



ALMA MATER STUDIORUM
UNIVERSITÀ DI BOLOGNA

ARCHIVIO ISTITUZIONALE
DELLA RICERCA

Alma Mater Studiorum Università di Bologna Archivio istituzionale della ricerca

Bioinspired photocatalysed C-H fluoroalkylation of arenes in water promoted by native vitamin B12 and Rose Bengal

This is the final peer-reviewed author's accepted manuscript (postprint) of the following publication:

Published Version:

Yerien, D.E., Postigo, A.I., Baroncini, M., Barata-Vallejo, S. (2021). Bioinspired photocatalysed C-H fluoroalkylation of arenes in water promoted by native vitamin B12 and Rose Bengal. GREEN CHEMISTRY, 23(20), 8147-8153 [10.1039/D1GC02654B].

Availability:

This version is available at: <https://hdl.handle.net/11585/833339> since: 2023-03-03

Published:

DOI: <http://doi.org/10.1039/D1GC02654B>

Terms of use:

Some rights reserved. The terms and conditions for the reuse of this version of the manuscript are specified in the publishing policy. For all terms of use and more information see the publisher's website.

This item was downloaded from IRIS Università di Bologna (<https://cris.unibo.it/>).
When citing, please refer to the published version.

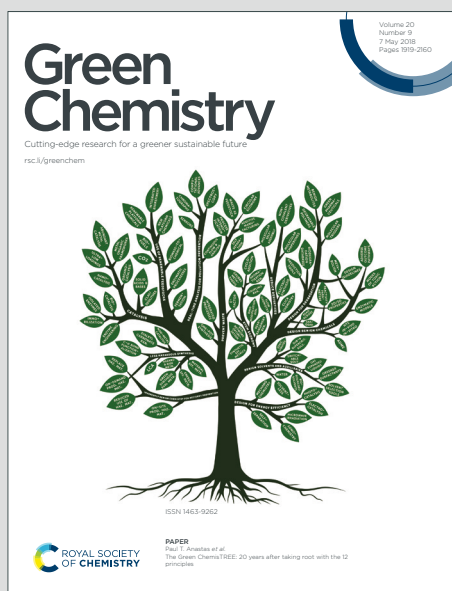
(Article begins on next page)

Green Chemistry

Cutting-edge research for a greener sustainable future

Accepted Manuscript

This article can be cited before page numbers have been issued, to do this please use: D. E. Yerien, A. Postigo, M. Baroncini and S. Barata-Vallejo, *Green Chem.*, 2021, DOI: 10.1039/D1GC02654B.



This is an Accepted Manuscript, which has been through the Royal Society of Chemistry peer review process and has been accepted for publication.

Accepted Manuscripts are published online shortly after acceptance, before technical editing, formatting and proof reading. Using this free service, authors can make their results available to the community, in citable form, before we publish the edited article. We will replace this Accepted Manuscript with the edited and formatted Advance Article as soon as it is available.

You can find more information about Accepted Manuscripts in the [Information for Authors](#).

Please note that technical editing may introduce minor changes to the text and/or graphics, which may alter content. The journal's standard [Terms & Conditions](#) and the [Ethical guidelines](#) still apply. In no event shall the Royal Society of Chemistry be held responsible for any errors or omissions in this Accepted Manuscript or any consequences arising from the use of any information it contains.

ARTICLE

Received 00th January 20xx,
Accepted 00th January 20xx
DOI:
10.1039/x0xx00000x

Bioinspired Photocatalysed C-H Fluoroalkylation of Arenes in Water Promoted by Native Vitamin B₁₂ and Rose Bengal

Damian E. Yerien,^a Al Postigo,^{*a} Massimo Baroncini^b and Sebastián Barata-Vallejo^{*a,c}

The first perfluoroalkylation reaction of activated arenes (amino-substituted arenes and alkoxyarenes) has been achieved in water by employing the dyad Rose Bengal and hydrosoluble unmodified vitamin B₁₂ (cyanocobalamin) as photocatalyst and co-catalyst, respectively. The reaction is performed under green LEDs irradiation and employs perfluoroalkyl bromides as perfluoroalkyl radical sources. In particular, the presence of vitamin B₁₂ co-catalyst is found to be fundamental to elicit the formation of perfluoroalkyl radicals.

