Non-innocent radical ion intermediates in photoredox catalysis: parallel reduction modes enable coupling of diverse aryl chlorides

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ABSTRACT: We describe a photocatalytic system that elicits potent photoreductant activity from conventional photocatalysts by leveraging radical anion intermediates generated in situ. The combination of isophthalonitrile and sodium formate promotes diverse aryl radical coupling reactions from abundant but difficult to reduce aryl chloride substrates. Mechanistic studies reveal two parallel pathways for substrate reduction both enabled by a key terminal reductant byproduct, carbon dioxide radical anion.

Reactive activation of organic molecules via single electron transfer (SET) is a fundamental elementary step that underpins diverse and powerful synthetic transformations.1–4 Photoredox catalysis promotes SET through conversion of energy from visible light into chemical redox potential and has enabled a suite of carbon-carbon and carbon-heteroatom bond-forming reactions.5–9 When considering whether a substrate will be suitable for photoredox reduction, two primary catalyst parameters are initially considered: (1) E(1/2)(PC*/PC) and (2) E(1/2)(PC/PC*).7,10,11 These values reflect redox potentials bounded by the energy of photons in the visible region, a limitation compounded by energy losses (ΔG).12 As a result, many abundant but challenging to reduce substrates are excluded from photoredox activation based on these guidelines (Figure 1A).13–15

Aryl radicals are reactive intermediates that engage in a myriad of synthetically valuable transformations.16–38 Classically, aryl radical intermediates are generated from aryl diazonium salts, iodides, or bromides.19–29 Aryl chlorides are rarely used as radical precursors despite the fact they comprise over two thirds of commercially available aryl halides (Figure 1B).39–35 This is a consequence of their resistance to reductive activation,15 and high C(sp2)–Cl BDE.36,37 König recently pioneered an elegant strategy, termed consecutive photoinduced electron transfer (conPET), wherein a photochemically generated radical anion is subsequently excited.38,39 This approach primes the photocatalyst with an electron prior to excitation and, in principle, can generate much deeper reduction potentials through E(1/2)(PC/PC*). Indeed, later implementations of this conPET strategy unlocked exceptionally challenging reductions.40,41 However, all recent advances in visible light photoredox methods that reduce electronically diverse chloroarenes have been limited to protodefunctionalization and borylation reactions.40,42–45 Recent electrophotocatalytic46–49 approaches have directly generated these electron-primed photocatalysts cathodically.50,51 While this strategy has begun to expand the range of radical coupling reactions that engage aryl chlorides, a general approach to leverage the expansive pool of aryl chloride substrates in radical couplings has remained elusive and the need for electrochemical equipment remains a barrier in some settings.32,55 In particular, net-reductive radical coupling processes, such as alkene hydroarylation54–56, have remained elusive for aryl chloride substrates for all modern methods. We suspect that the paucity of net-reductive processes is a consequence of the intrinsic challenges of circumventing premature reduction of the aryl radical intermediate (E(1/2)Ph/Ph*) = +0.05 V vs. SCE)57 in the presence of a stoichiometric reductant.

Our group recently used electrochemistry to examine a diverse set of organic radical anions for photocatalytic activity in the reductive cleavage of strong C(sp3)–O and C(sp3)–N bonds.58 These experiments revealed that numerous radical
Anions, including those derived from commonly employed photoredox catalysts, can serve as potent photocatalytic reductants upon cathodic reduction. These data fit into a growing body of literature from our group\textsuperscript{59} and others\textsuperscript{60,61} that suggest photocatalyst-based redox events can engender more potent activity from conventional photocatalysts. Taken together, these data led us to consider whether we could redesign a photocatalytic system to favor formation of photactive radical anion intermediates to elicit deeply reducing potentials and expand the repertoire of coupling reactions available from aryl chlorides under operationally simple conditions (Figure 1C). Herein, we disclose that selection of an appropriate reductant to generate and maintain an active electron-primed photoredox catalyst in situ enables reduction potentials far beyond those expected from conventional catalyst selection criteria. These new reduction conditions promote a diverse array of intermolecular coupling reactions, including net-reductive coupling processes, from readily available aryl chloride substrates.

