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Unveiling the Synthetic Potential of Substituted Phenols as Fully Recyclable Organophotoredox Catalysts for the lodosulfonylation of Olefins

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variety of densely functionalized alkyl iodides 5 (23 examples, up to 95% yield). Finally, the synthetic potential of this photochemical transformation was demonstrated by scaling up the process under microfluidic conditions (up to 0.67 mmol h^{-1}) while accessing a series of relevant product manipulations.

KEYWORDS: photoredox catalysis, organic photocatalyst, organocatalysis, iodosulfonylation, olefin transformation

ver the past decade, the field of photocatalysis has experienced a tremendous growth.1 Photocatalysis allows unique reactivity pathways that are impossible to access under classical thermal protocols.² In particular, photoredox catalysis, which involves the light-triggered movement of one electron from or to an organic substrate, has been established as a key enabling technology for the mild functionalization of organic molecules.³ However, many of the most commonly employed visible-light photoredox catalysts (PCs) are polypyridyl complexes of ruthenium or iridium,^{3a} which are expensive and often environmentally harmful. For this reason, extensive effort is still focusing on the development of more sustainable metal-free photocatalyzed transformations.^{1a,4} Specifically, the synthetic community is moving toward the use of purely organic PCs, which are cheaper and more sustainable options with respect to metal complexes, while allowing an easy fine tuning of their optoelectronic properties.^{1a,5} In this context, phenolate anions, generated upon the deprotonation of phenols or suitable cyclic ketones, are electron-rich aromatic intermediates capable of promoting visible-light-driven transformations.⁶ Interestingly, upon light absorption phenolates become strong reductants in the excited state capable of triggering the generation of radicals from diverse precursors via single-electron-transfer (SET) processes.7 Nevertheless, phenolate anions often turn out to be highly unstable in the presence of reactive radicals. In fact, these species can efficiently react with open-shell radicals through homolytic aromatic substitution (HAS) pathways or undergo side reactions such as radical polymerization

processes, thus hampering their use under catalytic regimes.^{6a,8} To overcome this limitation, a careful design of the chemical structure of the phenolate anion is pivotal to finely tune its optical and redox properties, thus imparting a higher stability and efficiency to the resulting PCs. As a matter of fact, only few photocatalytic protocols fulfilling these features have been reported so far.^{6b,9} In 2019, König and co-workers reported that a tricyclic aromatic ketone, namely 9-anthrone (1), can act as an effective pre-PC.^{9b} Indeed, 1 can be easily deprotonated under basic conditions, producing a a photoactive phenolate anion that was used to catalyze C–H arylation reactions between aryl halides and electron-rich arenes and heteroarenes under visible-light irradiation (Figure 1a).

Later on, the same research group demonstrated that anthrone derivatives may also be employed as robust pre-PCs to promote the photochemical carboxylation of organic compounds with CO_2 .^{9d} In 2020, Xia and co-workers described a new photocatalytic protocol for the direct oxyarylation reaction of olefins with aryl halides and 2,2,6,6-tetramethylpiperidin-1-ol (TEMPO-H, Figure 1b).^{9c} Specifically, the authors found that a trisubstituted phenolate anion,

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The use of organic anions to access thermodynamically elusive transformations

(a) 9-anthrolate anions as pre-PCs



Figure 1. (a) Use of 9-anthrone (1) in the photocatalytic C–H arylation of electron-rich arenes.^{9b} (b) Photocatalytic oxyarylation of olefins with aryl halides and TEMPO-H.^{9c} (c) This work: light excitation of a 2,4,6-trisubstituted phenolate (7e) enabling the direct iodosulfonylation of olefins (3) with α -iodo phenylsulfones (4). DBU: 1,8-diazabicyclo[5.4.0]undec-7-ene.

formed upon deprotonation of 2 (pre-PC) with Cs₂CO₃, displayed the best synthetic performance.

