



## 저작자표시 2.0 대한민국

이용자는 아래의 조건을 따르는 경우에 한하여 자유롭게

- 이 저작물을 복제, 배포, 전송, 전시, 공연 및 방송할 수 있습니다.
- 이차적 저작물을 작성할 수 있습니다.
- 이 저작물을 영리 목적으로 이용할 수 있습니다.

다음과 같은 조건을 따라야 합니다:



저작자표시. 귀하는 원저작자를 표시하여야 합니다.

- 귀하는, 이 저작물의 재이용이나 배포의 경우, 이 저작물에 적용된 이용허락조건을 명확하게 나타내어야 합니다.
- 저작권자로부터 별도의 허가를 받으면 이러한 조건들은 적용되지 않습니다.

저작권법에 따른 이용자의 권리는 위의 내용에 의하여 영향을 받지 않습니다.

이것은 [이용허락규약\(Legal Code\)](#)을 이해하기 쉽게 요약한 것입니다.

[Disclaimer](#) 

공학석사학위논문

Cu-catalyzed synthetic process for  
acetaminophen  
from dihalobenzenes

다이할로벤젠으로부터 아세트아미노펜을  
합성하는 구리촉매화 공정 연구

2013 年 2 月

서울대학교 대학원

화학생활공학부

김중원

Cu-catalyzed synthetic process for  
acetaminophen  
from dihalobenzenes

다이할로벤젠으로부터 아세트아미노펜을  
합성하는 구리촉매화 공정 연구

指導教授：金榮奎

이 論文을 工學碩士 學位論文으로 提出함

2013年 2月

서울대학교 大學院

化學生物工學部

金重源

權五珉의 工學碩士 學位論文을 認准함

2012年 12月

委員長 \_\_\_\_\_(印)

副委員長 \_\_\_\_\_(印)

委員 \_\_\_\_\_(印)

## 학위논문 원문제공 서비스에 대한 동의서

본인의 학위논문에 대하여 서울대학교가 아래와 같이 학위논문 저작물을 제공하는 것에 동의합니다.

### 1. 동의사항

①본인의 논문을 보존이나 인터넷 등을 통한 온라인 서비스 목적으로 복제할 경우 저작물의 내용을 변경하지 않는 범위 내에서의 복제를 허용합니다.

②본인의 논문을 디지털화하여 인터넷 등 정보통신망을 통한 논문의 일부 또는 전부의 복제, 배포 및 전송 시 무료로 제공하는 것에 동의합니다.

### 2. 개인(저작자)의 의무

본 논문의 저작권을 타인에게 양도하거나 또는 출판을 허락하는 등 동의 내용을 변경하고자 할 때는 소속대학(원)에 공개의 유보 또는 해지를 즉시 통보하겠습니다.

### 3. 서울대학교의 의무

①서울대학교는 본 논문을 외부에 제공할 경우 저작권 보호장치(DRM)를 사용하여야 합니다.

②서울대학교는 본 논문에 대한 공개의 유보나 해지 신청 시 즉시 처리해야 합니다.

논문제목 :

학위구분 : 석사 . 박사

학 과 : 화학생물공학부

학 번 : 2011-21026

연 락 처 :

저 작 자 : 김 중 원 (인)

제 출 일 : 200 년 월 일

서울대학교총장 귀하

Cu-catalyzed synthetic process for  
acetaminophen  
from dihalobenzenes

by

Kim Jung Won

February 2013

Thesis Adviser: Young Gyu Kim

# Abstract

**Kim Jung Won**

Chemical and biological engineering

The Graduate School of

Seoul National University

Up to now, various kind of non-opioid analgesic drugs have been developed and their developments have been progressed to the improvement or the complement of weak point of the former analgesics at each time. In these days, one of them, acetaminophen (**1**) is known for the most widely used analgesics in the world on the account of the many advantages in terms of the medicinal application and few adverse effects in comparison with other analgesics.

However, the former synthetic process of acetaminophen (**1**) have many problems such as, generation of undesired isomer and use of strong, toxic acid and so on. These problems accompany additional purification steps and recycle of waste acids, finally, bring about the additional cost that affect the production cost of acetaminophen (**1**).

In this paper, we are going to discuss our efforts to develop both an efficient and an economic process for acetaminophen (**1**) using Cu-catalyzed reaction from dihalobenzenes. We could not only improve the drawbacks of the former synthetic process, but also could make the synthetic process more eco-friendly under mild reaction conditions and the synthetic steps shorter without the additional purification.

*Key words:* dihalobenzenes, acetamidation, hydroxylation,

*Student number:* 2011-21026

# TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT.....	i
LIST OF FIGURES.....	iii
LIST OF TABLES.....	v
LIST OF SCHEMES.....	viii
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS.....	ix
<b>Introduction</b> .....	1
1. History of non-opioid analgesic drugs.....	3
1.1. Salicylic acid.....	3
1.2. Antipyrine, Pyradon and dipyron.....	5
1.3. Aspirin.....	8
1.4. Paracetamol (Acetaminophen).....	10
2. Research plan.....	14
2.1. Former synthetic process.....	14
2.2. New synthetic process.....	15
<b>Results and discussion</b> .....	19
1. Acetamidation.....	20
1.1. Screening of the amount of acetamide.....	20
1.2. Screening of Cu-catalysts.....	21
1.3. Screening of bases.....	23
1.4. Screening of ligands.....	25
1.5. Screening of solvents.....	28
1.6. Screening of reaction times.....	30

1.7. Screening of temperatures.....	31
1.8. Pressure, another factor for results.....	32
1.9. Application to other substrates.....	35
2. Hydroxylation.....	37
2.1. Screening of Cu-catalysts.....	37
2.2. Screening of bases.....	39
2.3. Screening of ligands.....	41
2.4. Screening of solvents.....	43
2.5. Screening of reaction times.....	45
2.6. Screening of temperatures.....	46
2.7. Endeavor to decrease the amount of acetanilide.....	47
2.8. Application to other substrates.....	49
Conclusion.....	51
Experimental details.....	53
APPENDICES.....	57
REFERENCES.....	65
ABSTRACT IN KOREA.....	67
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT.....	68

# LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. Drug interaction with the arachidonic acid cascade and pain-related biosynthesis.....	1
Figure 2. Kolbe-schmitt reaction.....	4
Figure 3. Kairine, pyrazolon and antipyrine.....	5
Figure 4. 4-Amino-antipyrine and Pyramidon.....	6
Figure 5. Melubrin, dipyron and propyphenazone.....	7
Figure 6. Synthesis of aspirin.....	9
Figure 7. Chemical structures of "aniline derivatives".....	10
Figure 8. Common brand names of acetaminophen.....	12
Figure 9. Market share and top medicines by prescription.....	13
Figure 10. The former synthetic process.....	14

Figure 11. New synthetic process for acetaminophen.....16

Figure 12. Proposed mechanism of acetamidation.....16

Figure 13. Proposed mechanism of hydroxylation..... 17

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. Screening of the amount of acetamide.....	20
Table 2. Screening of the kind of Cu catalyst.....	21
Table 3. Screening of the amount of CuI.....	22
Table 4. Screening of the kind of Bases.....	23
Table 5. Screening of the amount of CsF.....	25
Table 6. Screening of the kind of ligands.....	26
Table 7 Screening of the amount of DMEDA.....	27
Table 8. Screening of the kind of solvents.....	28
Table 9. Screening of the amount of THF.....	29
Table 10. Screening of the reaction time.....	30
Table 11. Screening of the temperatures.....	31

Table 12. Screening of the temperatures – Pressure tube .....	33
Table 13. Application of other substrates.....	35
Table 14. Screening of the kind of Cu catalyst.....	37
Table 15. Screening of the amount of CuI.....	38
Table 16. Screening of the kind of Bases.....	39
Table 17. Screening of the amount of CsF.....	40
Table 18. Screening of the kind of ligands.....	41
Table 19. Screening of the amount of DMEDA.....	42
Table 20. Screening of the solvents.....	43
Table 21. Screening of the amount of H <sub>2</sub> O (3 <sup>rd</sup> ).....	44
Table 22. Screening of reaction times.....	45
Table 23. Screening of temperatures.....	46

Table 24. Screening of reaction times.- pressure tube -..... 46

Table 25. Application of other substrates.....49

# LIST OF SCHEMES

Scheme 1. Final optimized reaction condition of acetamidation.....	34
Scheme 2. Final optimized reaction condition of hydroxylation.....	49
Scheme 3. Final optimized reaction conditions of new synthetic process .....	51

# LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Ac	acetyl
d	doublet
$\delta$	chemical shift, ppm
DMEDA	<i>N,N</i> -dimethylethylenediamine
DMF	dimethylformamide
DMSO	dimethylsulfoxide
eq	equivalent
EDA	ethylenediamine
EtOAc	ethylacetate
GC	gas chromatography
hr	hours

HRMS	high resolution mass spectrum
J	coupling constant(s)
L	ligand
min	minute(s)
M	mol per liter
NMR	nuclear magnetic resonance
ppm	part per million
s	singlet
TLC	thin-layer chromatography
TMEDA	tetramethylethylenediamine
THF	tetrahydrofuran
UV	ultraviolet spectrum

# Introduction

Non-opioid analgesic drugs work as an inhibitors of the cyclooxygenase(COX) enzymes that participate in prostaglandin synthesis from arachidonic acid, and show a pain relieving and alleviating a fever. [1]

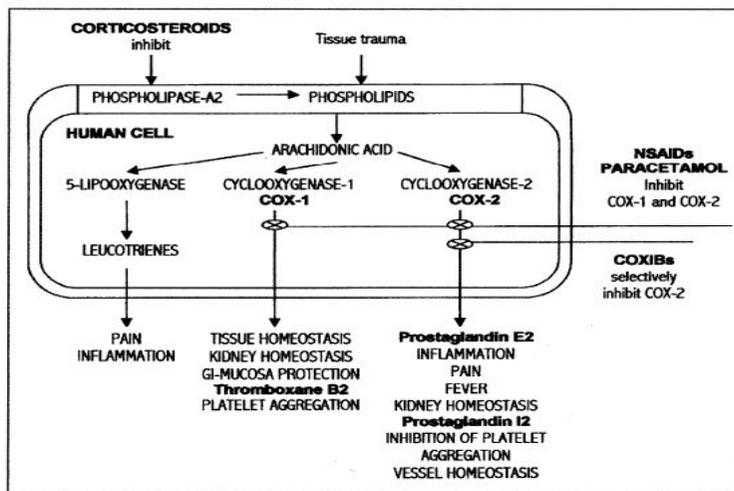


Figure 1. Drug interaction with the arachidonic acid cascade and pain-related biosynthesis.

Unlike the opioid analgesics that induce a central pain-relieving and a physical dependence, non-opioid analgesic drugs have no drug abuse. However, comparatively, non-opioid analgesic drugs have so low maximum efficacy in comparison with opioids that they are usually used at the dull pain. Despite of a weak pain-

relieving effect, some of them are used not only as a medicine for rheumatic disease on the account of their strong anti-inflammatory effect, but also are used for a medicine of hyperuricemia due to their strong uricosuric effect.

Because of the extensive medicinal application of non-opioid analgesic drugs, today, there are lots of efforts to develop both an efficient and an economic process for them through the different methodology. These endeavors are not limited to the modern society but started from the past. So, first of all, we need to know about the brief history with regards to the development of non-opioid analgesic drugs before we introduce our research plan.

