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Hongli Wang, Hangkong Yuan, Benqun Yang, Xingchao Dai, Shan Xu, and Feng Shi ACS Catal., Just Accepted Manuscript • DOI: 10.1021/acscatal.8b00116 • Publication Date (Web): 30 Mar 2018 Downloaded from http://pubs.acs.org on March 30, 2018

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Highly Selective N-Monomethylanilines Synthesis From Nitroarene and Formaldehyde via Kinetically Excluding of the Thermodynamically Favorable N,N-Dimethylation Reaction

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ABSTRACT: It maintains as a challenging topic for N-monomethylamine synthesis as the N,Ndimethylation reaction is thermodynamically favorable. The kinetically controlled Nmonomethylamine synthesis from nitroarene and paraformaldehyde/H₂ is reported with superhigh N-monomethylamine selectivity in the presence of a Pd/TiO₂ catalyst. The superior selectivity should be attributed to the preferential adsorption of the primary amine over Nmonomethylamine on the Pd/TiO₂ surface, as elucidated by NH₃/Me₂NH-TPD, while the nice catalytic activity could be associated to the good H₂ activation ability and high amine adsorbing

capacity of the catalyst, as elucidated by NH₃-TPD and H₂-TPR tests. Good results were obtained with a variety of nitroarenes containing methyl, methoxyl, hydroxyl, fluoride, trifluoromethyl, ester, and amide substituents as starting materials, and the potential synthetic utility of this protocol in pharmaceutical is illustrated by N-monomethylation of drug molecules, such as clinidipine, nimesulide, procaine and methyl aminosalicylate.

KEYWORDS: nitroarenes, N-monomethylation, selective adsorption, paraformaldehyde, carbonyl group transformation

INTRODUCTION

The majority of the known agrochemicals and pharmaceuticals contain amino groups, which represent key scaffolds in the vast majority of bio-active compounds. In fact, of the top 200 drugs of 2015, about 85% involves nitrogen (N) and/or amino groups.¹ Among the known reactions of amines, the N-methylation of amines is of significant importance to regulate the physicochemical properties of organic molecules including their biological and pharmaceutical activities.² Besides these biological functions, N-methylamines are important building blocks in synthesis of bulk and fine chemicals as well as materials.³ Nevertheless, the highly selective synthesis of N-monomethyl amines remains a tremendous challenge in synthetic organic and catalysis because N-monomethyl amines possess higher reactivity than primary amines are usually employed as starting materials for the selective synthesis of N-monomethylamines with a variety of methylating agents, such as MeX, CO₂, methanol, dimethyl carbonate (DMC), HCOOH, and HCHO.⁴ Although a number of nice methods have been developed, the known methodologies still suffer from rigorous reaction conditions, low selectivity or low atom economy.

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As it is well-known, nitro compounds are cheap and readily available, and the reduction of nitroarenes is one of the most commonly used approaches to synthesize primary amines.⁵ Thus, it is an attractive to perform the one-pot N-monomethylation reactions using nitro compounds as the flexible feedstock. To date, however, only a few catalytic systems dealing with Nmonomethylation of nitro compounds have been reported. By using CO_2 and H_2 as methylating agent, the N-monomethylation of nitroarenes can be realized with Pd/CuZrOx as catalyst. Nevertheless, it suffers from high pressure (3.5 MPa) and high temperature (150 °C).⁶ Besides CO₂, methanol could also be used as a methylating reagent. One example of N-monomethylation of 4-nitrotoluene with methanol using [Ru(p-cymene)Cl₂]₂, DPPB, and K₂CO₃ catalyst system was revealed.⁷ Recently, the tandem reductive N-monomethylation of nitroarenes with methanol was reported in the presence of Ru(II) complexes, bearing phenpy-OMe ligand and NaOMe.⁸ However, the rigorous reaction conditions and the necessity using of complex organic ligands/base reduced the appeal of these protocols. Compared with above methods, one-pot reductive N-monomethylation of nitroarene with formaldehyde represents one of the economic and clean pathways. However, normally, only N-monoalkylation of nitro compounds with higher aldehvdes⁹ were reported, and poor results were obtained if HCHO was used as the methyl source.¹⁰ Till now, no general methodology of highly selective N-monomethylation of nitroarene with HCHO has been developed, which is mainly limited by the further N-methylation of the desired molecule to N,N-dimethylamine. The key point to realize the selective Nmonomethylamine synthesis is to find the way to overcome the thermodynamically favorable N,N-dimethylation. Undoubtedly, kinetic regulation seems to be the sole method.