Herein, we document the design and structural refinement of a novel efficient organic PC based on a 2,4,6-trisubstituted phenolate scaffold (7e, Figure 1c). The PC's structural design was guided by the goal of developing an unprecedented photocatalytic atom transfer radical addition (ATRA) process between α -iodo phenylsulfones (4) and terminal olefins (3) to produce synthetically valuable sulfone-containing alkyl halides (5) in a single strike.¹⁰ Remarkably, the process was efficiently orchestrated by the photochemical activity of the 2,4,6trisubstituted phenolate 7e, easily formed in situ by deprotonating the corresponding phenol 6e (pre-PC) with 1,8-diazabicyclo[5.4.0]undec-7-ene (DBU). Thanks to the high chemical stability and photocatalytic efficiency of the newly developed PC, we were able to access a mild and general iodosulfonylation process under batch and flow (up to 0.67 mmol h^{-1}) conditions, while recovering and reusing the PC up to six consecutive times without any drop in yield. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first example of photocatalysis with a fully recyclable phenol-based PC.

We initiated our study evaluating diverse readily available phenols 6 as pre-PCs (20 mol %) for the reaction between olefin 3a and the α -iodosulfone 4a (Table 1a and SI).

The experiments were conducted at ambient temperature under irradiation at 450 nm over 24 h, using acetonitrile as the solvent and in the presence of DBU (20 mol %) as the base. Quite surprisingly, the simple phenol **6a** ($\lambda_{0,0}$ (7**a**) = 277 nm) delivered the desired product **5a** in a promising yield (47%). However, most of **6a** was converted into a complex mixture of degradation products under the reaction conditions. We next sought to evaluate the activity of 2-bromophenol (**6b**), which has similar redox properties (see Table 1a).^{9a} Regrettably, **6b**

 Table 1. Optimization of the Photocatalytic ATRA Process

 and Control Experiments—Selected Results



^{*a*}Reactions performed on a 0.2 mmol scale using 0.04 mmol of phenol 6. ^{*b*}The yield and residual phenol (6) were determined by ¹H NMR analysis of the crude reaction product, using trichloroethylene as internal standard. NaAsc: sodium ascorbate.

turned out to not be particularly effective with only a slight improvement (56% yield), although it had higher stability with respect to 6a (87% recovery). Replacing the Br substituent with a methyl ester resulted in a strong bathochromic shift with the $\lambda_{0,0}$ value changing from 258 nm (7b) to 312 nm (7c), while a similar chemical yield was observed (52 %). However, in this case the pre-PC 6c was largely converted into a mixture of alkylated products, derived from a side reaction with the in situ generated sulfonyl radical I. We thus reasoned that placing an additional electron-withdrawing group (EWG) at the para position would increase the chemical stability, rendering the PC 7d less reactive toward the alkylation for both electronic and steric reasons. Indeed, the chemical stability of the pre-PC increased and 6d was recovered in 85% yield, along with 12% of the ortho-alkylated side product 6e (Table 1a). Nevertheless, the yield of 5a was unchanged (53%). At this stage, we hypothesized using the byproduct 6e as a pre-PC in the model transformation. We selected 6e and the corresponding phenolate 7e, since the presence of two EWGs with an additional sulfone moiety (i) resulted in a strong aromatic ability for absorption in the visible spectral region¹¹ and (ii) furnished higher stability of the PC to HAS, while (iii) presenting an altered distribution of the molecular orbitals with respect to all of the other phenolates. Density functional theory (DFT) calculations revealed that in 7e the highest occupied molecular orbital (HOMO) is located on the aromatic core and the lowest unoccupied molecular orbital (LUMO) lies on the sulfone moiety (see the Supporting Information). The spatial separation of the HOMO and LUMO orbital implies that this PC is able to access a charge transfer (CT) excited state, ^{5b,12} as corroborated by the characteristic Stokes shift (see the Supporting Information) and the more balanced redox properties $(E_{ox}(7e) = +0.74 \text{ V vs SCE}, E^*_{ox}(7e) = -2.54 \text{ eV}).$ Interestingly, the use of 6e led to the formation of 5a in

excellent chemical yield (85%), which in turn was accompanied by a virtually complete chemical stability of its corresponding phenolate (7e, >99% residual pre-PC).

