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The Development of a Robust Process for a CRF₁ Receptor Antagonist

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ABSTRACT: A scalable and robust process was developed for the preparation of pexacerfont (2), a pyrazolotriazine corticotropinreleasing factor receptor 1 antagonist (CRF₁). The formation of the core hydroxypyrazolotriazine moiety was achieved through two consecutive cyclizations of a semicarbazide, employing reaction conditions that are significantly milder than those reported in the literature. Further conversion to the key chloropyrazolotriazine intermediate was accomplished through a novel catalytic process using phosphorous oxychloride as the chlorinating agent. The active pharmaceutical ingredient **2** was obtained in >99.5% purity with a 68% overall yield for the six synthetic steps.

INTRODUCTION

Corticotropin-releasing factor (CRF) is a 41 amino acid peptide¹ that plays a critical role in the body's response to stress.² Hypersecretion of CRF from the hypothalamus is proposed to trigger depression and anxiety-related disorders.³ While two receptors have been identified, CRF binds preferentially to the CRF1 receptor. A significant amount of research has been invested in developing a CRF1 receptor antagonist, as studies suggest that blocking the CRF₁ receptor could treat the diseases that result from elevated CRF levels. Accordingly, a variety of small-molecule CRF_1 receptor antagonists, containing the pyrazolo [1,5-a]-1,3,5triazine structural motif as in 1 (Figure 1), have been studied as the rapeutic agents for the treatment of various CRF-related disorders. 4a,4b The Discovery Chemistry group within Bristol-Myers Squibb focused on the syntheses and structure-activity relationships of 8-(4-methoxyaryl)pyrazolo[1,5-*a*]-1,3,5-triazine CRF₁ receptor antagonists as potential anxiolytic drugs. Their efforts led to the identification of compound 2 for advancement into clinical development as a potent CRF₁ antagonist (Figure 1).⁵



The synthetic strategy employed by Discovery Chemistry for the preparation of clinical candidate 2 is outlined in Scheme 1.^{4–6} A key feature to the synthesis involved a Pd-mediated coupling of 6-methoxy-3-bromo-2-methyl pyridine 3^7 with 4-iodo-4-methylisoxazole 5,⁸ followed by isomerization under basic conditions to provide β -ketonitrile 7 as the sodium enolate form.⁹ Treatment of 7 with excess hydrazine monohydrate in refluxing toluene afforded aminopyrazole 8 in 76% yield over the two steps from oxazole 6. Amidine 9 was next generated via condensation of amine 8 with ethyl acetimidate in the presence of 1 equiv of glacial acetic acid. Subsequent treatment with diethyl carbonate in the presence of sodium ethoxide in refluxing ethanol formed pyrazolotriazinone 10 in 79% yield for the two steps. Chlorination was then achieved with 4 equiv of phosphorus oxychloride in the presence of Hunig's base in toluene at reflux to generate the key chloropyrazolotriazine intermediate 11. Finally, coupling of intermediate 11 with (R)-2-butylamine provided the final product 2 in ~50% yield over the two steps.

While this sequence satisfied the initial material requirements and was amenable to the preparation of analogs, its use for kilogramscale preparation of 2 presented a number of challenges. First, the synthesis was lengthy, requiring eight isolations from the bromopyridyl starting material 3 and relied on extensive use of column chromatography for both impurity removal and isolation of noncrystalline intermediates. A primary goal for process development was to eliminate the use of chromatography and define process conditions (henceforth referred to as telescope procedures) that allowed crude noncrystalline or unstable intermediates to be directly used in the next transformation. Telescoped processes also provide additional efficiencies in that they minimize the number of isolation steps. Second, the use of large quantities of highly toxic and dangerously unstable hydrazine¹⁰ posed a serious challenge from a safety perspective. As such, an alternative synthesis of aminopyrazole 8 would be required for multikilogram-scale production. Finally, the penultimate chloropyrazolotriazine intermediate 11 was found to be highly unstable and readily hydrolyzed when exposed to moisture. Measures to address these stability considerations would be key aspects for the design of the final-step chemistry and process.

A retrosynthetic analysis of **2** maintains the late-stage installation of the chiral amine moiety, as described in the discovery synthesis, leading to the known hydroxypyrazolotriazine intermediate 10^5 (Scheme 2). A disconnection strategy that relied on an alternative cyclization at the six-position of the triazine core was then considered.

