignard route using 5-cyanophthalide as starting material	102
	4.8.3 Coupling the hydrofuran ring formation with the second Grignard reaction	103
	4.8.4 A two Grignard route not using 3-dimethylamino propyl Grignard	103
	4.8.5 Phthalide synthesis	104
	4.8.6 The non-Grignard C3 nucleophilic route	105
	4.9 The phthalane route – alkylation of a phthalane with an electrophilic side chain	107
	4.10 Other synthetic routes to Citalopram	112
	4.11 Strategy comparison and conclusions for the synthesis of Citalopram	113
	4.12 The evolution of Escitalopram synthesis	113
	4.12.1 The chiral switch	113
	4.12.2 The first process for Escitalopram	113
	4.12.3 Diol as a key intermediate in Escitalopram synthesis	115
	4.12.4 Resolution of Citalopram and desmethyl analogues	119
	4.12.5 Recovery of DPTTA	120
	4.12.6 Recycling of unwanted R-isomers	121
	4.12.7 Key Diels-Alder cycloaddition in the synthesis of Escitalopram	122
	4.12.8 Escitalopram by asymmetric synthesis	

	4.13 Best processes for Escitalopram	. 126
	4.14 Lessons from the Citalopram/Escitalopram case	. 127
	4.15 Reaction conditions for schemes A to H	. 128
	4.16 References	. 135
5	SITAGLIPTIN	. 141
	5.1 Worldwide sales and patent status	
	5.2 Sitagliptin structure and general retrosynthetic analysis	
	5.2.1 Disconnecting the heterocycle first	
	5.2.2 Retrosynthetic analysis starting by transformation of the chiral amine	
	5.2.3 Retrosynthetic analysis starting from haloaromatic ring	
	5.2.4 Retrosynthesis analysis summary and most efficient routes	
	5.3 The first reported Sitagliptin synthesis	
	5.4 The search for an industrial synthesis for Sitagliptin	. 149
	5.4.1 Coupling the triazolopyrazine heterocycle at the end of the synthesis:	
	producing a key chiral β -amino acid intermediate	. 151
	5.4.2 Producing the chiral amine during the final stages of the synthesis	. 168
	5.4.3 Synthesis of Sitagliptin by attaching the 2,4,5-trifluorophenyl ring at the end	
	of the synthesis	. 179
	5.4.4 Triazolopyrazine synthesis	. 181
	5.5 Strategy comparison and conclusions	. 184
	5.5.1 Main strategies for asymmetric synthesis	. 184
	5.5.2 The relative positions of the asymmetric step and the amide forming coupling	
	reaction in route selection	. 186
	5.5.3 Preferred routes for the synthesis of Sitagliptin	. 187
	5.6 Lessons from the Sitagliptin case	
	5.7 Reaction conditions for schemes A to J	. 191
	5.8 References	. 200
6	EZETIMIBE	. 207
	6.1 Worldwide sales and patent status	
	6.2 Ezetimibe structure and general retrosynthetic analysis	
	6.2.1 The azetidin-2-one ring formation	
	6.2.2 Key structural features for the retrosynthesis	. 212
	6.2.3 Retrosynthesis using the Staudinger cycloaddition for the azetidin-2-one	210
	synthesis	
	6.2.4 Retrosynthesis using the Kinugasa reaction to produce the azetidin-2-one	
	6.2.5 Retrosynthesis using a N to C2 ring closure to produce the azetidin-2-one	
	6.2.6 The (S)-hydroxyl benzylic group of Ezetimibe	
	6.2.7 Summary of the retrosynthesis analysis	
	6.3 The first Ezetimibe syntheses	
	6.4 The search for an industrial synthesis of Ezetimibe	
	6.4.1 The synthesis of the C5 chain intermediates and the imines	
	6.4.2 Using the Staudinger reaction in the azetedin-2-one ring formation	
	6.4.3 The Wacker oxidation route	
	6.4.4 The search for a selective β -lactam formation	. 227
	6.4.5. Using Kinugasa cycloaddition	227

	6.4.6 N-C2 ring closing strategy and the build-up sequence	
	6.4.7 N-C2 ring closure strategy: late attachment of the p-fluoroaromatic ring	231
	6.4.8 N-C2 ring closure strategy: attaching the p-fluoroaromatic ring	226
	at the beginning of the synthesis	236
	6.4.9 N-C2 ring closing strategy: implementing the reduction at the beginning	2.42
	of the route	
	6.4.10 Ezetimibe by alkylation of a C3 unsubstituted β-lactam	
	6.4.11 Other β-lactam ring formations by N-C4 cyclization	
	6.5 Comparison of strategies and conclusions	
	6.6 The best syntheses	
	6.7 Lessons from the Ezetimibe case	
	6.8 Reaction conditions for schemes A to M	
	6.9 References	269
7	MONTELUKAST	
	7.1 Worldwide sales and patent status	275
	7.2 Montelukast structure and general retrosynthetic analysis	277
	7.2.1 Chirality issues	
	7.2.2 The thiol side chain and the enantioselectivity of the synthetic process	
	7.2.3 Retrosynthetic analysis of the thiol side chain	
	7.3 Retrosynthetic outline	
	7.4 The first reported Montelukast synthesis	
	7.5 The evolution of industrial chemical syntheses of Montelukast	
	7.5.1 Processes to produce keto-ester intermediate	
	7.5.2 Processes to convert the keto-ester intermediate to Montelukast	
	7.5.3 Montelukast synthesis using an incomplete thiol for the S_N^2 displacement	
	7.5.4 Montelukast synthesis using a Heck reaction as a key step	
	7.5.5 Montelukast synthesis using a carbonyl olefination reaction as a key step	
	7.5.6 Montelukast synthesis using a Michael addition as a key step	
	7.6 Synthesis of the thiol side chain	297
	7.6.1 Electrophilic side chain reactants	
	7.7 Strategy comparison and conclusions	301
	7.8 Lessons from the Montelukast case	305
	7.9 Reaction conditions for schemes A to F	307
	7.10 References	312
8	OSELTAMIVIR	319
	8.1 Worldwide sales and patents status	320
	8.2 Oseltamivir structure and general retrosynthetic analysis	321
	8.2.1 Starting material targeted retrosynthesis	322
	8.2.2 Retrosynthetic strategies of the Oseltamivir cyclohexene ring	324
	8.2.3 Retrosynthetic analysis summary	330
	8.3 The first reported Oseltamivir synthesis	331
	8.4 Routes from shikimic acid or quinic acid	332
	8.4.1 First developments from shikimic acid or quinic acid	
	8.4.2 Azide free routes	336
	8 4 3 Other routes from (_)-shikimic acid	338

