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Visible Light Uranyl Photocatalysis: Direct C–H to C–C Bond Conversion

Luca Capaldo,[®] Daniele Merli,[®] Maurizio Fagnoni,[®] and Davide Ravelli^{*®}

Photogreen Lab, Department of Chemistry, University of Pavia, Viale Taramelli 12, 27100 Pavia, Italy

Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: Uranyl nitrate hexahydrate performs as an efficient photocatalyst in the direct C-H to C-C bond conversion under blue light irradiation via hydrogen atom transfer (HAT). This uranyl salt enables the remarkable smooth functionalization of unactivated (cyclo)alkanes, ethers, acetals, and amides via radical addition onto electrophilic olefins. Dedicated electrochemical measurements on compounds and intermediates involved in the process were carried out to support the mechanistic proposal.

Visible Light C-H to C-C Conversion Direct Hydrogen Atom Transfer (d-HAT)

KEYWORDS: C-C bond formation, hydrogen atom transfer, photocatalysis, radical reactions, uranyl cation

hotoredox catalysis has deeply transformed the field of organic chemistry providing synthesis practitioners with a plethora of unconventional approaches, mainly based on radical intermediates.¹ These processes rely on the activation of an organic substrate through a single-electron transfer (SET) reaction promoted by the excited state of a purposely added catalyst. Indeed, despite the enhanced redox properties typical of excited states, the choice of the substrates is limited by the redox properties of the employed photocatalyst, albeit the incorporation of suitable redox-auxiliary groups² in one reactant facilitates the desired SET. To circumvent these limitations, notable efforts have been made to design an indirect photocatalyzed hydrogen atom transfer (i-HAT),³ where a photocatalytic cycle promotes the in situ generation of a thermal H atom abstractor (typically, an alkoxy radical RO[•] or an amine radical cation $R_3N^{\bullet+}$, Scheme 1).^{3,4} Another useful approach to perform an *i*-HAT is through an intramolecular process, thus leading to a remote C-H bond functionalization.5

A more straightforward route for substrate activation makes use of a *direct* photocatalyzed HAT (d-HAT),³ where the excited photocatalyst cleaves directly a C-H bond in the

Scheme 1. Approaches for the Indirect (*i*-HAT) or Direct (d-HAT) Photocatalyzed Hydrogen Atom Transfer Reaction



reagent (Scheme 1). Unfortunately, the development of such approach is severely limited by the scarcity of available photocatalysts able to promote this chemistry, with the added burden that most of them require highly energetic UV light to operate.^{6,7} Accordingly, there is an urgent need to develop synthetic protocols via d-HAT occurring under visible light irradiation, especially with the aim to forge C-C bonds from strong aliphatic C-H bonds, such as those embedded in alkanes, which is still considered as one of the "Holy Grails" in synthesis.8

As an example, fluorenone,^{9a} acetophenone,^{9b} and uranyl nitrate hexahydrate¹⁰ were recently used to accomplish the C-H to C-F bond conversion in alkyl aromatics^{9a} or in alkanes^{9b,10} (Scheme 2).

On the other hand, the direct, visible-light photocatalyzed activation of a C-H bond in (cyclo)alkanes to forge C-C bonds still remains a challenge, and only two cases have been reported in the literature to date. First, 5,7,12,14-pentacenetetrone (PT, Scheme 2) was adopted as the photocatalyst in a radical allylation protocol, where cycloalkanes were converted into vinyl sulfones in a good yield by reaction with 1,2bis(phenylsulfonyl)-2-propene.¹¹ Second, it was demonstrated that Eosin Y can function as an effective photoorganocatalyst for the visible-light derivatization of cyclohexane (Scheme 2), but despite the operational simplicity that allowed to run the reaction on a large scale by using continuous-flow technology, the yield of alkylated product was poor, and heating at 60 °C was necessary.¹²

Pushed by our interest in photocatalysis via d-HAT by polyoxometalates, where an M=O (M: metal) functionality in the excited state is responsible for the relevant H-atom abstraction,¹³ we pursued the search for a robust photocatalyst that can operate in the visible light region. Accordingly, we