Introduction

New synthetic methodologies towards the synthesis of fluoroalkylated arenes are highly sought-after due to their unique properties, which enable their application in different areas such as medicinal chemistry, agrochemistry and materials science.¹ In this context, radical fluoroalkylation reactions triggered by light-mediated catalytic cycles have come to the forefront in the last decade.²

As a matter of fact, the versatility of visible-light photoredox catalysis has brought about a myriad of applications in organic synthesis. These reactions are usually carried out under mild conditions and typically mediated by easily available metal-organic complexes or organic dyes that facilitate the conversion of visible light into chemical energy. Furthermore, the use of light sources such as LEDs, can drastically cut the reaction energetic costs. Photoredox catalysis is also quite permissive in terms of the functional group substituents present on the substrate. In addition, the use of water or water mixtures with organic solvents, is another key aspect of green procedures that has been embraced by academia and industry. In this regard, the combined use of light and water can offer new perspectives, enhancing the chemist's arsenal for functionalization reactions which are safe, low-cost, and with low environmental impact.

^aDepartamento de Ciencias Químicas, Facultad de Farmacia y Bioquímica, Universidad de Buenos Aires. Junín 954, CP 1113, Buenos Aires, Argentina.

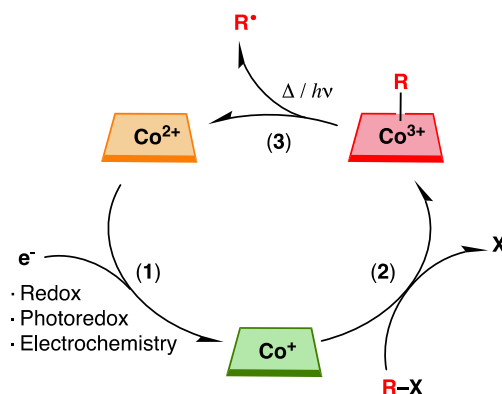
^bDipartimento di Scienze e Tecnologie Agro-Alimentari, Università di Bologna, Viale Fanin 44, 40127, Bologna, Italy and CLAN-Center for Light Activated Nanostructures, ISOF-CNR, Via P. Gobetti 101, 40129 Bologna, Italy

^cISOF, Consiglio Nazionale delle Ricerche, Via P. Gobetti 101, 40129, Bologna, Italy
E-mail addresses: apostigo@ffyb.uba.ar (A. Postigo), sebastian.barata@isof.cnr.it (S. Barata-Vallejo)

Electronic Supplementary Information (ESI) available: [details of any supplementary information available should be included here]. See DOI: 10.1039/x0xx00000x

In modern organocatalysis, activation modes that emulate chemical reactions occurring in nature using low molecular weight organic photocatalysts are highly sought-after strategies. In this regard, catalytic active vitamin derivatives play a substantial role, as these vitamins also function as redox-active cofactors in enzyme catalysis, employing nature's reactivity principles in laboratory environments.

Cobalt-catalysis³ provides an environmentally benign and inexpensive alternative to numerous noble metal catalysed transformations. Cobalt complexes are known to catalyse unique reactions mediated by the different oxidation states achievable by the cobalt ion. Besides their application in C-H activation⁴ and cross-coupling^{5,6} reactions, alkyl radicals can be produced via homolytic cleavage of weak Co-C bonds (typical bond-dissociation energies 80-168 kJ / mol) either by light or heat (Scheme 1).^{7,8} The latter exploits the reactivity of the low oxidation state of the cobalt ion – i.e., Co(I), which is known as a supernucleophilic species – with alkyl halides to form an alkyl-cobalt complex (R_{alkyl}-Co(III)). Co(I)-species are easily oxidised



Scheme 1: Alkyl radical formation catalysed by a cobalt complex

in the presence of oxygen and typically generated in-situ by reduction of a stable Co(II)-species through a chemical, electrochemical or photoredox process.^{9,10} Visible light irradiation or heat then induces a homolytic cleavage of the carbon-cobalt σ - bond of the alkyl-cobalt complex to form an alkyl radical and Co(II) species according to the sequence of reactions summarized in Scheme 1. This general reaction mechanism is at the base of the catalytic activity of porphyrin-type and oxime cobalt complexes, along with vitamin B₁₂ derivatives.⁹

Vitamin B₁₂ is a cobalt coordination complex and one of the very few organometallic molecules present in nature which