In order to kinetically regulate the reaction, the reaction steps should be first clarified. In general, the reductive N-methylation of nitroarenes with paraformaldehyde/H₂ proceeds through

three main consecutive reactions, i.e., hydrogenation of nitroarene to generate primary amine, Nmonomethylation of primary amine and further N-methylation of the N-monomethylamine to N,N-dimethylamine (Figure 1a). Out of doubt, the adsorption of reactant molecule onto the surface of catalyst is the initial step of the reaction with heterogeneous catalyst, and the hydrogen bond plays an important role in this process. Noteworthy, primary amine possesses more hydrogen atoms than N-monomethylamine, which may result in preferential adsorption and difficult desorption of primary amine while nondominant adsorption and easy desorption of Nmonomethylamine on the catalyst surface.¹¹ This inspired us that an active and selective catalyst might be designed and prepared for the highly selective N-monomethylamine synthesis via kenetic inhibition of N_N-dimethylation via nondominant adsorption and easy desorption of Nmonomethylamine on the catalyst surface (Figure 1a). Typically, metal oxides and carbon possess abundance of oxygen species on their surfaces, which are benefiting to form hydrogen bond, and supported nano-Pd is potentially an active catalyst for nitroarene reduction and the following N-methylation reaction. So we envisioned that nano-Pd loaded on appropriate support might provide a suitable catalyst for reductive N-monomethylation of nitroarene with HCHO/H₂.

Based on the above discussions, herein, a series of supported nano-Pd catalysts were prepared, in which Pd/TiO₂ exhibited excellent activity and superior selectivity in N-monomethylation of nitroarenes with paraformaldehyde/H₂ enabled by the selective adsorption of primary amine intermediate onto the catalyst surface, and the easy desorption of N-monomethylamine (Figure 1b).





Figure 1. (a) Strategy for highly selective N-monomethylation. (b). Selective N-monomethylation of nitroarenes with $HCHO/H_2$.

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

Catalyst preparation

The supported Pd catalysts were prepared with deposition–precipitation method with TiO₂, γ -Al₂O₃, C, SiO₂, Fe₂O₃, and CuO as supports. TiO₂ (0.5 g, P25, J&K Scientific, anatase/rutile = 80/20,) was dispersed in deionized water (25 mL) and K₂PdCl₄ aqueous solution (1.0 mL, [Pd] 5.0 mg/ mL) were added into the solution under vigorous stirring. The pH value was adjusted to about 10 using 0.2 M NaOH and the solution was stirred for another 3 h at room temperature. Then 4.0 mL of hydrazine solution (hydrazine/H₂O = 1/3 V/V) was added to the solution and stirred for 4 h. The solid sample was recovered by centrifugation and washed with water. The obtained solid was dried at 80 °C for 12 h. A grey solid sample was obtained and denoted as 1% Pd/TiO₂. The other catalysts were prepared with the same operations.

Characterization.

