

Green Approaches For The Industrial Production Of Active Pharmaceutical Ingredient

Ms. Anuradha Mahesh Savairam , Ms .Priti Babasaheb Patil, Mr. Pritam A Salokhe,
Ms. Samiksha savairam Dr. N.B. Chougule

Student, Ashokrao Mane Institute Of Pharmacy, Ambap, Maharashtra, India.

Guide, Pharmaceutical Chemistry, Ashokrao Mane Institute Of Pharmacy, Ambap, Maharashtra, India.

Principle, Ashokrao Mane Institute Of Pharmacy, Ambap, Maharashtra, India.

ABSTRACT:

This article's goal was to provide a framework for a bio-based economy by using biomass efficiently from an agricultural standpoint in order to build prospective end goods that could be bio-based (e.g. pharmaceuticals, active pharmaceutical components). We also expand our debate to include the development of bio-based products and biofuels, as well as conservation methods for bioenergy. The essential concepts for creating these by-products were further demonstrated in this review paper. Therefore, the purpose of producing these goods is to enable small-scale farmers to effectively meet the community's demand for bio-based materials and energy. Simultaneously, the development of local markets will create pathways and connections for larger markets. In summary, the review's goal is to investigate the biotechnology techniques' path so that less favoured producers and developing regions might join forces and relieve strain on the biomass production systems.

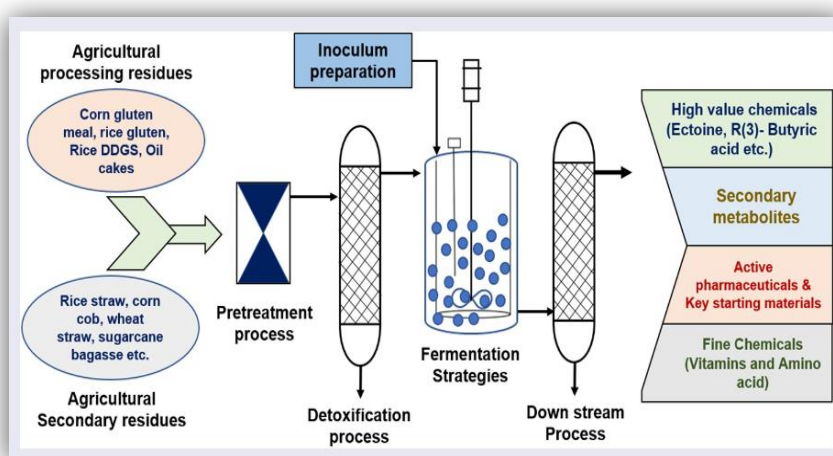


Fig.1 Biomass Production Systems

Key word: API, Strategic Greener Techniques, Energetic life cycle analysis, Environmental Sustainability.

Introduction

Under the banner of "Green Chemistry," safer product design, production, and application, as well as manufacturing methods, have been major objectives for the past ten years and will continue to progress. After the recession, there was a paradigm change in the usage of novel pharmaceuticals against inexpensive API drugs, which had a favourable effect on the expansion of the API business as a whole. Manufacturers of APIs are using a variety of cutting-edge technologies to keep up with this shift by shortening processing times and increasing output. Strong growth in the biotechnology and generics industries will support the expansion of the global market for active pharmaceutical ingredients (APIs). While current advancements in biotechnology and the continuous study and development of biosimilars are likely to create a huge potential for the API market across the world, the expiry of patented drugs and shift towards the use of low cost API drugs due to economic recession will help to propel the growth of API market, The market for active pharmaceutical ingredients

(APIs) is expanding as a result of advancements in bigeneric medications and high potency APIs. The essential technology for creating environmentally friendly industrial processes for producing active medicinal components is catalysis.

The design of an economical, environmentally friendly, and productive pharmaceutical and API manufacturing process highlights the critical role that catalysis plays. One of the most crucial instruments for the production of fine chemicals and pharmaceuticals at a reasonable cost and with sustainability is probably biocatalysts. Green Chemistry aims to minimize waste as much as possible while increasing the efficiency of synthetic processes, using less toxic solvents, cutting down on the number of stages in the synthetic route, and using less harmful solvents overall. Organic synthesis will thus contribute to the endeavour of sustainable development. 1-3 Health and safety will be improved by altering the processes used in organic synthesis not just in small-scale laboratory settings but also in large-scale industrial production processes thanks to the new techniques. The methods include flow reactors, atom-economic multicomponent reactions, solid-supported synthesis, fluororous and ionic liquid-based recycling, reactions in alternative solvents, microwave and ultrasonic reactions, and green catalysis methods such as organo catalysis, supported catalysis, biocatalysis, fluororous catalysis, and catalytic direct C-H bond activation reactions. Prominent developments in solid-state chemistry, micellar catalysis, function-oriented synthesis for natural substances, catalytic asymmetric synthesis, and solid-state chemistry can all be applied to the production of active pharmaceutical components. Active pharmaceutical ingredients (APIs) are chemical-based compounds that are mostly made in Europe, China, India, and the United States. Because of their pharmacological activity, APIs are mostly used in concert with other components to diagnose, treat, alleviate, and cure diseases.

But in recent years, a lot of pharmaceutical companies have begun bringing these materials into their own nations from nations that produce active chemicals. People have employed modern medications to diagnose, treat, prevent, and cure illnesses. Each and every drug is made up of two primary ingredients: the excipient (such as lactose or mineral oil) and the active pharmaceutical ingredient (API), which is the main ingredient and must function chemically and biologically in your body. In a multi-step reaction, a variety of chemical compounds and raw materials are used to create an API. 1-4 Nevertheless, their primary goal is to directly cure the illness by combining inactive forms with their pharmacological activity. Worldwide, people use around one lakh tonnes of pharmaceutical items (for example, up to 24 percent of total pharmaceutical consumption occurs in Europe). Consequently, the production of these APIs has encouraged the release of chemicals into the environment, which has caused pollution to spread. Simultaneously, the massive production of pollution has drawn attention from all around the world, necessitating a rapid change in laws and regulations [1,2].

Thus, pharmaceutical corporations are endorsing the use of bacteria or yeast in microbial fermentation, taking into account the adverse effects of these chemical channels that produce API [3,4]. Similarly, during the past ten years, there has been a growing trend towards the microbial-based manufacture of recombinants, and these manufacturings are responsible for the FDA's authorization for usage in humans. To compound the issue, microbial-based biopharmaceuticals generated returns of around \$100 billion in 2017 and the industry is growing at a significant rate (6% CAGR) [5,6]. It is anticipated that the market for pro-teins derived from fermentation will grow from \$44 billion to \$60 billion by 2020. Likewise, the projected demand for vaccines and peptide hormones, which were \$10–19 billion and \$10–19 billion, respectively, is anticipated to reach \$18–28 billion [7,8]. Pharmaceutical businesses that produce biopharmaceutical products today, including Bayer, AbbVie, Biocon, GlaxoSmithKline, Eli Lilly, Sanofi, and Merck, rely on microbial systems and partnerships. In contrast to conventional approaches, the focus of this review is on the recent and contemporary advancements in the chemical route of biomass processing, with a particular emphasis on the production of APIs. These active ingredients in pharmaceuticals and veterinary products can be manufactured or natural chemicals. Certain chemical-based active substances are made by risky chemical processes. Because of their uncontrolled exposure to the environment, their widespread production, use, and disposal are becoming dangerous for people, waterways (particularly drinking water), and other biobased life [3-5,7,9]. Additionally, throughout the past ten years, these chemicals have been found in ground water, drinking water, and waste water at trace amounts ranging from nanograms to micrograms [4, 6–9].

A recent investigation revealed the widespread presence of around 18 APIs in Lake Victoria, Uganda, with a concentration of 5600 ng L⁻¹. Thus, it has been determined that these APIs are global pollutants. These chemical compounds are formed from numerous chemical components, most of which are initiated from a single intermediate, rather than from a single source of reaction [11]. In addition, a number of intermediates are created along the way to turn any raw material into an API. During their progressive engineering, which uses large reactors, these many reactions typically go through lengthy purification channels [12]. Before these APIs are supplied to the pharmaceutical companies, they undergo a subsequent purity check. Among the principal biomasses used to produce the chemicals are the

carbohydrates, which make up around 95% of all organic compounds on Earth. These are essentially used to produce more goods through chemical or fermentation change. Typically, biomass takes the form of feedstock and includes starch, cellulose, hemicellulose, pectin, and lignin [13]. During the earlier days of conventional processing, the vibrant chemical industry would typically use starch and other feedstocks high in carbohydrates as a raw material. Undoubtedly, various products in the form of chemical and polymers can be generated by using any alteration in the procedure (fermentation) in order to achieve the desired derivative.