# 1. History of non-opioid analgesic drugs.

## 1.1 Salicylic acid

The beginning of the 19th century may be characterized by a dramatic change in medicinal practice. Well known therapeutic extracts, such as opium, could be dissected into different molecules including morphine, which was isolated and crystallized by the German pharmacist Sertürner as early as 1805. Shortly after, Piria (Italy) and Löwenich (Switzerland) extracted the glycoside of salicylic acid from willow bark and other plant. [2]

On the other hand, it proved difficult to obtain sufficient quantities of pure materials from plant source in the early days of the 19th century. Only after the oil of wintergreen had been discovered as a 'Gautheria procumbens' in 1843 was it possible to satisfy the physicians' need for large quantities of salicylic acid for the treatment of rheumatic disease. Thus, the drug supply became a problem particularly during the many wars of the 19th century. [2]

Consequently, the chemist at the universities of continental Europe began to concentrate on the synthetic production of

drugs. In 1874, Kolbe synthesized the salicylic acid through a method known as Kolbe-Schmitt reaction. [2]

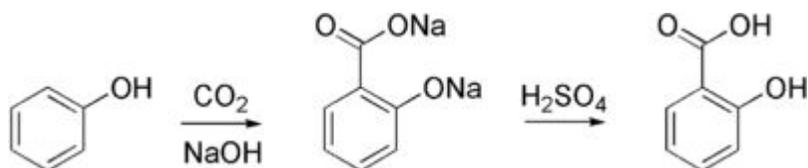


Figure 2. Kolbe-schmitt reaction.

Sodium salicylate is commercially prepared by treating sodium phenolate with carbon dioxide at high pressure (100 atm) and high temperature (390 K). Acidification of the product with sulfuric acid gives salicylic acid. [2]

Salicylic acid is known for its ability to ease aches and pains and reduce fevers. Due to these medicinal properties, it is used as an anti-inflammatory drug. Some researchers believe that salicylate is an essential micronutrient in the human diet, potentially qualifying as a vitamin, namely Vitamin S.[2]

## 1.2 Antipyrine, Pyramidon and dipyrrone

In 1875, Otto Fisher produced a kairine, a semisynthetic antipyretic compound. His pupil and at Erlangen, Ludwiig Knorr used phenylhydrazine and together with acetate-esters produced a new fully synthetic drug, antipyrine, the 'mother' of all modern antipyretic analgesics.[2]

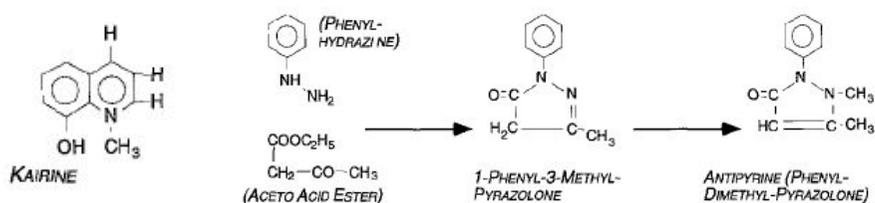


Figure 3. Kairine, pyrazolon and antipyrine.

After that time, the chemists, in particular Friedrich Stolz, were actively searching for further improvements of antipyrine by methylation, suggested further substitution of antipyrine with methyl groups. 4-methyl antipyrine was more active, but also slightly more toxic. The similar held true for 3-methyl-antipyrine. Filehne then suggested adding N-methyl-group, since morphine contains a methylated N-atom, which is necessary for its activity. Consequently, 4-aminoantipyrine was synthesized and methylated. This led to the 4-amino-dimehtyl-antipyrine, better known as Pyramidon. This compound was at

least three times as active as antipyrine. This correlates nicely with a later investigation, showing that within the phenazone (antipyrine) series positioning of methylated N-atoms in the 4 position increases the activity in terms of cyclooxygenase inhibition.[2]

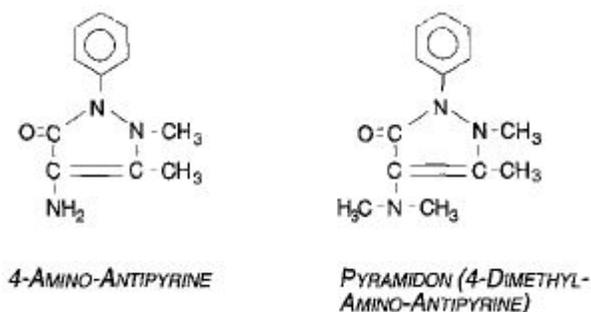


Figure 4. 4-Amino-antipyrine and Pyramidon.

Other Suggestions came from the clinicians. They wanted to use pyrazolone (Figure 2) compounds in seriously ill patients and suggested a soluble, ie injectable, form. Antipyrine and many antipyrine derivatives are not sufficiently water-soluble at high concentration. The chemists produced a pro-drug by combining 4-amidoantipyrine with formaldehydsulphate. This compound carried with it the hopes of the management, indicated by the fact that the brand name 'Melburin' contains the original name of the company (Meister Luise & Brüning) in an abbreviated form.

Still, it was not very successful in the market place and shortly thereafter was replaced by the analogue pro-drug of Pyramidon. This proved to be very effective and was well accepted by the public. This compound (dipyrone) came with the new name 'Novalgin' the enthusiastic reports by the clinicians compared Novalgin even with morphine. [2]

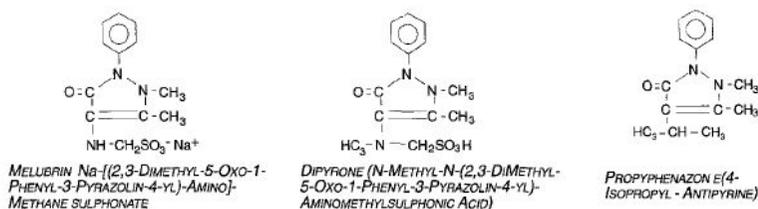


Figure 5. Melubrin, dipyrone and propyphenazone.

Many other derivatives of antipyrine (phenazone) may be found in the pre-WW2 literature. None of these compounds, with possibly exception of propylphenazon, in which the 4-amino-group is substituted by a propyl group, really proved to be a market success. Propyphenazone was synthesized by Stenz and patented by Hoffman-LaRoche. Propyphenazone was as effective as Pyramidon (Figure 3) [2]. However, like many old and approved substances after almost 100 or more years of use, antipyrine (phenazone), propyphenazone and particularly the leading compound dipyrone have been associated with some serious side effects, namely agranulocytosis and shock reactions.

Liver and kidney damage as well as CNS side effects were also observed. Moreover, the first selective COX-2 inhibitors have so far failed to demonstrate their sufficient efficiency as analgesics. The time to peak is always in the range of 3-4 hours - too long for fast pain relief. [2]

### 1.3 Aspirin.

Though the middle decades of the 19th centuries the use of salicylate medicines including salicin, salicylic acid and sodium salicylate grew considerably, and physicians increasingly knew what to expect from these medicines; reduction of pain, fever and inflammation. However, the unpleasant side effects, particularly, gastric irritation, limited their usefulness. By the 1880s, the German chemical industry, jump-started by the lucrative development of dyes from coal tar, was branching out to investigate the potential of new tar-derived medicines. In 1897, Hoffman, scientist at the drug and dye firm Bayer, began investigating acetylsalicylic acid as a less-irritating replacement for standard common salicylate medicines. Other chemists had attempted to do this before as well, by acetylating salicylic acid using acetylchloride with a sodium salt of salicylic acid to make acetylsalicylic acid (ASA). However this method did not produce

pure ASA. So Hoffman found a better method for making ASA, from salicylic acid refluxed with acetic anhydride. [2]

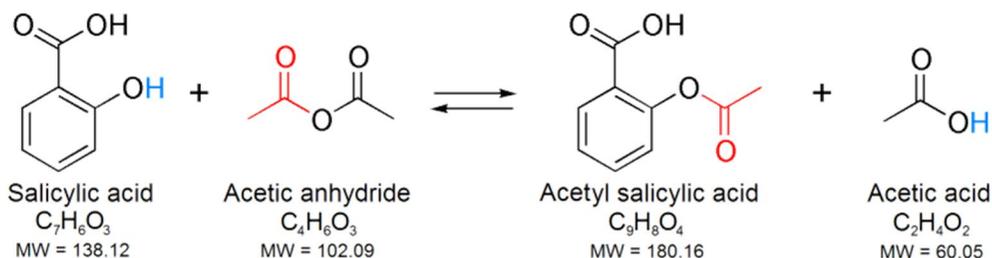


Figure 6. Synthesis of aspirin.

By 1899, Bayer had dubbed this drug Aspirin and was selling it around the world. The word 'Aspirin' was Bayer's brand name, rather than the generic name of the drug. [2]

Aspirin's popularity declined after the development of acetaminophen (paracetamol) in 1956. In the 1960s and 1970s, John Vane and others discovered the basic mechanism of aspirin's effects, while clinical trials and other studies from the 1960s to the 1980s established aspirin's efficiency as an anti-clotting agent that reduces the risk of clotting diseases. Aspirin sales revived considerably in the last decades of the 20th century, and remain strong in the twenty-first with wide spread use as a preventive treatment for heart attacks and strokes. [2]

## 1.4 Paracetamol (Acetaminophen).

Paracetamol (acetaminophen) is virtually the sole survivor of the so-called "aniline derivatives" or "aniline analgesics": acetanilide, phenacetin and paracetamol (acetaminophen). Phenacetin and paracetamol are both derivatives of acetanilide. [3]

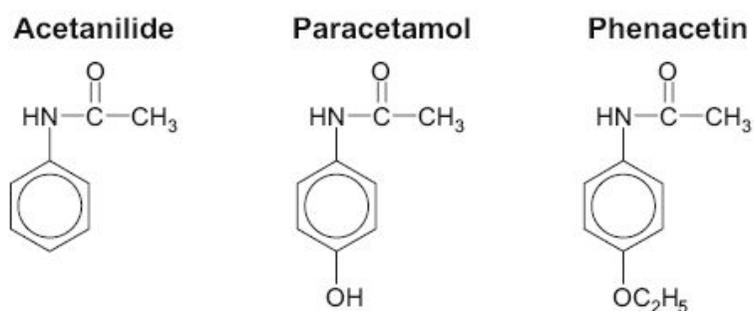


Figure 7. Chemical structures of "aniline derivatives"

Acetanilide was serendipitously found to possess antipyretic activity and quickly introduced into medical practice under the name of antiferin Chan and Hepp, and was shown to possess analgesic as well as antipyretic activities. But its unacceptable toxic effects, the most alarming being cyanosis due to methemoglobinemia, prompted the search for less toxic aniline derivatives. A number of compounds were tested. The most satisfactory came out to be phenacetin (acetophenetidin) and *N*-acetyl-*p*-aminophenol (acetaminophen, paracetamol). Paracetamol had been synthesized by Morse in 1878 [3]

Phenacetin and paracetamol were introduced into clinical use in 1887 by von Mering, who soon discarded paracetamol in favor of phenacetin, because he assumed that the latter was less toxic [3]

Albeit in part overshadowed by aspirin, introduced into medicine by Dresser in 1899, phenacetin has known for many decades an extraordinary popularity and indiscriminately used, especially as an ingredient of proprietary analgesic mixtures (particularly over-the-counter "headache mixtures", usually containing pheacetin, an aminopyrine derivative or aspirin, caffeine, and sometimes a barbiturate) and widely advertised to the public. [3]

The chronic overuse/abuse of such mixtures by the laity, sometimes in prodigious amounts over periods of years, caused many serious chronic intoxications characterized by anemia, methemoglobinemia, and severe renal damage, with a high incidence of papillary necrosis (analgesic nephropathy) [3]

In 1948, Brodie and Axelod demonstrated that the major metabolite responsible for the analgesic action of acetanilide and phenacetin is paracetamol, while methemoglobinemia is produced by another metabolite phenylhydroxylamine. [3]

So, Paracetamol was "rediscovered" and marketed since the mid 1950s. It rapidly gained in popularity, and in many countries,

including the United Kingdom, paracetamol sales exceeded those of aspirin since about 1980. This was accompanied by the virtual commercial demise of phenacetin, blamed as the cause of "analgesic nephropathy", hematological toxicity, and psychotropic effects which may contribute to its liability for abuse.[3]

In comparison with other analgesics, Acetaminophen has many advantages. First, It is a widely used over-the-counter drugs with no specific side effects. Second, it has lots of available forms at each common brand names; Tylenol, Panadol (tablet, capsule), OFIRMEV (intravenous). [3]



Figure 8. Common brand names of acetaminophen

Last, it has not only one of the largest share in the world pharmaceutical market and but also it is the most prescribed medicine in the world. [3]

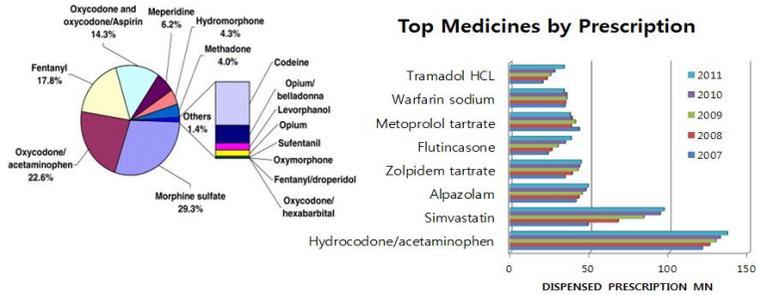


Figure 9. Market share and top medicines by prescription.