Further optimization (Table 1b and the Supporting Information) revealed that a slight excess of 4a (1.5 equiv), a 3/1 mixture of MeCN and H₂O as solvent, and addition of 25 mol % of sodium ascorbate (NaAsc) led to the formation of 5a in a quantitative yield (entry 2, Table 1b). The addition of NaAsc was key for allowing a more efficient *in situ* regeneration of the photoreactive phenolate 7e (*vide infra*, Figure 2a).¹³ A



Figure 2. (a) Mechanism of the photocatalytic ATRA process. (b) Optical absorption spectra recorded in MeCN: [4a] = 0.005 M (red line); [6e] = 0.001 M (blue line); [DBU] = 0.001 M. The green line (7e + 4a) overlaps with the orange line (7e). (c) Quenching of the phenolate 7e emission ([7e] = 0.015 M in MeCN, excitation at 410 nm) in the presence of increasing amounts of 4a.

control experiment confirmed the light-driven nature of the iodosulfonylation process (entry 3, Table 1b). In addition, we demonstrated that the photochemical activity of the phenolate anion 7e was essential for triggering the intended reactivity. Indeed, compound 5a was obtained in very poor yield (8%), when the reaction was run in the absence of the photocatalytic system (entry 4, Table 1b). Finally, we were able to reduce the reaction time to 8 h, without any erosion in yield (entry 5, Table 1b). It is important to emphasize that other organic bases such as 1,5-diazabicyclonon-5-ene (DBN) and 1,1,3,3-tetramethylguanidine (TMG) can be efficiently employed in place of DBU under the reaction conditions, whereas basic organic and inorganic salts turned out to be ineffective (see section F of the Supporting Information).

It is worth noting that across all of the experiments (entries 1–5, Table 1b) we were able to quantitatively recover the pre-PC **6e**. This fact confirms our initial hypothesis that **7e** can produce open-shell species without taking part in the radical process. From a mechanistic point of view (Figure 2), the ATRA-type process begins with the *in situ* generation of the phenolate of **6e**, namely **7e**. Indeed, upon addition of DBU, the solution of **6e** (blue line in Figure 2b), which was almost colorless, immediately turned bright yellow, indicating the ability of the phenolate **7e** to absorb in the visible spectral region (orange line in Figure 2b). Addition of the iodide **4a** did

not bring about any appreciable change of the absorption spectrum (green line in Figure 2b, perfect overlap with the absorption of 7e), which excluded the formation of an electron-donor-electron-acceptor (EDA) complex with the phenolate 7e.¹⁴ This was further corroborated by performing a series of ¹H NMR spectroscopic studies in deuterated acetonitrile (see the Supporting Information), where the presence of 4a did not induce any detectable shift of the proton signals of 7e toward a higher ¹H NMR field.¹⁵ Importantly, we have recorded the emission spectra of 7e upon excitation at 410 nm (Figure 2c, maximum emission at 470 nm). A series of Stern-Volmer quenching studies were performed, which revealed that the radical precursor 4a effectively quenched the excited state of 7e. On the basis of these experimental observations, we propose that, upon light absorption, 7e directly reaches an electronically excited state (7e*) to become a strong reductant, as implied by its reduction potential, which was measured to be -2.54 V (vs SCE). This excited species effectively triggers the formation of the electron-deficient radical Ia through the reductive cleavage of the C–I bond in 4a $(E_{red} = -1.4 \text{ V vs SCE})$.¹⁶ After the photochemical initiation step, the radical Ia enters a chain cycle. Here, the olefin 3a intercepts Ia, generating IIa (Figure 2a). This radical intermediate undergoes halogen-atom transfer (XAT)¹⁷ with 4a, forming the final product 5a and regenerating Ia. This scenario is congruent with the quantum yield (Φ) of 1.7 measured for the model reaction (see the Supporting Information), which confirms the activity of a radical chain process.¹⁸ Interestingly, under the optimized reaction conditions, we did not observe the formation of any polymeric byproducts arising from the possible atom transfer radical polymerization (ATRP) of 3a.¹⁹ Using the optimized reaction conditions, we demonstrated the generality of the photocatalytic iodosulfonylation reaction with respect to the alkene component 3. As shown in Figure 3, the reaction efficiently tolerates various terminal olefins bearing alkyl chains and alcohol, silvl ether, ether, ester, sulfone, imide, indole, ketone, and halide moieties (products 5a-n). On the other hand, we successfully used other phenyl- and alkyl-substituted α -iodosulfones as radical precursors (products **5p**-**x**). In all of the cases we registered good to excellent yields (up to 95%). As limitations, styrene and α -iodobenzyl sulfone did not participate in the developed process (products **50**,**y**). Similarly, 1,1- and 1,2-disubstituted alkenes did not lead to the formation of the corresponding ATRA-type products in satisfactory yields, probably due to their increased steric hindrance (see section G of the Supporting Information). We next evaluated a scaling-up of the photocatalytic ATRA process by using a microfluidic photoreactor (MFP).1b,20 Gratifyingly, the reaction was readily implemented under flow conditions without the need for further optimization of the reaction conditions (Figure 4a). Nevertheless, the presence of sodium ascorbate (NaAsc) and water was not tolerated by the microfluidic apparatus, resulting in inferior yields with respect to the batch photoreactions (53% versus 82%), while allowing the isolation of 0.49 g of the product 5a after only 3 h overall reaction time, with a residence time $(t_{\rm R})$ as short as 5 min (productivity of 0.67 mmol h^{-1} vs 0.02 mmol h^{-1} for the batch procedure).