The application of this cellulosic biomass (lignocellulosic) has more of an inclination towards fuel production, which is greater than the conversion to xylose and glucose, despite the unease surrounding the use of starch between the food-based and chemical sectors [14–16]. Since lignocellulose makes up the majority of the biomass on Earth, all crop residue, including wheat and rice straw, sugarcane bagasse, and maize husk fibres, is categorised under it [4]. These crops are composed of lignocellulosic material, which is a combination of cellulose, hemicellulose, and lignin. These lignocellulosic materials undergo a variety of processing methods, such as chemical, thermal, or biological ones, and are transformed into chemicals, sugars, or ethanol [17–19].

However, pretreatments such as hydrolysis, delignification (using sulfuric acid), alkaline treatment, high-temperature steaming, and pressure-based homogenization are typically needed to break down these lignocellulosic materials and distort their organised and structured plant-based structure [20–25]. Consequently, these lignocellulosic materials can be easily transformed to the required intermediates following the use of pretreatments. To exploit the potential applications of lignocellulosic materials and minimise production processes or costs while maintaining environmental safety, we must overcome certain technological and economic obstacles [9].

Several published reports concentrate on the production of ethanol instead of other products [26, 27]. Because of this, the number of life cycle assessments (LCAs) that can produce numerous products is restricted. However, the majority of bio-based fuels and bioresources produced under the same roof of the enterprises are still not a promising alternative from an environmental or economic standpoint [28].

A specific example of this is the biorefinery system based on forestry [29]. Simultaneously, several important elements have been identified in relation to the environmentally preferred performance for the production of bioethanol and biodiesel. A broader and better-suited spectrum is required to carry out the united production of chemicals [30]. However, there are still significant pricing gaps that need to be filled in order to create large-scale biorefineries. Moreover, the chemical characteristics of biomass may not always be advantageous for raw materials derived from biomass; as a result, existing enterprises find it difficult to adopt new technology [31].

Additionally, 192,000 tonnes of propionic acid and its related esters are produced annually, and they are used in the chemical industry for a variety of purposes, including the manufacture of thermoplastics, solvents in paints and resins, and animal feed [32]. Furthermore, its production can be increased for the fermentation of sugar and glycerol from the perspective of a biorefinery [33]. Additionally, it is predicted that the economic conversion of glucose to propionic acid will be 15% lower than the conversion of glycerol. Similarly, another related forthcoming feasibility is to use glycerol fermentation to produce 3-hydroxypropionic acid, a crucial chemical building component [34]. Second, it can be changed into acrylic acid, which has superior environment-based functioning when compared to 3-hydroxypropionic acid. Simultaneously, researchers at the National Renewable Energy Laboratory have reported on the creation of a novel pre-treatment for the clarification of lignin and sugars generated from chemical nature. This pre-treatment uses an organic solvent in addition to water [25, 35]. Furthermore, the development of sophisticated technologies in the modern era (such as enzymatic and genetic engineering) has created new opportunities for the production of innovative industrial goods like plant-based APIs using raw materials [4, 6]. The idea of a biorefinery has evolved as a result of the chemical companies that generate APIs using biomass as a renewable raw material. This concept can be used to replace chemical-based manufacturing with the production of various bioproducts [8,10].

For the manufacture of green chemicals, APIs, and key starting materials (KSMs), which fall under a broad category, renewable resources are ideal sources to use as a substrate. As a result, the pre-sent assessment fully addresses the significant advancements and opportunities for lignocellulose as a feedstock that have arisen recently in the capacity of renewable biomass as a leading basis for chemicals and their linked compound products.

2. Environmental issues associated with the production of API chemicals through chemical route

These days, an increasing number of API-producing businesses are being pushed to take a more environmentally friendly route in an effort to decrease waste generation (particularly with regard to chemicals and solvents that are by-products) because of the environmental threat posed by pollution [36, 37]. While businesses that produce APIs are constantly searching for more efficient and cost-effective approaches, the actual number of steps required to produce API must be decreased if waste generation is minimised [38]. Since the main need for the creation of solvents or chemicals generated to produce a single pure molecule of API is fewer and less tangible stages. Similarly, manufacturers must use nonhazardous solvent types that can yield efficient and effective results in addition to reducing the number of stages [39, 40]. Thus, to achieve the results on greener guidelines, manufacturing companies should hire contract development officers (CMOs) and then use contract development and manufacturing organisations (DCMOs) to further pass their product through their services. This way, the formulation of the API process can be planned out early on with the aid of additional screening to prevent unavoidable changes or alteration in the later stage. This can be achieved by adhering to the scale-up processing protocols in the pilot plants, where careful supervision is required to assess quality control and assessments on a regular basis. However, establishing a kilo lab of this kind could provide problems for good manufacturing practises (GMPs), which call for careful oversight and a well-planned budget. Additionally, by taking these steps, we may lessen the production of byproducts and the exploitation of raw materials [41, 42].

Simultaneously, innovative organic synthesis techniques have been used in the past year to produce pharmaceutical items, strengthening the medical industry by lowering the number of accidents, diseases, and fatalities. Nevertheless, pharmaceutical chemists' efforts will be in useless if we simultaneously worsen the environment in order to accomplish this goal. As a result, the green chemical route is highly preferred for reducing the terrible effects on the environment. It is commonly known that the solvent disclosed by GlaxoSmithKline accounts for 80% of the waste produced by the pharmaceutical industry as byproducts [43]. Therefore, air pollution and other pollutants will be produced by the large-scale production of contaminated solvents. These methods can only be accomplished by using sustainable tools. In order to make the procedures threat-free, these tools require nib-to-nib strategy-based research, which entails the following actions. The important elements that can reduce environmental problems to the barest minimum are the methods by which biomass-generated feedstocks are produced, their bioconversion pathways, the use of specific safe chemicals, and standardised methods of technical processing. Comparably, the continuing use of biosubstrates while consuming nonrenewable resources and the integrated biorefinery idea can both significantly protect the environment [44]. To meet these requirements, the LCA methodology—which included a thorough evaluation of the processes and products from beginning to end—must be convinced.

3. Method of biomasses conversion in APIs synthesis

Environmentally friendly methods are currently gaining a lot of popularity for turning biomass into active pharmaceutical ingredients. By going in this direction, we can slow down the rate of global warming. In terms of fermentation, there are several methods that can transform lignocellulosic biomass into active pharmaceutical ingredients (APIs).

3.1. Chemical approach

Chemical conversions are the processes that convert biomass into value-added chemicals (furfural, levulinic acid, etc.) at high temperature and pressure conditions and in the presence of catalysts (phosphoric, hydrochloric, and sulfuric acids) [38–40, 44–46]. Even so, low yield is a constant source of significant obstacles to commercialization. Therefore, a variety of creative techniques have been used to convert biomass into chemicals in order to close the gap between the obstacles. Similarly, the Northwest National Laboratory described a unique approach that involved the use of modified carbon-based catalysts that were broadened to change sugar and organic acids [44–48]. Moreover, zeolites have been used to convert biomass into APIs, and their effectiveness in this process has been demonstrated [47, 49]. This is because zeolites have selective sizes and shapes and have demonstrated their potential as catalysts. Furthermore, it was discovered that silica-based catalysts are strong and consistent in their ability to convert glucose to sorbitol [46]. The investigation encompassed not only novel catalysts but also novel pathways and their potential for selective conversion of significant chemicals, such as hydroxymethyl furfural synthesis [48, 50].

Meanwhile, it was also claimed that acetic acid may be produced from biomass utilising supercritical water and hydrothermal processing [49–53]. Furthermore, from 1, 4-diacids and 1,3-propanediol, certain chemical intermediates (3-hydroxypropionic acid) also form and promote the creation of final stage products such as tetra-hydro furan (THF) and gamma-butyrolactone [50–52]. Certain monosaccharides, such as glucose and xylose, can undergo bioconversion in order to change into various chemicals, which is a method of chemical processing. Consequently, it was also said that supercritical water and hydrothermal processing may be used to create acetic acid from biomass [49–53]. Moreover, specific chemical intermediates (3-hydroxypropionic acid) from 1,4-diacids and 1,3-propanediol develop and aid in the synthesis of final stage products such tetra-hydro furan (THF) and gamma-butyrolactone [50–52].

3.2. Biotechnological approaches

The biotechnological pathway investigated the use of organisms or biocatalysts (enzymes) to convert biomass into useful compounds. In summary, it is regarded as one of the simplest, most straightforward, and most practical processes for turning biomass into industrial goods [4]. Biological conversions are generally milder than chemical conversions, which need high temperatures and pressures. Nevertheless, the idea behind these biotechnologically based conversions is not new, since yeast and bacteria have long been utilised to manufacture a variety of widely used compounds, such as acetone-butanol, citric acid, ethanol, lactic acid, etc. [56,57]. Recently, there has been interest in the benefits of using biocatalysts to transform renewable resources into chemicals due to their selectivity, lower by-product generation time, and increased product yield.

