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Photoexcited Nitroarenes as Ozone Surrogates for the Oxidative Cleavage of Olefins

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The oxidative cleavage of olefins is an integral process that converts feedstocks into highvalue synthetic intermediates^{1,2,3}. The most viable method to oxidatively cleave C–C π bonds in one chemical step is with ozone^{4,5,6,7}, which however poses technical and safety challenges owing to the explosive nature of ozonolysis products^{8,9}. Herein, we present a distinct approach to achieve oxidative cleavage of olefins using nitroarenes and purple light irradiation. We demonstrate that photoexcited nitroarenes are effective ozone surrogates that undergo facile radical [3+2] cycloaddition with olefins. The resulting "*N*doped" ozonide cycloadducts are safe to handle and lead to the corresponding carbonyl products under mild hydrolytic conditions. These features have enabled the controlled cleavage of all types of olefins in the presence of a broad array of commonly used organic functionalities. Furthermore, by harnessing electronic, steric, and mediated polar effects, the structural and functional diversity of nitroarenes has provided a modular platform to obtain site-selectivity in substrates containing more than one olefin.

Olefins are feedstock materials harvested on ton-scale from petroleum and vegetable biomass routinely exploited by the bulk chemical industry to access oxygen-enriched synthetic intermediates^{1,2,3}. Ozonolysis is a widely adopted method to achieve this and requires a specialised apparatus for the conversion of molecular oxygen (O₂) into highly reactive ozone $(O_3)^{6,7}$. This species undergoes a [1,3] dipolar cycloaddition with the olefin converting a stable chemical into a high-energy 1,2,3-ozonide **A** from which cycloreversion is immediate. The consequent C–C σ -bond cleavage event generates carbonyl oxide **B** and carbonyl compound **C** which recombine to give 1,2,4-ozonide **D**. Depending on reaction solvent and work-up procedure, **B** or **D** can lead to aldehydes/ketones as well as carboxylic acids or alcohols^{4,5} (Fig. 1a).

Despite its attractive synthetic versatility, ozone toxicity (lethal at 5 ppm), explosivity, and extreme oxidising power ($E_0 = 2.07 \text{ V}$) raise critical safety, technical, and chemical concerns^{8,9}. As a result, ozonolytic strategies are often challenging to translate into the fine chemical industry^{10,11,12}, particularly in the discovery sector which heavily relies on parallel and high-throughput screening platforms¹³. Consequently, alternative strategies for olefin oxidation based on high-valent heavy-metal oxides have been devised. However, these approaches can yield mixtures of products of various oxidation degrees, and cause trace metal contaminations

that are problematic with the stringent pharmaceutical sector regulations^{14,15}. Oxidative cleavages using O_2 and a suitable (photo)catalyst have also been developed, but they are limited to activated olefins^{16,17}.

Overall, there is no other type of reactivity able to mirror the unique ability of ozone to cleave olefins. Herein, we introduce nitroarenes, a class of abundant feedstocks, as photoexcitable and easy-to-dose ozone surrogates. Upon simple purple light absorption, these species react with olefins enabling access to "*N*-doped" ozonides, which can be accumulated until a controlled C–C bond cleavage step takes place. This reactivity engages a large class of olefins, is tolerant of the most used organic functionalities, and allows the targeting of specific double bonds in molecules possessing multiple C–C π sites.

In approaching the design of an alternative method to oxidatively cleave olefins, we were intrigued by the possibility of using nitroarenes **N** as ozone surrogates and access 1,3,2-dioxazolidines **E** (Fig. 1b). Despite the nitro group being isoelectronic with ozone, nitroarenes do not engage in thermal [1,3] dipolar cycloadditions with olefins due to high kinetic barriers^{18,19}. Pioneering works from Büchi²⁰ and De Mayo²¹ indicated an opportunity to by-pass these challenging pericyclic processes through direct nitroarene photoexcitation. As such, intersystem crossing (ISC) from the singlet excited nitroarene delivers the long-lived triplet state (T_1) ***N**. In analogy to T_1 -carbonyls, ***N** have n, π * configuration which translates into O-radical-type reactivity. ***N** can intercept olefins and, via the formation of biradical **F**, deliver "*N*-doped" ozonides **E**. However, this chemistry necessitated high-energy irradiation, utilised the olefin as the solvent, and the mechanism by which **E** evolves into the C–C cleavage products and defines their subsequent fate was unsolved^{20,21,22,23}. These rather unpractical reactivity requirements and limited understanding have resulted in no synthetic application.