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Scheme 2. Examples of Visible-Light-Photocatalyzed *d*-HAT in C-F (Upper Part) and C-C Bond Formation (Lower Part)

Visible Light d-HAT



chose uranyl nitrate hexahydrate [UO₂](NO₃)₂·6H₂O as a valid candidate.¹⁴ Since its discovery, the uranyl cation $[UO_2]^{2+}$ (oxidation state for U: +6) has received a great deal of attention for its photophysical and photochemical properties.¹⁵ The weak absorption band in the visible range has been proposed to involve the excitation of an electron from a π orbital of the U=O bond to a nonbonding orbital on the metal center.^{15c,16} This transition ultimately leads to the population of a triplet excited state endowed with free radical character, showing a lifetime in the domain of microseconds and a redox potential $E([U^{VI}O_2]^{2+*}/[U^VO_2]^+)$ of +2.36 V vs SCE.^{15,16} Indeed, the reactive oxygen site of this state has the capability to generate C-centered radicals via homolytic cleavage of a C-H bond in organic compounds,¹⁰ especially in alcohols and arylaldehydes.¹⁷ Accordingly, we embarked on a study aimed to demonstrate that the uranyl cation is a valuable d-HAT photocatalyst to forge C-C bonds from unactivated C-H bonds (mainly from (cyclo)alkanes) under visible light irradiation.

We commenced our investigation by studying the addition of cyclohexane (1a) onto 2-benzylidenemalononitrile 2a, chosen as a model Michael acceptor. After routine optimization of the reaction conditions (see Section 2 in Supporting Information), we found that uranyl nitrate hexahydrate (8 mol %) in an air-equilibrated acetone solution of 2a in the presence of 1a (5 equiv) under irradiation at 456 nm (40 W LED; light intensity: 400 W·m⁻²) gave the best results, with formation of the expected adduct 3 in 96% isolated yield (at complete conversion of 2a). Notably, the residual uranium content in isolated 3 was determined by ICP-MS analysis to be <20 μ g/kg (see SI for details). We further demonstrated that the reaction required both light and photocatalyst to occur, while heating in refluxing acetone in the dark for 24 h did not afford any product. Moreover, the process was inhibited in the presence of the radical scavenger TEMPO (see Table 1).

Table 1. Control Experiments for the Uranyl Photocatalyzed C-H to C-C Bond Conversion

1a 5 equ	+ Ph CN [UO ₂](NC CN Me ₂ C 2a Kessi	0 ₃₎₂ •6H₂O (8 mol%) CO, rt, air, 24 h I lamp (456 nm) Pt	CN 3 CN
entry	variation from opt. conditions	2a consumption (%)	yield (%) ^a
1	none	100	95, 96 ^b
2	no light	<5	n.d.
3	dark, 60 °C ^c	<5	n.d.
4	no photocatalyst	<5	n.d.
5	N ₂ sparged solution	100	95
6	TEMPO (1 equiv)	<5	n.d.

^{*a*}Absolute yields determined by means of calibration curves with authentic samples (see SI). ^{*b*}Isolated yield after flash column chromatography. ^{*c*}Refluxing acetone. n.d.: not detected. TEMPO: (2,2,6,6-tetramethylpiperidin-1-yl)oxyl.

Gratifyingly, the functionalization of unactivated methylene groups in several cycloalkanes occurred smoothly in good to excellent yields (see compounds 3-7) under extremely mild conditions (Table 2). Interestingly, even acyclic isooctane (2,2,4-trimethylpentane, 1f) was functionalized with a complete regioselectivity toward the methine site to afford 8 in 68% yield when the photocatalyst was used in 15 mol % amount. Isocapronitrile gave product 9, confirming the same

Table 2. Scope of H-Donors 1 for the Alkylation of 2-Benzylidenemalononitrile $2a^{a}$



^{*a*}Reaction conditions: 2a (0.1 M), 1a–o (5 equiv, unless otherwise noted); the structures of the starting materials are reported in Section 1 in the Supporting Information; isolated yields on a 1 mmol scale have been reported. ^{*b*}Light intensity: 400 W·m⁻² at 5 cm. ^{*c*}20 equiv of 1f, $[UO_2]^{2+}$ 15 mol %. ^{*d*}10 equiv of 1g. ^{*e*}4 equiv of 1m. ^{*f*}1 equiv of aldehyde.

selectivity toward the tertiary position. We then shifted our attention to the functionalization of oxygenated compounds, such as ethers and acetals, via the visible-light photocatalyzed generation of α -oxy and α , α -dioxy radicals, respectively.