We are unable to generate a wide range of products, despite some limits in the fermentation process caused by different variations in the microbes' route [6]. Simultaneously, there's a big need for innovative processing methods to expand the product line. Therefore, using technologies based on genetic engineering and recombinant DNA technology, which may modify gene coding and bring about the needed alterations for the metabolism of sugar, is the only option to provide variety and overcome

Table 1: Summary Of Chemical Product

S. no.	Name of chemicals	Substrate name	Microbe's name	Production process strategy	Yields	Reference
1.	Diosgenin	Dioscorea zingiberensis	Mixed culture of <i>Trichoderma reesei</i> and <i>Aspergillus fumigatus</i>	Solid-state fermentation	95.82%	[69]
2.	Glutathione	Spent coffee grounds	<i>Millerozyma farinosa</i>	SmF		[70]
3.	2,5-furan dicarboxylic acid (FDCA)	Lignocellulosic biomass	Chemical route	Catalyzed synthesis	75%	[71]
4.	Glucaric acid	Corn stover	<i>Gluconobacter oxydans</i>	Two-stage fermentation	8.7 g/L/h	[72]
5.	Glutamic acid	Rice straw	<i>Bacillus subtilis</i> NX-2	Solid-stage fermentation	73.0 g /L	[73]
6.	Itaconic acid	Glucose	<i>Aspergillus terreus</i>	SmF	146 g/L	[74]
7.	1,2-Propanediol	Cellulose	Beta-glucosidase-expressing <i>E. coli</i>	SmF	1.48 g/L	[75]
8.	2,4-Butanediol	Soy hull hydrolyzate	<i>K. pneumoniae</i>	SmF	21.9 g/L	[76]
9.	Isoprene	Poplar (<i>Populus</i> spp.)	Recombinant technology	-	-	[77]
10.	Lactic acid	beechwood	<i>Lactobacillus delbrueckii</i> sp. <i>bulgaricus</i>	SmF	51.6 g/L	[78]
11.	Ectoine	Rice straw hydrolyzate	<i>Halomonas elongata</i> .	SmF	377 mmol/kg FW	[79]
12.	R(3)-Butyric acid	Glucose, xylose, and arabinose	<i>E. coli</i> PPA652ara	SmF	1.38 g g ⁻¹ dry cell	[80]

The constraints of biotechnological routes [58]. Likewise, modified *Escherichia coli* proved useful for the production of the compounds (catechol and adipic acid) from glu-cose. Recombinant *Saccharomyces* yeast converts glucose and xylose present in cellulosic biomass into ethanol [59].

Additionally, compounds made from biomass can be produced using entire cells and immobilised enzymes. Huang and Yang [60] generated fumaric acid from glucose and maize starch by rotating the fibrous matrix of immobilised *Rhizopus oryzae* cells. Hames et al. [61] have patented the technology of converting biomass hydrolyzate into chemicals by absorbing it on solid metal oxide support utilising a microbial process with compounds made from lignin and fermentation inhibitors to increase yield.

For this reason, attempts have been made continuously to modify enzymes and living things in order to manufacture the needed compounds, especially from renewable sources. The conversion of biomass into higher-value compounds through biological processes is favoured by high yield, selectivity, and low waste streams. However, a number of obstacles stand in the way of the ongoing biologically based changes (such as increased energy needs, slower production rates, and constant stirring) that prevent the intended outcomes from being achieved in bulk [3, 6].

In order to convert saccharides into chemical-based byproducts during the fermentation process, biorefineries are significantly necessary [62–64].

In this way, the raw materials were encouraged to completely degrade into unalloyed sugar solutions and generic feedstocks. After that, microorganisms are employed in a fermentative medium to generate surplus metabolic product. As a result, these metabolic products can also be used to convert large molecules via chemical or biological processes. Nevertheless, arabinitol, aspartic acid, fumaric acid, glutamic acid, levulinic acid, succinic acid, sorbitol, 2,5-furandicarboxylic acid, 3-hydroxybutyrolactone, and 3-hydroxypropionic acid are the essential 12 molecules that have been identified as the most advantageous for use in the conversion of biomass [65,66]. It was suggested that the above-mentioned chemicals could be produced more effectively through fermentation using a glucose-based medium and genetically modified microorganisms. These microorganisms would be used to enhance the chemical conversion of saccharides derived from biomass molecules, specifically glucaric acid, levulinic acid, 2,5-furandicarboxylic acid, and 3-hydroxybutyrolactone [67, 68]. Table 1 provides a summary of several significant bioactive molecules that are derived from various biomasses [69–80].

3.3. Metabolic approach for API production

The branch of metabolic engineering is one of the empowering skill of science that has an eminent role in the expansion and progress of cell factories to further produce pharmaceuticals, fuels, chemicals, and food ingredients via following the route of microbial fermentations [69]. With the development and expansion of genetic engineering, it is likely now much more feasible to produce small protein-based molecules via fermentation, such as insulin and several growth hormones. At the same time, metabolic engineering made it possible to turn tiny microorganisms into cellular factories by using cheap raw materials like sugars generated from biomass to produce chemicals and fuels [81–84]. Numerous industry applications of cutting-edge bioprocesses for transforming feedstock into agriculturally based products were demonstrated in the literature reviewed by Hong et al. [81]. The Dutch multinational company DSM has investigated one of its several biotech routes for the synthesis of the antibiotic cephalosporin, having previously done so for the chemical conversion of penicillin.

A similar joint venture between Novozymes and Cargill aims to create a bio-based process for the production of 3-hydroxypropionic acid. Nevertheless, by employing an isobutanol synthesis method, Gevo has expanded the biofuel potential. Furthermore, Amyris has improved upon a yeast-based fermentation process to produce farnesene, which can be used to produce biodiesel or transformed into the widely used chemical squalene.

It has been observed that submerged strains of *Streptomyces clavuligerus* generate CA. Thus, Ser et al. [85] have investigated several different strains in an effort to boost production. In order to manufacture CA, *S. clavuligerus* has also been cultivated using glycerol, the most widely accessible carbon source, which has been reported to increase the cultivation up to fivefold [86–88]. According to recent research, *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* is a big cell factory that produces vibrant industrial products [81]. In a similar vein, our team is also working on this yeast to produce butanol so that it can be used in the pharmaceutical business and for the manufacture of biofuels (like biodiesel). Numerous theoretical investigations have elucidated the potential of cell factories in generating an extensive array of compounds, such as malic acid, glycerol, and lactic acid [85,89–91]. Furthermore, isoprenoids are becoming increasingly polymorphic, suggesting the synthesis of additional bioactive substances by the use of unique enzymes that may be investigated for chimeric pathways

[91]. Due to these factors, a great deal of attention has been paid to increasing the microbial production of isoprenoids by relocating relevant genes and adhering to a plant-based pathway with some important genetic modifications of the leader sequence [92].

4. Some important types of API chemicals

4.1. Shikimic acid

Shikimic acid is widely utilised in the pharmaceutical sector to synthesise chiral building blocks. Oseltamivir, an antiviral medication based on shikimic acid, is used to treat influenza patients as well as prevent them from getting sick (A, B). Additionally, shikimic acid is essential to the creation of Tamiflu, an anti-influenza medication [93–97]. However, producing a greater quantity of Tamiflu is considered risky. The synthesis phases of this drug reaction include potentially explosive chemistry, therefore careful handling is necessary due to the moderate reaction conditions. Since it is expected that catabolite repression controls the transport systems of shikimic acid, methyl- α -D-glucopyranoside, which mimics glucose, was added to the culture medium to reduce the uptake of shikimic acid by *E. coli* that can synthesise it [97]. Quinic acid production was minimised throughout, ranging from 0.09 to 0.01 mol/L, as a result of methyl- α -D-glucopyranose being substituted for glucose. When methyl-D-glucopyranoside was added, the yield of shikimic acid increased from 28 to 35 g/L, whereas the yield of glucose initially increased from 0.14 to 0.19 mol/L. Strains of *E. coli* that blocked the first three steps of the Pittard and Wallace aromatic amino acid pathway can be used to measure aromatic amino acids and aromatic vitamins using shikimic acid [95]. Shikimic acid is currently produced by the Swiss pharmaceutical company Roche using fermentative methods on *E. coli* [90].

The creation of several bioproducts during the synthesis of shikimic acid, however, is the main cause for concern. Numerous researches have found that limiting the carbon source during the fermentation of shikimic acid results in the formation of a significant number of bioproducts. On the other hand, if the medium is refilled with a high carbon source, a high shikimic acid buildup results. It has been discovered that growth conditions that are carbon-rich and phosphate-limiting favour the development of shikimate over byproducts, and that restricting carbon growth causes the formation of byproducts [98]. This is related to the inhibition of the aromatic amino acid pathway following the synthesis of shikimate-3-phosphate (S3P). Bacterial phosphatases were responsible for the conversion of S3P into shikimic acid. Draths et al. [99] discovered that in logically modified *E. coli* strains, the disruption of the *K* and *L* genes (which encode shikimate kinase I and II) and the amino acid pathway in these strains resulted in the most advanced metabolic engineering production of shikimic acid. Moreover, whey, a dairy waste product, can be a useful source of glucose extract due to enzymatic whey hydrolysis [100]. This glucose could be used as a starting material to make shikimic acid.