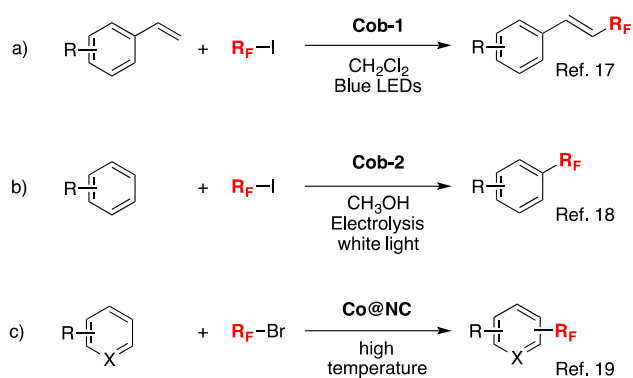
occurs in several forms called cobalamins. Among the former ones, cyanocobalamin (B₁₂, Scheme 2) is most used in vitamin supplements and pharmaceuticals. Vitamin B₁₂ has been well known as a crucial co-enzyme in many biological processes since its first isolation in 1948 and further structure characterization in 1956.¹¹ Indeed, enzymatic reactions such as dehalogenation, isomerisation, and methyl transfer are mediated by its two active coenzyme forms: methylcobalamin and 5-deoxyadenosylcobalamin and depend on the formation and cleavage of the Co–C bond. Due to its unique redox properties, vitamin B₁₂ has inspired the development of different cobalt-containing complexes utilised in organic synthesis as catalysts for Co-mediated reactions.⁸

For instance, photoredox dehalogenation reactions employing cobalamin derivatives^{12–14} have been reported, as well as cross-coupling reactions of alkyl halides with phenylacetylene and its derivatives catalysed by a cobalamin derivative with [Ir(dtbbpy)(ppy)]₂PF₆ as photocatalyst at room temperature.¹⁵ Also the acylation of alkenes employing 2-S-pyridyl thioesters as acylating agents can be conducted in the presence of porphyrin-type Co catalysts using blue LEDs irradiation.¹⁶

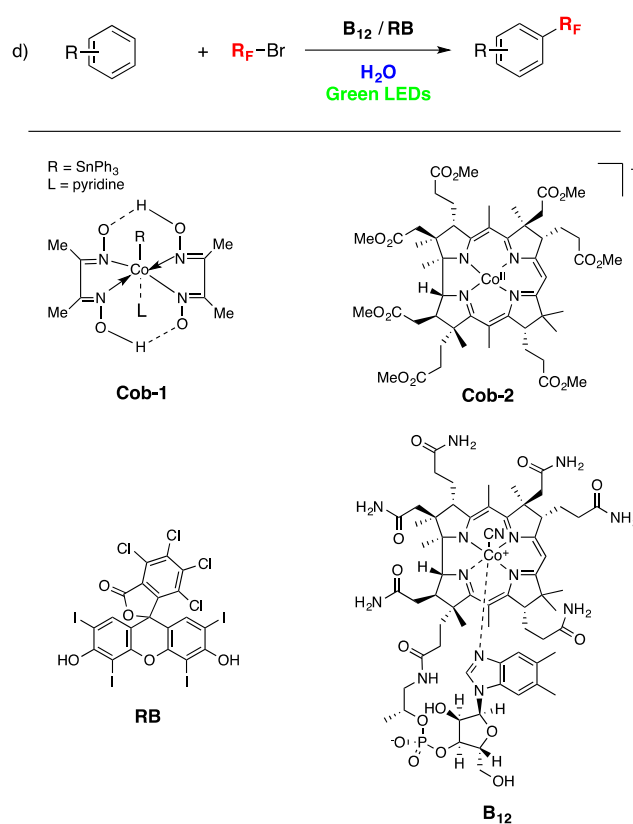
However, despite their wide-spread use as catalysts there are only a handful of Co-catalysed fluoroalkylation or fluorination reactions reported in the literature. Tang, Xu, Feng, and collaborators¹⁷ have developed the monofluoroalkylation and the perfluoroalkylation of styrene derivatives employing (triphenyltin)cobaloxime catalyst under blue LEDs irradiation in dichloromethane as a solvent; the reaction gives excellent *E*-stereoselectivity (Scheme 2a). In 2017, Ono, Hisaeda and collaborators¹⁸ have reported the electrochemical perfluoroalkylation of activated arenes and heteroarenes in organic solvents employing a vitamin B₁₂ derivative. The Co(I) species necessary to reduce the perfluoroalkyl iodides R_F-I is prepared *in-situ* by controlled-potential electrolysis of a Co(II)-containing vitamin B₁₂ derivative. Critically, the system both necessitates electrochemical and photochemical inductions and uses perfluoroalkyl iodides R_F-I as perfluoroalkylating source (Scheme 2b). In a more recent report, the use of a Co nanocatalyst in a thermally-activated (130 °C) reaction allowed the perfluoroalkylation of (hetero)arenes with perfluorohexyl bromide in neat conditions with high excess of substrates in moderate to high yields (Scheme 2c).¹⁹