We envisaged that by tailoring the nature of the nitroarene we would have been able to translate this reactivity over the broad spectrum of olefins, including challenging terminal substrates, and run it in a stoichiometric manner, which is crucial for synthetic purposes. Furthermore, understanding and thereby controlling the decomposition of \mathbf{E} would be pivotal to channel its reactivity toward olefin cleavage.

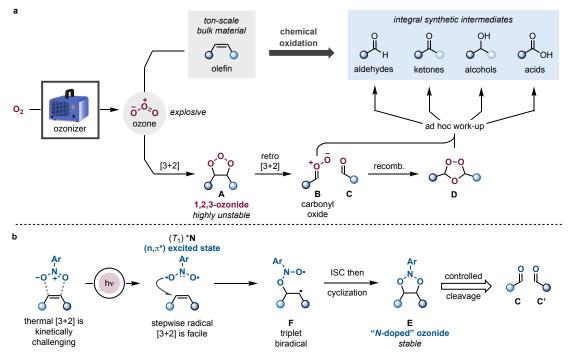


Fig. 1. Excited nitroarenes as ozone surrogates. a, Ozonolysis for the oxidative cleavage of olefins. b, Mechanism for the formation of \mathbf{E} . Ar = aryl.

We started our investigation evaluating the initial rates of disappearance of **1** (k_{obs}) in photocycloaddition reactions (purple LEDs irradiation, $\lambda = 390 \text{ nm}^{24,25}$) with a variety of electronically diverse *meta* and/or *para* (di)substituted nitroarenes **N** to give stable bisadamantene-containing²² **E** (Fig. 2a). The resulting Hammett plot²⁶ showed a strong linear free-energy relationship between the electronic character of the nitroarene and k_{obs} ($\rho = 0.82$). This means the reactivity profile of nitroarenes as photo-responsive oxidants can be easily tuned by correct placement of electron-withdrawing groups on their aromatic core that amplify the electrophilic character of their excited states. *ortho*-Substituted **N** were less effective suggesting that steric hindrance can also influences their reactivity (see Supplementary Information).

We then evaluated the reaction of unactivated 2, which is a challenging type of olefin in this chemistry. Pleasingly, irradiation of 2 with commercial N1 resulted in the high-yielding formation of E1 (Fig. 2b). In contrast to the explosive nature of A, "*N*-doped"-ozonides could be accumulated in solution at -30 °C and are stable in the solid state (see Supplementary Information).

Subsequently, we set out to understand how to convert **E** into the corresponding carbonyl compounds **C** and **C'** (Fig. 2c). We speculated that two pathways might be operating: an ozonolysis-type cycloreversion would deliver **C** and carbonyl imine **G** (*path a*) or a different cycloreversion-mode could directly lead to **C/C'** and nitrene **I** (*path b*). To shed light on this, we prepared **E2** which features an *ortho* 3,5-dimethylpyrazole group as a probe for nitrene formation^{27,28}. Simple exposure of **E2** to CH₃CN–H₂O led to the almost quantitative formation

of ketone **3** and *N*-arylhydroxylamine **H1**. Conversely, in anhydrous CH_3CN **E2** yielded **3** in 98% and **4** in 97%, whose structure was confirmed by X-ray analysis. As **4** is indicative of a [1,3] dipolar cycloaddition between **G1** and CH_3CN , these experiments rule out the intermediacy of nitrenes and demonstrate that **E** undergoes an ozonolysis-type cycloreversion generating **C** and **G** which, with H₂O, is hydrolysed to **C'** and **H**. Although the generation of **G** was postulated by Büchi²⁰, its existence has not been demonstrated before. Related dipoles have been engaged in 1,3-dipolar cycloadditions only two times since Husgein's initial prediction^{29,30}, but never with nitrile dipolarophiles.