4.2. Succinic acid

In addition to being present in beer, coal, meat, eggs, honey peat, molasses, fruits, urine, and plants, succinic acid, also known as butanedioic acid (C₄H₆O₄) or amber acid, is a frequent metabolite in microbes, animals, and plants. Since its initial purification from "amber," the ancient, fossilised resin of ancient trees and conifers, in 1546, it has been widely used. By breaking down acetaldehyde, the most hazardous metabolite of alcohol, it has been reported to be able to cure hangovers from alcohol. Medicinal uses for succinates often include sedatives, antispasmodics, antirheotors, contraceptives, potassium ion inhibitors, and antioxidants. pp. 101–103. It has been acknowledged that succinic acid's linear saturated structure offers a promising intermediate for the synthesis of highly relevant compounds related to industry. Applications for succinic acid are numerous and include waste gas cleaning, plating, photography, food, medicine, agriculture, textiles, plastics, cosmetics, and radiation dosimetry. It is used as feedstock in esterification reactions to produce a variety of commercial chemicals, including polybutyrate succinate (PBS) and polyamides [104,105]. The newest use of succinic acid is in the production of "Bionelle," a biodegradable plastic that is succinic acid and 1,4-butanediol ester, by Tokyo, Japan's Showa Highpolymer Co., Ltd. In [106]

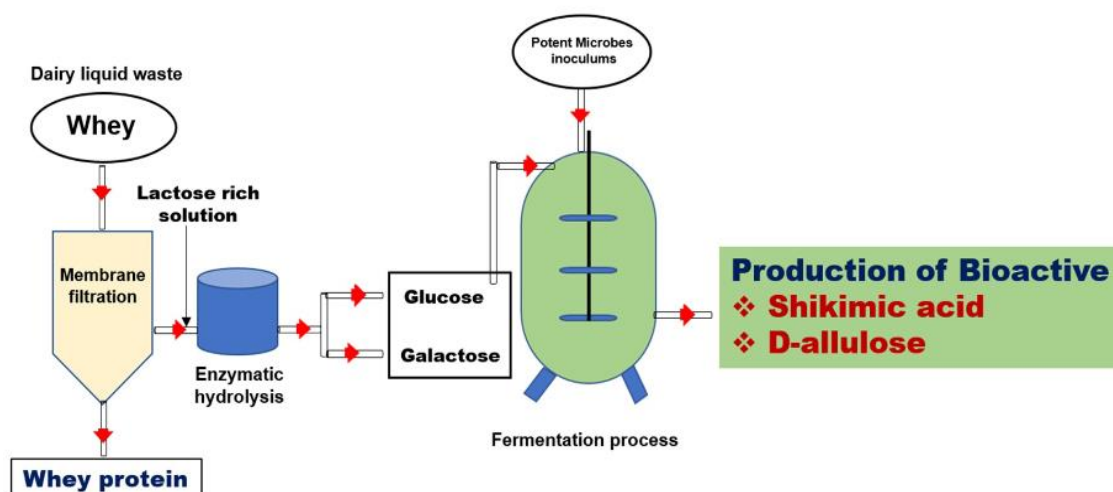


Figure 2: Systemic prestaton of utilization of dairy waste for the production of APIs

This is mostly because the cost of the chemicals needed to convert maleic anhydride into succinic acid has decreased its industrial applications [107]. Furthermore, lignocellulosic biomass and petroleum products are hydrolyzed to produce succinic acid for commercial use (Figure 2), which raises environmental concerns [108]. Green technology is currently leading the chemical industry to limit pollution from petrochemical processing and solve supply chain problems by basing hydrocarbon production on an environmentally friendly, renewable carbohydrate economy [108,109].

4.3. Erythritol

Around the world, this sugar-based alcohol is recognised as a low-calorie sweetener. Many fruits and fermented foods naturally contain erythritol [110]. It is typically produced from glucose through fermentation (using food-grade osmophilic yeast and *Moniliella pollinis*, yeast), which ferments the glucose and produces erythritol [111]. It is almost entirely non-caloric (approximately 60–70%) and does not raise blood sugar levels or promote tooth decay at the same time. Erythritol can be produced by fermenting glucose using food-grade osmo-philic yeast. approximately (of roughly 60–70%) a non-caloric sugar that does not promote tooth decay or change blood sugar levels at the same time. Osmo-philic yeast suitable for food. After being taken out of the fermentative broth, erythritol is purified; the resulting crystalline product has 99% purity. Because of its unique digestive metabolism, it does not cause any gastric-related negative effects [112]. Because erythritol can be found in food, the US population's daily consumption of erythritol is estimated to be 80 mg. Erythritol has been verified to be present in both human and animal bodily fluids. Both human plasma and animal foetal blood contain amounts of about 1.2 mg/L. Erythritol concentrations in human urine range from 10 to 100 mg/L [113]. However, renowned countries as Japan and the United States have already marked it as zero- calorie sugar, wherea, European regulations cur-rently label it under nearly low calorie sugar (~0.24 kcal/g).

4.4. Clavulanic acid

Clavulanic acid is a popular medication that is reasonably priced. It is utilised in the battle against Figure 2. Systematic illustration of lignocellulosic biomass generation of succinic acid. bacterial resistance to β -lactam antibiotics, and it is also listed on the World Health Organization's essential medicinal list. Olive pomace oil (OPO) is an industrial waste product from olive oil that has been investigated as a substituted carbon source for *S. clavuligerus*'s clavulanic acid production. Taran et al.'s work on OPO was conducted in [114]. It was discovered that olive pomace oil was six times more affordable than glycerol. According to estimates, OPO can be utilised in place of a carbon source to produce clavulanic acid.

But it was found that OPO can also be used as a possible supply of carbon (Figure 3). Similar to this, Efthimiou et al. [115] discovered that *S. clavuligerus* forms olive oil, which serves as a unique carbon and energy source to aid in the production of clavulanic acid. The outcomes demonstrated that yields and production are comparable to those explained by complex media containing oil. The concept of distinct metabolic pathways for converting the substrate into the intended product was illustrated by the variance in the recoverable yields.

When employing *S. clavuli-gerus* to produce clavulanic acid, glycerol and arginine, a nitrogen source, are the typical carbon sources [116–118]. When oils, such as olive oil, are employed to produce antibiotics in bacteria, complex culture media containing carbon has been used [119, 120].

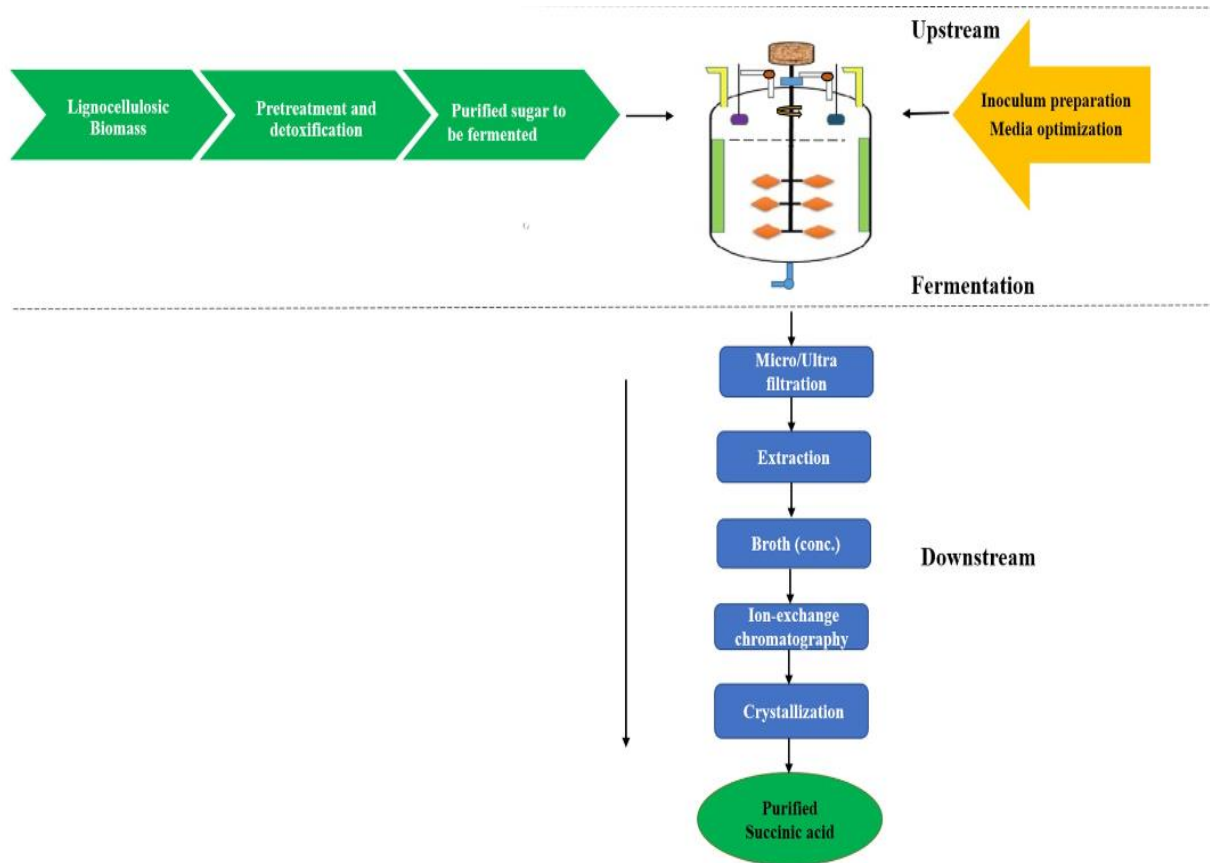


Figure 3: Sysremic representation for the production of succinic acid using lignocellulosic biomass