8.5 The supply problem
8.5.1 Quinic and shikimic acid supply
8.6 First non-shikimic or quinic acid synthetic routes
8.6.1 The Diels-Alder furan approach
8.6.2 Oseltamivir by total hydrogenation of an aromatic ring
8.7 Synthesis of Oseltamivir from cyclohexadiene derivatives
8.7.1 Meso aziridines desymmetrization routes
8.7.2 Using iron diene carbonyl complexes
8.7.3 From cyclohexa-3,5-diene-1,2-diol derivatives
8.8 Building the carboxylic ring of Oseltamivir by a Diels-Alder reaction
8.8.1 Using a [4+2] cycloaddition to produce a trisubstituted six-membered
ring adduct
8.8.2 Using a [4+2] cycloaddition to produce a monosubstituted six-membered
ring adduct
8.8.3 Alternative syntheses for the Corey intermediate
8.9 Oseltamivir ring by a [3,3] sigmatropic rearrangement
8.10 Oseltamivir synthesis by a Michael addition-Horner-Wadsworth-Emmons
cascade sequence
8.11 Aldol type condensations as key ring-forming step
8.12 Metathesis as key-ring forming step
8.13 Strategy comparison and conclusions
8.14 Lessons from the Oseltamivir case
8.15 Reaction conditions for schemes B to R
8.16 References
A Final Word

9

PREFACE

This book aims to illustrate how the retrosynthetic tool, widely used by academics in the search for synthetic routes used to prepare novel organic compounds, is applied in the Pharmaceutical Industry. However, merely finding a viable synthetic route is not sufficient. Many different options have to be considered and evaluated, as there exist numerous constraints on the industrialist in terms of what can and what cannot be reduced to practice. The reader will be guided through the various steps leading to the "best" processes and the limits encountered if these are put into practise on an industrial scale. Thereafter, an evaluation the potential each process has for implementation is presented.

A great deal of information is presented from both the patent and academic literature. The more serious reader can use this as a basis for further study and thought but for those who have neither time nor necessity the material is presented in such a way that it can be appreciated without delving into excessive detail.

William Heggie Pedro Paulo Santos

A NOTE ABOUT THE BOOK AND ITS USE

Books on process chemistry usually use many short schemes, each referring to a particular synthetic route. This methodology makes comparison of different synthetic routes somewhat difficult and we can lose sight of the fact that frequently some intermediates are common in several processes. A unique feature of this book is the use of "reaction maps" (schemes identified with a letter coding). Whenever possible, similar strategies will be included in the same scheme.

The reaction maps collect several processes in the same scheme according to the intermediates used during the synthetic process. This allows easy comparison of the different routes which give the same molecule or intermediate. An analogy with an Underground Map can be made, where lots of lines (synthetic routes) are combined in the same chart to provide a map (our reaction map). For instance, if we travel in a city having a collection of schemes for each subway line as a guide we may be easily disoriented. Instead, the use of a map of the whole underground network where interconnections can be easily identified will be much more efficient and clear.

Each reaction in these maps will be coded with a scheme letter/reaction number (example, A22 means reaction 22 of scheme A) and the reaction conditions are included at the end of each chapter. In this way the reader can easily spot which reactants/conditions were used for the chemical transformation. In cases where the reactions have been used by several authors a summary of the conditions will be included.

The patent references in the book will be in company/year format (assignee/priority date). This system will allow the evolution of different synthetic routes to the molecule to be observed in accordance with the date of its disclosure (or discovery). If relevant, "references from peer review journals" will be also included.

ABBREVIATIONS

t-butyloxycarbonyl

Boc

2-MeCBS	2-methyl-CBS-oxazaborolidine;	BSA	bis(trimethylsilyl)acetamide	
	1-methyl-3,3-diphenyl-tetrahydro- pyrrolo[1,2 <i>c</i>][1,3,2]oxazaborole	BTHF	borane tetrahydrofuran complex	
Ac	acetyl	Bu	butyl	
acac	acetylacetone	Bz	benzoyl	
AEAI	asymmetric enolate addition to imine	CA	chiral auxiliary	
AHT	asymmetric hydrogen transfer	CAH	catalytic asymmetric hydrogenation	
AIBN	azobisisobutyronitrile	CAN	ceric ammonium nitrate	
all	allyl	cat.	catalyst	
alloc	allyloxycarbonyl	CBS	Corey-Bakshi-Shibata	
anh.	anhydrous	Cbz	carbobenzyloxy	
API	active pharmaceutical ingredient	CDI	1,1'-carbonyldiimidazole	
aq.	aqueous	cod	1,5-cyclooctadiene	
Ar	aryl	conc.	concentrated	
AS	asymmetric synthesis	Ср	cyclopentadienyl	
ASA	acetylsalicylic acid	CSA	camphor-10-sulfonic acid	
B ₂ pin ₂	bis(pinacolato)diboron	Су	cyclohexyl	
BARF	tetrakis[3,5-bis(trifluoromethyl)phenyl]- borate	DABCO	1,4-diazabicyclo[2.2.2]octane	
		DAIPEN	1,1-bis(4-methoxyphenyl)-3-methyl-1,2-	
BBB	blood brain barrier		butanediamine	
BIMAH	1-(1 <i>H</i> -benzimidazol-2-yl)ethanamine	dba	dibenzylideneacetone	
BINAP	2,2'-bis(diphenylphosphino)-1,1'-binaphthalene	DBSA	4-dodecylbenzenesulfonic acid	
		DBTA	dibenzoyl tartaric acid	
BINOL	1,1'-bi-2-naphthol	DBU	1,8-diazabicyclo[5.4.0]undec-7-ene	
BIPHEPHOS	6,6'-[(3,3'-di- <i>tert</i> -butyl-5,5'-dimethoxy-1,1'-biphenyl-2,2'-diyl)bis(oxy)]-bis(dibenzo[<i>d</i> , <i>f</i>][1,3,2]dioxaphosphepin)	DCC	N,N'-dicyclohexylcarbodiimide	
		DCDMH	1,3-dichloro-5,5-dimethyl hydantoin	
bmim	1-butyl-3-methylimidazolium	DDQ	2,3-dichloro-5,6-dicyano-1,4-benzoquinone	
BMS	borane dimethylsulfide	de	diastereomeric excess	
Bn	benzyl	DEAD	diethyl azodicarboxylate	
BnEZT	benzyl ezetimibe	DET	diethyl tartrate	