XRD measurements were conducted by using a STADIP automated transmission diffractometer (STOE) equipped with an incident beam curved germanium monochromator with CuKal radiation and current of 40 kV and 150 mA, respectively. The XRD patterns were scanned in the 2 Theta range of 10-90 °C. XPS were obtained using a VG ES-CALAB 210 instrument equipped with a dual Mg/Al anode X-ray source, a hemispherical capacitor analyzer, and a 5 keV Ar^+ iron gun. The electron binding energy was referenced to the C1s peak at 284.8 eV. The background pressure in the chamber was less than 10-7 Pa. The peaks were fitted by Gaussian–Lorentzian curves after a Shirley background subtraction. For quantitative analysis, the peak area was divided by the element-specific Scofield factor and the transmission function of the analyzer. The BET surface area measurements were performed on a Quantachrome IQ₂ at the temperature of 77 K. The pore size distribution was calculated from the desorption isotherm by using the Barrett, Joyner, and Halenda (BJH) method. Prior to measurements, the samples were degassed at 300 °C for 3 h, at a rate of 10 °C•min⁻¹. TEM was carried out by using a Tecnai G2 F30 S-Twin transmission electron microscope operating at 300 kV. For TEM investigations, the catalysts were dispersed in ethanol by ultrasonication and deposited on carbon-coated copper grids. Temperature programmed reduction (TPR) experiments were performed on a Quantachrome IQ₂. 30 mg of catalyst was placed in a quartz tube, and it was heated up to 350 °C under 20 mL•min⁻¹ O₂ flow (10 °C•min⁻¹) and maintained 100 min. The sample was cooled to room temperature and purged with highly pure Ar for 1 h. Then it was reduced with 10% H_2 (balanced with N₂) with the increasing of the temperature to 350 °C (10 °C \cdot min⁻¹). The amount of hydrogen uptake was monitored on-line by a TCD detector and recorded as a function of temperature. NH₃-TPD and HNMe₂-TPD were carried out on a Micromeritics 2750

chemisorption system. The weighed sample (100 mg) was pretreated at 450 °C for 1 h under He and cooled to 20 °C. The NH₃ gas was introduced instead of He at this temperature for 1 h to ensure the saturation adsorption of NH₃. The sample was then purged with He for 1 h until the signal returned to the baseline as monitored by a thermal conductivity detector (TCD). The desorption curve of NH₃ was acquired by heating the sample from 20 °C to 600 °C at 10 °C•min⁻¹ under He with the flow rate of 30 ml•min⁻¹. NMR spectra were measured by using a Bruker ARX 400 or ARX 100 spectrometer at 400 MHz (¹H) and 100 MHz (¹³C). Chemical shifts were reported in parts per million (ppm) down field from TMS with the solvent resonance as the internal standard. Coupling constants (J) were reported in Hz and refered to apparent peak multiplications.

Catalytic performance test

A mixture of nitroarenens (1.0 mmol), paraformaldehyde (75 mg, 2.5 mmol), 1% Pd/TiO₂ (40 mg) and 1,4-dioxane (4 mL) were added a glass tube which was placed in an 100 mL autoclave. Then the autoclave was purged and charged with H₂ (1.0 MPa) three times. The reaction mixture was stirred at 40 $^{\circ}$ C for 6 h. Then, the autoclave was cooled to room temperature and the pressure was carefully released. Subsequently, the reaction mixture was diluted with 10 mL ethyl acetate for quantitative analysis by GC-MS (Agilent 7890B-5977A).