4.5.Cephalosporin (7-aminocephalosporanic acid) antibiotics

These are derived from cephalosporin and are regarded as important medications that are effective in treating bacterial infections and illnesses. The cephalosporins' heterocyclic moiety has recently produced a wide variety of medications. Among the β -lactam antibiotics based on cephalosporins that have been marketed are cefdinir, cefotaxime, cefuroxime, and ceftriaxone [121]. The most recently created and efficient medications for treating severe infections caused by *Staphylococcus aureus* that are resistant to methicillin are ceftobiprole and its variants. Cephalosporin C is the most acceptable starting material that can be acquired in the required amount at a fair cost through microbial fermentation, and it can be used to begin the synthesis of 7-amino-cephalosporanic acid (7-ACA). Additionally, cephalosporin C is a direct precursor that causes 7-ACA to develop byamide bond cleavage [122].

4.6.Rifampicin

Known as "Wonder Drugs," rifamycin is an antibiotic with a broad spectrum of applications and a high demand in medication therapy for humans. It prevents the spread of a wide variety of pathogens, such as viruses, bacteria, and eukaryotes [123, 124]. Ragi bran was used to optimise the usage of a mutant strain of *Amycolatopsis mediterranei* OVA5-E7 in solid-state fermentation (SSF) for the synthesis of rifamycin SV (1310 mg/ 100 gds) utilising inexpensive agro-industrial by-products [125]. By adding deoiled cotton cake (10% w/w) to substrate with a pH of 7.0, 80% moisture content, an incubation temperature of 30°C, and a 25% v/w inoculum percentage for nine days under solid state fermenter conditions, the yield can be increased even further to 197 g/kg of dry substrate.

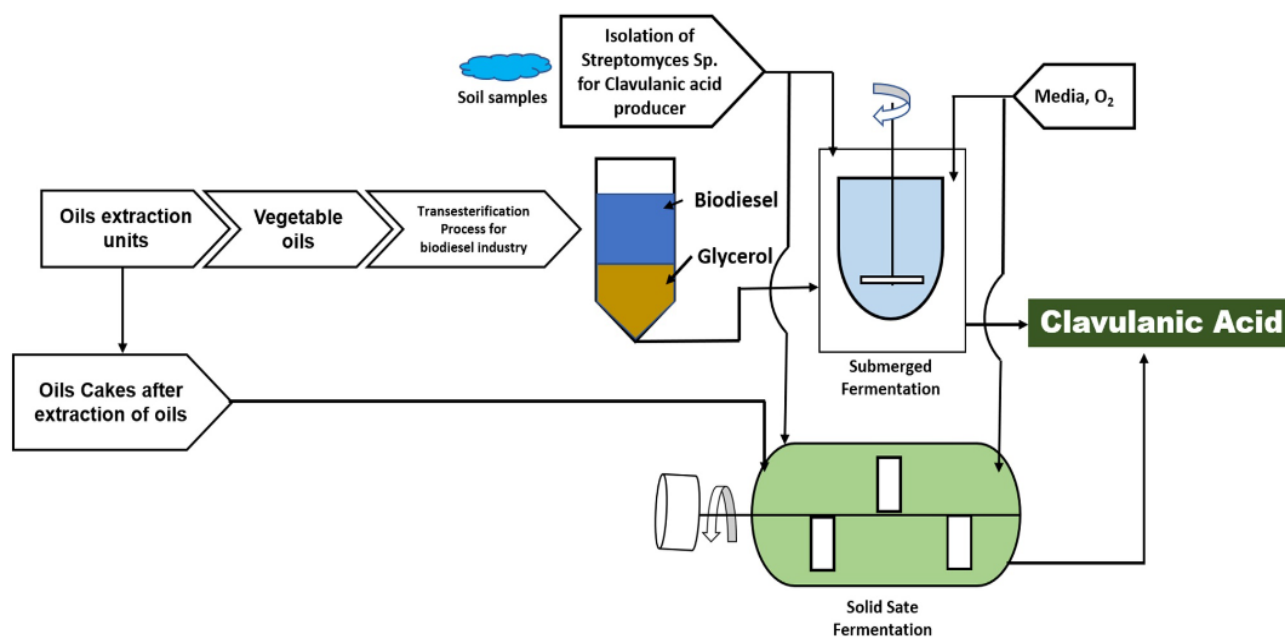


Figure 4: Utilization of processing residues (oil cake and glycerol) from oil extraction and biodiesel production industry for clavulanic acid production through fermentation approach

4.7. Pregabalin

An effective anticonvulsant, pregabalin is prescribed to treat neuropathic pain, fibromyalgia, and seizure disorders [126]. The asymmetric synthesis of the stereo isomeric structure, or (S)-enantiomer, has gained significant importance in the pharmaceutical sector due to its recognised pharmacological action with pregabalin [127]. Key intermediary of (S)-pregabalin, (S)-3-cyano-5-methylhexanoic acid, has been asymmetrically synthesised using chemo- and biocatalytic processes. There have been reports of the asymmetric synthesis of (S)-3-cyano-5-methyl-hexanoate, with 98% and 97% of excellent enantio-meric yield from nitrilase [129] and bisphosphine rhodium [128]. Despite the fact that both routes were undesirable from an economic and environmental standpoint [130].

4.8. Ectoine

Microorganisms that are grown in a medium containing a high concentration of salt generate primary metabolites that aid in their adaptation to harsh environments. Ectoine is the name of the principal metabolite [131]. Ectoine is a type of amino acid that is generally produced by bacteria that are halophilic. Ectoine is a premium substance that is frequently utilised in medications and cosmetics. Moreover, lignocellulosic biomass and processing residues can be used to create ectomyin. Ectoine production is currently costly because of the increased cost of the substrate. The low cost of the substrate being used to produce ectoine is another area of interest for many studies. After at least nine cycles, 7.4 g/L of ectoin were successfully recovered from fermentation broth utilising bacterial milking procedures produced by *Halomonas elongata* [132]. The productivity of the process was 0.22 g/L/h. Using the halophilic bacteria *H. elongata* (DSM 142T) in batch fermentation of 15% (w/v) NaCl, ectoin was produced on an industrial scale [133]. Cells were then separated, and ectoin extract was extracted from these cells using hypoosmotic shock.

FUTURE PROSPECTIVES:

As per the latest Pike research, by 2020, the \$100 billion green chemical and engineering business will be dominated by one third in Asia, resulting in a \$30–40 billion industry. One of the biggest Asian markets, India, is quickly implementing green engineering and chemistry techniques because to the rapidly evolving circumstances of today, including: sociocultural changes, regulatory agencies' enforcement consciousness, business seeing the opportunity, the government

understanding its part, and so forth. That change in the current dynamics creates enormous prospects worth over \$5 billion in the entering India's developing green chemical and engineering business in the next five to ten years.

CONCLUSION:

"Organic synthesis," the focus of science on synthesising substances in the lab, includes the pharmaceutical industry's hunt for small molecules with biological activity. A practical synthesis of the discoveries from the biological sciences and the chemical sciences, including information on the target molecule and the mechanisms behind disease, forms the basis of rational drug discovery for small molecule treatments. The development of a more practical and economical process for producing novel therapeutic scaffolds is aided by the application of microwave chemistry and green chemistry, as well as the rational drug discovery principles and other tactics like diversity- or natural product-based drug discovery. It is also evident from the literature that more often a combination of one or more of these strategies can help abridging the 'valley of death'. The examples, presented here, although not exhaustive, may help the pharmaceutical society in presenting an outlook to appreciate the new trends and techniques.