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In the forward sense, this transformation was envisioned to proceed via condensation of an orthoester derivative with aminopyrazole 12 bearing the carboxamide functionality. Further disconnection of the pyrazole reveals semicarbazone 13 which can be assembled by condensation of the known cyanoketone 14 and commercially available semicarbazide 15. This revised synthetic strategy allows for a more convergent synthesis in which hydrazine can be replaced with the less toxic semicarbazide reagent.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Synthesis of Semicarbazone 13. The point of departure for the modified process route from the Discovery Chemistry route begins at the pyridyl acetonitrile **16**.¹¹ The modified process

route utilized an alternative method to generate enolate derivate 7 based on condensation of **16** with ethyl acetate.¹² This transformation was readily achieved under basic conditions using potassium *tert*-butoxide in THF to provide a mixture of *cis*- and *trans*-enolates **17** (Scheme 3). Following neutralization and concentration via distillation, the potassium enolate **17** was then treated with an aqueous solution of semicarbazide hydrochloride salt **15** in the presence of 2-propanol¹³ to promote crystallization of **13** directly from the reaction media, albeit as a mixture of the *trans* and semicarbazone isomers.¹⁴ The process was successfully scaled to >50 kg to provide high-quality **13** in 96% yield as a 80:20 mixture in favor of semicarbazone **13b**,¹⁵ however, a number of challenges remained from an analytical perspective.

Scheme 2





The major challenge encountered in the preparation of 13, was the ability to reliably analyze the isomeric product mixture. Isomers 13 exhibited poor solubility in most common organic solvents. For the purposes of HPLC analyses, the isomers were dissolved in DMSO/MeCN with sonication in order to facilitate full dissolution. Once in solution, however, the isomers rapidly interconverted, resulting in inconsistencies from assay to assay. The sonication step also caused the formation of the cyclized intermediate 12, as well as related impurity 8 (Scheme 4). Due to these challenges, an indirect purity assay was developed based on derivitization. Treatment of 13 with a solution of 0.01 wt % triethylamine (TEA) in acetonitrile resulted in full conversion to 12 along with trace quantities of 8 as a minor byproduct. To accurately calculate the purity, a response factor for 12 and the relative response factor (RRF) of 12 to 8 were measured. The chemical purity of 13 could then be estimated by summing the area of impurity 8, weighted by the RRF, to the area of 12.

Given that a conventional method to determine the purity for 13 was not directly available, stringent quality criteria were established for starting material 16 and the subsequent penultimate hydroxypyrazolotriazine intermediate 10. This bracketing approach to the analytical testing ensured we could achieve the requisite purity for 10 even if the absolute purity for 13a and 13b could not be ascertained. Furthermore, penultimate hydroxypyrazolotriazine 10 is a robust crystalline substance that provides excellent impurity removal. Thus, 10

Scheme 4



was selected as a quality gate-keeper intermediate for the synthesis.

Synthesis of Hydroxypyrazolotriazine 10. The analytical challenges to measure the overall purity for the isomeric mixture 13 did not impact the downstream chemistry as both readily cyclized to pyrazole 12 in the presence of 20 mol % DBU (1,8diazabicyclo [5.4.0] undec-7-ene) in acetonitrile at 0 °C (Scheme 5). The subsequent addition of 25 mol % p-TsOH (p-toluenesulfonic acid) and 1.3 equiv of TMOA (trimethylorthoacetate) led to imidate 18 which smoothly cyclized to form triazine 10 within 3-5 h at reflux. The reaction workup made use of the acidic nature of 10, since when dissolved into an aqueous sodium hydroxide solution, the non acidic impurities selectively partitioned to the toluene wash layer. Isolation was then accomplished by citric acid addition to regenerate the conjugate acid, which directly crystallized. Following filtration and drying, the product was isolated as the monohydrate form in 66-70% yield and high purity (99.7 AP).

While the process for 10 was suitable for use in initial scale-up (implemented on a 10 kg input scale), there was a potential for the product to crystallize directly from the reaction mixture. This strategy would serve to both eliminate the cumbersome acid-base workup and allow isolation of 10 as an anhydrous form.^{16,17} A screen of reaction parameters revealed that the process could tolerate a wide range of concentrations (5-15 L/kg) and reagent charges (1-20 mol % DBU; 1.5 - 25 mol % p-TsOH). The latitude of reagent stoichiometry allowed for a reduction in the base (5 mol %) and acid (8 mol %) catalyst loadings, which when combined with the use of toluene as the solvent during the workup, induced the spontaneous crystallization of 10 directly from the reaction mixture. Consequently, the aqueous workup was eliminated and high quality anhydrous hydroxypyrazolotriazine 10 was isolated in 75-80% yield on laboratory scale.