The procedure for recovery of catalyst

The Pd/TiO₂ catalyst was separated from the reaction mixtures by centrifuging, washed by using 1,4-dioxane (10 mL x 3) and H₂O (10 mL x 2), dried at 80 °C for 5 h and then reused for the next run. The catalyst can be recovered and reused for at least 3 times without obvious loss in catalytic performance, providing the desired product in 90% yield at the 3^{rd} run.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The supported Pd catalysts were characterized by XRD, TEM, XPS and N₂ adsorptiondesorption instruments to reveal their structures. XRD measurements showed neither palladium oxide nor metallic palladium diffraction pattern was detectable in all the catalysts (Figure S1), which might be attributed to the low Pd loadings or that the Pd species were amorphous and highly dispersed. The morphologies of the catalysts were further characterized by TEM (Figure 2 and Figure S2). The TEM results revealed that the Pd nanoparticles homogeneously dispersed on TiO₂ and have an average diameter of 2-4 nm in both fresh Pd/TiO₂ and Pd/TiO₂ used three times, respectively. Next, the HR-TEM characterizations (Figure S3) revealed that these Pd particles are amorphous, which is confirmed by the XRD in Figure S1. It might be attributed to the low catalyst preparation temperature, i.e., 80 °C. So the crystallizing degree of palladium particle should be low. We then performed the elemental distribution using high-angle annular dark-field transmission electron microscopy (HAADFSTEM) and the results are shown in Figure 3. The mappings clearly describe that Ti, O and Pd are uniformly distributed in the Pd/TiO₂ catalyst. Moreover, XPS studies of the catalysts were performed to determine the chemical state of Pd nano-particles. As shown in Figure 4 and Figure S4, weak peaks of Pd 3d5/2 were found in Pd/TiO₂, Pd/Al₂O₃, Pd/Fe₂O₃ and Pd/TiO₂ used three times but not observable in Pd/C and Pd/SiO₂, which might be attributed to the lower palladium loadings. The Pd 3d5/2 signals of fresh Pd/TiO₂ and used Pd/TiO₂ catalysts appeared at 334.8 and 334.6 eV, respectively, which suggested that metallic Pd was mainly formed on the surface of catalysts. The XPS spectra of catalysts Pd/Al₂O₃, Pd/Fe₂O₃ and Pd/CuO support the formation of metallic Pd, too. The N₂ adsorption-desorption tests (Figure S5) showed that the BET surface areas of the catalysts (Table

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S1) were in the range of 8-280 m²/g, in which the BET surface area of Pd/TiO₂ is 60.72 m²/g. So the high activity of Pd/TiO₂ should not be attributed to its high surface area.



Figure 2. TEM images of the catalysts. (a) fresh 1% Pd/TiO₂. (b) used three times 1% Pd/TiO₂.



Figure 3. (a) HAADF-STEM images of 1% Pd/TiO₂ and (b), (c), (d) the corresponding EDX mapping of orange rectangular area from (a).



Figure 4. XPS spectra of the catalysts. (a) fresh 1% Pd/TiO₂. (b) used three times 1% Pd/TiO₂.

To search for the best catalyst in terms of selectivity toward N-monomethylation, we began our exploration with reductive N-monomethylation of nitrobenzene with paraformaldehyde and H_2 as the model reaction (Table 1). The influence of the solvent on the reactivity and selectivity of this reaction was first investigated (Table 1, entries 1-5). Although 100% conversions of nitrobenzene were observed in all the reactions, it can be seen that 65.1% N-monomethylaniline selectivity and excellent ratio (65.1 : 0.9) between N-monomethylaniline and N,Ndimethylaniline were achieved when 1,4-dioxane was used (entry 5). Following, the catalytic performance of nano-Pd catalysts with different supports was tested (entries 6-10). Clearly, Pd/TiO₂ exhibits the best catalytic performance. If other catalysts including Pd/ γ -Al₂O₃, Pd/C, Pd/SiO_2 , and Pd/Fe_2O_3 were employed, lower yields of N-monomethylaniline were obtained. It should be noted that the ratio between N-monomethylaniline and N-dimethylaniline was decreased when the yield of N-methylaniline was reduced. It means that the selectivity of Nmethylaniline is positively associated with the catalytic transformation of aniline to Nmethylaniline. TOF values of different catalysts have been calculated for comparison in Table S2. It can be seen that TOF value ranges from 27 to 81. Although TOF up to 81 per hour was