We first evaluated a suite of organic compounds recently found to possess photocatalytically active radical anion congeners\textsuperscript{2} for activity in the dehalogenation of PhCl ($E_{\text{red}} = -2.8$ V vs. SCE). Considering only conventional photoredox catalyst selection parameters ($\text{PC/PC}^\ast$ and $\text{PC/PC}''$), this reduction would be exceedingly endothermic ($>1$ V) for the photocatalysts under investigation. Therefore, activity in this assay would implicate in situ formation of a distinct and potent reductant. Initially, we examined a range of trialkylamine reductants, which result in oxidizing amine radical cation intermediates ($E_{1/2}(\text{NR}_2/\text{NR}_2^+) = >1$ V vs SCE) that could deactivate the radical anion photocatalyst via back electron transfer (Figure 2B).\textsuperscript{62,76}

We next evaluated the potency of this new catalytic system. Having established that chlorobenzene could be reduced ($–2.8$ V vs. SCE), we probed dehalogenation of increasingly electron-rich aryl chlorides. These experiments revealed that substrates with reduction potentials as low as $–3.4$ V vs. SCE are efficiently reduced. Additionally, these conditions promoted the challenging reductive cleavage of both an anilinium and aryl phosphate substrate. Taken together, these data clearly implicate processes beyond a conventional photoredox manifold. For example, the reduction of 6 would be predicted to be endothermic by nearly 2 V ($>40$ kcal/mol at room temperature) based on the most reducing conventional redox couple of 4-DPAIPN ($E_{1/2}(\text{PC/PC}^\ast) = –1.5$ V vs. SCE).\textsuperscript{77} We next subjected radical clock 9 to this formate-driven system to validate the intermediacy of an aryl radical. As anticipated, these conditions furnished the five-membered ring product in high selectivity for radical cyclization. Despite its exceptionally reducing potentials, we suspected that this operationally simple procedure would be amenable to high-throughput techniques widely employed in medicinal chemistry. To this end, we rapidly evaluated the tolerance of complex drug-like scaffolds using a commercially available informer plate designed to challenge modern cross-coupling technology. We found that not only was photocatalytic activity retained in the well-plate format but that several of these functional group rich molecules were effectively transformed (Figure S6).

**Figure 2.** (A) Unlocking radical anion photocatalyst reactivity by evaluation of reductant for catalyst activation. Reactions were conducted on 0.1 mmol scale with 10 mol % 4-DPAIPN and 3 equiv NaCHO$_2$. Reactions were analyzed via gas chromatography. (B) Overview of key considerations for chemical reductants as catalyst activators. All V vs. SCE.
Although, in principle, aryl radicals are highly versatile synthetic intermediates, premature reduction precludes radical coupling reactions in many cases. This is particularly problematic when potent reductants are required. To evaluate selectivity for radical coupling, we targeted redox-neutral photo-Arbuzov and radical borylation processes. These established aryl radical transformations produce biologically relevant aryl phosphonates and versatile organoboron products. In both cases, we found that chloroarene substrates readily underwent the desired radical coupling process. We found that both difficult to reduce electron-rich aryl chlorides and substrates bearing potentially reducible functional groups such as esters and amines were well-tolerated (Table 2). Furthermore, the catalytic system tolerated medicinally relevant heterocycles.

Next, we evaluated the reductive hydroarylation of alkenes. This challenging aryl radical reaction requires precise control over the relative rates of radical coupling versus protodehalogenation. HAT is mechanistically required to furnish product and cannot be simply suppressed. Initially, we targeted the synthesis of arylethylamines via hydroarylation. Recently, Jui and coworkers reported that aryl radical intermediates productively couple with vinyl carbamates to produce the arylethylamine pharmacophore. Although one of the most reducing conventional photocatalysts was employed, the majority of the reaction scope was comprised of aryl iodide substrates and only aryl chloride substrates bearing withdrawing groups were viable. Intriguingly, we found that although the vinylcarbamate substrate

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**Table 1. Evaluation of catalytic system.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ar</th>
<th>4-DPAIPN</th>
<th>NaCHO₂</th>
<th>CySH</th>
<th>DMGSO, 405 nm</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cl</td>
<td>X = –Cl –NMe₂ –OP(O)(OEt)₂</td>
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**Evaluation of reductive potency**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reactions</th>
<th>E_{red} (V)</th>
<th>Yield (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cl₄</td>
<td>–2.8</td>
<td>64%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cl₅</td>
<td>–2.9</td>
<td>67%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cl₆</td>
<td>–3.4</td>
<td>92%</td>
</tr>
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</table>

**Non-halide reductions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reactions</th>
<th>E_{red} (V)</th>
<th>Yield (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cl₇</td>
<td>3: 70%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cl₈</td>
<td>8: 66%</td>
<td></td>
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**Radical cyclization**

**Phosphorylation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reactions</th>
<th>Yield (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10: 61%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11: 58%</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>12: 69%</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>13: 90%</td>
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**Borylation**