Implementation of this process on a 55 kg scale in the pilot plant afforded hydroxypyrazolotriazine **10** in 71% isolated yield, which was comparable to laboratory scale. However, the amount of **10** remaining in the mother liquors was greater than expected (16% yield loss). Further examination of reaction conditions indicated that the solubility of **10** in toluene was dramatically increased by increasing DBU levels.¹⁸ Accordingly, a simple way to optimize the recovery of **10** was to reduce the amount of DBU further to 1 mol %.

Understanding the reaction mechanism and decomposition pathways further aided the process development and optimization. The first reaction consists of isomers **13a** and **13b** cyclizing to form a single intermediate **12** within 1 h at ambient temperature. Extended reaction times resulted in partial urea cleavage to



pyrazole 8 (Scheme 4). This was solved by a reduction in operating temperature to <5 °C, which controlled impurity 8 to acceptable levels (<0.5%) within a 2 h reaction time frame. Following the addition of *p*-TsOH and TMOA, the corresponding imidate 18 (Scheme 5) was observed as the major species within 30 min at reflux. Heating the reaction mixture at reflux for an additional 3 h resulted in complete conversion to cyclized product 10.

During the conversion of **12** to **10**, approximately 10% of a transient species was observed within 1-2 h, but had entirely disappeared after 3 h. LCMS analysis revealed that the unknown compound had the same mass as imidate **18**, suggesting the possibility of an acyl group migration. To confirm this hypothesis, an isolated sample of pyrazole **12** was heated to 100 °C in toluene, resulting in a 90:10 mixture of **12** and the unknown compound which was subsequently identified as acyl migration product **19** by NMR analyses (Scheme 6). Similarly, heating a sample of isolated isomer **19** produced the same equilibrium 90:10 mixture.

We surmised that under the reaction conditions (*p*-TsOH/ TMOA), isomer **19** generated the corresponding imidate **20** (Scheme 7), as suggested by LCMS analysis. By analogy, one would expect a similar equilibrium to exist between **20** and **18** as between **12** and **19**. As intermediate **18** can efficiently close to afford **10**, imidate **20** remains a productive intermediate for the formation of **10**.

The use of *p*-TsOH as catalyst was not optimal, owing to its reaction with the methanol generated during the conversion of **12** to **10** to produce the corresponding genotoxic *p*-toluene sulfonate methyl ester.¹⁹ Although the *p*-TsOH methyl ester was formed in low levels in **10** (<150 ppm), it was effectively removed during crystallization and could not be detected in the final product **2**. Nevertheless, we preferred to use an alternative acid to avoid this concern. Several acids (HCO₂H, AcOH, HCl, TFA) were screened to determine if they were suitable replacements for *p*-TsOH. TFA was selected as the replacement because it provided an improved reaction profile with respect to acyl migration and des-acyl impurities **19** and **8**, and its corresponding methyl ester derivative is a nongenotoxic impurity.

Although the performance of TFA as a catalyst was superior to p-TsOH, the issue of the overall low yield remained. This was attributed, in part, to an unproductive side-product, imidate **21**, which forms upon cleavage of the amide moiety (Scheme 8).

This impurity formed via two distinct pathways. In the first, the amide group is initially cleaved to afford 8 and subsequent TMOA/TFA addition formed 21 (pathway a, Scheme 8). The

Scheme 6



formation of 8 could be minimized by charging the DBU at low temperature (<5 $^{\circ}$ C) under anhydrous conditions (KF <600 ppm). Alternatively, cleavage of intermediate 18 (pathway b) could also form 21. This pathway was avoided by using a substoichiometric amount of TFA (20 mol %) and charging TMOA at 0 $^{\circ}$ C.

Several large-scale laboratory reactions (100-650 g) were performed to test the optimized reaction conditions described above. The product losses to the mother liquor were reduced to 4% with a corresponding higher isolated yield of 86% (vs 71%) and a purity of 99.7 AP.

While the first-generation process addressed concerns regarding the *trans* and semicarbazone isomers (**13a** and **13b**), and provided high-quality penultimate hyroxypyrazolotriazine **10**, a more efficient and robust process was required for further scale-up. This goal was realized through the course of development work by understanding the reaction pathway, impurity formation, and material losses. By eliminating the acid/base workup, reducing reagent charges, and identifying TFA as a replacement for *p*-TsOH, an efficient multikilogram-scale process for the preparation of anhydrous **10** was developed. More importantly, the yield and cycle time improvements did not compromise quality, and the high level of purity was maintained while eliminating the potential







for a genotoxic impurity (GTI) as demonstrated from the process comparisons shown in Table 1.