## 2. Research plan.

We expected that if we developed the new efficient synthetic process for acetaminophen, it could be a good contribution for the mass production of acetaminophen more economically. First of all, we need to know about the former synthetic process to compare each other.

### 2.1. Former synthetic process.

The former synthetic process is started from the phenol.

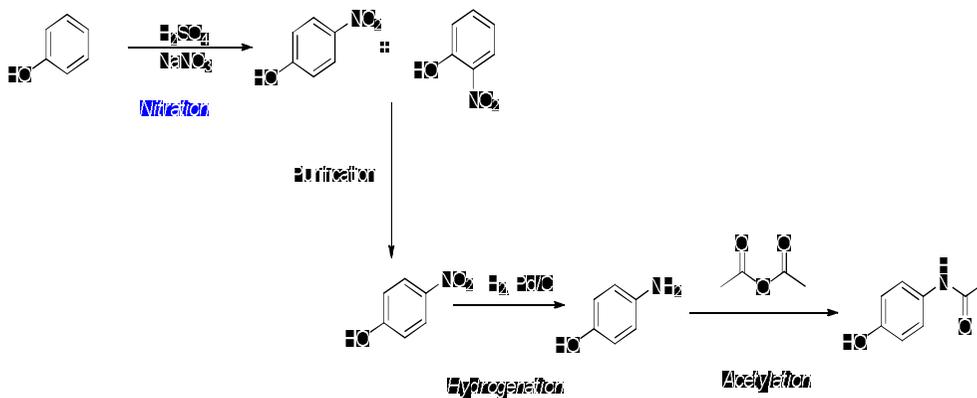


Figure 10. The former synthetic process.

At first, nitration is happened using sodium nitrate and sulfuric acid. As a result, two kind of isomers are made; *p*-nitrophenol and *o*-nitrophenol. The *p*-nitrophenol is separated by the

purification step. Next, through the hydrogenation, 4-aminophenol is made, and finally, acetylation is happened. Therefore, we could obtain the final target product, Acetaminophen. [3]

However this former synthetic process has significant disadvantages. these disadvantages come from the first step, nitration. First, because of the use of strong acid (ie. Sulfuric acid), the reaction condition is very harsh and recover the waste acid is required. Second, two isomers, *p*-nitrophenol and *o*-nitrophenol, are made. it means that the additional purification step is necessary. Radically, these drawbacks bring about the additional cost and could affect the production cost of the acetaminophen. So we proposed new synthetic process to solve these problems. [3]

## 2.2. New synthetic process.

If the reaction had not via the nitrobenzene and two functional groups, hydroxyl group and acetamide group, had been introduced, we would have thought that we would be able to solve the problems. So we used '*para*-' substituted dihalobenzenes to prevent the production of isomer problem. These two halogen functional groups make the introduction of

other functional groups easier to the benzene. Next, we introduced catalytic process to make the reaction condition milder. Therefore, we could propose the new synthetic process containing two step, acetamidation and hydroxylation. [4], [5]

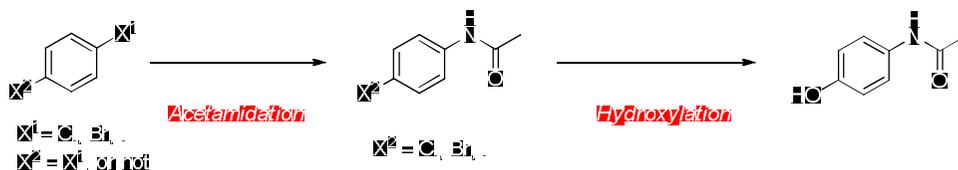


Figure 11. New synthetic process for acetaminophen

And this is the mechanism that we propose.

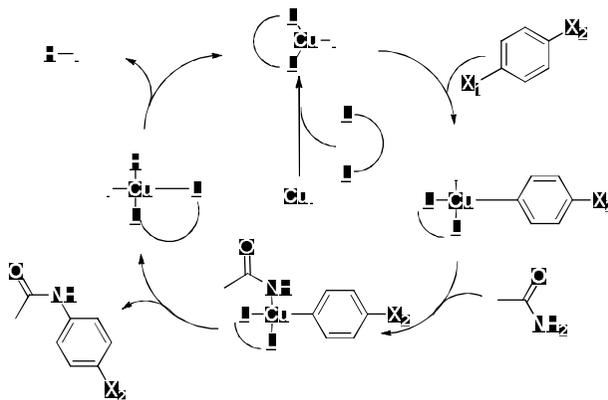


Figure 12. Proposed mechanism of acetamidation.

The catalyst makes the complex with the ligand. The oxidative addition of the dihalobenzenes is followed by the insertion of the acetamide. Next further two steps, elimination and reductive elimination, are progressed and finally we are able to obtain the intermediate which is *para*-substituted haloacetanilide. [4], [5]

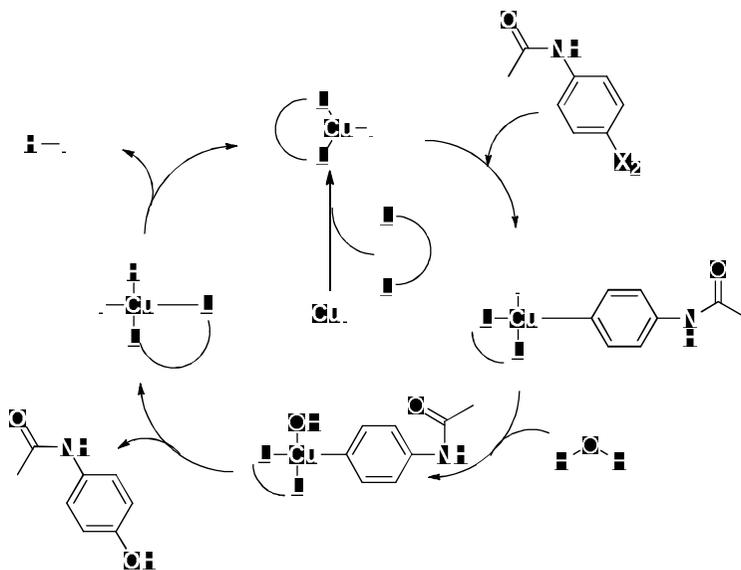


Figure 13. Proposed mechanism of hydroxylation.

The mechanism of the hydroxylation is very similar with that of the acetamidation. The catalyst makes the complex with the ligand. The oxidative addition of the *para*-substituted haloacetanilide. is followed by the insertion of the water. Next further two steps, elimination and reductive elimination, are

progressed and finally we are capable of obtaining the acetaminophen as a final target compound. [4], [5]

In light of these mechanisms, we did the screening of the reaction parameters (acetamide, Cu catalyst, base, ligand, solvent, reaction time, temperature) and concentrated on optimization to find the best reaction conditions.[10], [11], [12]

## Results and discussion.

Among the many starting materials, dihalobenzenes, we started our experiment using *p*-diiodobenzene (PDIB) because the reactivity of the iodine functional groups is better than that of the other halogen functional groups (bromine and chlorine). Entirely, we planned to make the optimized reaction conditions at each two steps, acetamidation and hydroxylation, using PDIB and to apply this optimized reaction conditions to other substrates in sequence.

## 1. Acetamidation.

### 1.1 Screening of the amount of acetamide

We optimized the amount of acetamide through the screening of the amount of acetamide under this reaction conditions. (Table 1)

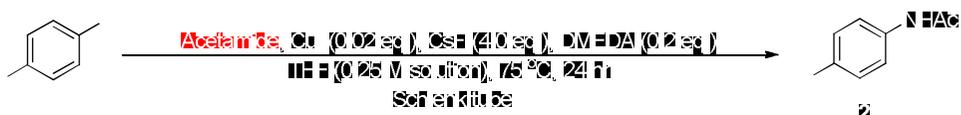


Table 1. Screening of the amount of acetamide

Entry	Amount of acetamide (eq)	Isolation yield (%)	SM recovered (%)
1	1.0	28	49
2	2.0	42	27
3	3.0	39	42
4	4.0	61	31
5	5.0	55	32
6	6.0	47	27
7	7.0	42	41
8	8.0	38	50

Table 1 showed that 4.0 equivalent of acetamide make the best reaction result in terms of the isolation yield and make the SM recovered section minimized. Too large amount (8.0 eq) and too small amount (1.0 eq) of acetamide showed the reverse results

between the isolation yield and SM recovered section. Therefore, we optimized the amount of acetamide as 4.0 equivalents.

## 1.2 Screening of Cu catalysts.

We optimized the kind and the amount of the Cu catalyst under this reaction condition.

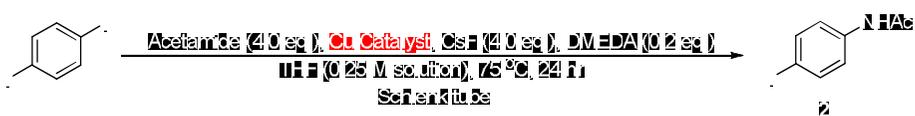


Table 2. Screening of the kind of Cu catalyst.

Entry	Cu catalyst (0.02 eq)	Isolation yield (%)	SM recovered (%)
1	CuI	61	31
2	CuBr	50	42
3	CuCl	40	50
4	Cu(OAc) <sub>2</sub>	38	61
5	Cu(OTf) <sub>2</sub>	27	69

First, we tried to optimize the kind of Cu catalyst. At entry 1, using CuI, showed the best reaction result in terms of the isolation yield and showed minimum figure at the aspect of the SM recovered section. Entirely, Cu catalysts which contain Cu(I); CuI, CuBr and CuCl showed the better results than Cu

catalysts containing Cu(II); Cu(OAc)<sub>2</sub> and Cu(OTf)<sub>2</sub>. Therefore, we selected the CuI as an optimized Cu Catalyst. (Table 2)

Next, we optimized the amount of CuI

Table 3. Screening of the amount of CuI.

Entry	Amount of CuI (eq.)	Isolation yield (%)	SM recovered (%)
1	0.02	61	31
2	0.03	52	22
3	0.04	51	37
4	0.05	48	42
5	0.06	31	55
6	0.08	28	57
7	0.10	27	60

It seemed that increasing the amount of CuI, decreased the reaction yield beyond 0.02 equivalents and sharply decreased at entry 5, Therefore, we selected 0.02 equivalent as the optimized amount of CuI. (Table 3)

### 1.3 Screening of Bases.

We optimized the kind and the amount of the base under this reaction condition.



Table 4. Screening of the kind of Bases.