<table>
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<th>Reactions</th>
<th>Yield (%)</th>
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<tr>
<td>14: 80%</td>
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<tr>
<td>15: 61%</td>
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<tr>
<td>16: 92%</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>17: 50%</td>
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**Reductant Impact on Selectivity**

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Reactions</th>
<th>Yield (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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**Table 2. Intermolecular couplings from challenging aryl chloride precursors.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ArCl</th>
<th>FG</th>
<th>4-DPAIPN</th>
<th>NaCHO₂</th>
<th>CySH</th>
<th>DMGSO, 405 nm</th>
</tr>
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*Reactions were run with 0.1 mmol scale with 10 mol % 4-DPAIPN and 3 equiv NaCHO₂.*
*All vs. SCE.*
*NMR yield.*
*GC yield.*
is thermodynamically easier to reduce than most chloroarenes ($E_{\text{red}} = -2.2 \text{ V vs SCE}$), these potent reductive conditions selectively transformed chlorobenzene into V-Boc phenethylamine in high yield. Even as the gap between the chloroarene and vinyl carbamate coupling partner widens, synthetically useful arylethylation yields are still observed. Similar to the other radical couplings, we found aryl chlorides bearing reductively sensitive functional groups were tolerated. We also found these conditions promoted the coupling of aryl chlorides and unactivated alkynes despite the fact that such a hydroarylation remains challenging with any aryl radical precursor. Finally, we questioned whether formate was uniquely effective for each of these radical coupling reactions or whether alkylamines were suitable terminal reductants. While EtN(i-Pr)$_2$ and 4-DPAIPN promote photoreduction of chlorobenzene, both reactivity and radical selectivity were diminished in each coupling reaction. Of note, competitive protodehalogenation nearly precluded net-reductive hydroarylation when alkylamines were used.

Having established a generally applicable catalytic system to engage aryl chloride substrates in radical coupling reactions, we next conducted a preliminary mechanistic investigation into the process. First, we probed whether an electron-primed photoredox mechanism—in which the 4-DPAIPN radical anion is generated and subsequently excited—was feasible under these conditions. We irradiated a mixture of 4-DPAIPN and sodium formate while monitoring speciation by UV–Vis (Figure 3A). This resulted in a decrease in 4-DPAIPN features and growth of new features consistent with electrochemically reduced 4-DPAIPN (Figure S10). Next, we probed the photoreduction of aryl chlorides. Chlorobenzene was added to the reaction mixture and, upon irradiation, the UV–Vis features of 4-DPAIPN were restored (Figure 3B). As expected based on the >1 V underpotential, no return of 4-DPAIPN was observed upon addition of chlorobenzene to 4-DPAIPN radical anion in the absence of light. Consistent with this mechanistic picture, Stern–Volmer analysis resulted in no measurable quenching of excited 4-DPAIPN by chlorobenzene. In contrast, formate salts did quench the excited state. Cyclohexane thiol, which was added to the net-reductive transformations as an HAT co-catalyst, also quenches the excited state and likely mediates the electron-transfer events in these systems by an analogous mechanism (see Figure S8). Taken together, these experiments are consistent with our working hypothesis that photooxidation of formate results in the 4-DPAIPN radical anion which can be subsequently excited to photoreduce chlorobenzene and return 4-DPAIPN.

While the UV–Vis experiments indicate that an electron-primed photoredox mechanism is feasible, we recognized that carbon dioxide radical anion is sufficiently reducing ($E_{\text{red}}(\text{CO}_2/\text{CO}_2^{•–}) = -2.2 \text{ V vs SCE}$) to promote reductive fragmentation of some of the aryl chloride substrates studied without the intervention of an electron-primed photoredox manifold. To evaluate the relative contribution of direct substrate reduction by CO$_2^{•–}$, we attempted to generate this radical anion directly by homolysis of (PhS)$_2$ under 370 nm light in the absence of 4-DPAIPN. We envisioned thyli radical could abstract a hydrogen atom from formate to directly generate CO$_2^{•–}$ in situ (Figure S11). These conditions resulted in quantitative conversion of 4-chlorobenzonitrile ($E_{\text{red}} = -2.1 \text{ V vs SCE}$). However, only 9% conversion of chlorobenzene ($E_{\text{red}} = -2.8 \text{ V vs SCE}$) and <5% conversion of chloroaanisole ($E_{\text{red}} = -2.9 \text{ V vs SCE}$) were observed under these photocatalyst-free conditions.