On the other hand, electron-rich arenes such as aniline derivatives, have been recently substituted with perfluoroalkyl groups by ruthenium-liganded thermal catalysis,²⁰ molybdenum catalysis (Mo(CO)₆),²¹ or copper (Cu₂O) catalysis²² in organic solvents at very high temperatures. Visible light photocatalysis has been employed in the recent past as a resourceful strategy to achieve the perfluoroalkylation of anilines with Ir(*fac*-ppy)₃ as photocatalyst,²³ ruthenium photocatalysis,²⁴ or with organic dye Rose Bengal as photocatalyst.²⁵ However, all these attempts and transformations were carried out in organic solvents in homogeneous or heterogeneous mixtures and employing perfluoroalkyl iodides as fluoroalkylating reagents.

Previous work:



This work:



Scheme 2. Co-catalysed fluoroalkylation reactions

Although there are precedents in the literature of some photocatalytic fluoroalkylation reactions in water,²⁶ there are no examples of aromatic substitutions with R_F groups by photocatalysis in this medium; furthermore there are no reported examples on the use of native vitamin B₁₂ in photocatalysed (fluoro)alkylation reactions of aromatics. Consequently, the exploration of unmodified vitamin B₁₂-photocatalysed substitutions of arenes with fluoroalkyl groups in water can be considered a major improvement for achieving homolytic aromatic substitution reactions with perfluoroalkyl groups.

We herein report the first photocatalysed fluoroalkylation of electron-rich arenes (anilines and alkoxy-substituted benzene rings) with perfluoroalkyl bromides in water employing Rose Bengal as photocatalyst and unmodified vitamin B₁₂ (cyanocobalamin) as co-adjutant catalyst (Scheme 2d). To the best of our knowledge, unmodified vitamin B₁₂ has never been reported as a catalyst in (photo)catalytic substitution reactions of aromatics likely due to its poor solubility in organic solvents, nor perfluoroalkyl bromides as perfluoroalkyl radical precursors have ever been employed in photocatalysis.

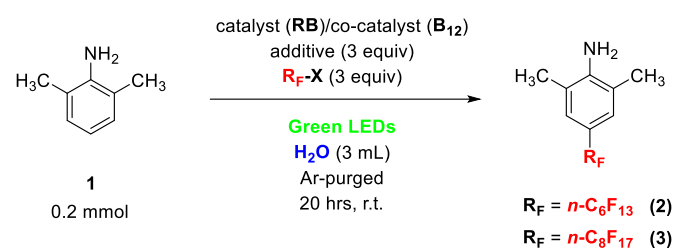
Results and discussion

To start with, we conducted a series of optimization studies employing 2,6-dimethylaniline **1** as model substrate in order to achieve the best reaction conditions (Table 1).

We commenced our investigation with the use of perfluorohexyl bromide *n*-C₆F₁₃-Br as *n*-C₆F₁₃^{*} radical source and the system RB / B₁₂ as catalyst and co-catalyst respectively, for the perfluorohexylation of 2,6-dimethylaniline **1**. Irradiation of an argon-purged water mixture of **1**, RB / B₁₂ and *n*-C₆F₁₃-Br, utilising Cs₂CO₃ as additive/electron donor with high power LEDs (λ = 525 nm, 3 Watts) led to the formation of traces of product **2** both in the presence or absence of co-catalyst B₁₂ (entries 1 and 2, Table 1). Gratifyingly, when the reaction was performed utilising *N,N,N',N'*-tetramethylethylenediamine (TMEDA) as additive/electron donor, quantitative yields of 4-perfluorohexyl-2,6-dimethylaniline **2** were obtained (entry 3, Table 1). On the other hand, only traces of **2** were formed in the absence of co-catalyst B₁₂ (entry 4, Table 1). In our previous report²⁵ we had informed the RB-photocatalysed perfluoroalkylation of aniline derivatives in MeCN as solvent utilising Cs₂CO₃ as additive/electron donor. However, TMEDA seemed to act as a better sacrificial donor in this system (cf. with ref. [25]) (entry 3, Table 1), affording quantitative yields of **2**.