DHP 3,4-dihydro-2*H*-pyran

DIAD	diisopropyl azodicarboxylate	Fmoc	9-fluorenylmethoxycarbonyl
DIBAL	diisobutylaluminum hydride	g	gas or gram
DIC	N,N'-diisopropylcarbodiimide	GABA	γ-aminobutyric acid
dil	diluted	h	hour
DIOP	2,3- <i>O</i> -isopropylidene-2,3-dihydroxy-1,4-bis(diphenylphosphino)butane	HBTU	2-(1 <i>H</i> -benzotriazol-1-yl)-1,1,3,3-tetramethyluronium hexafluorophosphate
DIP-Cl	B-chlorodiisopinocampheylborane	hfacac	hexafluoroacetylacetone
DIPEA	N,N-diisopropylethylamine	HMDS	hexamethyldisilazane
DKR	dynamic kinetic resolution	HMPA	hexamethylphosphoramide
DMA	N,N-dimethylacetamide	HOAt	1-hydroxy-7-azabenzotriazole
DMAP	4-dimethylaminopyridine	HOBt	1-hydroxybenzotriazole
DMC	dimethylcarbonate	HPLC	high-performance liquid chromatography
DME	1,2-dimethoxyethane	HWE	Horner-Wardsworth-Emmons
DMF	N,N-dimethylformamide	i	iso
DMI	1,3-dimethyl-2-imidazolidinone	Ipc ₂ BCl	diisopinocamphenylchloroborane
DMP	Dess-Martin periodinane	kg	kilogram
DMSO	dimethyl sulfoxide	KRED	ketoreductase
DPEN	1,2-diphenylethylenediamine	LG	leaving group
DPMS	diphenylmethyl silyl		lithium bis(trimethylsilyl)amide
DPPA	diphenyl phosphoryl azide	LTMP	lithium 2,2,6,6-tetramethylpiperidide
DPPB	1,4-bis(diphenylphosphino)butane	MCPBA	3-chloroperbenzoic acid
	1,2-bis(diphenylphosphino)benzene	MCR	multicomponent reactions
dppbz		Me	methyl
dppf	1,1'-ferrocenediyl-bis(diphenylphosphine)	MEK	methyl ethyl ketone
DPPP	1,3-bis(diphenylphosphino)propane	MIBK	methyl isobutyl ketone
DPTTA	di-p-toluyl-D-tartaric acid	ML	mother liquor
dr	diastereomeric ratio	MOM	methoxymethyl
dtbpf	1,1'-bis(di- <i>tert</i> -butylphosphino)ferrocene	morph.	morpholine
E1cB	Elimination Unimolecular conjugate Base	Ms	methanesulfonyl
EAS	electrophilic aromatic substitution	MS	molecular sieve
EDC	<i>N</i> -(3-dimethylaminopropyl)- <i>N</i> '-ethyl-carbodiimide	MTBE	methyl tert-butyl ether
22	enantiomeric excess	MW	microwave
ee		n	normal
EP	European Pharmacopoeia	NAD	nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide
eq.	equivalent	NaDCC	sodium dichloroisocyanurate
Et	ethyl	nbd	norbornadiene
EWG	electron withdrawing group	NBS	N-bromosuccinimide
EZT	Ezetimibe	NCE	new chemical entity
FGA	functional group addition	NCS	N-chlorosuccinimide
FGI	functional group interconversion	NI	not isolated