Optimizing the API Step: Evolution of the Base-Catalyzed Chlorination. The final transformation in the synthesis was to append the (R)-2-butylamine side chain. This is most efficiently accomplished by electrophilic activation of the core via conversion of the hydroxyl group to the chloride, followed by nucleophilic

Table	1.	Hydroxypyrazolotriazine	(10)	process comparison
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	first generation	second generation	third generation
acid cat.	p-TsOH (0.2 equiv)	<i>p-</i> TsOH (0.08 equiv)	TFA (0.2 equiv)
base cat.	DBU (0.2 equiv)	DBU (0.05 equiv)	DBU (0.01 equiv)
extractions	3	0	0
titrations	2	0	0
distillations	1	1	1
isolated form	monohydrate	anhydrous	anhydrous
yield (%)	68	71	86
HPLC (AP)	99.7	99.7	99.7
potential GTI	yes	yes	no

displacement with the amine. Chlorinations of hydroxypyridine systems such as compound **10** are well established in the literature and are often performed using neat refluxing POCl₃.²⁰ However, reactions using these conditions present a significant scale-up challenge from both a safety and environmental standpoint. We sought to accomplish the chlorination of compound **10** under milder conditions.

Our initial approach to **2** through chlorination of hydroxypyrazolotriazine **10** involved heating a solution of **10** in toluene with diisopropylethylamine (DIPEA), POCl₃ and benzyltributylammonium chloride (BTAC)²¹ at 80 °C.²² The BTAC provides a chloride ion source which has been shown to increase the rate of reaction.²³ Once the chlorination was complete, 1.7 equiv of (*R*)-2-butylamine and 1 equiv of DIPEA were added to furnish **2** in 42–57% yield (entry 1, Table 2).

The process posed several challenges during the initial scaleup investigations. The presence of the stoichiometric amount of BTAC resulted in a biphasic reaction mixture that made scalability, mixing, and sampling unreliable. The reaction workup in this case furnished a red, oily solution that required filtration through silica gel for color removal. Additionally, as **2** is very soluble in toluene (370 mg/mL), a lengthy solvent exchange to octane was required to achieve the desired solvent composition for crystallization.

Table 2. Reaction conditions examined for chlorination of 10^a



entry	solvent	additive	temperature (°C)	time $(h)^b$	yield (%) ^c
1	toluene	0.1 equiv BTAC	70-75	2-4	42-57
2	toluene/MeCN	0.6 equiv BTAC	70-75	2-4	59-70
3	MeCN	none	70-75	1	62
4	MeCN	0.01 equiv DABCO	20	1	78
5	MeCN	none	20	48	90^d

^{*a*} 1.3 equiv of POCl₃, 2.0 equiv of DIPEA; 1.0 equiv of DIPEA, 1.7 equiv of (R)-2-butylamine. ^{*b*} Determined as >98% conversion to 11 by HPLC analysis. ^{*c*} Based on isolated 2. ^{*d*} Conversion to 11.

From a quality perspective, the presence of a dimeric impurity, formed during the course of the chlorination, proved challenging as well. On the basis of LC/MS data and literature precedent,²⁴ we anticipated the formation of the symmetric dimer **22** (Figure 2), however, single-crystal X-ray analysis revealed it was the regioisomeric dimer **23**.²⁵ This dimeric impurity was observed at levels greater than 1% based on HPLC area, and could not be purged to acceptable levels by recrystallization of **2**.

Although the initial strategy was to qualify **23** to a level of 1.0 AP in toxicological studies, we continued to study methods to further lower its level and streamline the process. Reducing the amount of BTAC to 0.6 equiv and adding 0.6 volumes of MeCN resulted in a homogeneous solution that allowed for representative in-process sampling and provided a yield improvement of approximately 15% (entry 2, Table 2). Subsequently, it was found that BTAC was not critical for the chlorination step if performed in MeCN as solvent (entry 3, Table 2).²⁶ Increasing the volume of MeCN compared to the toluene process (15 vs 8 L/kg) also reduced the amount of **23** by 50%. In addition, the solubility profile of **2** in MeCN allowed for isolation of the final product directly from the reaction mixture by crystallization from MeCN/H₂O.