Entry	Base (4.0 eq)	Isolation yield (%)	SM recovered (%)
1	CsF	61	31
2	K <sub>3</sub> PO <sub>4</sub>	50	32
3	Pyridine	42	51
4	K <sub>2</sub> CO <sub>3</sub>	41	50
5	Cs <sub>2</sub> CO <sub>3</sub>	31	62
6	Na <sub>2</sub> CO <sub>3</sub>	22	60
7	TBAH	11	55

At entry 1, CsF showed the best results in terms of the isolation yield. Except CsF and K<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>, amine bases (Pyridine and TBAH) and bases that contain carbonate functional group did not show good reaction yields. They could not exceed 50 percent of the isolation yield. Instead, the more amounts of the starting materials were recovered. Therefore, we selected CsF as the optimized base. (Table 4)

Next, we optimized the amount of CsF

Table 5. Screening of the amount of CsF

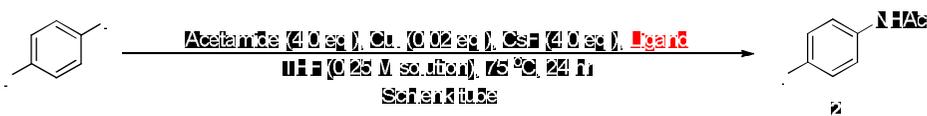
Entry	Amount of CsF (eq.)	Isolation yield (%)	SM recovered (%)
1	1.0	34	55
2	2.0	39	38
3	3.0	41	39
4	4.0	61	31
5	5.0	42	51
6	8.0	31	48
7	9.0	28	50
8	10.0	27	48

From entry 1 to entry 5, we used the amount of CsF at regular interval, 1.0 equivalent. Up to entry 3, the isolation yield increased slightly. By the way, the isolation yield sharply increased about 20 percent at entry 4 and the isolation yields sharply decreased at entry 5. With regards to this tendency, we expected that the isolation yield would show the reverse tendency when we increased the amount of the CsF more than 4.0 equivalent. We used large amounts of CsF from entry 6. The results were matched with our expectation. Through this results and tendency, we could know about the relationship between the

amount of CsF and isolation yield and could optimize the amount of CsF, 4.0 equivalent. (Table 5)

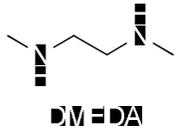
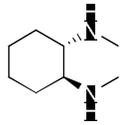
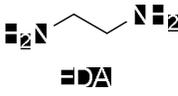
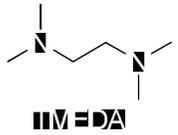
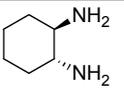
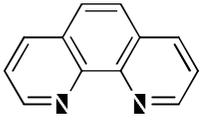
## 1.4 Screening of ligands

We optimized the kind and the amount of the ligand under this reaction condition.



In this case, We experimented with the optimization of the kind of ligand using two forms of it, acyclic amine ligands (DMEDA, TMEDA, EDA) and cyclic amine ligands (1,10-phenanthroline, *trans*-*N,N*-dimethylcyclohexane-1,2-diamine, *trans*-1,2-diaminocyclohexane). DMEDA and *trans*-*N,N*-dimethylcyclohexane-1,2-diamine showed the good reaction results in terms of the isolation yield at each forms. By the way, both of them showed similar reaction yields about in the 10 percentage. However, if we consider the cost effect of the entire synthetic process, the cost of DMEDA was cheaper than that of *trans*-*N,N*-dimethylcyclohexane-1,2-diamine. Therefore, we selected DMEDA as an optimized ligand. (Table 6)

Table 6. Screening of the kind of ligands.

Entry	Bases (4.0 eq)	Isolation yield (%)	SM recovered (%)
1	 <b>DMEDA</b>	61	31
2	 <i>trans-N,N</i> -Dimethyl cyclohexane 1,2-diamine	55	37
3	 <b>DETA</b>	48	21
4	 <b>HMEDA</b>	35	48
5	 <i>trans</i> -1,2-diaminocyclohexane	31	44
6	 <b>1,10-Phenanthroline</b>	33	50

Next, we optimized the amount of the DMEDA

Table 7 Screening of the amount of DMEDA

Entry	Amount of DMEDA (eq.)	Isolation yield (%)	SM recovered (%)
1	0.1	58	14
2	0.2	61	31
3	0.3	56	16
4	0.4	45	47
5	0.5	32	48
6	0.8	22	61
7	0.9	20	62
8	1.0	18	66

At entry 2, 0.2 equivalent of the DMEDA showed the good reaction results in terms of the isolation yield. Entry 1, 3 also showed the good results but the total figure of the isolation yield and SM recovered of each of them, 72 percent, was smaller than that of the entry 2, 92 percent. Other entries using beyond 0.4 equivalent of DMEDA showed the sharply decreased isolation yields but showed larger figure of SM recovered in comparison with entry 1, 2, 3. It seemed that the use of too much amount of DEMDA was not good for the reaction results. Therefore, we could optimize the amount of DMEDA, 0.2 equivalents. (Table 7)

## 1.5 Screening of solvents.

We optimized the kind and the amount of the solvent under this reaction condition.

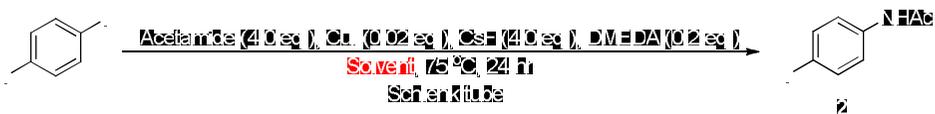


Table 8. Screening of the kind of solvents.

Entry	Solvent (0.25 M solution)	Isolation yield (%)	SM recovered (%)
1	THF	61	31
2	Dioxane	48	30
3	DMF	42	40
4	Toluene	23	62
5	EtOAc	21	67
6	Trifluoroethanol	0	88

At entry 1, the use of THF showed the best reaction yield and Entry 2, 3 showed reaction yields beyond 50 percent. But Entry 4, 5 did not show good reaction yields. Entry 6, the reagents did not dissolve in the trifluoroethanol as a result, the reaction could not occur. Therefore, we selected THF as an optimized solvent. (Table 8)

Next, we optimized the amount of THF

Table 9. Screening of the amount of THF.

Entry	Amount of THF (M solution)	Isolation yield (%)	SM recovered (%)
1	1.000	32	58
2	0.800	38	55
3	0.500	42	38
4	0.250	61	31
5	0.125	52	30
6	0.100	51	28

Entry 4, 0.250 M solution of the THF showed the good reaction results in terms of the isolation yields. Relatively, at low concentration (Entry 3, 4, 5 and 6) showed better results than at high concentration (Entry 1, 2) in terms of the isolation yields. Actually, we could observe the inefficient stirring phenomenons at extremely high concentration (Entry 1) and at extremely low concentration (Entry 6). Accordingly, It has come to our attention that the concentration factor seems to have larger effect on the reaction yield at the large scale of reactor in the commercial plant than at the small scale of reactor in the laboratory because it is also related with the efficiency of the stirring. (Table 9)

## 1.6 Screening of reaction times.

We optimized the reaction time under this reaction conditions.

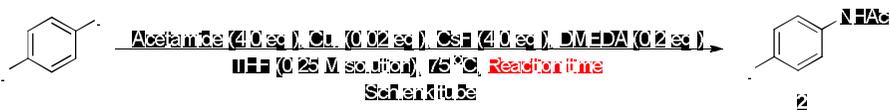


Table 10. Screening of the reaction time

Entry	Reaction time (hr)	Isolation yield (%)	SM recovered (%)
1	3	42	28
2	6	45	30
3	9	41	17
4	12	43	29
5	15	53	38
6	18	55	30
7	24	61	31
8	48	47	48
9	72	50	37

We could not find the accurate tendency between the reaction time and isolation yield. From entry 1 to entry 4, They showed the similar reaction result at the aspect of the isolation yield, and each of them were in the range of the aberration. The reaction yields of entry 5 and 6 are also in the range of the aberration but the absolute figure increased comparing former entries. Entry 7 showed the best reaction yield and the latter entries showed the lower reaction yields in comparison with entry 7. It seems that too long and short reaction times are not proper at the reaction. (Table 10)

## 1.7 Screening of temperatures.

We optimized the temperature under this reaction condition.



Table 11. Screening of the temperatures

Entry	Temperature(°C)	Isolation yield (%)	SM recovered (%)
1	40	38	28
2	50	42	33
3	60	44	27
4	75	61	18
5	100	48	25
6	130	38	50
7	180	12	48

We could not observe the boiling phenomenon from entry 1 to 3. and the reaction yields were not good. We increased the temperature to 75 °C At entry 3, and could observe the boiling phenomenons. The reaction yield was higher than former entries. The latter entries showed the decreased reaction yields in sequence. Therefore, we could optimized the proper temperature, 75 °C through these results. (Table 11)

## 1.8. Pressure, another factor for results

As we know, the temperature has close relationship with the pressure. The boiling point also shows different and various value in commensurate with pressure. We thought it could be another variable factor that could affect the reaction results. So, we tried to figure out the effect of the pressure at acetamidation. In this case, we applied the optimized reaction parameters; CuI (0.02 eq.) CsF (4.0 eq.), DMEDA (0.2 eq.), THF (0.25 M solution), 24 hr, as a reaction condition. And, we used pressure tube to apply the pressure instead of using schlenk tube. We did the screening of temperatures again because we mentioned that the pressure affects the temperature and the boiling point of THF. We anticipated the temperature (75 °C) that we optimized would be changed.

We did the screening of temperature under this condition using pressure tube to verify the new optimized temperature and to figure out the effect of the pressure..

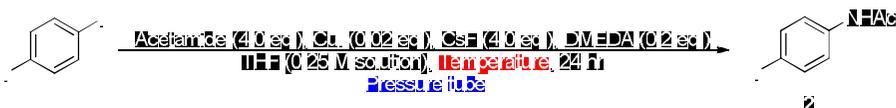


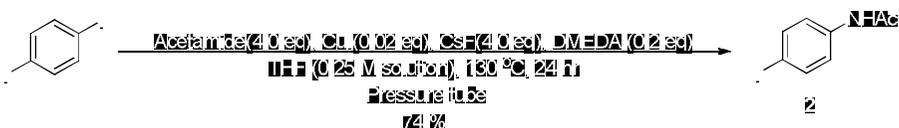
Table 12. Screening of the temperatures

- Pressure tube -

Entry	Temperature (°C)	Isolation yield (%)	SM recovered (%)
1	70	22	70
2	75	28	67
3	100	58	22
4	130	74	18
5	140	60	31
6	160	57	22
7	180	55	28

We experimented with acetamidation at the temperatures which was a little higher than that of the boiling point of THF (67 °C) at entry 1 and 2. As we anticipated, we could not observe any boiling phenomenon and the reaction yields were too low. After that, We experimented at higher temperature than entry 1 and 2. We could observe a little boiling phenomenon in the pressure

tube at entry 3 and could obtain higher reaction yield than entry 1 and entry 2. Further increase in temperature showed the best reaction yield, 74 percent, at entry 4. Entry 5, 6, 7 showed similar reaction yield each other, but not higher than entry 3.(Table 11) In comparison with the Table 11, we could know that the entire reaction yield increased. Through these results, we could verify that the pressure factor is important in acetamidation and could optimize the new temperature, 130 °C, Therefore we could determine the final optimized reaction conditions in acetamidation above this.



Scheme 1. Final optimized reaction condition of acetamidation

## 1.9. Application to other substrates

We applied the final optimized reaction conditions of acetamidation from *p*-diiodobenzene to other substrates

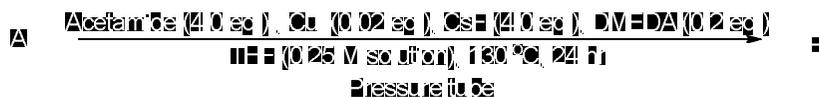


Table 13. Application to other substrates

Entry	A	B	Isolation Yield (%)	SM recovered (%)
1			97	0
2			84	10
3			66	31
4			94	0
5			68	22
6			94	0
7			96	0

Entry 1, 4 showed better reaction yields than when we used PDIB, and all the starting materials were disappeared. Entry 3 and entry 5 did not show good reaction results in comparison with entry 1, 2 and 4, and also their figures were similar PDIB. Entirely, The isolation yields of the dihalobenzenes which contain different halogen groups at the *para* position were higher than that of the dihalobenzenes containing the same halogen groups at *para* position. Some selectivity problems might affect these results. Also, Entry 6 and 7, we would like to know whether this optimized reaction condition would be applied to other substrates not containing dihalogen groups but containing monohalogen group and other functional groups at *para* position. The reaction yield was very high at each compound.