NMM N-methylmorpholine t ton NMO N-methylmorpholine-N-oxide TA tartaric acid NMP 1-methyl-2-pyrrolidinone TBA tetrabutylammonium NMR nuclear magnetic resonance TBAF tetra-n-butylammonium fluoride Nu nucleophile TBDMS r-butyldimethylsilyl op optical purity TBDPS r-butyldimethylsilyl PCC pyridinium chlorochromate TCCA trichloroisocyanuric acid PEG polyethylene glycol TEBA benzyltriethylammonium chloride TEBA trithylail </th <th>NIS</th> <th>N-iodosuccinimide</th> <th>t</th> <th>tert</th>	NIS	N-iodosuccinimide	t	tert
NMP l-methyl-2-pyrrolidinone NMR nuclear magnetic resonance Nu nucleophile op optical purity PCC pyridinium chlorochromate PEG polyethylene glycol PG protecting group Ph phenyl Phuth phthalimide pin pinacolato Piv pivaloyl PLE pig-liver esterase PLP pyridoxal phosphate PLP pyridoxal phosphate PMB p-methoxybenzyl PMHS polymethylhydrosiloxane PMP p-methoxyphenyl PMB p-nitrobenzoic acid PPA polyphosphoric acid PPA polyphosphoric acid PPA polyphosphoric acid PPT propyl PTS pyridine QA quinic acid QN 7-chlorquinolin-2-yl RCM ring-closing metathesis rt room temperature SCC substrate-catalyst ratio SA shikimic acid in Oseltamivir chapter, salicytic acid in Sitagliptin chapter SEGPHOS SMB simulated moving bed TBAF tetran-yn-butylammonium fluoride TBAF tributylammonium fluoride TtraDA f-butyldimethylsilyl retra-ph-butylammonium fluoride TtraDA f-butyldimethylsilyl ritroroactic acid TEBA betrayl-divinentyliphenylphosphino) - 4,4'-bi-1,3- benzalicyal tetran-photylammonium fluoride TEMS tributyldimethylsilyl retra-photylammonium fluoride TEMPO (2,2,6.6-tetramethylsilyl trifluoracetic acid TFAA trifluoracetic acid TFAA trifluoracetic acid THF tetrahydrofuran THP tetrahydrofuran THP tetrahydrofuran Sis(6,7-dihydrothieno[3,2-c]-pyridine Sis(6,7-dihydrothieno[3,2-c]-pyridine Sis(6,7-dithydrothieno[3,2-c]-pyridine Sis(6,7-dithydrothieno[3,2-c]-pyridine in the Clopidogrel chapter; 3-(trifluoromethyl)-5,6,7,8- tetrahydrofylinentyli	NMM	N-methylmorpholine	t	ton
NMR nuclear magnetic resonance Nu nucleophile op optical purity PCC pyridinium chlorochromate PEG polyethylene glycol PG protecting group Phh phenyl Phth phthalimide pin pinacolato Piv pivaloyl PLE pig-liver esterase PLP pyridoxal phosphate PMB p-methoxybenzyl PMB p	NMO	<i>N</i> -methylmorpholine- <i>N</i> -oxide	TA	tartaric acid
Nu nucleophile TBDMS r-butyldimethylsilyl op optical purity TBDPS r-butyldiphenylsilyl PCC pyridinium chlorochromate TCCA trichloroisocyanuric acid PEG polyethylene glycol TEBA benzyltriethylammonium chloride PG protecting group TEMPO (2,2,6,6-tetramethylpiperidin-1-yl)oxyl Ph phenyl TES triethylsilyl Ph phenyl TFA trifluoromethanosulfonyl Ph phenyl TFA trifluoracetic acid Piv pivaloyl THF trifluoracetic acid PLP pivaloyl THF tetrahydrofuran PLP pyridoxal phosphate THF tetrahydrofuran PLP pyridoxal phosphate THP bis(6,7-dibydrothieno[3,2-c]pyridin-5(4H)-yl)methane PMB p-methoxybenzyl phemethoxybenzyl 4,5,6,7-tetrahydrothieno[3,2-c]pyridin-5(4H)-yl)methane PMB p-methoxyphenyl THTP 4,5,6,7-tetrahydrothieno[3,2-c]pyridin-6(4H)-yl)methane PVB polyphosphoric acid TI	NMP	1-methyl-2-pyrrolidinone	TBA	tetrabutylammonium
op optical purity PCC pyridinium chlorochromate PEG polyethylene glycol PG protecting group Ph phenyl Phth phenyl Phth phthalimide pin pinacolato PLE pig-liver esterase PLP pyridoxal phosphate PMB p-methoxybenzyl PMHS polymethylhydrosiloxane PMP p-methoxybenyl PNBA p-nitrobenzoic acid PPA polyphosphoric acid PPT pyridine Pr propyl PRT pyridine Pr propyl PRT pyridine PRC pyridine p-toluenesulfonate Pr propyl PRC pyridine PRC pyridine acid PRC quinic acid PRC quinic acid PRC guinic acid PRC guinic acid PRC substrate-catalyst ratio SA shikmic acid in Oseltamivir chapter, salicylic acid in Sitagliptin chapter SEGPHOS SRB simulated moving bed PTEBA benzyltriethylammonium chloride TEBA benzyltriethylammonium chloride TFAA trifluoromethanosulfonyl TFA trifluoracetic acid TTFA trifluoracetic acid TTFA trifluoracetic acid TTFB tetrahydrofuran THP tetrahydrofuran THP tetrahydropyranyl bis(6,7-dihydrothieo[3,2-c]pyridin-S(4H)-y)lmethane S(4H)-y)lmethane S(4H)-y)lmethane Sic,7-dihydrothieo[3,2-c]pyridin-S(4H)-y)lmethane THTP A,5,6,7-tetrahydrothieo[3,2-c]-pyridin-S(4H)-y)lmethane THP TTFS triisopropylsilyl TMEDA N,N,N,N-tetramethylethylenediamine TMEDA N,N,N,N-tetramethylethylenediamine TMEDA N,N,N,N-tetramethylethylenediamine TTPS triisopropylsilyl TDI toluyl TpEA 2-(thiophen-2-yl)ethanamine TTP triityl TGI toluyl TDI toluyl	NMR	nuclear magnetic resonance	TBAF	tetra-n-butylammonium fluoride
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PCC pyridinium chlorochromate PEG polyethylene glycol PG protecting group Ph phenyl Phth phenyl Phth phthalimide pin pinacolato PEA PEB PTE	ор	optical purity	TBDPS	t-butyldiphenylsilyl