References

- [1] Ternes TA, and Joss A. Human pharmaceuticals, hormones and fragrances—The challenge of micropollutants in urban water management. London, UK: IWA Publishing; 2006.
- [2] Kummerer K. Pharmaceuticals in the environment: sources, fate, effects and risks. Berlin, Heidelberg: Springer; 2004.
- [3] Kumar A, Bisht BS, Joshi VD, et al. Physical, chemical and bacteriological study of water from rivers of Uttarakhand. *J Human Ecol.* 2010;32(3):169–173.
- [4] Vijay G. Systemic Failure of Regulation: The Political Economy of Pharmaceutical and Bulk Drug Manufacturing (February 16, 2017). Chapter 4 in: *The Politics of the Pharmaceutical Industry and Access to Medicines - World Pharmacy and India.* Social Science Press; 2013. <https://ssrn.com/abstract=2918943>.
- [5] SWITCH Biodegradability and fate of pharmaceutical impact compounds in different treatment processes. (2014). Katarzyna Kujawa-Roeleveld, els Schuman WU, environmental technology, Wageningen, The Netherlands. Sustainable water management in the city of the future. http://www.switchurbanwater.eu/outputs/pdfs/W41_GEN_RPT_D4.1.3_Biodegradability_and_fate_of_pharmaceutical_compounds.pdf Accessed: Retrieved 2016 May 11
- [6] International, K. P. M. G. (2006). The Indian pharmaceutical industry: collaboration for growth. <http://www.in.kpmg.com/pdf/Indian%20pharma%20outlook.pdf> Accessed: Retrieved 2014 Jun 10. Google Scholar.
- [7] DOE, & SSEB. (2006). Biochemicals. Fact sheet Retrieved February 10 2008. <http://www.arkansasrenewableenergy.org/fact%20sheets/Biochemicals.pdf>
- [8] Mason M (2009). World's highest drug pollution levels found in Indian stream. http://usatoday30.usatoday.com/tech/science/environment/2009-01-26-drug-india-stream_n.htm Accessed: Retrieved 2016 May 11
- [9] Derksen JGM, Rijs GB, Jongbloed RH. Diffuse pollution of surface water by pharmaceutical products. *Water Sci Technol.* 2004;49(3):213–221.
- [10] Dalahmeh S, Björnberg E, Elenström AK, et al. Pharmaceutical pollution of water resources in Nakivubo wetlands and Lake Victoria, Kampala, Uganda. *Sci Total Environ.* 2020 March 25;710: 136347.
- [11] Dale BE. 'Greening' the chemical industry: research and development priorities for biobased industrial products. *J Chem Technol Biotechnol.* 2003;78 (10):1093–1103.
- [12] Danner H, Braun R. Biotechnology for the production of commodity chemicals from biomass. *Chem Soc Rev.* 1999;28(6):395–405.
- [13] Frost JW, Draths KM. Biocatalytic Syntheses Of Aromatics From D-GLUCOSE: renewable microbial sources of aromatic compounds. *Annu Rev Microbiol.* 1995;49(1):557–579.4322V. KUMAR ET AL.
- [14] Ohara H. Biorefinery. *Appl Microbiol Biotechnol.* 2003;62(5–6):474–477.
- [15] Lichtenthaler FW, Mondel S. Perspectives in the use of low molecular weight carbohydrates as organic raw materials. *Pure Appl Chem.* 1997;69(9):1853–1866.
- [16] Wilpiszewska K, Spychaj T. Chemical modification of starch with hexamethylene diisocyanate derivatives. *Carbohydr Polym.* 2007;70(3):334–340.
- [17] Ueda S, Zenin CT, Monteiro DA, et al. Production of ethanol from raw cassava starch by a nonconventional fermentation method. *Biotechnol Bioeng.* 1981;23 (2):291–299.
- [18] Kim BS, Chang HN. Production of poly (3-hydroxybutyrate) from starch by *Azotobacter chroococcum*. *Biotechnol Lett.* 1998;20(2):109–112.

- [19] Wu Z, Lee YY. Nonisothermal simultaneous saccharification and fermentation for direct conversion of lignocellulosic biomass to ethanol. *Appl Biochem Biotechnol*. 1998;70–72(1):479–492.
- [20] Sun Y, Cheng J. Hydrolysis of lignocellulosic materials for ethanol production: a review. *Bioresour Technol*. 2002;83(1):1–11.
- [21] Wyman CE. Potential synergies and challenges in refining cellulosic biomass to fuels, chemicals, and power. *Biotechnol Prog*. 2003;19(2):254–262.
- [22] Lee YH, Robinson CW, Moo-Young M. Evaluation of organosolv processes for the fractionation and modification of corn stover for bioconversion. *Biotechnol Bioeng*. 1987;29(5):572–581.
- [23] Li Y, Ruan R, Chen PL, et al. Enzymatic hydrolysis of corn stover pretreated by combined dilute alkaline treatment and homogenization. *Trans ASABE*. 2004;47(3):821–825.
- [24] Vegas R, Alonso JL, Domínguez H, et al. Processing of rice husk autohydrolysis liquors for obtaining food ingredients. *J Agric Food Chem*. 2004;52(24):7311–7317.
- [25] Nabarlantz D, Farriol X, Montané D. Autohydrolysis of almond shells for the production of xylo-oligosaccharides: product characteristics and reaction kinetics. *Ind Eng Chem Res*. 2005;44(20):7746–7755.
- [26] Uihlein A, Schebek L. Environmental impacts of a lignocellulose feedstock biorefinery system: an assessment. *Biomass Bioenergy*. 2009;33(5):793–802.
- [27] Cherubini F, Ulgiati S. Crop residues as raw materials for biorefinery systems: a LCA case study. *Appl Energy*. 2010;87(1):47–57.
- [28] Cherubini F. The biorefinery concept: using biomass instead of oil for producing energy and chemicals. *Energy Convers Manage*. 2010b;51(7):1412–1421.
- [29] Pettersson K, Harvey S. CO₂ emission balances for different black liquor gasification biorefinery concepts for production of electricity or second-generation liquid biofuels. *Energy*. 2010;35(2):1101–1106.
- [30] Dobbelaere S, Drouillon M, and Soetaert W, 2010. Critical Success Factors for Biorefineries, Conference Proceedings, Innovation for Sustainable Production, Bruges, Belgium. 2010.
- [31] Ekman A, Börjesson P. Environmental assessment of propionic acid produced in an agricultural biomass-based biorefinery system. *J Clean Prod*. 2011;19(11):1257–1265.
- [32] Samel U-R, Kohler W, Gamer AO, et al. Propionic acid and derivatives. *Ullmann's Encycl Indus Chem*. 2005. DOI:10.1002/14356007.a22_223
- [33] Barbirato F, Chedaille D, Bories A. Propionic acid fermentation from glycerol: comparison with conventional substrates. *Appl Microbiol Biotechnol*. 1997;47 (4):441–446.
- [34] Werpy T, Petersen G, 2004. Top Value Added Chemicals from Biomass Volume I: Results of Screening for Potential Candidates from Sugar and Synthesis Gas. US Department of Energy.
- [35] Ramos LP. The chemistry involved in the stream treatment of lignocellulosic materials. *Química Nova*. 2003;26(6):863–871.
- [36] Kümmerer K. The presence of pharmaceuticals in the environment due to human use—present knowledge and future challenges. *J Environ Manage*. 2009;90(8): 2354–2366.
- [37] Li WC. Occurrence, sources, and fate of pharmaceuticals in aquatic environment and soil. *Environ Pollut*. 2014;187:193–201.
- [38] Lapworth DJ, Baran N, Stuart ME, et al. Emerging organic contaminants in groundwater: a review of sources, fate and occurrence. *Environ Pollut*. 2012;163:287–303.
- [39] Wilkinson J, Hooda PS, Barker J, et al. Occurrence, fate and transformation of emerging contaminants in water: an overarching review of the field. *Environ Pollut*. 2017;231(1):954–970.
- [40] Bottoni P, Caroli S. Presence of residues and metabolites of pharmaceuticals in environmental compartments, food commodities and workplaces: a review spanning the three-year period 2014–2016. *Microchem J*. 2018;136:2–24.
- [41] Carpenter CMG, Helbling DE. Widespread micropollutant monitoring in the Hudson River estuary reveals spatiotemporal micropollutant clusters and their sources. *Environ Sci Technol*. 2018;52(11):6187–6196.
- [42] Cue BW, Zhang J. Green process chemistry in the pharmaceutical industry. *Green Chem Lett Rev*. 2009;2(4):193–211.
- [43] Shewale JG, Sivaraman H. Penicillin acylase: enzyme production and its application in the manufacture of 6-APA. *Process Biochem*. 1989;24:146–154.
- [44] Fiorentino G, Ripa M, Ulgiati S. Chemicals from biomass: technological versus environmental feasibility. A review. *Biofuel Bioprod Biorefin*. 2017;11(1):195–214.
- [45] Sudhakaran VK, Borkar PS. Phenoxymethyl penicillin acylase: sources and study—A sum up. *Hindustan Antibiot Bull*. 1985b;27(1–4):44–62.
- [46] Demain AL. Small bugs, big business: the economic power of the microbe. *Biotechnol Adv*. 2000;18(6):499–514.
- [47] Vroom De E (1997). An improved immobilized penicillin G acylase. WO Patent WO. PubMed: 1997004086, A1.