## 2. Hydroxylation.

### 2.1. Screening of Cu catalysts.

We optimized the kind and the amount of the Cu catalyst under this reaction condition.

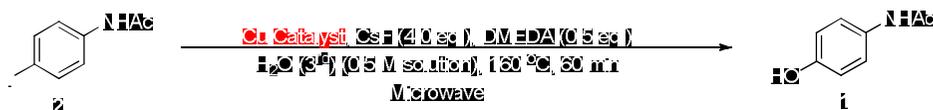


Table 14. Screening of the kind of Cu catalyst.

Entry	Cu catalyst (0.02 eq)	Isolation yield (%)	SM recovered (%)	Acetanilide (%)
1	CuI	65	12	20
2	CuBr	58	6	32
3	CuCl	54	17	24
4	Cu(OAc) <sub>2</sub>	48	21	28
5	Cu(OTf) <sub>2</sub>	38	14	39

Entry 1, using CuI showed the best reaction result. At entry 2, the reaction yield was in the range of aberration when comparing with entry 1. However considering SM recovered section, CuI was better than CuBr. This table showed the similar tendency at the acetamidation. The Cu catalysts that contain Cu(I); CuI, CuBr, CuCl showed better reaction results at the aspect of the

isolation yield than the Cu catalysts that contain Cu(II); Cu(OAc)<sub>2</sub>, Cu(OTf)<sub>2</sub>, (Table 13)

Next, we optimized the amount of CuI

Table 15. Screening of the amount of CuI.

Entry	Amount of CuI (eq.)	Isolation yield (%)	SM recovered (%)	Acetanilide (%)
1	0.02	28	22	30
2	0.04	32	18	21
3	0.06	54	19	29
4	0.08	58	17	24
5	0.10	65	12	20
6	0.15	52	18	28
7	0.20	31	12	30

We applied the amount of CuI, 0.02 equivalents, that was optimized from acetamidation. But the reaction results were not as good as the result coming from acetamidation. We increased the amount of the CuI after entry 1. The reaction yield sharply increased at entry 3 and shows maximum figure at entry 5. The latter entries showed the decreased tendency. It seems that too low amount of CuI (entry 1) and the opposite amount of CuI (entry 7) is not good. (Table 15)

## 2.2. Screening of bases.

We optimized the kind and the amount of the base under this reaction condition.



Table 16. Screening of the kind of Bases.

Entry	Base (4.0 eq)	Isolation yield (%)	SM recovered (%)	Acetanilide (%)
1	CsF	65	12	20
2	K <sub>3</sub> PO <sub>4</sub>	51	18	22
4	K <sub>2</sub> CO <sub>3</sub>	35	17	30
5	Cs <sub>2</sub> CO <sub>3</sub>	31	22	39
6	Na <sub>2</sub> CO <sub>3</sub>	28	15	30

Like acetamidation, CsF showed the best reaction yield. The tendency and the sequence were also similar with the acetamidation. The bases containing carbonate functional group (entry 4, 5, 6) showed the similar isolation yield in the range of aberration, and their absolute figures were not high. (Table 16)

Next, we optimized the amount of CsF.

Table 17. Screening of the amount of CsF

Entry	Amount of CsF (eq.)	Isolation yield (%)	SM recovered (%)	Acetanilide (%)
1	1.0	38	9	28
2	2.0	58	17	11
3	4.0	65	12	20
4	6.0	56	20	18
5	8.0	31	14	26

First of all, we applied the optimized amount of CsF coming from acetamidation, 4.0 equivalent at entry 3. Next we increased and decreased the amount of the CsF. Extremely small and large amount of CsF showed very low reaction yields (entry 1, entry 5). Entry 2 and entry 4 showed reaction yield beyond 50 percent. This figure was not higher than entry 3, but some advantages seem to exist in other aspects. Unlike Entry 3, these entries showed opposite figures between the SM recovered and acetanilide section. It means that the reactions do not bring about more side effects. Instead, they give us some possibilities and clues that the reaction could be progressed to the acetaminophen, the final product if we controlled the amount of CsF more accurately or other reaction parameters. (Table 17)

### 2.3. Screening of ligands.

We optimized the kind and the amount of the ligand under this reaction condition.

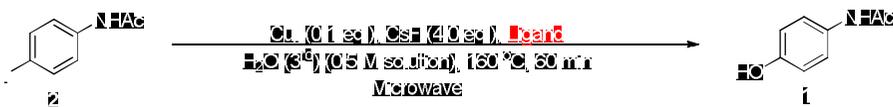


Table 18. Screening of the kind of ligands.

Entry	Bases (4.0 eq)	Isolation yield (%)	SM recovered (%)	Acetanilide (%)
1	 DMEDA	65	12	20
2	 <i>trans</i> - <i>N,N</i> -Dimethyl- cyclohexane-1,2-diamine	60	18	27
3	 EDA	44	12	28
4	 <i>trans</i> -1,2-diaminocyclohexane	31	17	30

Like acetamidation, we used two types of amine ligands; cyclic amine ligands (*trans*-*N,N*-dimethylcyclohexane-1,2-diamine, *trans*-1,2-diaminocyclohexane) and acyclic amine ligands (DMEDA, EDA). Entry 1 and entry 2 showed the good reaction

yields at each type of amine ligands. Entry 2 showed the similar isolation yield and this figure was in the range of an error about 5 percent. But considering the cost effect, the cost of DMEDA is much cheaper than that of *trans-N,N*-dimethylcyclohexane-1,2-diamine. Therefore, DMEDA seems to be more proper ligand. (Table 18)

Next, we optimized the amount of DMEDA

Table 19. Screening of the amount of DMEDA

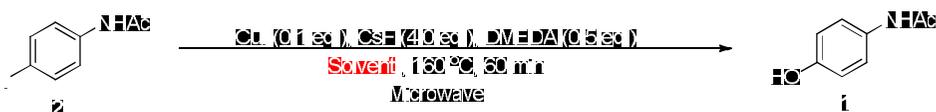
Entry	Amount of DMEDA (eq.)	Isolation yield (%)	SM recovered (%)	Acetanilide (%)
1	0.1	50	18	30
2	0.2	44	11	29
4	0.5	65	12	20
5	0.8	38	22	28
6	1.0	31	21	32

We applied the amount of DMEDA, 0.2 equivalents, to the hydroxylation because this amount was optimized from acetamidation, but the reaction yield was above 50 percent. After that we increased and decreased the amount of the DMEDA. Entry 4 showed the best reaction yield. The latter entries showed that the isolation yields decreased but the amount of acetanilide increased in commensurate with the

increase in the amount of DMEDA. Therefore, we could optimize the amount of DMEDA, 4.0 equivalents. (Table 19)

## 2.4. Screening of solvents.

We optimized the kind and the amounts of the base under this condition.



Hydroxylation is required for the source of hydroxy functional groups. In this case, we concentrated on the water quality and focused on the use of aqueous solution containing hydroxy groups.

Table 20. Screening of the solvents.

Entry	Solvent (0.5 M solution)	Isolation yield (%)	SM recovered (%)	Acetanilide (%)
1	H <sub>2</sub> O (3 <sup>rd</sup> )	65	12	20
2	H <sub>2</sub> O (1 <sup>st</sup> )	62	15	23
3	KOH (aq)	26	38	19
4	NaOH (aq)	25	46	12

We could know that the effect of water quality was not the key factor that could affect the reaction results. They showed very similar reaction results (entry 1, 2) However, at entry 3 and 4, when we used aqueous solution of KOH and NaOH, we could observe that the reaction yields sharply decreased. Therefore we selected H<sub>2</sub>O (3<sup>rd</sup>) as an optimized solvent. (Table 20)

Next, we optimized the amount of H<sub>2</sub>O (3<sup>rd</sup>)

Table 21. Screening of the amount of H<sub>2</sub>O (3<sup>rd</sup>)

Entry	Amount of H <sub>2</sub> O (3 <sup>rd</sup> ) (M solution)	Isolation yield (%)	SM recovered (%)	Acetanilide (%)
1	1.000	38	33	18
2	0.500	65	12	20
3	0.250	56	22	13
4	0.125	53	18	26

Entry 2, 0.500 M solution showed the best isolation yield. Entry 1 showed low yield, but other entries showed reaction yield beyond the 50 percent. We concluded that the dilute concentration was better than the high concentration, relatively. (Table 21)

## 2.5. Screening of reaction time.

We optimized reaction time under this reaction condition.

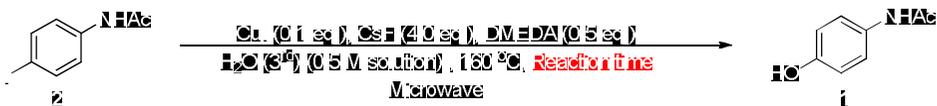


Table 22. Screening of reaction times.

Entry	Reaction time	Isolation yield (%)	SM recovered (%)	Acetanilide (%)
	(min)			
1	15	38	32	12
2	30	55	20	13
3	45	58	18	19
4	60	65	12	20
5	120	57	11	28

Entry 4 showed the best reaction results in terms of the isolation. However, the reaction time seemed not to be the critical factor to affect the reaction yields. Except entry 1, they showed the similar reaction yield and not far different each other. Remarkably, we needed to focus on the amount or the acetanilide. As the reaction time increased, the amount of acetanilide increased, and SM recovered section showed opposite tendency in comparison with acetanilide. This tendency gave us a clue to

try to use other apparatus, pressure tube instead of microwave reactor. (Table 21)

## 2.6. Screening of temperatures.

We optimized reaction time under this reaction condition.

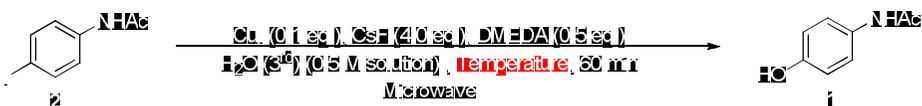


Table 23. Screening of temperatures.

Entry	Temperature (°C)	Isolation yield (%)	SM recovered (%)	Acetanilide (%)
1	100	28	42	14
2	130	50	32	19
3	160	65	12	20
4	180	45	22	30

Entry 3 showed the best reaction yield. We could not observe the boiling phenomenon in the microwave reaction because we could not see the inside of it where the reaction occurred, but we guessed that the boiling phenomenon did not occur considering the case that we had already experienced at acetamidation. The low yield of entry 1 seemed to prove our guess. Like the screening of reaction time, they showed the similar tendency about the amount of acetanilide. So we focused

on this tendency and tried to reduce the amount of the acetnilide.  
(Table 23)

## 2.7. Endeavor to decrease the amount of acetanilide.

Unlike acetamidation, the problem of hydroxylation was the generation of undesired product, acetanilide. As we mentioned at the former paragraph, we focused on the relationship between the reaction time, temperature and the amount of acetanilide. As the reaction time and the temperature increased, the amount of acetanilide was commensurate with them. We thought that this results seemed to come from the use of the microwave reactor because the reaction condition is known for harsh condition due to the microwave, pressure and temperature. In these factors, we guessed that the microwave might strongly affect the generation of acetanilide. So, we planned to use the pressure tube like the same manner at acetamidation and tried to optimize the reaction temperature through the screening of it.



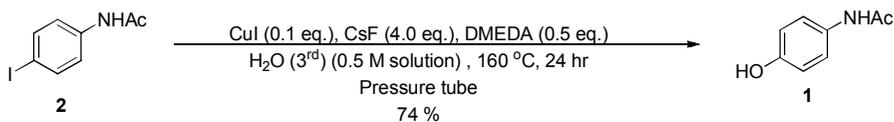
Table 24. Screening of reaction times.