The photocatalysed reactions employing other light sources (blue LEDs, λ = 450 nm, or a compact fluorescent lamp, CFL lamp) in the presence of B₁₂ and absence of photocatalyst RB did not result in any product either (Table 1, entries 12 and 13), purporting to the relevance of RB as photocatalyst and B₁₂ as co-catalyst in these perfluoroalkylation reactions. This latter result is very interesting since it rules out the formation of the reduced Co(I) species in the absence of RB as photocatalyst, that would ensue the reduction of R_F-Br.¹⁸

Table 1. Optimization of reaction conditions. Use of 2,6-dimethylaniline **1** (0.2 mmol) as substrate, perfluorohexyl bromide (3 equiv), under Ar-atmosphere in water (3 mL) as solvent, in the presence of additive (3 equiv), catalyst Rose Bengal (RB, 5 mol%) and co-catalyst B₁₂ (cyanocobalamin, 5 mol%). Reaction carried out under green LEDs irradiation with constant stirring for 20 hrs.



Entry	R _F -X	Additive	Catalyst (5 mol %) / Co-catalyst (5 mol %)	Product, yield (%)
1	<i>n</i> -C ₆ F ₁₃ -Br	Cs ₂ CO ₃	RB / B ₁₂	2 , <5
2	<i>n</i> -C ₆ F ₁₃ -Br	Cs ₂ CO ₃	RB / -	2 , <5
3	<i>n</i> -C ₆ F ₁₃ -Br	TMEDA	RB / B ₁₂	2 , >99
4	<i>n</i> -C ₆ F ₁₃ -Br	TMEDA	RB / -	2 , <5
5	<i>n</i> -C ₆ F ₁₃ -Br	-	- / -	-
6	<i>n</i> -C ₆ F ₁₃ -Br	TMEDA	- / B ₁₂	-
7	<i>n</i> -C ₆ F ₁₃ -Br	TMEDA	RB / Co (II) ^a	2 , <5
8	<i>n</i> -C ₆ F ₁₃ -Br	TMEDA	RB / B ₁₂	2 , >99 ^b
9	<i>n</i> -C ₆ F ₁₃ -Br	TMEDA	RB / B ₁₂	2 , 50 ^c
10	<i>n</i> -C ₆ F ₁₃ -Br	TMEDA	RB / B ₁₂	2 , >99 ^d
11	<i>n</i> -C ₆ F ₁₃ -Br	TMEDA	RB / B ₁₂	2 , >99 ^e
12	<i>n</i> -C ₆ F ₁₃ -Br	TMEDA	- / B ₁₂	- ^f
13	<i>n</i> -C ₆ F ₁₃ -Br	TMEDA	- / B ₁₂	- ^g
14	<i>n</i> -C ₆ F ₁₃ -Br	TMEDA	RB / B ₁₂	2 , >99 ^h
15	<i>n</i> -C ₆ F ₁₃ -Br	TMEDA	RB / B ₁₂	2 , >99 ⁱ
16	<i>n</i> -C ₆ F ₁₃ -Br	TMEDA	RB / B ₁₂	2 , >99 ^j
17	Enflurane ^k	TMEDA	RB / B ₁₂	-
18	<i>n</i> -C ₆ F ₁₃ -I	TMEDA	RB / B ₁₂	2 , 95
19	<i>n</i> -C ₈ F ₁₇ -Br	TMEDA	RB / B ₁₂	3 , >99
20	<i>n</i> -C ₈ F ₁₇ -I	TMEDA	RB / B ₁₂	3 , 95