Earlier work on previous CRF drug candidates revealed that DABCO (1,4-diazabicyclo[2.2.2]octane) could be used as a catalyst to accelerate the chlorination reaction.²⁷ Toward this end, we were pleased to find that the presence of 1 mol % of DABCO afforded complete conversion to chloropyrazolotriazine 11 within 1 h at 20 °C (entry 4, Table 2), and further reduced byproduct 23 to 0.2 AP. By comparison, the reaction in MeCN in the absence of DABCO required 48 h to reach 90% conversion (entry 5, Table 2). This highlights the powerful catalytic properties of DABCO for the chlorination.²⁸

To enable process optimization, additional impurities were characterized in an effort to gain a deeper understanding of the reaction profile and to improve the overall quality of the final product. The DABCO-catalyzed chlorination gave rise to $\leq 0.5\%$ of a new impurity identified as the chloro-derivative **24** (Scheme 9).

Since this impurity is a potential alkylating agent, its level required close monitoring in the final product. We hypothesized that the formation of **24** was the result of nucleophilic attack of DABCO on the proposed O-phosphorylated intermediate **25**. Presumably, chloride ion displacement of DABCO (pathway **a**) provides the desired product **11**. Conversely, attack at either of the three α -carbons of the activated DABCO intermediate **26** (pathway **b**) would produce impurity **24**.

The dealkylation of tertiary amines during chlorinations of compounds such as 10 with $POCl_3$ is known,²⁹ as was the opening of DABCO ammonium salts by chloride.³⁰ As such, we focused our attention toward identification of an alternate catalyst that would mitigate the formation of an impurity that has the potential to act as an alkylating agent. A brief summary of the tertiary amines surveyed is shown in Table 3. The acyclic and less sterically strained tertiary amines such as triethyl- and triphenyl-amine (entries 1 and 2), as well as pyridine and *N*-methylpyrrolidine (entries 3 and 4), were less active than DABCO in catalyzing the chlorination. Comparable conversions to 11 were observed









when amines that were structurally similar to DABCO were used (entries 5 and 6); however, in order to avoid chlorinated impurities, these amines were not pursued.

 Table 3. Examples of tertiary amine catalysts used in chlorination of 10



entry	amine	Time (h)	Conv. (%)
1	Triethylamine	21	93
2	Triphenylamine	21	92
3	Pyridine	21	88
4	N-Methylpyrrolidine	24	98
5	Quinuclidine	1	95
6	3-Quinuclidinol	1.5	98
7	N-Methylmorpholine	0.2	98]
8	N-Ethylmorpholine	28	94
9	Morpholine	8	90
10	N-Methylpiperidine	2	98
11	1,4-dimethylpiperazine	1	98

The reaction promoted with 6 mol % *N*-methylmorpholine (NMM) resulted in complete conversion to **11** within 12 min (entry 7, Table 3), whereas other derivatives of morpholine were less efficient (entries 8 and 9). While other saturated six-membered heterocyclic amines were effective catalysts (entries 10 and 11), we selected NMM due to its higher catalytic activity.

The stoichiometry of NMM was optimized at 0.5 mol % which led to >98% conversion to 11 within 1 h at 25 °C, although the dealkylated impurity 27 (Figure 3) still formed in analogy to the DABCO catalyzed reaction. The decrease in catalyst loading reduced the formation of the dealkylated impurity 27, which forms at levels proportional to the amount of catalyst used. Importantly, a chlorinated impurity analogous to 24 was not observed in the NMM-catalyzed process since any undesired chloride ion attack would presumably occur on the primary methyl group of NMM to form trace amounts of chloromethane gas.

In addition to the dimer and catalyst-related impurities, four impurities related to DIPEA incorporation were identified (28-31, Figure 4). Dealkylated DIPEA impurities 28 and 29, observed during the chlorination step, are thought to form either by elimination or by attack of chloride ion on either the isopropyl or ethyl groups of a DIPEA-activated intermediate analogous to 26 (Scheme 9). The formation of both impurities was minimized below 0.15% by a rapid addition of POCl₃.³¹