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PLE pig-liver esterase PLP pyridoxal phosphate PMB p-methoxybenzyl PMHS polymethylhydrosiloxane PMP p-methoxyphenyl PMB p-methoxyphenyl PMB p-methoxyphenyl PMB p-methoxyphenyl PMB p-methoxyphenyl PMP p-methoxyphenyl PNBA p-nitrobenzoic acid PPA polyphosphoric acid PPTS pyridine p-toluenesulfonate Pr propyl Py pyridine QA quinic acid QN 7-chlorquinolin-2-yl RCM ring-closing metathesis rt room temperature S/C substrate-catalyst ratio SA shikimic acid in Oseltamivir chapter, salicylic acid in Sitagliptin chapter SEGPHOS S,5'-bis(diphenylphosphino)-4,4'-bi-1,3-benzodioxole SMB simulated moving bed THP tetrahydrofuran ThPD bis(6,7-dihydrothieno[3,2-c]pyridin-5(4H)-yl)methane 5(4H)-yl)methane 5(4H)-yl)methane 5(4H)-yl)methane 5(3,7-detrahydrofurino[3,2-c]pyridin-5(4H)-yl)methane [3,2-c]-pyridine ThPD bis(6,7-dihydrothieno[3,2-c]pyridin-5(4H)-yl)methane [3,4-c]-pyridine ThPD bis(6,7-dihydrothieno[3,2-c]pyridin-5(4H)-yl)methane [3,4-c]-pyridine ThPD bis(6,7-dihydrothieno[3,2-c]pyridin-5(4H)-yl)methane [3,4-c]-pyridine ThPD bis(6,7-detrahydrofurino[3,2-c]pyridine [4,5,6,7-tetrahydrofurino[3,2-c]-pyridine [4,5,6,7-tetrahydrofurino [3,4-c]-pyridine ThPD bis(6,7-detrahydrothieno[3,2-c]-pyridine [4,5,6,7-tetrahydrofurino [3,4-c]-pyridine ThPD bis(6,7-detrahydrofurino [3,4-c]-pyridine ThPD bis(6,7-detrahydrothieno[3,2-c]-pyridine [4,5,6,7-tetrahydrofurino [3,4-c]-pyridine ThPD bis(6,7-detrahydrofurino[3,2-c]-pyridine ThPD bis(6,7-detrahydrofurino[3,2-c]-pyridine ThPD bis(6,7-detrahydrofurino[3,2-c]-pyridine ThPD bis(6,7-detrahydrofurino[3,2-c]-pyridine ThPD bis(6,7-detrahydrofurino[3,2-c]-pyridine ThPD bis(6,7-detrahydrofurino[3,2-c]-pyridine ThPD bis(6,7-detrahydrofurino [3,4-c]-pyridine ThPD bis(6,7-detrahydrofurino [3,4-c]-pyridine ThPD bis(6,7-detrahydrofurino [3,4-c]-pyridine ThPD bis(6,7-detrahydrofurino [3,4-c]-pyridine ThPD bis(6,7-detrahy	•		TFAA	•
PLP pyridoxal phosphate PMB p-methoxybenzyl PMHS polymethylhydrosiloxane PMP p-methoxyphenyl PNBA p-nitrobenzoic acid PPA polyphosphoric acid PPTS pyridine Pr propyl Py pyridine QA quinic acid QN 7-chlorquinolin-2-yl rt room temperature SA shikimic acid in Oseltamivir chapter, salicylic acid in Sitagliptin chapter SEGPHOS SEGPHOS SMB simulated moving bed THPD bis(6,7-dihydrothieno[3,2-c]pyridin-5(4H)-yl)methane Si(6,7-dihydrothieno[3,2-c]pyridin-5(4H)-yl)methane Si(6,7-dihydrothieno[3,2-c]pyridin-5(4H)-yl)methane Si(6,7-dihydrothieno[3,2-c]pyridin-5(4H)-yl)methane Si(6,7-dihydrothieno[3,2-c]pyridin-5(4H)-yl)methane Si(6,7-dihydrothieno[3,2-c]pyridin-5(4H)-yl)methane ThPD bis(6,7-dihydrothieno[3,2-c]pyridin-5(4H)-yl)methane Si(6,7-dihydrothieno[3,2-c]pyridin-5(4H)-yl)methane Si(6,7-dihydrothieno[3,2-c]pyridin-5(4H)-yl)methane Si(6,7-dihydrothieno[3,2-c]pyridin-5(4H)-yl)methane Si(6,7-dihydrothieno[3,2-c]pyridin-5(4H)-yl)methane Si(6,7-dihydrothieno[3,2-c]pyridin-5(4H)-yl)methane Si(6,4-dihydrothieno[3,2-c]pyridin-5(4H)-yl)methane Si(6,4-dihydrothieno[3,2-c]pyridin-5(4H)-yl)methane Si(6,4-dihydrothieno[3,2-c]pyridin-5(4H)-yl)methane Si(6,4-dihydrothieno[3,2-c]pyridin-5(4H)-yl)methane Si(6,4-dihydrothieno[3,2-c]pyridin-5(4H)-yl)methane Si(6,4-dihydrothieno[3,2-c]pyridin-5(4H)-yl)methane Si(6,4-dihydrothieno[3,2-c]pyridin-5(4H)-yl)methane Si(6,4-dihydrothieno[3,2-c]pyridin-5(4H)-yl)methane Si(6,4-dihydrothieno[3,2-c]pyridine Si(4H)-yl)methane Si(6,4-dihydrothieno[3,2-c]pyridine Si(4H)-yl)methane Si(6,4-dihydrothieno[3,2-c]pyridine Si(H)-yl)methane Si(1,4-dihydrothieno[3,2-c]-pyridine In the Clopidogre chapter, 3-(trifluoromethyl)-5,6,7,8-tetrahydrothieno[3,2-c]-pyridine In the Clopidogre chapter, 3-(trifluoromethyl)-5,6,7,8-tetrahydrothieno[3,2-c]-pyridine In the Clopidogre chapter, 3-(trifluoromethyl)-5,6,7,8-tetrahydrotheno[3,2-c]-pyridine In the Clopidogre chapter, 3-(trifluoromethyl)-5,6,7,8-tetrahydrotheno[3,2-c]-pyridine In the Sitagliptin chapter TMEDA N,N,N,N-N-tetramethylethylehediamine TMEDA N,N,				•
PMB p-methoxybenzyl PMHS polymethylhydrosiloxane PMP p-methoxyphenyl PMP p-methoxyphenyl PNBA p-nitrobenzoic acid PPA polyphosphoric acid PPTS pyridine p-toluenesulfonate Pr propyl py pyridine Pr propyl A cy.6,7-tetrahydrothieno-[3,2-c]-pyridine in the Clopidogrel chapter; 3-(trifluoromethyl)-5,6,7,8-tetrahydro-[1],2,4]triazolo[4,3-a]pyrazine in the Sitagliptin chapter TIPS triisopropylsilyl TMEDA N,N,N',N'-tetramethylethylenediamine TMS tetramethylsilyl TMEDA 2-(thiophen-2-yl)ethanamine Tr trityl RCM ring-closing metathesis rt room temperature BYC substrate-catalyst ratio SA shikimic acid in Oseltamivir chapter, salicylic acid in Sitagliptin chapter SEGPHOS 5,5'-bis(diphenylphosphino)-4,4'-bi-1,3-benzodioxole SES 2-(trimethylsilyl)ethanesulfonyl SM starting material SMB simulated moving bed THTP 4,5,6,7-tetrahydrothieno-[3,2-c]-pyridin-5(4H)-yl)methane THTP 4,5,6,7-tetrahydrothieno-[3,2-c]-pyridin-5(4H)-yl)methane A,5,6,7-tetrahydrothieno-[3,2-c]-pyridin-5(4H)-yl)methane FHTP 4,5,6,7-tetrahydrothieno-[3,2-c]-pyridine in the Clopidogre chapter; 3-(trifluoromethyl)-5,6,7,8-tetrahydrothieno-[3,2-c]-pyridine in the Clopidogra chapter; 3-(trifluoromethyl)-5,6,7,8-tetrahydrothieno-[3,2-c]-pyridine in the Clopidogra chapter; 3-(trifluoromethyl)-5,6,7,8-tetrahydro-[1],2-4ltriazolof4,3-a]pyrazine in the Sitagliptin chapter TIPS TMEDA N,N,N',N'-tetramethylethylendiamine Tr trityl Tk trityl Tk trityl Tk United States of America V volume W weight WW Worldwide Xyl-BINAP 1,1'-binaphthalene-2,2'-diylbis[bis(3,5-dimethylphenyl)phosphine]				
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S/C substrate-catalyst ratio SA shikimic acid in Oseltamivir chapter, salicylic acid in Sitagliptin chapter SEGPHOS 5,5'-bis(diphenylphosphino)-4,4'-bi-1,3-benzodioxole SES 2-(trimethylsilyl)ethanesulfonyl SM starting material SMB simulated moving bed USA United States of America USP United States Pharmacopeia v volume w weight WW Worldwide Xyl-BINAP 1,1'-binaphthalene-2,2'-diylbis[bis(3,5-dimethylphenyl)phosphine]	RCM	ring-closing metathesis	Ts	<i>p</i> -toluenesulfonyl
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SMB simulated moving bed Xyl-BINAP 1,1'-binaphthalene-2,2'-diylbis[bis(3,5-dimethylphenyl)phosphine]	SM	starting material		
			Xyl-BINAP	
	$S_{_{ m N}}$	nucleophilic substitution	YNR	