obtained in the presence of Pd/Fe₂O₃ catalyst, the ratios between N-monomethylaniline and N.Ndimethylaniline is only 17:1. Considering the TOF numbers and the ratios between Nmonomethylaniline and N,N-dimethylaniline, Pd/TiO2 gives the best results. In addition, the reducing of the H₂ pressure results in lower yield of N-monomethylaniline (entries 11-12). Surprisingly, the selectivity to N-monomethylamine sharply decreased to 54% if the reaction time was prolonged to 12 h (entry 13). Importantly, there is no aniline observable at this time, which might be the reason for the fast decreasing of the selectivity to the desired product. These results support our hypothesis that the presence of primary amine (aniline) may be helpful to the high selectivity of N-monomethyl amine and the selectivity would sharply decrease if the primary amine was consumed, which was possibly regulated by the preferential adsorption of primary amine onto the catalyst surface.

Table 1. Optimization of the reaction conditions^{*a*}



Entry	Cat.	Solvent	Conv.	Sel.[%] ^b			
Entry			$[\%]^b$	3 a	4a	5a	6a
1	Pd/TiO ₂	EtOH	100	13.0	71.0	-	-
2	Pd/TiO ₂	EA	100	25.0	75.0		
3	Pd/TiO ₂	cyclohexane	100	15.0	77.0		8.0
4	Pd/TiO ₂	toluene	100	3.0	79.0		18.0
5	Pd/TiO ₂	1,4-dioxane	100	65.1	0.9	33.0	
6	Pd/Al ₂ O ₃	1,4-dioxane	100	63.4	1.4	32.9	2.3

7	Pd/C	1,4-dioxane	100	42.6	1.4	55.0	1.0
8	Pd/SiO ₂	1,4-dioxane	100	38.4	1.6	57.0	3.0
9	Pd/Fe ₂ O ₃	1,4-dioxane	100	29.3	1.7	55.0	14.0
10	Pd/CuO	1,4-dioxane	n.r				
11 ^c	Pd/TiO ₂	1,4-dioxane	100	57.1	0.9	42.0	
12^d	Pd/TiO ₂	1,4-dioxane	100	54.5	0.5	37.0	8.0
13 ^e	Pd/TiO ₂	1,4-dioxane	100	54.0	46.0		

^{*a*}Reaction conditions: nitrobenzene (1.0 mmol), paraformaldehyde (2.5 mmol), catalyst (40 mg), H₂ (1.0 MPa), solvent (4.0 mL), 40 °C, 6 h. ^{*b*}Determined by GC-MS. ^{*c*}0.7 MPa. ^{*d*}0.4 MPa. ^{*e*}Reacted for 12 h.

To reveal whether the reaction takes place in accordance with the above assumptions, the reaction of nitrobenzene with paraformaldehyde and H_2 was traced by GC-MS to check the possible reaction intermediates with varied reaction times. As shown in Figure 5a, the hydrogenation of nitrobenzene was a fast reaction and it was completely converted to aniline in 0.5 h. Then, the aniline gradually decreased to 3.0% after 9.5 h. Meanwhile, the yield of N-monomethylaniline gradually increased to 91.6% after 9.5 h. Moreover, the concentration of N-methyleneaniline maintains low, suggesting that the reaction of aniline with aldehyde to give imine rather than hydrogenation of imine to N-methylaniline was the rate-limiting step. It should be noted that the yield of N,N-dimethyl aniline is negligible if the aniline sharply increased and the amount of N-methylaniline dramatically decreased. These results confirm the above observations, and support our hypothesis that the preferential adsorption of aniline onto Pd/TiO₂ surface over N-monomethylaniline might be the main reason to gain high N-monomethylamine selectivity.