- [48] Bianchi D, Bartolo R, Olini P, et al. Application of immobilised enzymes in the manufacture of beta-lactam antibiotics. *Chim E l'Industria Milan*. 1998;80(38):879–885.
- [49] Vroom De E (2000). Penicillin G acylase immobilized with a crosslinked mixture of gelled gelatin and amino polymer. U.S. Patent 6060268.
- [50] Parmar A, Kumar H, Marwaha SS, et al. (2000) Advances in enzymatic transformation of penicillins to 6-aminopenicillanic acid (6-APA). *Biotechnol Adv*. 2000;18(4):289–301.
- [51] Wedekind F, Daser A, Tischer W (1998). Immobilization of penicillin G amidase, glutaryl 7-ACA acylase or D-amino-acid oxidase on an amino functional organosiloxane polymer carrier. U.S. Patent 5780260, 39.
- [52] Wang BJ, Chen J, and Zhang H, et al. Magnetic meso-porous microspheres modified with hyperbranched amine for the immobilization of penicillin G acylase. *41Zhang. Biochem Eng J*. 2017;127:43–52.
- [53] Isikgor FH, Becer CRA, and C. Lignocellulosic bio-mass: a sustainable platform for the production of bio-based chemicals and polymers. *Polym Chem*. 2015;6(25):4497–4559.
- [54] Yussof NS, Utra U, Alias AK. Hydrolysis of native and cross-linked corn, tapioca, and sweet potato starches at sub-gelatinization temperature using a mixture of amylolytic enzymes. *Starch - Stärke*. 2013;65(3–4):285–295.
- [55] Kim S, Dale BE. Global potential bioethanol production from wasted crops and crop residues. *Biomass Bioenergy*. 2004;26(4):361–375.
- [56] Bongaerts J, Krämer M, Müller U, et al. Metabolic engineering for microbial production of aromatic amino acids and derived compounds. *Metab Eng*. 2001;3(4):289–300.
- [57] Kim CU, Lew W, Williams MA, et al. Structure–activity relationship studies of novel carbocyclic influenza neuraminidase inhibitors. *J Med Chem*. 1998;41 (14):2451–2460.
- [58] Zha W, Shao Z, Frost JW, et al. Rational pathway engineering of type I fatty acid synthase allows the biosynthesis of triacetic acid lactone from D-glucose in vivo. *J Am Chem Soc*. 2004;126(14):4534–4535.
- [59] Anastas PT, Kirchhoff MM. Origins, current status, and future challenges of green chemistry. *Acc Chem Res*. 2002;35(9):686–694.
- [60] Huang H, Yang ST (2005). Fumaric acid production from glucose and cornstarch by immobilized cells of *Rhizopus oryzae* in a rotating fibrous bed bioreactor. Presented at AIChE Annual Meeting, Cincinnati. Oct 30–Nov 4.
- [61] Hames B, Sluiter AD, Hayward TK, et al., inventors. Process for the conversion of aqueous biomass hydrolyzate into fuel and chemicals by the selective removal of fermentation inhibitors. U.S. Patent US6737258B2. (2004 May).
- [62] Koutinas AA, Wang R-H, Webb C. The biochemurgist — Bioconversion of agricultural raw materials for chemical production. *Biofuel Bioprod Biorefin*. 2007;1 (1):24–38.
- [63] Zeikus JG, Jain MK, Elankovan P. Biotechnology of succinic acid production and markets for derived industrial products. *Appl Microbiol Biotechnol*. 1999;51(5):545–552.
- [64] Werpy and Peterson (2004), “Top value added chemicals from biomass: volume 1 results of screening for potential candidates from sugars and synthesis gas,” National Renewable Energy Laboratory, Department of Energy.
- [65] Tullo A. Chemicals from Renewables. *Chem Eng News*. 2007a;85(19):14.
- [66] Cheng Y, Dong C, Huang C, et al. Enhanced production of diosgenin from *Dioscorea zingiberensis* in mixed culture solid state fermentation with *Trichoderma reesei* and *Aspergillus fumigatus*. *Biotechnol Biotechnol Equip*. 2015;29(4):773–778.
- [67] Hirono-Hara Y, Mizutani Y, Murofushi K, et al. Glutathione fermentation by *Millerozyma farinosa* using spent coffee grounds extract and seawater. *Bioresour Technol Rep*. 2021;15(September 2021):100777.
- [68] Naim W, Schade OR, Saraçi E, et al. Toward an Intensified Process of Biomass-Derived Monomers: the Influence of 5-(Hydroxymethyl)furfural byproducts on the gold-catalyzed synthesis of 2,5-furandicarboxylic acid. *ACS Sustain Chem Eng*. 2020;8(31):11512–11521.
- [69] Zhou X, Zhou X, Liu G, et al. Integrated production of gluconic acid and xylonic acid using dilute acid pre-treated corn stover by two-stage fermentation. *Biochem Eng J*. 2018;137:18–22. 2018 Sept 15.
- [70] Tang B, Lei P, Zongqi X, et al. Highly efficient rice straw utilization for poly-(γ -glutamic acid) production by *Bacillus subtilis* NX-2. *Bioresour Technol*. 2015; 193:370–376.
- [71] Hevekerl A, Kuenz A, Vorlop K-D. Influence of the pH on the itaconic acid production with *Aspergillus terreus*. *Appl Microbiol Biotechnol*. 2014;98(2014): 10005–10012.
- [72] Nonaka D, Fujiwara R, Hirata Y, et al. Metabolic engineering of 1,2-propanediol production from cellobiose using beta-glucosidase-expressing *E. coli*. *Bioresour Technol*. 2021;329:124858.
- [73] Cortivo, Cortivo PRD, Machado J, et al. Production of 2,3-butanediol by *Klebsiella pneumoniae* BLh-1 and *Pantoea agglomerans* BL1 cultivated in acid and enzymatic hydrolysates of soybean hull. *Biotechnol Prog*. 2019;35(3):1–8.
- [74] Vickers C, Possell M, Hewitt N, et al. Genetic structure and regulation of isoprene synthase in Poplar (*Populus* spp.) *Plant Mol. Biol*. 2010;73:547–558.

- [75] Karnaouri A, Asimakopoulou G, Konstantinos GK, et al. Efficient production of nutraceuticals and lactic acid from lignocellulosic biomass by combining orga-nosolv fractionation with enzymatic/fermentative routes. *Bioresour Technol.* 2021;341:125846.4324V. KUMAR ET AL.
- [76] Huccetogullari D, Luo ZW, Lee SY, et al. Microbial production of aromatic amino acids and derived compounds. *Metab Eng.* 2019;3:289–300.
- [77] Kim CU, Lew W, Williams MA, et al. Structure-activity relationship studies of novel carbocyclic influenza neuraminidase inhibitors. *J Am Chem Soc.* 1998;41:2451–2460.
- [78] Kramer M, Bongaerts J, Bovenberg R, et al. Metabolic engineering for microbial production of shikimic acid. *Metab Eng.* 2003;5(4):277–283.
- [79] Tanimura K, Nakayama H, Tanaka T, et al. Ectoine production from lignocellulosic biomass-derived sugars by engineered *Halomonas elongata*. *Bioresour Technol.* 2013;142:523–529.
- [80] Jarmander J, Belotserkovsky J, Sjöberg G, et al. Cultivation strategies for production of (R)-3-hydroxybutyric acid from simultaneous consumption of glucose, xylose and arabinose by *Escherichia coli*. *Microb Cell Fact.* 2015;14(1):51.
- [81] Hong KK, Nielsen J. Metabolic engineering of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*: a key cell factory platform for future biorefineries. *Cell Mol Life Sci.* 2012;69 (16):2671–2690.
- [82] Nielsen J. Metabolic engineering. *Appl Microbiol Biotechnol.* 2001;55(3):263–283.
- [83] Nielsen J, Keasling JD. Synergies between synthetic biology and metabolic engineering. *Nat Biotechnol.* 2011;29(8):693–695.
- [84] Tyo KE, Alper HS, Stephanopoulos GN. Expanding the metabolic engineering toolbox: more options to engineer cells. *Trends Biotechnol.* 2007;25(3):132–137.
- [85] Nevoigt E. Progress in metabolic engineering of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. *Microbiol Mol Biol Rev.* 2008;72(3):379–412.
- [86] Snyder M, Gallagher JE. Systems biology from a yeast omics perspective. *FEBS Lett.* 2009;583(24):3895–3899.
- [87] Sanches Henao CP, Gomez Grimaldos NA, Quintero Diaz JC. Producción de ácido clavulánico por fermentación de *Streptomyces clavuligerus*: evaluación de diferentes medios de cultivo y modelado matemático. *Dyna.* 2012;79:158–165.
- [88] Bellão C, Antonio T, Araujo MLGC, et al. Production of clavulanic acid and cephamycin c by *Streptomyces clavuligerus* under different fed-batch conditions. *Braz J Chem Eng.* 2013;30(2):257–266. CrossRef.
- [89] de Jong B, Siewers V, Nielsen J. Systems biology of yeast: enabling technology for development of cell factories for production of advanced biofuels. *Curr Opin Biotechnol.* 2012;23(4):624–630.
- [90] Kim IK, Roldao A, Siewers V, et al. systems-level approach for metabolic engineering of yeast cell factories. *FEMS Yeast Res.* 2012;12(2):228–248.
- [91] Kirby J, Keasling JD. Metabolic engineering of micro-organisms for isoprenoid production. *Nat Prod Rep.* 2008;25(4):656–661.
- [92] Maury J, Asadollahi MA, Moller K, et al. Microbial isoprenoid production: an example of green chemistry through metabolic engineering. *Adv Biochem Eng Biotechnol.* 2005;100:19–51.
- [93] Rohloff, Kent, K, Postich, M, et al. Practical total synthesis of the anti-influenza drug GS-4104. *J Org Chem.* 1998;63(13):4545–4550.
- [94] Chandran SS, Yi J, Draths KM, et al. Phosphoenolpyruvate availability and the biosynthesis of shikimic acid. *Biotechnol Prog.* 2003;19(3):808–814.
- [95] Knop DR, Draths KM, Chandran, et al. Hydroaromatic equilibrium during biosynthesis of shikimic acid. *J Am Chem Soc.* 2001;123(42):10173–10182.
- [96] Iomantas Y, Abalakina EG, Polanuer B, et al. Method for producing shikimic acid. *US Pat.* 2002;6:436,664.
- [97] Pittard. Biosynthesis of aromatic amino acids. In: Neidhardt FC, R C III, Ingraham JL, et al, editors. *Escherichia coli and Salmonella, cellular and molecular Bbiology.* WashingtonSSSS DC: American Society of Microbiology; 1996. p. 458–484.
- [98] Rawat G, Tripathi P, Saxena RK, et al. Expanding horizons of shikimic acid. *Appl Microbiol Biotechnol.* 2013;97(10):4277–4287.
- [99] Draths KM, Knop, Frost, et al. Shikimic acid and quinic acid: replacing isolation from plant sources with recombinant microbial biocatalysis. *J Am Chem Soc.* 1999;121(7):1603–1604.
- [100] Kumar V, Sharma DK, Sandhu PP, et al. Sustainable process for the production of cellulose by an *Acetobacter pasteurianus* RSV-4 (MTCC 25117) on whey medium. *Cellulose.* 2020;28(1):103–116.
- [101] Isar, Isar J, Agarwal L, et al. Succinic acid production from *Bacteroides fragilis*: process optimization and scale up in a bioreactor. *Anaerobe.* 2006;12(5– 6):231–237.
- [102] Bechthold I, Bretz K, Kabasci S, et al. Succinic acid: a new platform chemical for biobased polymers from renewable resources. *Chem Eng Technol.* 2008;31 (5):647–654.