1 Introduction

Retrosynthetic analysis is a powerful tool, first developed by E.J. Corey in the late 1960s, and extensively used by modern organic chemists to plan the syntheses of organic molecules. This book applies this technique to a series of important Drug Substances, also known as Active Pharmaceutical Ingredients (APIs). It is not our intention to teach, or even briefly review, the principles of retrosynthetic analysis. This is now a major part of any advanced organic chemistry course and many excellent publications, including the book: The Logic of Chemical Synthesis, New York: Wiley (1995) by E. J. Corey and X-M. Cheng, have been published. The reader is strongly advised to review the main tenets of retrosynthesis to be able to take maximum advantage of this volume.

In an academic setting the major goals of organic synthesis are:

- i) to establish that the molecule (generally complex) can be synthesized;
- ii) to establish new and novel synthetic routes to molecules that have already been synthesized and
- iii) to demonstrate the applicability of new reactions to the synthesis of organic molecules.

There are few, if any, restrictions to carrying out these syntheses on a small scale in the laboratory. Overall yield, transformation efficiencies, potential hazards and effluent treatment, although undoubtedly important, are not showstoppers in this setting. If the synthesis produces enough material, at a milligram scale or less, which allows the end product to be characterized, then it is deemed successful. Obviously, no synthesis starts with the most rudimentary starting materials but relies on what is easily accessible. For an academic synthesis, the major source of starting materials is a chemical products catalogue such as that of Sigma-Aldrich. The vast majority of the thousands of chemicals listed have extremely limited availability and the price in many cases is enormous. Woodward's total synthesis of cephalosporin C started with L-(+)-cysteine, which was more expensive than Cephalosporin C itself, so it might appear that the undertaking of such a synthesis is illogical. However, the objective of the study was to demonstrate the conversion

of a structurally simple molecule into a more complex one following a rationally designed synthesis. We return to this theme at the end of this introduction.

When carrying out a synthesis of an API on an industrial scale different constraints apply. The objective of any Pharmaceutical Company, whether originator or generic, is to get the product to market and maximise profitability for as long as possible. Hence, the design of a synthesis for industrial production has a significant number of limitations. The Process Chemist, as well as having a broad knowledge of synthetic transformations, an in-depth understanding of chemical group compatible and a well-founded acquaintance with the conditions necessary to carry out a plethora of chemical reactions, also has to appreciate what is viable on a large scale.

The retrosynthetic process will uncover a number of options for the construction of any molecule as no molecular entity has only one approach to its preparation. Nonetheless, not all of the possibilities will have the same degree of success when the chemistry is put into practice. The Process Chemist can, however, make a fairly accurate appraisal of what is more likely to work and what is not by applying basic chemical wisdom. Priorities for laboratory testing can be identified, but it should be stressed that those routes that have potential for success can only be confirmed after laboratory testing. Generally speaking, a particular route must be able to provide final product, API, in high yield and purity in addition to being feasible on a large scale. The product must be free of potentially toxic materials, some of which need to be controlled down to ppb levels. If time allows, it is prudent to do some quick trials on a route that current wisdom may have excluded, as sometimes happy surprises can occur.

Chemical considerations and laboratory verification are key in determining the success of any proposed synthetic route but additional factors have to be taken into consideration for operation in a chemical production plant. There are certain reactions that are comparatively more difficult to implement on a large scale than others. Amongst these are: highly exothermic reactions; Reactions requiring very high or low temperatures; Reactions requiring fast heating and cooling; Reactions using highly toxic reagents and that require containment; Reactions which generate large

quantities of waste; Reactions done under high dilution; Reactions which require a high degree of control i.e. temperature, pressure and time. Whilst all of these reactions can be carried out at scale, if they can be avoided by using simpler, easier alternatives large scale manufacturing becomes more sustainable.

Again it is not our intention in this book to discuss the details of and the requirements imposed by large scale manufacturing. There are many excellent publications dealing with this topic. However, it is useful to mention some of the more salient points for each of the cases mentioned above.

Highly exothermic reactions

Highly exothermic reactions generate large amounts of heat over a very short time. On an industrial scale, the removal of this excess energy is problematic as the area to volume ratio of large vessels is relatively small. When this excess energy cannot be removed run away reactions, sometimes explosively, occur with grave consequences to both health and the environment. Many serious industrial accidents have occurred in this way.