Following the chlorination, compound 11 was telescoped into the amine displacement reaction via in situ treatment with (R)-2-butylamine and an additional stoichiometric equivalent of DIPEA to effect the transformation to the final product 2. The displacement of the chloride occurs readily at -5 °C, but is also accompanied by the formation of two additional DIPEArelated impurities (30-31), Figure 4) that were observed on scale. Enamine impurity 30 and C-bound adduct 31 were envisioned to form through the iminium salt of DIPEA.^{32,33} The enamine tautomer can displace the chloride ion in 11 to form impurity 30. Alternatively, the initial iminium ion could be trapped by nucleophilic addition of 11 to form 31. Although levels of 30 were as high as 1% during the reaction, it was completely purged during the isolation. Unfortunately, impurity 31 was formed in variable amounts (0.1 - 0.5%) during the reaction and did not purge during the crystallization. While rapid addition of (R)-2-butylamine minimizes its formation, such a practice was not feasible on scale given the exothermic nature of the addition ($T_{ad} = 64 \,^{\circ}$ C). Reversing the order of amine additions ((R)-2-butylamine followed by DIPEA) effectively controlled the formation of 31 to below detection. All of these impurities were effectively controlled by either the order or rate of addition of reagents and by the workup conditions.



Figure 3



Figure 4. DIPEA-related impurities.

Early iterations of the process required multiple crystallizations of the final product to meet the required purity specifications, whereas the process improvements described above dramatically improved the product quality and yield, without the need for a recrystallization (Table 4).

Furthermore, the optimizations to the reaction portion of the process allowed for a simplification of the reaction workup in the telescoped preparation of **2**. The final optimized process used aqueous NaOH to quench the excess phosphorous chloride, followed by heating to 65 °C to dissolve the resulting slurry. The solution was then cooled and diluted with water to induce crystallization, and the product was isolated by filtration. The two-step chlorination/amination sequence, provided high-quality drug substance **2** in a 82% yield (>99.8 AP, 99.2 wt %, and 99.8% chiral purity) on greater than 40 kg scale.

Table 4. AP	PI (2)	Process	Comparison
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	BTAC	DABCO	NMM (final)
	process	Process	process
chlorination temp	80 °C	20-25 °C	20-25 °C
extractions	3	3	0
distillations	1	1	0
polish filtration	yes (silica gel)	no	no
final solvent	toluene/	acetonitrile/	acetonitrile/
system	octane	water	water
Yield (crude)	63%	78%	82%
HPLC AP (crude)	>98.85	>97.93	>99.8
recrystallization	yes	yes	no
yield (recrys)	81%	81%	N/A
overall yield	53%	61%	82%

CONCLUSION

A robust and scalable process was developed for the synthesis of **2**. The key challenges addressed were an understanding of the complex reaction sequence in the synthesis of hydroxypyrazolotriazine **10**, the development of a high-yielding and more environmentally friendly process for the chlorination step, and the characterization and origin of impurities found in the final drug substance. A significant improvement in cycle time, yield, and quality were achieved at each stage of development, resulting in a process that can be safely and reproducibly run on scale. With the improvements described, an efficient and commercially viable synthesis of CRF candidate **2** was achieved in six steps (three isolations) with an overall yield of 68% (Scheme 10).

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

The experimental outlined below provide representative procedures for what was run on scale in the kilo/pilot plant facilities. Reagents and solvents were acquired from a variety of sources and employed without further purification. ¹H NMR spectra were obtained at 400 MHz, ¹³C NMR spectra were obtained at 100 MHz at 25 °C in CDCl₃ except as indicated. Chemical shifts are reported in ppm downfield from an internal tetramethylsilane standard or relative to the residual solvent signal. Coupling constants (*J*) are given in hertz. Moisture determinations were performed with a Karl Fischer titrator. HPLC analyses were performed using a reverse phase technique. Infrared spectra were recorded in an FT instrument at 4.00 cm⁻¹ resolution.

2-(4-Methoxy-2-methyl-3-pyridyl)-3-methylbut-2-enylnitrile Semicarbazide (13a) and 2-(4-Methoxy-2-methyl-3-pyridyl)-3-oxobutyronitrile Semicarbazone (13b). To an anhydrous solution of ethyl acetate (169 L) and tetrahydrofuran (242 L) (KF <600 ppm), was added 16 (69.9 kg, 432 mol), followed by a solution of potassium tert-butoxide (303 L, 496 mol, 1.0 M in tetrahydrofuran). The reaction mixture was heated to 45 °C, and HPLC analysis indicated >98% conversion to enolate 17 within 30 min. The addition of H_2O (105 L) was followed by vacuum distillation at an average rate of 260 L/h. The jacket temperature was gradually increased to 65 °C, and the reaction mixture temperature remained below 25 °C during the vacuum distillation. Once \sim 400 L remained, the jacket temperature was decreased to 25 °C, and isopropyl alcohol (140 L) was charged followed by a solution of semicarbazide hydrochloride salt (96.3 kg, 863 mol) in water (385 L). The reaction was held for 4 h at 35 °C at which time HPLC analysis indicated >99% conversion to the isomeric mixture 13. The product crystallized as the reaction progressed. The temperature was cooled to 5 °C and held for 7 h. The reaction mixture was filtered on a filter dryer and washed with water $(3 \times 420 \text{ L})$ to a conductivity specification of <3 mS/cm. The product was dried with an initial nitrogen sweep for about 90 min and then at 50 $^{\circ}C/50$ mbar for 18 h. Product 13 was obtained as an off-white solid, 109 kg (96% corrected yield, 95.8 wt %, 100 area % at 220 nm).