- pressure tube -

Entry	Temperature (°C)	Isolation yield (%)	SM recovered (%)	Acetanilide (%)
1	120	55	18	11
2	130	67	20	10
3	140	57	25	9
4	150	64	19	7
5	160	74	17	8
6	170	63	20	9
7	180	51	21	6

Unfortunately, we could not find some relationship between the temperature and reaction yield. Entry 5, 160°C, also showed the best reaction yield either the microwave reactor did and entire entries showed the improved reaction yields. Moreover, the amount of acetanilide decreased in comparison with the use of microwave. It seemed to be reasonable that the decreased amount of acetanilide compensate for the increased the production of **1**. Therefore, we could conclude that the use of pressure tube seemed to decrease the side effect, the amount of

acetanilide and increase the generation of **1** simultaneously. (Table. 23) Therefore, the final optimized reaction conditions of hydroxylation are above this.



Scheme 2. Final optimized reaction condition of hydroxylation.

## 2.8. Application to other substrates

We applied the optimized reaction conditions.

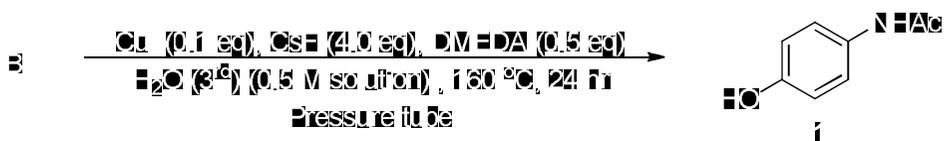


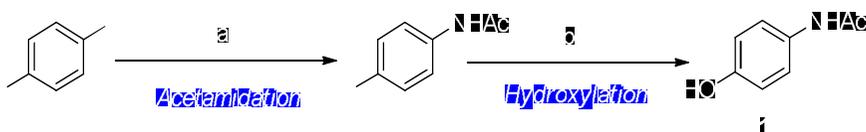
Table 25. Application to other substrates

Entry	B	Isolation Yield (%)	SM recovered (%)	Acetanilide (%)
1	<chem>CC(=O)Nc1ccc(Br)cc1</chem> <b>3</b>	68	16	12
2	<chem>CC(=O)Nc1ccc(Br)cc1</chem> <b>3</b>	75	12	7

B, 3 and 4, came from the Table 12. The use of 3, 4 showed similar reaction results when we using 2. We did not use 5 and 6 at the hydroxylation because they did not have halogen groups after the acetamidation.

## Conclusion

We could optimize the best reaction conditions at each step, acetamidation and hydroxylation, through the screening of the reaction parameters; acetamide, Cu-catalyst, base, ligand, solvent, reaction time and temperature, using *p*-diiodobenzene (PDIB).



### Reagents and conditions

- (a) Acetamide (2.0 eq), Cu (0.02 eq), Cs<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> (2.0 eq), DMF/DA (0.2 eq), I<sub>2</sub> (0.25 M solution)  
160 °C, 24 h, Pressure tube, 74 %
- (b) Cu (0.1 eq), Cs<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> (2.0 eq), DMF/DA (0.5 eq)  
160 °C, 24 h, Pressure tube, 74 %

Scheme 3. Final optimized reaction conditions of new synthetic process.

When we applied these optimized reaction conditions to other substrates, at acetamidation, we found, entirely, they showed moderate reaction yields. Especially, 1-chloro-4-iodobenzene and 1-bromo-4-iodo-benzene showed very high reaction yield (97 % and 94 % in sequence). These figures were beyond the reaction yield of PDIB (74 %). Considering only acetamidation,

1-chloro-4-iodobenzene seemed to be more proper than 1-bromo-4-iodo-benzene. However, at hydroxylation, the reaction yield of **4** (75 %) was better than that of **3** (68 %). The **4** came from the 1-bromo-4-iodo-benzene and the **3** came from 1-chloro-4-iodobenzene. Therefore, we concluded that considering the entire reaction yield of two steps, 1-bromo-4-iodo-benzene was the best starting materials.

Consequently, we could not only prove the feasibility of the new synthetic process that we proposed as we applied it to PDIB and other substrate, but also could find the best starting material for the process. These results are expected to contribute the eco-friendly and economical mass production of **1**.

# Experimental Details

## General Procedures

### 1. Acetamidation

Materials are purchased from commercial suppliers and used without further purification. Starting material, acetamide, Cu-catalyst, base, ligand and solvent are added to the schlenk tube (pressure tube). Degassing is performed by Ar(g) for 1 minute. The schlenk tube (pressure tube) is installed to the oil bath. The reaction is checked with SiO<sub>2</sub> TLC plate (Hexane : EtOAc = 2 : 1), and then monitored under UV light (254 nm) if the schlenk tube is used. (The reaction cannot be checked with SiO<sub>2</sub> TLC plate if we use the pressure tube). Extraction is performed by ethyl acetate and 1<sup>st</sup> distilled water. Sodium sulfate (Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>) is added to remove the residue water in the organic layer. The organic layer is filtered by a vacuum aspirator. Purification is performed by column chromatography on silica gel 60 (70–230 mesh). <sup>1</sup>H and <sup>13</sup>C NMR spectra are measured at 400 MHz respectively in DMSO-*d*<sub>6</sub> or CDCl<sub>3</sub>-*d* and data are reported as follows in ppm (δ) from the internal standard (TMS, 0.0 ppm): chemical shift (multiplicity, integration, coupling constant in Hz.). Gas

chromatography analyses are done with a capillary column (30 m x 0.25 mm).

#### 1. Hydroxylation

**2, 3, 4**, Cu-catalyst, base, ligand and solvent are added to the microwave tube (pressure tube). Degassing is performed by Ar(g) for 1 minute. The microwave tube is installed to the microwave reactor (The pressure tube is installed to the oil bath). Extraction is performed by ethyl acetate and 1st distilled water. Sodium sulfate ( $\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_4$ ) is added to remove the residue water in the organic layer. The organic layer is filtered by a vacuum aspirator. Purification is performed by column chromatography on silica gel 60 (70–230 mesh).  $^1\text{H}$  and  $^{13}\text{C}$  NMR spectra are measured at 400 MHz respectively in  $\text{DMSO}-d_6$  or  $\text{CDCl}_3-d$  and data are reported as follows in ppm ( $\delta$ ) from the internal standard (TMS, 0.0 ppm): chemical shift (multiplicity, integration, coupling constant in Hz.). Gas chromatography analyses are done with a capillary column (30 m x 0.25 mm).

**1:**  $^1\text{H}$  NMR (DMSO- $d_6$ )  $\delta$  1.98 (s, 3H), 6.68 (d, 2H,  $J=8.0, 2.05$ ), 7.34 (d, 2H,  $J=8.0, 2.00$ ), 9.15 (s, 1H), 9.66 (s, 1H);  $^{13}\text{C}$  NMR  $\delta$  24.18, 115.64, 121.32, 131.49, 153.60, 168.00; HRMS (CI) calcd for  $\text{C}_8\text{H}_{10}\text{NO}_2$  152.0172 [(M+H) $^+$ ], found 152.0174

**2:**  $^1\text{H}$  NMR (DMSO- $d_6$ )  $\delta$  2.05 (s, 3H), 7.43 (d, 2H,  $J=8.0, 2.09$ ), 7.62 (d, 2H,  $J=8.0, 2.03$ ), 10.05 (s, 1H);  $^{13}\text{C}$  NMR  $\delta$  24.53, 86.73, 121.66, 137.75, 139.60, 168.94; HRMS (CI) calcd for  $\text{C}_8\text{H}_8\text{INO}$  261.9279 [(M+H) $^+$ ], found 261.9728

**3:**  $^1\text{H}$  NMR (DMSO- $d_6$ )  $\delta$  2.06 (s, 3H), 7.35 (d, 2H,  $J=12.0, 2.00$ ), 7.63 (d, 2H,  $J=12.0, 2.05$ ), 10.09 (s, 1H);  $^{13}\text{C}$  NMR  $\delta$  24.41, 120.95, 126.98, 128.99, 138.72, 168.89; HRMS (CI) calcd for  $\text{C}_8\text{H}_8\text{ClNO}$  170.0373 [(M+H) $^+$ ], found 170.0372

**4:**  $^1\text{H}$  NMR (DMSO- $d_6$ )  $\delta$  2.05 (s, 3H), 7.48 (d, 2H,  $J=12.0, 2.00$ ), 7.57 (d, 2H,  $J=12.0, 1.89$ ), 10.08 (s, 1H);  $^{13}\text{C}$  NMR  $\delta$  24.47, 114.95, 121.34, 131.91, 139.14, 168.91; HRMS (CI) calcd for  $\text{C}_8\text{H}_8\text{BrNO}$  213.9868 [(M+H) $^+$ ], found 213.9866

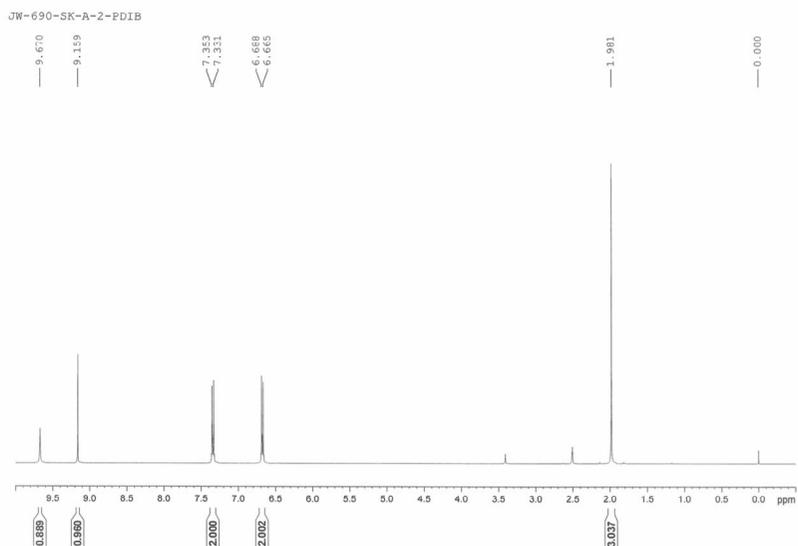
**5:**  $^1\text{H}$  NMR ( $\text{DMSO}-d_6$ )  $\delta$  2.11 (s, 3H), 7.81 (d, 2H,  $J=16.0$ , 2.00), 8.20 (d, 2H,  $J=12.0$ , 2.04), 10.55 (s, 1H);  $^{13}\text{C}$  NMR  $\delta$  24.14, 118.46, 124.86, 141.92, 145.36, 169.26; HRMS (CI) calcd for  $\text{C}_8\text{H}_8\text{N}_2\text{O}_3$  181.0613  $[(\text{M}+\text{H})^+]$ , found 181.0614

**6:**  $^1\text{H}$  NMR ( $\text{CDCl}_3-d$ )  $\delta$  2.11 (s, 3H), 3.77 (s, 3H) 6.82 (d, 2H,  $J=16.0$ , 2.05), 7.39 (d, 2H,  $J=16.0$ , 2.00), 8.10 (s, 1H);  $^{13}\text{C}$  NMR  $\delta$  24.06, 55.42, 114.01, 122.11, 131.19, 156.35, 168.90; HRMS (CI) calcd for  $\text{C}_9\text{H}_{11}\text{NO}_2$  166.0868  $[(\text{M}+\text{H})^+]$ , found 166.0871