Adducts 10–13 were then obtained in yields ranging 58– 70%; notably, the photocatalyzed C–H cleavage in 1,3dioxolane showed a complete selectivity toward the 2-position of the oxygenated ring. Methanol was then used as H-donor for the radical addition onto 2a, which occurred in 75% yield, to afford compound 14 upon spontaneous cyclization. The functionalization was very efficient with dimethylformamide (DMF) since addition onto 2a was quantitative. In the latter case, C–H activation was not regioselective, since both the adducts deriving from the α -amidoalkyl and the carbamoyl radicals were formed in a 2:1 ratio, respectively (compounds 15 and 15'). Finally, the protocol could be easily adapted to perform an acylation starting from aliphatic aldehydes (compounds 16, 17, >70% yield), here used in an equimolar amount.

We then turned our attention to the scope of the olefin, by choosing 1a as the model H-donor (Table 3). The substitution





^{*a*}Reaction conditions as in Table 2; the structures of the starting materials are reported in Section 1 in the Supporting Information. ^{*b*}Complete conversion after 96 h. ^{*c*}Complete conversion after 30 h. ^{*d*}Complete conversion after 65 h. ^{*e*}60% conversion of olefin 2k was observed; yield based on the consumed olefin. ^{*f*}Complete conversion after 16 h, only *endo* diastereoisomer formed. ^{*g*}Reaction performed in Me₂CO/H₂O 8:2.

pattern on the aromatic ring of the olefin 2a was first tested. Neither the presence of a chlorine atom (products 18-20, 63-82% yield) nor the electronic nature of the substituent (compounds 21-23, ca. 60% yield) seemed to affect significantly the overall alkylation yield. However, the presence of an electron-donating group (e.g., OMe) required a longer irradiation time (96 h) to achieve complete conversion.

Similarly, the decrease of the electrophilicity of the olefin, resulting from the substitution of a CN with a COOMe group,¹⁸ did not affect the reaction yield, although the formation of adducts 24-25 required long reaction times, up

to 65 h. Finally, we tested olefins different from styrene derivatives. In particular, the $\beta_i\beta_i$ -disubstitution in isopropylidene malononitrile **2j** and cyclohexylidene malononitrile **2k** caused a slight drop in reactivity, and incomplete conversion of the olefin was observed in the latter case, with adduct **27** formed in 82% yield (based on 60% conversion of the olefin). When dimethyl ethylidene malonate **2l** was used, the reaction proceeded smoothly, affording **28** in 82% yield with complete conversion of the olefin. Reaction of **1a** with a conjugated ketone, such as 3-methylene-2-norbornanone **2m**, gave product **29** in 69% yield as the *endo* diastereomer, exclusively. In the alkylation of dimethyl maleate **2n**, product **30** was obtained in 60% yield in Me₂CO/H₂O 8:2 as the reaction medium.

To gain further insights into the HAT step, we performed a competition experiment in the presence of an equimolar C_6H_{12}/C_6D_{12} (1a/1a- d_{12}) mixture (Figure 1a). A 74:26



Figure 1. Mechanistic investigation: (a) deuteration experiment for KIE determination; (b) redox potentials of the involved species; (c) mechanistic proposal.

mixture of 3 and $3 \cdot d_{11}$ was obtained, with a kinetic isotope effect (KIE) value of 2.9 (see also Scheme S2). This result is in accordance with that available in the literature^{15e} and was further confirmed by an independent Stern–Volmer experiment for the quenching of uranyl cation phosphorescence (see Table S5),¹⁵ where a KIE value of 3.5 has been determined.