trans-13a: ¹H NMR (400 MHz, DMSO-*d*₆) δ 2.09 (s, 3H), 2.35 (s, 3H), 3.34 (s, 3H), 5.93 (broad s, 2H), 6.64 (d, *J* = 12.0 Hz, 1H), 7.52 (d, *J* = 12.0 Hz, 1H), 7.82–7.86 (broad m, 2H); ¹³C NMR (100 MHz, DMSO-*d*₆) δ 17.0, 22.6, 53.3, 74.3, 108.5, 120.1, 122.2, 142.4, 155.5, 159.3, 162.6.

Scheme 10. Optimized synthesis of 2^a



^{*a*} Reagents and conditions: (i) 1.15 equiv of *t*-BuOK in THF, 4.0 equiv of EtOAc, THF; (ii) 2.0 equiv of **15**, H₂O/*i*-PrOH (96%); (iii) 1 mol % DBU, MeCN; (iv) 20 mol % TFA, 1.3 equiv of H₃CC(OMe)₃, MeCN (86%); (v) 0.5 mol % *N*-methylmorpholine, 1.3 equiv of POCl₃, 2.0 equiv of DIPEA, MeCN; (vi) 1.7 equiv of (*R*)-2-butylamine, 1.0 equiv of DIPEA, MeCN (82%)

Semicarbazone-13b: ¹H NMR (400 MHz, DMSO-*d*₆) δ 1.72 (s, 3H), 2.44 (s, 3H), 3.84 (s, 3H), 5.37 (s, 1H), 6.74 (d, *J* = 12.0 Hz, 1H), 7.61 (d, *J* = 12.0 Hz, 1H), 9.54 (s, 1H); ¹³C NMR (100 MHz, DMSO- *d*₆) δ 15.5, 23.0, 42.2, 54.2, 109.0, 118.4, 119.9, 140.0, 141.7, 154.7, 157.0, 162.7.

HRMS Calcd for $C_{12}H_{15}N_5O_2$ 261.1226; found 261.1229; Anal. Calcd for $C_{12}H_{15}N_5O_2$: C, 55.16; H, 5.78; N, 26.80. Found: C, 55.03; H, 5.81; N, 26.99.

8-(6-Methoxy-2-methyl-3-pyridyl)-2,7-dimethylpyrazolo- $[1,5-\alpha][1,3,5]$ triazin-4-ol (10). A solution of 13 (650 g, 2.5 mol) in acetonitrile (6.54 L) at 5 °C was treated with a solution of 1,8diazabicyclo[5.4.0]undec-7-ene (3.75 mL, 24.9 mmol) in acetonitrile (109 mL). The reaction was held for 6 h at which time HPLC analysis indicated >98% conversion to intermediate 12. Trifluoroacetic acid (37.7 g, 495 mmol) was added followed by the addition of trimethyl orthoacetate (413 mL, 3.24 mol) and a rinse with acetonitrile (435 mL). The jacket temperature was increased to 90 °C over 1 h and held 6 h at which time HPLC analysis indicated >98% conversion to 10. The temperature was lowered to 60 °C and seeded with 10 (3.16 g, 11.1 mmol). After holding at 60 °C for 1 h, the temperature was lowered over 4 h to 20 °C. A solvent exchange to toluene was accomplished by first removing acetonitrile by distillation at 35 °C and 150 Torr to a volume of 3.25 L. Subsequently, toluene (6.5 L, 62 mol) was charged, and a distillation at 55 °C and 150 Torr served to remove additional acetonitrile. The batch was cooled to 0 °C and aged overnight. The slurry was filtered, washed with toluene $(3 \times 1.3 \text{ L})$, and dried under vacuum at 50 °C. Product 10 was obtained as a white solid, 616 g (86% corrected yield, 99.9 wt %, 99.9 area % at 220 nm).