Reactions requiring very high or low temperatures

One way to control highly exothermic reactions is to carry these out at low temperatures where the reaction rate is greatly reduced and hence the release of energy is slower and more easily removed from the reaction medium. However, expensive specialized equipment to achieve and maintain homogeneous low temperature conditions is necessary. Reactions requiring high temperatures (nominally above 150 °C) also require specialized equipment and materials resistant to chemicals and reagents at these elevated temperatures. Pyrolysis reactions at extremely high temperatures are practically never carried out in the fine chemical industry. These reactions require rapid cooling immediately following the transformation as the reaction products are subject to decomposition under these extreme conditions.

Reactions requiring fast heating and cooling

Suffice it to say that it takes a long time to heat and cool a large mass. Heat transfer is dependent on surface area. Surface area increases less (n² correlation) in comparison to mass/volume (n³ correlation) on scale up. This causes problems for the Process Chemist, even to the extent that scaling up some reactions might turn out to be impractical. If the kinetics of a synthetic reaction increases greatly with temperature, and the kinetics of competing/impurity forming reactions do not, then fast heating to high temperatures so that the desired reaction goes to completion in the shortest possible time, helps keep impurities to low levels. Likewise, decomposition of the product can be controlled by fast cooling. Obvi-

ously, for large volumes of reactants, heating and cooling times are much longer than in the laboratory. It is no surprise that occasionally new impurities are observed and known impurities increase on scale up. Simulating times, temperature gradients and other variables that are expected at large scale in small scale equipment will establish whether this is true or not, and the Process Chemist will have to find alternative reaction conditions if this turns out to be the case. Flow chemistry, still in its infancy in the Pharmaceutical Industry, can resolve these types of situations and is an attractive alternative to classical batch chemistry.

Reactions using highly toxic reagents and that require containment

It is self-evident that plant personnel, the general populace and the environment need to be protected from noxious materials. Supply and transport of toxic chemicals can pose difficult logistic problems. Facilities which are designed to handle highly toxic materials are expensive to build and require constant monitoring to ensure that no harmful leakage occurs. Disastrous accidents, where large amounts are released into the environment, can have serious and even fatal consequences. Where possible companies avoid such materials and only highly specialized companies have adequate facilities to carry out this type of chemistry. In many instances, the waste products are also highly toxic and require special care in their disposal.

Reactions which generate large quantities of waste

Chemical reactions generally use stoichiometric quantities of reagents that are transformed into waste products. Few of these materials are environmentally friendly and their disposal poses problems for the chemical industry. Indeed, the major part of the bad publicity that the chemical industry, including the Pharmaceutical Sector, derives from this issue. The problem is exacerbated when more than one equivalent of reagent is required, resulting in a corresponding increase in effluent, and when toxic wastes are involved. Although recycling is an acceptable option, in the vast majority of cases recycling is not achievable. Even so, if the cost of recycling exceeds that of waste disposal, it may not be a choice worth considering. Hence, one of the principal focuses for the Process Chemist has become the application of green chemistry and catalytic reactions wherever possible.

Reactions done under high dilution

Aside from the fact that reactions carried out at high dilution require a much larger plant and bigger equipment, they severely restrict throughput, thus reducing the overall quantities that can be produced in a given time. They are also much more energy and labour intensive as the large volumes of solvent need to be heated

and cooled whilst handling takes more time. This all adds to the final cost of the drug substance, which may in turn reduce the economic viability of a drug.

Reactions which require a high degree of control i.e. temperature, pressure and time

The Process Chemist takes into consideration the limitations of the equipment that will be used for the industrial process that he/she develops. The gauges that measure variables on plant have limitations (as do those in a laboratory setting) although Good Manufacturing Practices (GMP) require that these are at least adequate to the task. There is no guarantee that the probes used for measurements accurately depict real values in the reaction mass as they are usually located in the jacket of the reactor and not in body of the liquid. Another issue is that, at industrial scale, the large mass of the material gives it a certain inertia. As a consequence, overshooting of programmed reaction parameters such as temperature is anticipated when fast heating is applied. The system then takes time to settle into a steady state where temperature fluctuation is minimal. It is therefore pointless to develop a process whose success depends on tight control of such reaction parameters. The process should be as "forgiving as possible" especially when multipurpose batch reactors are involved. Tight controls are only feasible in equipment, such as flow reactors, designed specifically for the purpose. Thus, robustness and reproducibility of a processes are important factors for its success on plant.

The analyses given in this book each start with a theoretical exercise where retrosynthetic principals are applied to the molecular entities of a selected number of important drugs to ascertain viable routes of synthesis. In each case, the applicability to an industrial scenario is assessed and conclusions drawn. Following this, the original literature is examined to evaluate which options had been studied and published. An attempt is made to evaluate which of the synthetic routes uncovered are eligible for introduction into a manufacturing scenario. It is hoped that the methodology exploited will aid the reader to uncover practical synthetic routes to other drug substances whether they be NCEs (New Chemical Entities) or generic APIs (Active Pharmaceutical Ingredients).

Finally, some observations on the origin of the information that is presented in this volume is in order. The two major sources that have been used are the patent literature and peer review journals. Other sources such as books, presentations/posters given at scientific conference and personal communications exist, but are not as comprehensive and/or as easily accessible.

There exist fundamental differences between these two types of literature. Peer review journals are mainly the province of academics whose careers are largely defined by what they publish. Consequently, academics focus on publishing as many original papers as possible. If the end point of the original postulate is reached experimentally, then the prime objective has been reached. A multitude of chemical syntheses, based on original and inspired chemistry, have been published where the accumulated yields are minimal, use chromatography to separate and purify intermediates and final product and are carried out on a milligram, or even a microgram, scale. The investigator does not concern him/herself by doing further work to optimize the route further from the point where it is acceptable for publication in a peer review journal. It is challenging to assess whether these synthetic routes could be viable at an industrial scale. We have made an attempt to do so using experience and common sense but, only process development and actual hands on experimentation can validly answer this question.