- [103] Honda, Honda N, Taniguchi I, et al. Reaction mechanism of enzymatic degradation of poly(butylene succinate-co-terephthalate) (PBST) with a lipase originated from *Pseudomonas cepacia*. *Macromol Biosci*. 2003;3(34):189–197.
- [104] Ribeiro Borges E, Pereira N Jr. Succinic acid production from sugarcane bagasse hemicellulose hydrolysate by *Actinobacillus succinogenes*. *J Ind Microbiol Biotechnol*. 2011 Aug 1;38(8):1001–1011.
- [105] Calabria BP, Ninomiya F, Yagi H, et al. Biodegradable poly(butylene succinate) composites reinforced by cotton fiber with silane coupling agent. *Polymers*. 2013;5 (1):128–141.
- [106] Song H, Lee SY. Production of Succinic Acid by Bacterial Fermentation. *Enzyme Microb Technol*. 2006;39(3):352–361.
- [107] Gallmetzer M, Meraner, J, Burgstaller, W, et al. Succinate synthesis and excretion by *Penicillium simplicissimum* under aerobic and anaerobic conditions. *FEMS Microbiol Lett*. 2002;210(2):221–225. BIOENGINEERED4325.
- [108] Liu, Liu Y-P, Zheng P, et al. Economical succinic acid production from cane molasses by *Actinobacillus succinogenes*. *Biores Technol*. 2008;99(6):1736–1742.
- [109] Du, Du C, Lin SKC, et al. A wheat biorefining strategy based on solid-state fermentation for fermentative production of succinic acid. *Biores Technol*. 2008;99 (17):8310–8315.
- [110] Rice T, Zannini E, Arendt EK, et al. A review of polyols – biotechnological production, food applications, regulation, labeling and health effects. *Crit Rev Food Sci Nutr*. 2020;60(12):2034–2051.
- [111] Rzechonek DA, Dobrowolski, Dobrowolski A, et al. Recent advances in biological production of erythritol. *Crit Rev Biotechnol*. 2018;38(4):620–633.
- [112] Philippe RN, de Mey M, Anderson J, et al. Biotechnological production of natural zero-calorie sweeteners. *Curr Opin Biotechnol*. 2014;26:155–161.
- [113] Hootman KC, Trezzi JP, Kraemer L, et al. Erythritol is a pentose-phosphate pathway metabolite and associated with adiposity gain in young adults. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*. 2017;114(21):E4233–e4240.
- [114] Young T 1, Li Y 2, Efthimiou G. Olive pomace oil can be used as an alternative carbon source for clavulanic acid production by *Streptomyces clavuligerus*. *Waste Biomass Valorization*. 2020;11(8):3965–3970.
- [115] Efthimiou G, Thumser A, Avignone Rossa C. A novel finding that *Streptomyces clavuligerus* can produce the antibiotic clavulanic acid using olive oil as a sole carbon source. *J Appl Microbiol*. 2009;105:2058–2064.
- [116] Mayer AF, Deckwer WD. Simultaneous production and decomposition of clavulanic acid during *Streptomyces clavuligerus* cultivations. *Appl Microbiol Biot*. 1996;45(1–2):41–46.
- [117] Wang and Chen. Clavulanic acid production by *Streptomyces clavuligerus* using solid state fermentation on polyurethane foam. *Tr Ren Energy*. 2016;2(1):2–12.
- [118] Cruz-Hernández IL, Vasconcelos EDS, Teodoro JC, et al. Exploring the optimization of UV mutants of *Streptomyces clavuligerus* for clavulanic acid production. *Microbiol Res J Int*. 2018;26(6):1–8.
- [119] Saudagar PS, Singhal RS, Saudagar and Singhal. A statistical approach using L25 orthogonal array method to study fermentative production of clavulanic acid by *Streptomyces clavuligerus* MTCC 1142. *Appl Biochem Biotech*. 2007a;136(3):345–359.
- [120] Gómez-Ríos D, Junne S, Neubauer P, et al. Characterization of the metabolic response of *Streptomyces clavuligerus* to shear stress in stirred tanks and single-use 2d rocking motion bioreactors for clavulanic acid production. *Antibiotics*. 2019;8(4):168.
- [121] Von Nussbaum F, Brands M, Hinzen B, et al. Antibacterial natural products in medicinal chemistry – exodus or revival? *Angew Chem Int Ed*. 2006b;45:5072–5129.
- [122] Gröger H, Pieper M, König B, et al. Industrial landmarks in the development of sustainable production processes for the β -lactam antibiotic key intermediate 7-aminocephalosporanic acid (7-ACA). *Sustainable Chem Pharm*. 2017;5:72–79.
- [123] Ronald CLI, Prem K, Narang JS, et al. Rifabutin absorption in the gut unaltered by concomitant administration of didanosine in AIDS patients. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*. 1997;41(7):1566–1570.
- [124] Rana. Rifampicin – an overview. *Int J Res Pharm Chem*. 2013;3:83–87.
- [125] Mandali N, Ponamgi P, Girijashankar V, et al. Solid State Fermentation and production of Rifamycin SV using *Amycolatopsis mediterranei*. *Lett Appl Microbiol*. 2014;60. 10.1111/lam.12332
- [126] Silverman R, Silverman. From basic science to blockbuster drug: the discovery of lyrica. *Angew Chem Int Ed*. 2008;47(19):3500–3504.
- [127] Chen Y, Li X, Cheng R, et al. Recent development in the synthesis of pregabalin. *Chin J Org Chem*. 2011;31:1582–1594.
- [128] Hoge G, P WH, Kissel WS, et al. Highly selective asymmetric hydrogenation using a three hindered quadrant bisphosphine rhodium catalyst. *J Am Chem Soc*. 2004;126(19):5966–5967.

- [129] Xie Z, Feng J, Garcia E, et al. Cloning and optimization of a nitrilase for the synthesis of (3S)-3-cyano-5-methyl hexanoic acid]. *Mol Catal B: Enzym.* 2006;41(3–4):75–80.
- [130] Zheng R-C, Zhenga Y-G, Li A-P, et al. Enantioselective synthesis of (S)-3-cyano-5-methylhexanoic acid by a high DMSO concentration tolerable *Arthrobacter* sp. ZJB-09277. *Biochem Eng J.* 2014;83:97–103.
- [131] Oren A. Diversity of halophilic microorganisms: environments, phylogeny, physiology, and applications. *J Ind Microbiol Biotech.* 2002;28(1):56–63.
- [132] Ma H, Zhao Y-Q, Huang W-Z, et al. Rational flux-tuning of *Halomonas bluephagenesis* for co-production of bioplastic PHB and ectoine. *Nat Commun.* 2020;11(1):12.
- [133] Sauer T, Galinski EA. Bacterial milking: a novel bio-process for production of compatible solutes. *Biotechnol Bioeng.* 1998;57(3):306–313.