Next, we studied the decomposition of E1 in CH₃CN–H₂¹⁸O (Fig. 2d) which gave 5 in 93% yield and 92% ¹⁸O-incorporation, along with H2 (20%), azoxy derivative K1 (3%), and nitrone J1 (condensation of H2 with formalin 6, 61%). K1 stems from disproportionation of H2 (see Supplementary Information). This experiment demonstrates that the cycloreversion of E1 generates 6 and the more stabilised dipole G, which is then hydrolysed. However, when decomposition of E3 was evaluated in CH₃CN–H₂O, 7 was obtained in a decreased 71% yield, likely via the in-situ formation of nitrone J. Indeed, when decomposition of E3 was run with external formalin, 7 was obtained in 95% yield (see Supplementary Information). Despite the decomposition step being very effective, the equilibrium in the condensation between H and C/C', and subsequent side reactions³¹, rendered the purification of the aldehydes products challenging. Thus, we developed two simple one-pot work-up procedures to remove H by addition of either K₂HPO₄ and urea (conversion of H into K) or *N*-phenylmaleimide (conversion of nitrones like J1 into L), which eased the purification of the aldehydes (Fig. 4e, see Supplementary Information).

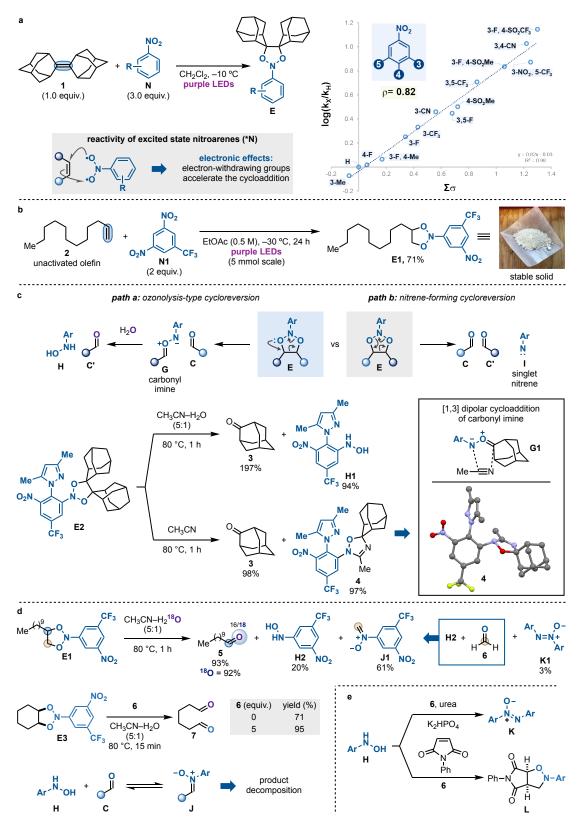


Fig. 2. Mechanistic experiments. a, Hammett plot analysis. b, Preparation of E1. c, Mechanism for the decomposition of E and the role of H_2O . d, ¹⁸O-labelling experiments and the role of 6. e, Methods for the removal of H.

Having devised conditions to accumulate and decompose "N-doped" ozonides, we decided to benchmark the synthetic utility of the process. While N1 was able to engage all substrates present in Fig. 3, other nitroarenes (N2-7) were evaluated to improve the yield depending on the olefin. We believe this is a powerful aspect of this reactivity as functionalised nitroarenes are readily available and dosable reagents that can be evaluated in screening platforms. Exploration began with linear terminal olefins 2, 8–32 equipped with a distal functionality R. Pleasingly, several commonly encountered organic functionalities like nitrile (8), aldehyde (9), ketone (10), carboxylic acid (11), halogens (12–15), free (16) and protected amines (17–20), azide (21), nitro group (22), free (23 also on 5 mmol scale, 27) and protected alcohols (24, 25), epoxide (26), thiocyanate (28), thioethers (29, 30), phosphonate (31), and boronic ester (32) proved compatible giving the corresponding aldehydes in high yields. In some cases, we found the use of CH₂Cl₂ solvent with hexafluoroisopropanol (HFIP) as the additive to be crucial to ensure good reactivity. Since *N can abstract hydridic α -N/O/S C(sp³)-H bonds^{32,33}, the inclusion of HFIP suppressed this unwanted process by H-bonding to the heteroatom³⁴ (see Supplementary Information). In the case of amines, simple protonation was required to insulate the substrate from detrimental side-oxidations. Disubstituted substrates reacted well as demonstrated by the cleavage of several industrially relevant oleic acid derivatives 33–38 (Z), as well as ether E-39 and cyclic systems of different size (40, 41). Furthermore, both gemdisubstituted 42 and trisubstituted 43 were compatible. Electron-rich and -poor styrenes (44-46), (E and Z)- β -Me and α -Me-styrenes (47, 48 and 49), as well as (E and Z)-stilbenes reacted smoothly (50, 51). Next, we explored the cleavage of structurally complex and densely functionalised derivatives (52–62). Unactivated terminal olefins of isophytol (52), sclareol (53) and alibendol (54), which also features an electron rich aromatic core, could all be oxidised. The disubstituted olefins of caryophyllene oxide (55) and montelukast (56), the trisubstituted alkenes of phytol (57), (-)- α -cedrene (58), triprolidine (59), chlorprothixene (60), and lumefantrine (61), as well as the tetrasubstituted (Z)-tamoxifen 62, were successfully engaged. Another feature of *N is their aptitude to act as triplet sensitisers³⁵ which can isomerise the olefins during photocycloaddition. Indeed, unreacted 62 was recovered as Z/E mixture.