**Scheme 1.** Plausible mechanism for aryl chloride reduction and the roles of formate and its by-products.

![Scheme 1](image-url)
conditions. In contrast, all three of substrates are dehalogenated in comparable efficiency through use of the 4-DPAIPN conditions. We suspect both mechanisms operate in parallel for substrates within the bound of the potency of CO$_2$° (−2.2 V vs SCE) but that an electron-primed photoredox manifold supports more thermodynamically demanding reductions. In both cases, the CO$_2$° reductant byproduct plays an active role either (a) reducing the substrate directly or (b) reducing the photocatalyst to reactiviate it without requiring persistent multiphoton excitation (Scheme 1).

Overall, we have illustrated that use of a formate-based terminal reductant in combination with an isophthalonitrile photocatalyst can engage aryl chlorides in diverse synthetically useful coupling reactions. We anticipate that these operationally simple reaction conditions comprise a broadly useful approach to photochemically induce difficult reductive processes. Beyond the immediate synthetic utility, these results are important because they challenge the notion that the terminal reductant can be viewed as merely an electron-source to turn over the photocatalyst. These data fit within a growing body of literature that suggests terminal reductant byproducts can play a non-innocent role in photoredox catalysis.$^{55,66,75}$ We suspect that these results could also offer an alternative explanation for recent examples wherein isophthalonitrile catalysts have appeared to reduce substrates beyond their expected redox potentials$^{66,68}$ and, more broadly, illustrate the importance of radical ion intermediates in photoredox catalysis.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the ACS Publications website.

Experimental procedures, characterization data, and spectra (PDF)

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(18) Hanson, P.; Hammond, R. C.; Goodacre, P. R.; Purcell, J.; Timms, A. W. Sandmeyer Reactions. Part 2. Estimation of


(30) Weix and co-workers conducted an analysis of the commercially available aryl halides and found that aryl chlorides comprise more than 2/3 of the commercial substrates, see: Huang, L.; Ackerman, L. K. G.; Kang, K.; Parsons, A. M.; Weix, D. J. LiCl-Accelerated Multimetallic Cross-Coupling of Aryl Chlorides with Aryl Triflates. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* 2019, 141 (28), 10978–10983.

(31) Electron-deficient aryl chlorides are viable substrates for the most reducing visible light photocatalysts. For examples, see refs. 32-35


For example, HTE remains particularly difficult for electrochemical processes but is well-established for photochemical systems. Recent work from Lin has advanced an attractive HTE plate for electrophotocatalysis in undivided cells. However, divided cells are required for all reductive electrophotocatalysis reported to-date, which would not be compatible with this technology, see: ref 53
Constantin, T.; Juliá, F.; Sheikh, N. S.; Leonori, D. A Case Recent reports from Leonori and coworkers have illustrated that α-aminor radicals formed in situ from alkylamine oxidation promote aryl radical reactions from aryl iodides and bromides via halogen atom transfer (XAT). However, the stronger and less polarizable C(sp2)–Cl bonds are expected to be less amenable to such a mechanism, see: refs. 65 and 66.


(54) ArCl with EWG are in bounds and typically work, albeit in diminished yield. For a selected examples, see: 55 and 56


(64) Recent reports from Leonori and coworkers have illustrated that α-amino radicals formed in situ from alkylamine oxidation promote aryl radical reactions from aryl iodides and bromides via halogen atom transfer (XAT). However, the stronger and less polarizable C(sp2)–Cl bonds are expected to be less amenable to such a mechanism, see: refs. 65 and 66.


(68) The oxidation potential of formate, +1.25 V vs SCE, is within the bound of the excited state reduction potential of each catalyst. For the potential of formate, see supporting information. The Oxidation Potential of Formate, +1.25 V vs SCE, Is within the Bound of the Excited State Reduction Potential of Each Catalyst. For the CV of Formate, See Supporting Information.


(79) We found for most of the reactions studied herein that the photocatalyst bleached over the course of the reaction and that adding photocatalyst in two batches provided improved yields, see SI for details. For an example of isophthalonitrile catalysts being attacked by radical intermediates, see: Grotjahn, S.; König, B. Org. Lett. 2021, 23, 3146–3150.

(80) For an Example of Unactivated Alkene Hydroarylation, See: Ref. 55.

(81) While both alkylamine and formate reductants can act as hydrogen atom sources, we noted that sodium formate exhibits limited solubility under the reaction conditions. We
suspect that the limited concentration of the reductant diminishes premature HAT to the aryl radical relative to homogeneous alkylamine reductants.


(84) For a proposed mechanism for CO$_2^-$ generation from PhSSPh, see supporting information. PhSSPh was used as the thiyl radical source to initiate the slightly endothermic HAT (BDE PhSH = 79 kcal/mol, BDE HCO$_2^-$ = 86 kcal/mol, see: ref 84.