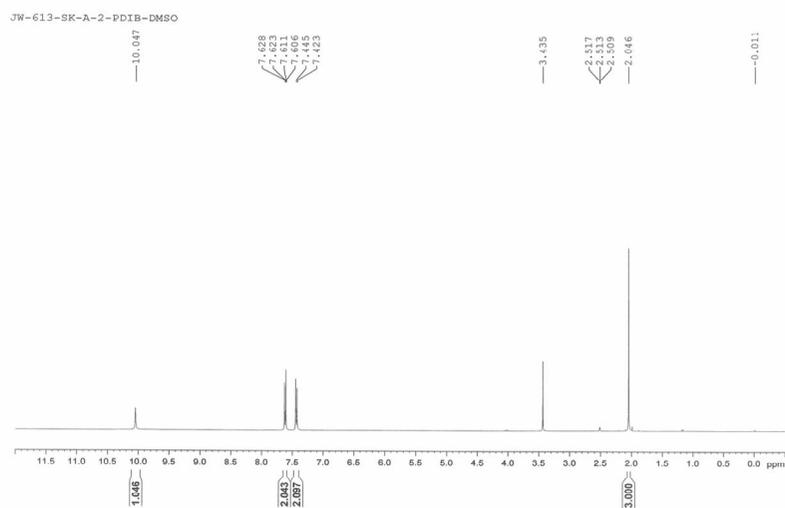
## APPENDICES

### List of $^1\text{H}$ NMR Spectra of selected compound.

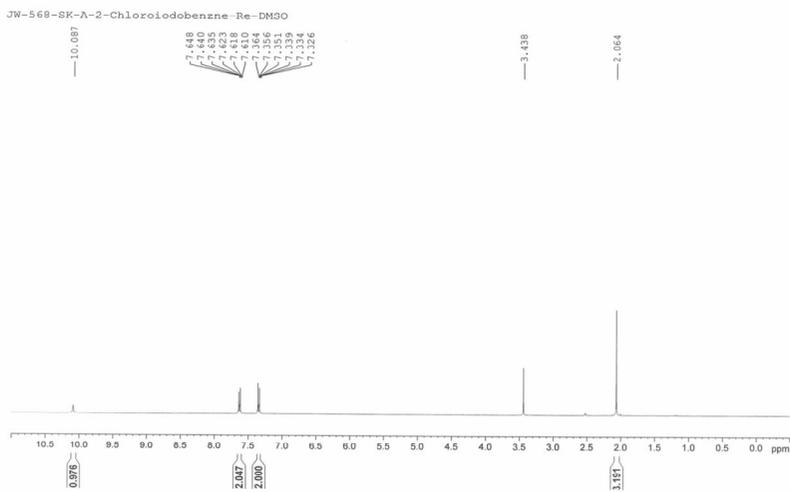
1. 400 MHz  $^1\text{H}$  NMR spectra (DMSO-*d*6) of compound **1**..... 39
2. 400 MHz  $^1\text{H}$  NMR spectra (DMSO-*d*6) of compound **2**..... 39
3. 400 MHz  $^1\text{H}$  NMR spectra (DMSO-*d*6) of compound **3**..... 40
4. 400 MHz  $^1\text{H}$  NMR spectra (DMSO-*d*6) of compound **4**..... 40
5. 400 MHz  $^1\text{H}$  NMR spectra (DMSO-*d*6) of compound **5**..... 41
6. 400 MHz  $^1\text{H}$  NMR spectra (CDCl<sub>3</sub>-*d*) of compound **6**..... 41



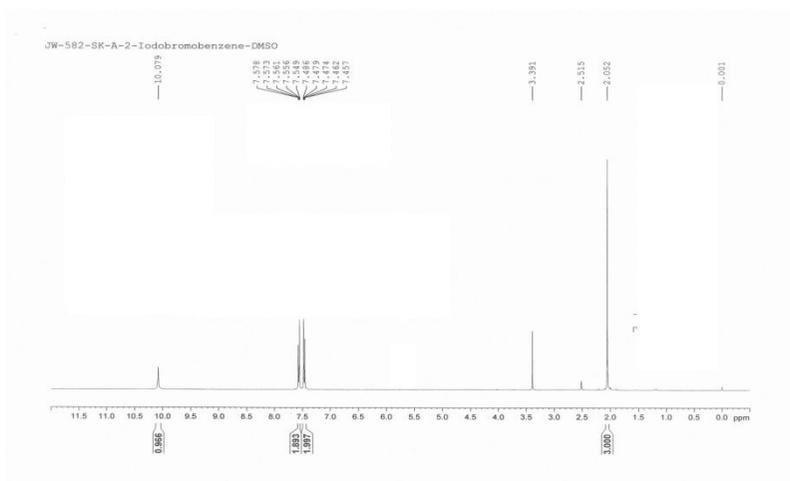
400 MHz  $^1\text{H}$  NMR spectra (DMSO- $d_6$ ) of compound **1**



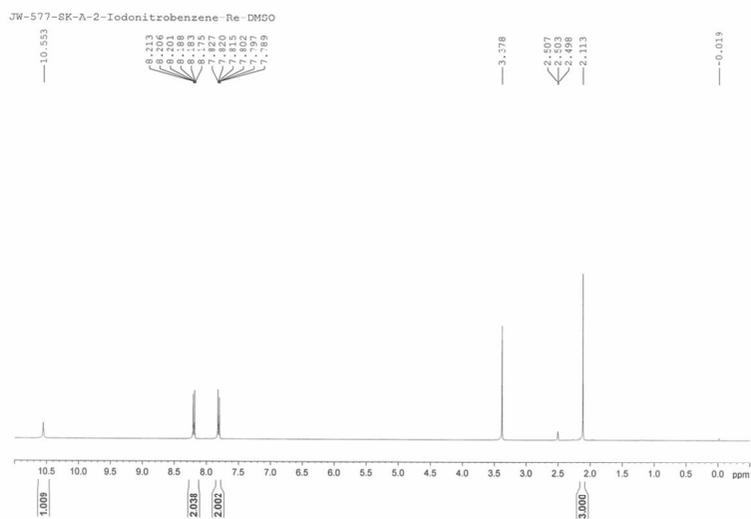
400 MHz  $^1\text{H}$  NMR spectra (DMSO- $d_6$ ) of compound **2**



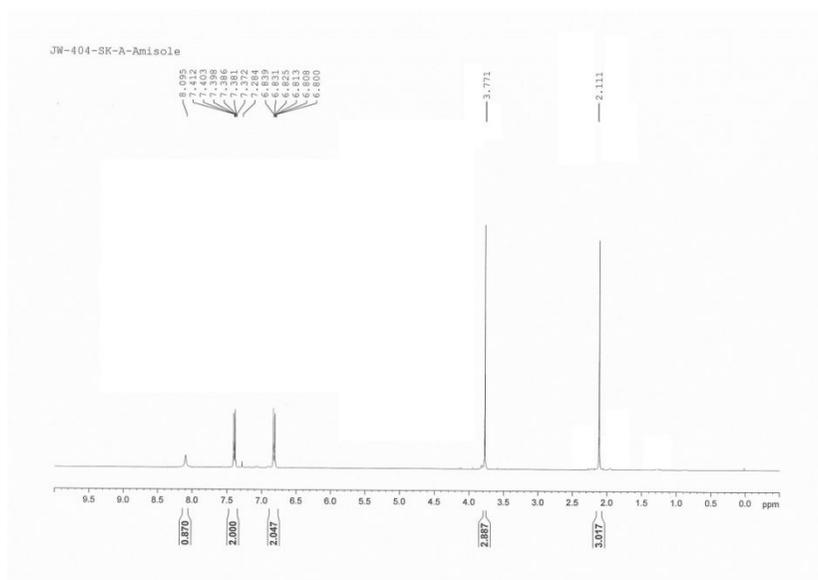
400 MHz  $^1\text{H}$  NMR spectra (DMSO- $d_6$ ) of compound **3**



400 MHz  $^1\text{H}$  NMR spectra (DMSO- $d_6$ ) of compound **4**



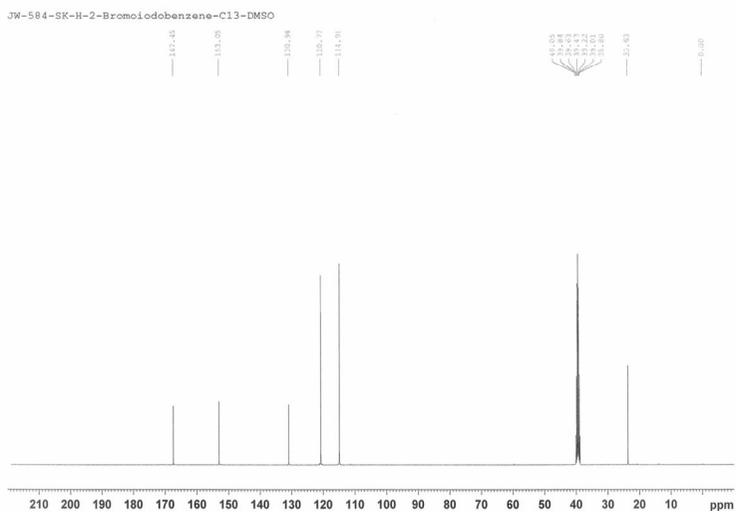
400 MHz  $^1\text{H}$  NMR spectra (DMSO- $d_6$ ) of compound **5**



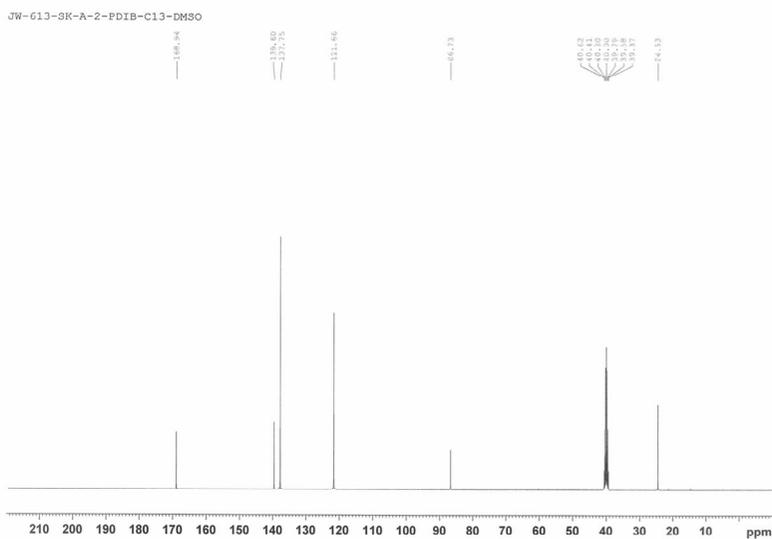
400 MHz  $^1\text{H}$  NMR spectra ( $\text{CDCl}_3-d$ ) of compound **6**

## List of $^{13}\text{C}$ NMR Spectra of selected compound.

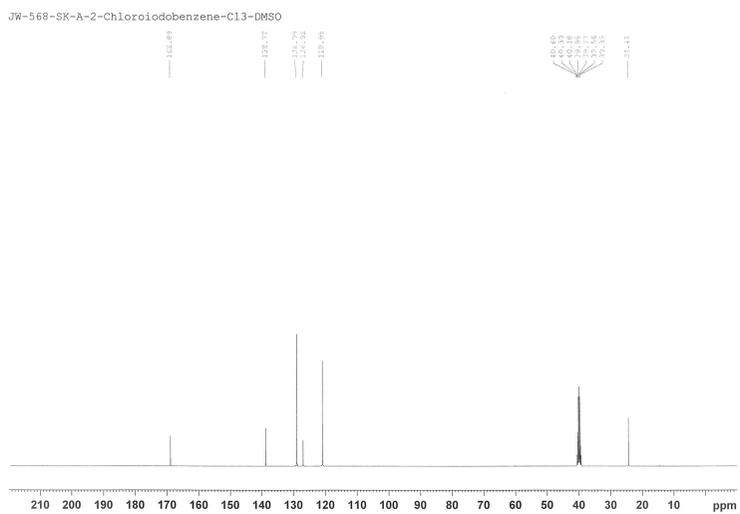
1. 400 MHz  $^{13}\text{C}$  NMR spectra (DMSO-*d*6) of compound ..... 43
2. 400 MHz  $^{13}\text{C}$  NMR spectra (DMSO-*d*6) of compound **2**..... 43
3. 400 MHz  $^{13}\text{C}$  NMR spectra (DMSO-*d*6) of compound **3**..... 44
4. 400 MHz  $^{13}\text{C}$  NMR spectra (DMSO-*d*6) of compound **4**..... 44
5. 400 MHz  $^{13}\text{C}$  NMR spectra (DMSO-*d*6) of compound **5**..... 45
6. 400 MHz  $^{13}\text{C}$  NMR spectra (CDCl<sub>3</sub>-*d*) of compound **6**..... 45