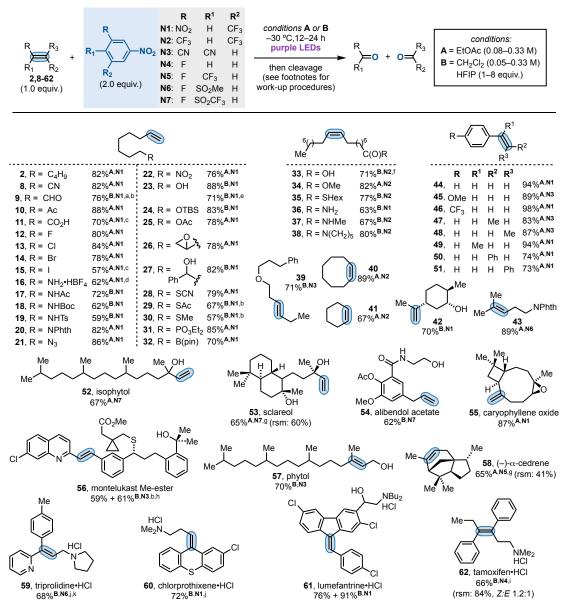


Fig. 3. Scope of the process. Bold-font footnotes A and B, and N1–N7 refer to reaction conditions and nitroarenes, respectively. If the yield of two cleaved fragments deriving from the same olefin differs, the first yield refers to the carbonyl compound with higher molecular weight. Cleavage: CH₂O (0–6 equiv.) in CH₃CN/THF:H₂O (3.1:1); work-up: K₂HPO₄ and urea or *N*-phenylmaleimide. See Supplementary Information for details. ^aOlefin with 10C linear chain. ^bPerfluoro-*tert*-butanol (PFTB) used in place of HFIP. ^cOlefin with 6C linear chain. ^d60 h. ^e5.0 mmol scale; **N1** (1.5 equiv.); 48 h. ^f2,6-Lutidine in place of HFIP. ^gOlefin (2 equiv.). ^hAnother product of S oxidation to sulfoxide = 6% yield. ⁱOlefin (5 equiv.). ^jAminoaldehyde derivative not detected. ^k40 h. rsm = remaining starting material.

An often-encountered challenge in oxidative cleavage chemistry is achieving olefin selectivity in substrates containing more than one C–C π site. We speculated that the inherent modularity of our approach would enable chemoselective differentiation through the interplay of electronic

effects. To test this hypothesis, we prepared substrates 63–68 that contain two different olefins linked by an identical alkyl spacer and evaluated them in stoichiometric reactions with N1, N2, N4, and N8 providing the heat-map shown in Fig. 4a. These results show that site-selectivity is a function of the electronic nature of the nitroarene and that of the two olefins. Specifically, the selectivity increases when using less electrophilic nitroarenes, and when the two olefins have substituents that make one C–C π bond increasingly more electron-rich than the other. This means that the reactivity of N^{21} parallels that of ozone and Huisgen type-III dipolar cycloadditions in general³⁶. Consequently, modulation of the nitroarene electronics can be used to amplify narrow reactivity differences when substrate control is difficult to implement. Indeed, the use of N8 and N4 enabled the fully selective cleavage of trisubstituted alkene (63) and styrene (64) in the presence of monosubstituted olefins. Furthermore, striking discrimination was achieved between internal and terminal double bonds (65, 97%), tri- vs dialkyl substituted C–C π sites (66, 87%), styrene vs an internal olefin (67, 85%), as well as the two highly activated alkenes of 68 (69%). Moreover, a complete selectivity for the terminal alkene of 69 was obtained even with N1, yielding the corresponding alkyne-containing product in 82% yield.