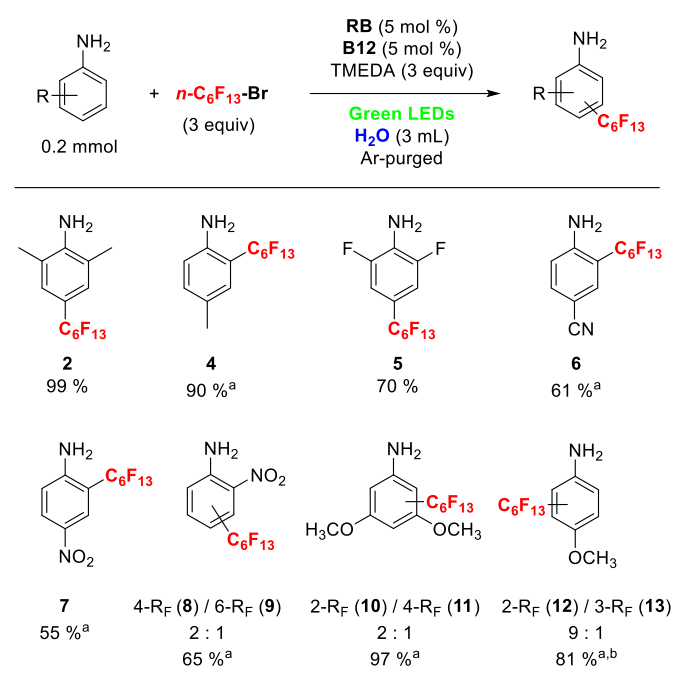
^a CoCl₂.6H₂O used as Co-catalyst. ^b Without argon purging. ^c Without stirring. ^d The *n*-C₆F₁₃-Br was previously purged with argon (see ESI). ^e Reaction performed in oxygen-saturated solution. ^f Blue LED (λ = 430 nm) as light source. ^g 40 W CFL bulb as light source. ^h Reaction perform in MeCN as reaction solvent. ⁱ Reaction perform in MeCN: H₂O (1:1) as reaction solvent. ^j The co-photocatalyst used is hydroxycobalamin. ^k Reaction using 2-chloro-1-(difluoromethoxy)-1,1,2-trifluoroethane as perfluoroalkylating reagent.

As expected, the absence of photocatalyst and co-catalyst did not afford product **2** (entries 5 and 6, Table 1). The use of CoCl₂ as co-catalyst, did not yield product either (entry 7, Table 1). Surprisingly, the reactions in the presence of air or oxygen-saturated solutions led to product **2** in quantitative yield (entries 8 and 11, Table 1, (the solubility of oxygen in water is 1.34 × 10⁻³ M at 22 °C).

When hydroxycobalamin (an analogue of vitamin B₁₂ cyanocobalamin) was used as co-catalyst, a quantitative yield of product **2** was obtained (entry 16, Table 1).

Attempts at using 2-chloro-1-(difluoromethoxy)-1,1,2-trifluoroethane as fluoroalkyl chloride in the fluoroalkylation of 2,6-dimethylaniline **1** under the standard reaction conditions

Table 2. Scope of the photocatalysed (RB / B12) perfluoroheptylation reaction of anilines (0.2 mmol) in the presence of TMEDA (3 equiv) in Ar-purged water under green LEDs irradiation. Reaction time: 20 hrs under constant stirring at room temperature.



^a Water : Acetonitrile (1:1) used as solvent. ^b 1 equiv of *n*-C₆F₁₃-Br

failed, as the corresponding product was not observed (entry 17, table 1), probably due to the much stronger BDE of R_F-Cl as compared to R_F-Br. On the other hand, when employing 1-iodotridecafluorohexane as *n*-C₆F₁₃^{*} radical source product **2** was obtained in 95% yield (entry 18, Table 1).

Gratifyingly, the reaction also performed well when employing *n*-C₈F₁₇-Br and *n*-C₈F₁₇-I as fluoroalkyl radical sources affording excellent yields of 4-perfluorooctyl-2,6-dimethylaniline **3** (entries 19 and 20, Table 1).

With the optimized reaction conditions in hand, we undertook the fluoroalkylation of aniline derivatives in water photocatalysed by the system Rose Bengal / B12, according to Table 2.