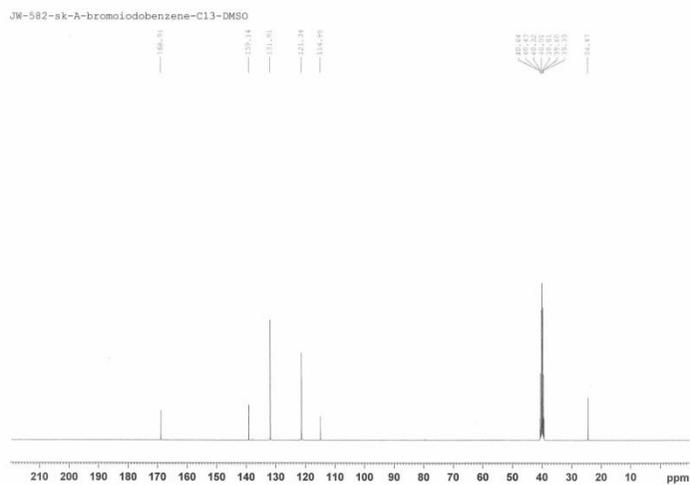
400 MHz  $^{13}\text{C}$  NMR spectra (DMSO-*d*6) of compound 1



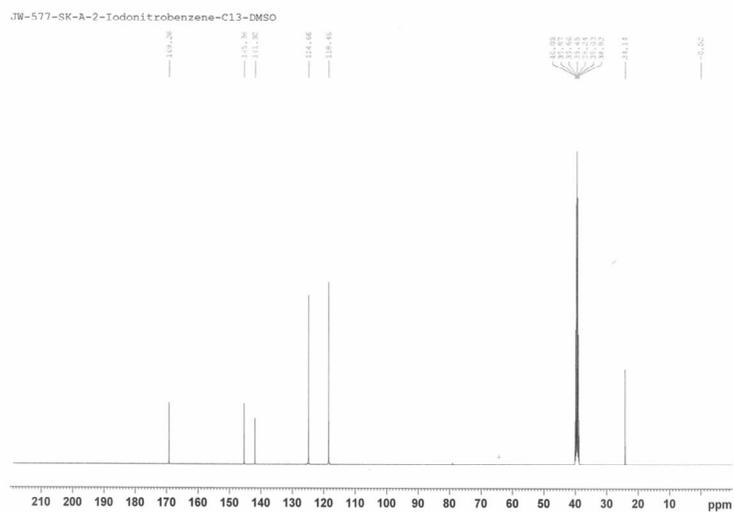
400 MHz  $^{13}\text{C}$  NMR spectra (DMSO-*d*6) of compound



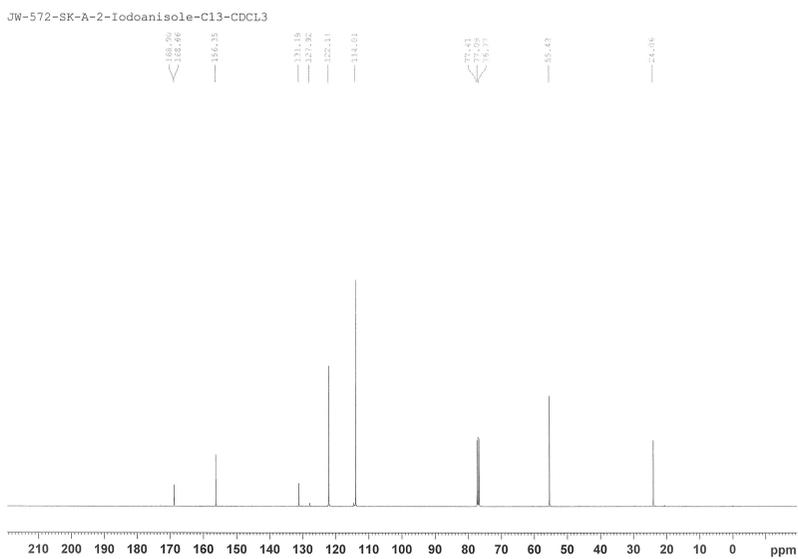
400 MHz  $^{13}\text{C}$  NMR spectra (DMSO-*d*<sub>6</sub>) of compound **3**



400 MHz  $^{13}\text{C}$  NMR spectra (DMSO-*d*<sub>6</sub>) of compound **4**



400 MHz  $^{13}\text{C}$  NMR spectra (DMSO-*d*<sub>6</sub>) of compound **5**



400 MHz  $^{13}\text{C}$  NMR spectra (CDCl<sub>3</sub>-*d*) of compound **6**

## REFERENCES

- [1] Jame R. Hupp, *Oral sur. Oral Med. Oral Path and Oral Radiol. Endod.* **2004**, 97, 139.
- [2] Kay Brune, *Acute Pain*, **1997**, 1, 33.
- [3] Alfio Bertolini, Anna Ferrari, Alessnadra Ottani, Simona Guerzoni, Raffaella Tacchi, Sheria Leone, *CNS Drug Review*, **2006**, 12, 250.
- [4] Stephan. L. Buchwald, *J.Am.Chem.Soc.*, **2002**, 124, 7421.
- [5] Dawei Ma, *Synlett*, **2010**, 976.
- [6] Honhua Rao, Ying Jin, Hua Fu, Yuyang Jiang, Yufen Zhao, *Chem. Eur. J.* **2006**, 3636.
- [7] PENG. Yiyuan, LIU. Hanliang, TANG. Min, CAI. Lisheng, PIKE. Victor, *Chiness Journal of Chemistry*, **2009**, 27, 1339.
- [8] Rahman Hosseinzadh, Mahmood Tajbakhsh, Maryan Mohadjerany, Hamidreza Mehdinejad, *Synlett*, **2004**, 1517.

- [9] Suk-Ku Kang, Seok-keun Yoon, Young-Mook Kim, *Org.Lett*,  
2001, 3, 2697.
- [10] Monica Carril, Raul SanMartin, Esther Dominguez,  
*Chem.Soc.Rev*, 2008, 37, 639.
- [11] Chaoyu Wang, Lijuan Liu, Wei Wang, Dong-Sheng Ma, Hua  
Zhang, *Molecules*, 2010, 15, 1154.
- [12] Andreas Mayr, Muthialu Srisailas, Qun Zhao, Yuan Gao,  
Heish, Mahsa Hoshmand-Kochi, Natalie St. Fleur,  
*Tetrahedron*, 2007, 63, 8206.
- [13] Hsin-Hung Chen, Hua-Min Huang, Shu-Chin Chen and  
Yao-jung Chen  
*J.Chin.Chem.Soc*, 2010, 57, 14
- [14] Dean P.Philips, Xue-Feng Zhu, Thomas L. Lau, Xiaohui He,  
Kunyong Yang  
Hong Liu, *Tetrahedron Letters*, 2009, 50, 7293

# ABSTRACT IN KOREAN

김중원

화학생물공학부

서울대학교

지금까지 매우 다양한 비마약성 진통제들이 개발되어 왔고, 그 개발은 그 이전의 것들을 개선 혹은 보완하는 방향으로 진행되어왔다. 그 중에서도 아세트아미노펜은 다양한 의학적 응용이 가능하고, 부작용이 매우 적다는 장점으로 인해서 오늘날 세계에서 가장 널리 사용되는 진통제로 알려져 있다.

하지만 기존의 아세트아미노펜을 합성하는 공정은 원하지 않는 이성질체의 생성과 강하고 독성이 있는 산의 사용 등과 같은 문제점을 지니고 있다. 이러한 문제점들은 결국 추가적인 정제과정과 사용된 산의 회수 등의 문제점들을 수반하고 결국 추가적인 비용을 발생시켜 아세트아미노펜의 생산단가에 영향을 주게 된다.

이 논문을 통해서 우리는 구리촉매를 이용해서 다이할로벤젠으로부터 아세트아미노펜을 경제적이면서 효율적으로 만드는 새로운 합성 공정을 소개하고자 한다. 우리는 이 공정을 통해서 기존의 공정이 가진 단점들을 보완하였을 뿐만 아니라, 합성 공정을 좀 더 온화한 조건에서 진행시킬 수 있는 환경친화적이면서,

추가적인 정제과정을 필요로 하지 않도록 짧게 만들어 낼 수 있었다.

핵심어: 다이할로벤젠, 아세트아미데이션, 하이드록실레이션

학번: 2011-21026

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

오지 않을 것만 같았던 대학원 졸업이라는 시간이 다가 오면서 정말 많은 생각이 듭니다. 처음 입학할 당시 국내 대기업에 취직이 돼서 연수까지 마친 상황에서 과감하게 대학원을 택할 당시만 하더라도 저에게는 항상 좋은 일 만이 가득하리란 기대감이 충만했습니다. 하지만 시간이 지나면서 뭔가 후회되는 감정이 커져만 간다는 것을 부인할 수 없었고, 내가 여기를 오지 않았다면 돈을 벌면서 원하는 일을 하면서 지내고 있지 않았을까 하는 생각이 저로 하여금 대학원의 좋지 않은 면만을 너무 강하게 인식하게 되는 것 같았습니다. 2 년이란 시간이 언제면 끝날까 하는 생각으로 하루하루를 보내면서 내 자신이 점차 자신감을 잃어간다고 느꼈고 유구한 역사의 틀 속에서 한 가닥의 실마리를 과연 언제면 찾을 수 있을까? , 난 2 년동안 과연 한다면 무엇을 이룰 수 있을 것인가? 하는 의구심에 하루하루가 너무 길다고 생각을 했습니다. 하지만 졸업을 앞둔 지금의 시점에서는 정반대의 생각이 드는 것 같습니다. 지나고 나면 그때의 생각과 고민들이 아무것도 아닌 것처럼 느껴지듯이 힘든 시간을 지내온 저에게 이제는 그 어려움이 저를 받쳐주는 주춧돌이 되었기에 2 년 동안 뭔가를 이뤄냈다는 생각보다도 포기하지 않고 잘 견뎌냈다는 지 제 자신에게 잘했다고 박수를 보내주고 싶습니다.

저는 이제 학생의 신분을 떠나서 사회의 첫발을 내딛는 사회인으로서의 준비를 시작하고 있습니다. 막상 그 시작이라는 것이 정말 두려움 반 기대 반 이지만 한 가지 분명한 사실은 대학원에서의 생활이 큰 도움이 될 것이란 점이고 앞으로 어떤 상황에서든 잘 할 수 있고 견뎌낼 수 있다는 것입니다. 여기에는 저의 노력도 있었지만 언제나 함께 해준 저희 실험실 선배, 후배님들 그리고 교수님의 도움이 있었다고 생각합니다. 그리고 항상 저를 믿어주었고 큰 힘이 되어준 부모님과 제 동생에게도 이 글을 통해서 감사의 말씀을 전하고 싶습니다.

새해가 밝아오고 있습니다. 예전에 고 노무현 전 대통령이 당선되었을 때 고 김수환 추기경에게 기자들이 축하의 말씀 한마디 부탁한다는 말을 하자 추기경께서 하신 말씀이 “축하 인사는 노 대통령이 퇴임할 때 해주겠습니다”라는 말이었습니다. 시작도 중요하지만 항상 우리의 삶은 시작임과 동시에 끝이라는 말로도 귀결되듯이 올 한해 잘 마무리 하시고 모두에게 좋은 일 행복한 일 가득하시길 빌면서 이것으로 감사의 글을 마치도록 하겠습니다.