Patents are legal documents and can be regarded as contracts between a company (or individuals) and the state. Pharmaceutical companies submit a patent specification and, if after examination it is granted, the state allows the company a number of years (usually 20) to commercially exploit the invention without competition. The alternative would be to keep the invention secret (referred to as a trade secret). However, this is not an option for the Pharmaceutical Industry as, once the product is commercialized, it could be reverse engineered and competitors would very quickly enter into the market. To obtain a patent is not straightforward. The very first patent of a drug (a product patent) need only describe, almost in a rudimentary fashion, how it can be prepared. Thereafter, subsequent patents which describe new and novel ways to produce the drug substance (process patents) have to establish superiority over what is known in the Prior Art (the sum of all publications related to the subject matter of the patent). Patent offices worldwide have experienced patent examiners who assess patent novelty and inventiveness and only after they have approved the patent claims, does the patent proceed to grant. However, it cannot be presumed that the work of assessing the suitability of processes therein described to be implemented industrially has been done. The patent examiner only looks at novelty and inventiveness, which may not necessarily signify that the process is industrially practicable. There is an additional constraint when trying to interpret the content of patent literature. It is required by law to include the best examples that allow a patent to be reduced to practice. This is obviously not in the patentee's interest – no-one willingly lays bare their manufacturing knowhow for competitors to copy. Hence, patents are published revealing numerous options to carry out the process, usually before real industrial development work has been done. In this way companies can "disguise" their chosen route in an avalanche of information whist still revealing the best examples at the time of patent application. Once more we have used common sense and experience to interpret which processes are worthy of application in a manufacturing scenario, but as was the case for academic syntheses, only experimentation can give definitive answers.

2 GABAPENTIN

Year of discovery: 1974 Warner-Lambert Company **First WW Approval:** 05 February 1993 (UK)

US approval: 30 December 1993

Drug category: Calcium channel ligand, structurally related to

γ-aminobutyric acid (GABA)

Uses: Antipsychotic; Analgesic (non-narcotic); Antidepressant;

Antimigraine; Anticonvulsant

Gabapentin (1) resulted from the search for synthetic analogues of γ -aminobutyric acid (GABA), a natural inhibitor of neurotransmission in the mammalian brain. GABA itself cannot enter the central nervous system by systemic administration; hence, a more lipophilic derivative was sought. Both GABA and Gabapentin are γ -amino acids (Figure 2.1), the higher lipophilicity of Gabapentin resulting from the presence of the cyclohexane ring. Contrary to the desired result it was found that Gabapentin does not interact with the GABA receptor in the brain but does display activity due to binding to a protein subunit that regulates a calcium ion channel.

In 1993, Gabapentin was initially approved to control seizures and was marketed by Pfizer under the trademark

Neurotin[®]. Later, the drug was also approved (2002) for neuropathic neuralgia and some other uses anticipated, for example, in anxiety and in panic disorders.

In the aftermath of the success of Gabapentin, a new more active and potent derivative, Pregabalin, emerged and was marketed as Lyrica® by Pfizer from 2004 onwards.

Gabapentin and Pregabalin belong to a class of drugs known as gabapentinoids. Recent studies have revealed that the Large-neutral Amino acid Transporter 1 (LAT-1), which is found in the membranes of the Blood Brain barrier (BBB), transports Gabapentin across the BBB explaining the uptake of the drug to the brain. This discovery facilitated the development of gabapentin prodrugs, such as Gabapentin enacarbil (Figure 2.2), which more easily cross the BBB.

FIGURE 2.1 GABA AND SOME SYNTHETIC API ANALOGUES

FIGURE 2.2 GABAPENTENTIN ENACARBIL CHEMICAL STRUCTURE

2.1 WORLDWIDE SALES AND PATENT STATUS

The following graphs illustrate how research carried out in the pharmaceutical industry towards the production of the API and worldwide sales of the finished drug product evolved.

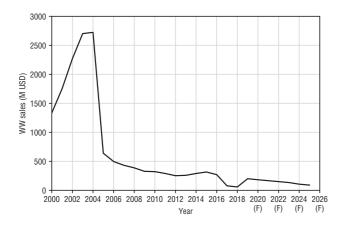


FIGURE 2.3 GABAPENTIN WW SALES EVOLUTION (IN M USD)

Source: Data from GlobalData [Online] https://globaldata.com/

- US basic patent term 02/05/1995 (US4087544, WarnerL1974), USA Product Patent term extension 16/01/2000.
- Annual production¹: 2019, 3,997.3 t; 2018, 3,851.6 t; 2017, 3,743.0 t.
- Annual WW sales¹: 2019, 1377M USD; 2018, 1401.3M USD; 2017, 1346.9M USD.

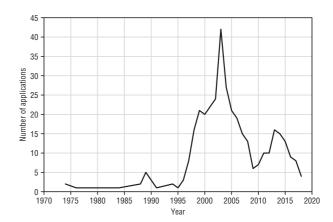


FIGURE 2.4 NEW PATENT APPLICATIONS ON GABAPENTIN FILED BY YEAR

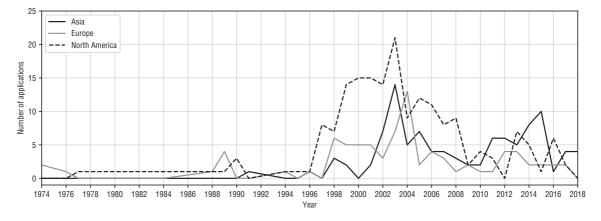


FIGURE 2.5 PATENT APPLICATIONS ON GABAPENTIN FILED BY REGION

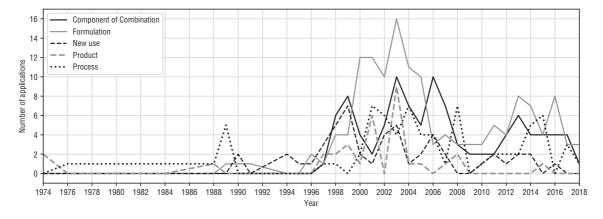


FIGURE 2.6 PATENT APPLICATIONS ON GABAPENTIN FILED BY TYPE OF PATENT