To verify these, NH₃-TPD and (Me)₂NH-TPD experiments were performed to check if the proton quantities in the molecules influence their adsorption onto the catalyst surface. The results of the adsorption of ammonia and dimethylamine on Pd/TiO₂ are shown in Figure 5b and Figure S6. It can be observed that the adsorbing quantity of ammonia is 0.513 mmol/g Pd/TiO₂ while the adsorbing quantity of dimethylamine is only 0.156 mmol/g Pd/TiO₂. Thus primary amine with more protons is preferentially adsorbed onto Pd/TiO₂ surface, and therefore high selectivity to N-monomethylation can be maintained before the complete consumption of primary amine.



Figure 5. (a) Products distribution during the one-pot reductive methylation of nitrobenzene with HCHO and H₂. Reaction conditions: nitrobenzene (1.0 mmol), paraformaldehyde (2.5 mmol), 1% Pd/TiO₂ (40 mg), H₂ (1.0 MPa), 1,4-dioxane (4.0 mL), 40 $^{\circ}$ C. (b) Adsorption capacity of NH₃ and (Me)₂NH-TPD on the Pd/TiO₂.

In addition, it should be noted that both the amine adsorbing capacity and H_2 activation ability of the catalyst are crucial to gain nice catalytic performance in the reductive N-methylation reaction. Thus, the NH₃-TPD and H₂-TPR characterizations were investigated to understand the catalytic performance of different catalysts (Figure 5). Normally, desorption below 100 °C

should be attributed to physical adsorption. Therefore, we mainly compare the desorption data of different catalyst above 100 °C. The NH₃-TPD results suggested that the order of NH₃ adsorption quantity on different catalysts is Pd/Al₂O₃ \approx Pd/TiO₂ > Pd/SiO₂ >> Pd/C > Pd/CuO > Pd/Fe₂O₃ (Figure 6a), while the H₂-TPR results suggested that the order of active palladium quantity for H₂ activation is Pd/TiO₂ > Pd/Al₂O₃ > Pd/SiO₂ > Pd/C > Pd/Fe₂O₃ > Pd/CuO (Figure 6b). However, as the reaction temperature in this work is around 60 °C, so only those palladium species active around 60 °C can be involved in the reductive N-methylation of nitrobenzene. Clearly, Pd/TiO₂ and Pd/Fe₂O₃ have more active Pd species than other catalysts in this range. So, we could draw conclusion that the high activity of Pd/TiO₂ should be contributed to its good amine adsorbing capacity, and excellent hydrogen activation performance under our reaction conditions. As to Pd/Fe₂O₃, the poor amine adsorption ability should be responsible for its low activity in the reductive N-monomethylation reaction.







Figure 6. (a) NH_3 -TPD profiles of the catalyst. (b) H_2 -TPR profiles of various supported palladium catalysts.

Continued from the above discussions, now we could draw a definitive conclusion that high selectivity of N-monomethylamine would be achieved if aniline maintains in the reaction system. Therefore, to make the operation simple, the reductive N-monomethylation reaction was performed with 1.1 equiv., of nitrobenzene and 1.0 equiv., of paraformaldehyde in the presence of 40 mg 1% Pd/TiO₂ under 1.0 MPa H₂ in 1,4-dioxane at 60 °C for 24 h. To our delight, 90% yield of N-monomethylaniline was obtained. Importantly, the catalyst can be recovered and reused for at least 3 times without obvious loss in catalytic performance, providing the desired product in 90% yield at the 3rd run.

With the optimized conditions in hand, the selective N-monomethylation of various nitroarenes with paraformaldehyde and H₂ was investigated. As shown in Table 2, the nitroarenes with both electron-withdrawing and electron-donating groups on the phenyl ring underwent the reductive N-methylation to the corresponding N-monomethylamines with good to excellent yields. Reductive N-monomethylation of electron-rich methyl-, hydroxyl, methoxy and dimethylamino