We decided to use this reaction, which involves the presence of diverse reactive radical intermediates to assess the chemical stability of the developed photocatalytic system 7e and the recyclability of the pre-PC 6e. We thus performed five iterative independent reactions, where 6e was recovered at the end of



Figure 3. Scope of α -iodosulfones 4 and alkenes 3 that can participate in the ATRA process. Reactions were performed on a 0.2 mmol scale using 1.5 equiv of 4 under batch conditions. Yields in parentheses were determined by ¹H NMR analyses, using trichloroethylene as an internal standard.



Figure 4. (a) Recyclability and performances of the pre-PC **6e** under flow conditions. (b) Manipulations of the ATRA product **5a**.

each run by extraction and filtration and reused in the following run. At every run, we evaluated the performance of

the system by monitoring the yield of 5a. Importantly, we were able to recover the pre-PC 6e in almost quantitative yield (91– 97%), indicating its excellent chemical robustness. Accordingly, the photocatalytic performance of the system was constant with yields spanning from 53% to 49%. This set of experiments confirms the potential of the developed phenol 6e as a fully recyclable, purely organic pre-PC. In order to further demonstrate the synthetic potential of the developed photocatalytic iodosulfonylation process, we decided to carry out manipulation reactions (Figure 4b). The product 5a was effectively transformed into the corresponding azide-containing derivative: namely, 8a. The azide group was subsequently used to increase the molecular complexity, hence giving products 9a and 10a in excellent isolated yields (up to 88%), through a Cu-catalyzed click reaction and a Staudinger reduction, respectively. These results prove the high versatility of the building blocks 5, while they demonstrate the synthetic relevance of the developed iodosulfonylation process. Finally, 5a was also treated in the presence of 4-fluorothiophenol to obtain thioether **11a** in excellent isolated yield (90%), showing an additional structural motif that can be easily accessed by routine synthetic operations.

In conclusion, we have developed a new metal-free photocatalytic strategy that enables the direct iodosulfonylation of olefins 3 with α -iodo phenylsulfones 4, under mild reaction conditions. In this reaction, the trisubstituted phenol

6e acts as a robust and fully recyclable organic pre-PC that was easily recovered and reused up to five times without any significant drop in yield. Overall, these findings open new possibilities in olefin-directed functionalization methods, while establishing a new easy to make and recyclable organic photocatalytic system with the synthetic potentials demonstrated herein.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acscatal.2c00565.

Experimental procedures, characterization data, and UV and NMR spectra (PDF)

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Notes

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