¹H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 2.28 (s, 3H), 2.34 (s, 3H), 2.48 (s, 3H), 3.95 (s, 3H), 6.67 (d, *J* = 12.0 Hz, 1H), 7.43 (d, *J* = 12.0 Hz, 1H); ¹³C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 11.2, 19.2, 20.3, 51.7, 105.3, 108.4, 115.5, 139.9, 143.3, 143.8, 151.6, 153.2, 153.8,

160.9; HRMS Calcd for $C_{14}H_{16}N_5O_2$ 286.1304 [M + H]; found 286.1313 [M + H].

4-(2-R-Butylamino)-2,7-dimethyl-8-(2-methyl-6-methoxy-**3-pyridyl**)[1,5- α]-pyrazolo-1,3,5-triazine (2). To a slurry of 10 (42.2 kg, 148 mol) in dry (<1000 ppm) acetonitrile (232 L) was added N-methylmorpholine (83 mL, 740 mmol), and N,Ndiisopropylethylamine (51.5 L, 296 mol). After cooling to 0 °C, phosphorous oxychloride (17.9 L, 192 mol) was added, then the temperature was increased to 25 °C and held until HPLC analysis indicated >98% conversion (1 h). Upon completion of the chlorination reaction, the batch was cooled to -5 °C and MeCN (32 L) was charged. (R)-2-Butylamine (25.4 L, 251 mol) was charged over 30 min to maintain the batch temperature <30 °C, followed by N,N-diisopropylethylamine (25.8 L, 148 mol). The temperature was increased to 25 °C and after 1 h, HPLC analysis indicated >98% conversion to 2. The reaction was quenched with water (54.3 L) and 3 N sodium hydroxide (109 L, 325 mol) to a pH <7. The slurry was heated to 65 °C to provide a homogeneous solution, and the reaction mixture filtered through a 10 μ m polish filter, followed by an acetonitrile rinse (32 L). The temperature was lowered to 55 °C and water (42 L) was added until a slurry was observed (1 h). Subsequently, the temperature of the batch was lowered to 23 °C, and additional water (295 L) was charged to complete crystallization of the batch. After a 1-h hold, the slurry was transferred to a Hastelloy filter drier with a 10 μ m polypropylene cloth, then was washed with 1:1 water/acetonitrile (84 L), followed by water (6 \times 170 L) until the conductivity was <30 μ S/cm. The product was dried on the filter at 50 °C and 50 mmHg for 16 h, and the product was obtained as a white solid (41.2 kg, 82% corrected yield, 99.2 wt %, 99.8% chiral purity, 99.8 area % at 220 nm).

¹H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 0.79 (t, *J* = 12.0 Hz, 3H), 1.11 (d, *J* = 12.0 Hz, 3H), 1.47 (m, 2H), 2.06 (s, 3H), 2.12 (s, 3H),

2.25 (s, 3H), 3.72 (s, 3H), 4.04–4.13 (m, 1H), 6.01 (broad d, J = 12.0 Hz, 1H), 6.41 (d, J = 12.0 Hz, 1H), and 7.19 (d, J = 12.0 Hz, 1H); ¹³C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 10.3, 13.1, 20.4, 22.8, 26.0, 29.6, 48.0, 53.2, 106.5, 107.4, 118.4, 141.5, 146.5, 147.6, 153.6, 155.6, 162.8, 163.7; HRMS Calcd for C₁₈H₂₅N₆O 341.2090 [M + H]; found 341.2088 [M + H]; Anal. Calcd for C₁₈H₂₄-N₆O: *C*, 63.5; H, 7.10; N, 24.68. Found: *C*, 63.49; H, 7.04; N, 24.98.

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(12) To ensure full dissolution of 16, 4 equiv were necessary.

(13) Reaction of enolate 17 with semicarbazide 15 in THF/ H_2O as solvent did not lead to appreciable levels of conversion.

(14) Pure regioisomers *trans*-13a and semicarbazone 13b were isolated and used for characterization. The *cis*-isomer was not observed.
 (15) The isomer ratio was estimated by careful solid-state NMR

techniques as 13a and 13b were observed to readily interconvert in solution.

(16) Isolation of 10 as a monohydrate required an azeotropic distillation from MeCN to remove H_2O prior to the start of the subsequent API step.

(17) Heating anhydrous **10** to temperatures above 50 $^{\circ}$ C in the presence of H₂O afforded the monohydrate. Prolonged exposure of anhydrous **10** as a slurry in the presence of water at room temperature did not produce the monohydrate form.

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