To demonstrate reactivity control through electronic, steric, and mediated polar effects, we evaluated several complex and bio-active molecules containing two C–C π sites (Fig. 4b, see Supplementary Information). (-)-Carvone 70 and fusidic acid 71 demonstrated complete regiocontrol based on electronics as olefin conjugation with carbonyl functionalities directed the reactivity toward the other alkenes. In the case of polyunsaturated steroids exemestane 72 and megestrol acetate 73 oxidative cleavage occurred at the distal, hence less deactivated, C- $C\pi$ sites. Lynestrol 74 showcased olefin oxidation in the presence of alkynes, while allylestrenol acetate 75, linalool 76, and trans-caryophyllene 77 demonstrated the selective cleavage of trisubstituted olefins over terminal and *gem*-disubstituted ones. Geranyl acetate 78 and perillyl acetate 79 contain trisubstituted olefins with an allylic OAc group that provides weak inductive deactivation. While this enables the preferential cleavage of the other C–C π sites, higher selectivity was obtained adding HFIP (H-bonding with the OAc group). Analogously, the presence of the electron-withdrawing ammonium group in cyclobenzaprine 80 allowed the disubstituted stilbene-type olefin to react over the trisubstituted one. Steric control over olefin regioselectivity is likely the main factor determining the selectivity in the oxidative cleavage of bisabolol acetate 81 and valencene 82 where the least hindered acyclic olefins were oxidised despite their degree of substitution.

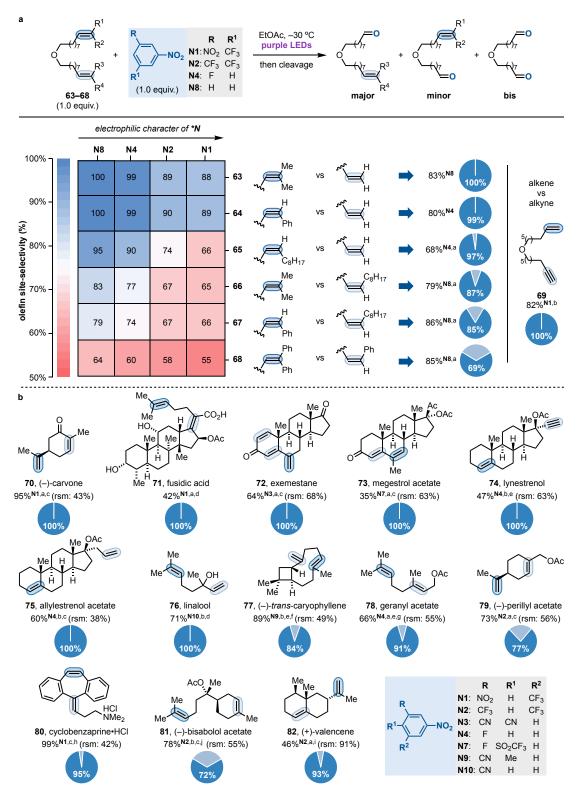


Figure 4. Achieving olefin selectivity. **a**, Competition experiments. Bold-font footnotes N1, N2, N4, N8 refer to nitroarenes used. Cleavage: CH₂O (0–6 equiv.) in CH₃CN/THF:H₂O (3.1:1). Selectivity determined considering **bis**. See Supplementary Information for details. ^aOlefin (2.5 equiv.). ^bN1 (2 equiv.); CH₂Cl₂ with HFIP (1 equiv.). **b**, Complex examples. Bold-font footnotes N1–N4, N7, N9, N10 refer to nitroarenes used. ^aCH₂Cl₂ with HFIP (0.5–6 equiv.). ^bEtOAc. ^cOlefin (2 equiv.). ^dN (2 equiv.). ^eOlefin (3 equiv.). ^fBis-cleaved product = 3%

yield. ^gBis-cleaved product = 2% yield. ^hCH₂Cl₂ without HFIP. ⁱOlefin (5 equiv.). ^jBis-cleaved product = 6% yield. rsm = remaining starting material.

Owing to the striking functional group compatibility and levels of site-selectivity achievable, our findings demonstrate that nitroarenes are tuneable and easy-to-dose photo-responsive ozone surrogates, which have the premise to become a powerful and reliable tool to oxidatively cleave olefins.

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