We then focused our attention on the regeneration of the photocatalyst. We postulate that the catalytic cycle may be closed (in analogy with other metal-based *d*-HAT photocatalysts)⁶ by an electron transfer process from the reduced photocatalyst ($H^+[U]_{RED} = H^+[U^VO_2]^+$) to the radical adduct (I^\bullet) resulting from the addition of the photogenerated radical (R^\bullet) onto 2. As a matter of fact, the reaction worked better

when α, α -disubstituted styrenes 2a-i were used. Accordingly, to test our hypothesis we decided to measure the redox potentials of the I^{\bullet}/I^{-} couple for a set of $^{\bullet}(CR)X_{2}$ radicals (X = CN or COOR; see Figure 1b). Thus, we generated in situ enolates $(CR)X_2$ from the corresponding active methylene derivatives (including compound 25, taken as a reference) upon addition of $(nBu)_4N^+OH^-$ and ran CV experiments (Figure S7). Interestingly, we found that all the redox couples were reversible, with moderately positive redox values $E_0'(^{\bullet}(CR)X_2/^{-}(CR)X_2) \ge + 0.5$ V vs SCE, meaning that the generated intermediates I[•] are remarkably prone to reduction. We believe that this interesting feature makes the closure of the photocatalytic cycle fast and efficient, compensating the weak reducing power of (protonated) $[U^V O_2]^+$ $(E_{1/2}([U^V O_2]^+/[U^{VI} O_2]^{2+}) = +0.32$ V vs SCE; nonreversible behavior; Figure S8). The process is likewise feasible when the adduct radical is stabilized by only one electron-withdrawing group (to give compounds 29-30), since the redox potential of the succinonitrile radical $E(NCCH^{\circ}CH_{2}CN/$ NCCH⁻CH₂CN taken as a reference was reported to be +0.165 V vs SCE¹⁹ (Figure 1b). Thus, the reaction with dimethyl maleate 2n proceeded satisfactorily in the presence of water, where the uranyl cation showed a more reversible behavior, with a slightly increased reducing power, $E_{1/2}([U^{VO}O_{2}]^{+}/[U^{VI}O_{2}]^{2+}) = +0.10 \text{ V vs SCE (Figure 8)}.$

Moreover, we can safely exclude an electron transfer reaction between $H^+[U]_{RED}$ and the olefin since these have a redox potential $E(2/2^{\bullet-})$ more negative than -0.80 V vs SCE (Table S6).

A chain reaction mechanism may be excluded as well, since in most cases the BDE of the C–H bond to be cleaved is too strong (e.g., in cyclohexane the BDE is ca. 99.5 kcal·mol⁻¹).²⁰ In addition, an experiment performed in deuterated acetone allowed to prove that the solvent does not take part in the reaction (see Scheme S3 and Figure S11). In view of the above, our mechanistic proposal is reported in Figure 1c. In particular, the uranyl cation is excited under visible-light irradiation and, once in the excited state ([U]*), is responsible for substrate activation via *d*-HAT. The thus-generated C-centered radical is readily intercepted by the electron-poor olefin 2 to give radical intermediate I^{\bullet} . This species is then responsible for the reoxidation of the reduced form of the photocatalyst (H⁺[U]_{RED}) to afford the desired Giese adduct.

In conclusion, we have demonstrated that uranyl cation can be used as a visible-light photocatalyst for d-HAT in C–C bond-forming reactions. The present approach is operationally simple and does not require any additive, thus confirming the robustness, efficiency, and selectivity of the d-HAT approach for the functionalization of strong C–H bonds. Notably, (cyclo)alkanes were readily alkylated via radical addition onto Michael acceptors in good to excellent yields. Furthermore, the electrochemical study allowed to propose a mechanistic scenario, where the nature of the olefin (and of the intermediates formed from it) plays a key role in the regeneration of the photocatalyst.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

S Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the ACS Publications website at DOI: 10.1021/acscatal.9b00287.

Experimental details about the used materials, sample preparation, experiments, electrochemical measurements, and analytical data (NMR) (PDF)

AUTHOR INFORMATION

Corresponding Author

*E-mail: davide.ravelli@unipv.it.

ORCID 💿

Luca Capaldo: 0000-0001-7114-267X Daniele Merli: 0000-0003-3975-0127 Maurizio Fagnoni: 0000-0003-0247-7585 Davide Ravelli: 0000-0003-2201-4828 **Notes**

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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