substituted nitroarenes proceeded smoothly to provide the corresponding products in 82-93% yields with a mono: di ratio of 16:1 to 72:1 (**3b-3h**). Clearly, the electron donating groups on nitroarenes led to slight decrease of the selectivity to N-monomethylanilines. For example, the presence of methoxy group in para position led to a mono: di ratio of 17: 1 in N-monomethylation (**3f**). The steric hindrance at the orth position of the nitrobenzene showed a positive effect on the selectivity of this transformation, and 2-methylnitrobenzene as starting material gave an excellent mono: di ratio of 72: 1 (**3b**). Electron-deficient nitroarenes bearing fluoride, trifluoromethyl, ester and amide groups also proceeded well, affording their corresponding products in good yields with excellent selectivities, too (**3i-3m**). In the case of 3-nitrobenzaldehyde and 2-nitro-9-fuorenone, the reduction of the formyl (**3k**) and ketone (**3p**) groups was observed. In addition, the fused-ring 2-nitronaphthalene was also successfully converted to the corresponding N-monomethylamine in 77% yield (**3o**).

Table 2. Results of the N-monomethylation of nitroarenes with HCHO/ H_2^a



^{*a*}Reaction conditions: nitroarene (1.1 mmol), paraformaldehyde (1.0 mmol), 1% Pd/TiO₂ (40 mg), H₂ (1.0 Mpa), 1,4-dioxane (4.0 mL), 60 °C, 24 h. The mono/di methyl amines ratios within parentheses were determined by ¹H NMR analysis. ^{*b*}Reduction of formyl. ^{*c*}Isolated yield. ^{*d*}Reduction of ketone.

Importantly, this protocol is also applicable in the reductive N-monomethylation of aniline and

high N-monomethylaniline selec-tivity and yield are obtained (Scheme 1).

Scheme 1. Pd/TiO₂ catalyzed highly selective N-monomethylation of aniline with HCHO/H₂



To demonstrate the potential application of this methodology, we performed the selectively Nmonomethylation of nitro and amines groups to N-methylated analogues in biological active molecules (Figure 7), as N-methylation is an important tool to regulate the biological and pharmaceutical activities of life science molecules. Notably, the N-monomethylation of clinidipine, which inhibit the flow of extracellular calcium through ion-specific channels that span the cell wall as reduce the systemic vascular resistance and arterial pressure,¹² has been realized with 80% yield (Figure 7a). In addition, the N-monomethylation of nimesulide, a nonsteroidal anti-flammatory drug with analgestic and antipyretic properties,¹³ has been obtained in 77% yield (Figure 7a). Further, the N-monomethyl moiety has been successfully introduced into procaine and methyl 4-aminosalicylate with up to 95% yield, which are used as anesthetic¹⁴ and antituberculous drugs,¹⁵ respectively (Figure 7b).



Figure 7. N-Monomethylation of drug molecules. (a) N-momomethylation of Nimesulide and Clinidipine. (b) N-momomethylation of 4-aminosalicylate and Procaine.

CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion, we have developed extraordinarily highly selective N-monomethylation reaction starting from easily available nitroarenes with paraformaldehyde and H₂ using Pd/TiO₂ as catalyst. A series of functional N-monomethylamines were synthesized by applying this simple catalyst system. This work offers a straightforward, step economic and clean methodology for the selective synthesis of N-monomethylamines. The synthetic utility of this reaction is specifically demonstrated using various bio-active molecules including existing pharmaceuticals. The superior selectivity should be attributed to the preferential adsorption of the primary amine over N-monomethylamine on the Pd/TiO₂ surface, as elucidated by NH₃/Me₂NH-TPD, while the nice catalytic activity could be associated to the good H₂ activation ability and high amine adsorbing capacity of the catalyst, as elucidated by NH₃-TPD and H₂-TPR tests.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information. The following files are available free of charge.

Detailed experimental procedures, characterizations of catalysts and products (PDF)

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

Financial supports from the NSFC (21633013, 91745106), National Key Research and Development Program of China (2017YFA0403100) and Key Research Program of Frontier Sciences of CAS (QYZDJ-SSW-SLH051) are gratefully acknowledged.

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