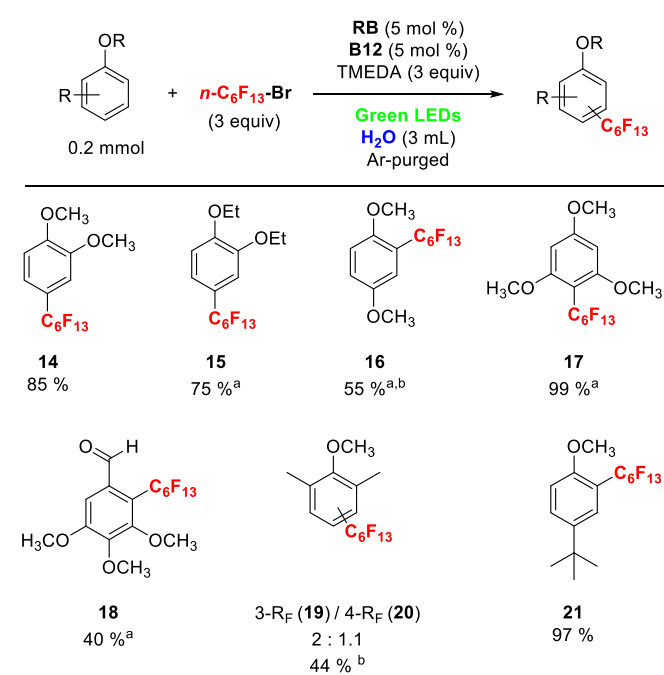
From Table 2, it is observed that under the reaction conditions studied 2,6-dimethylaniline **1** afforded excellent quantitative yields of product **2**. Gratifyingly, 4-methylaniline rendered 90% yield of product **4** (i.e.: 2-perfluoroheptyl-4-methyl-aniline). The reactions of 4-methylaniline as well as all other solid substrates were performed in a water : acetonitrile (1:1) solvent mixture in order to solubilize the solid substrates and maximize product yields.

Encouraged by the results obtained for the perfluoroheptylation of 2,6-dimethylaniline and 4-methylaniline we deemed proper to test our system employing aniline substrates substituted with electron-withdrawing groups. When 2,6-difluoroaniline was used, a 70% yield of 4-perfluoroheptyl-2,6-difluoroaniline **5** was obtained. 4-Aminobenzonitrile afforded a 61% yield of 4-amino-3-(perfluoroheptyl)benzonitrile **6**. When 4-nitroaniline was employed as substrate a 55% yield of 2-perfluoroheptyl-4-

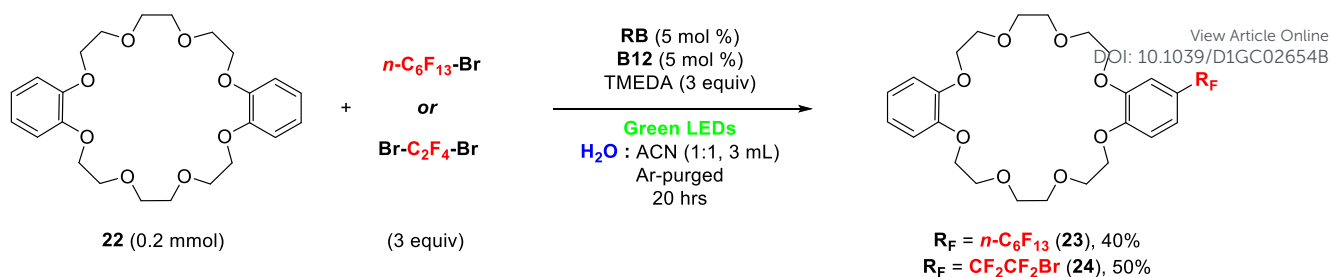
nitroaniline **7** was obtained. 2-Nitroaniline provided a 65% combined product yield of 4-perfluoroheptyl-2-nitroaniline **8** and 6-perfluoroheptyl-2-nitroaniline **9** in a 2 : 1 ratio. The results obtained with the nitro-substituted anilines represent a major improvement when compared with the protocols available in the literature. For instance, in a previous publication²⁵ employing *n*-C₄F₉-I as R_F source, RB as photocatalyst, Cs₂CO₃ as sacrificial donor, in acetonitrile as solvent and upon visible light illumination, 4-nitroaniline failed to react completely and 2-nitroaniline afforded only a 5% yield of 6-perfluorobutyl-2-nitroaniline. This notorious increase in product yields from the 2-nitro- and 4-nitroaniline substrates obtained with the current methodology as opposed to the reactions carried out in acetonitrile as solvent²⁵ reflects on the relevance of water as reaction medium in the photocatalytic process.

As expected, electron rich 3,5-dimethoxyaniline reacted successfully providing a 97% combined product yield of 2-perfluoroheptyl-3,5-dimethoxyaniline **10** and 4-perfluoroheptyl-3,5-dimethoxyaniline **11** in a 2 : 1 ratio. When 4-methoxyaniline was employed as substrate an 81% combined yield of 2-perfluoroheptyl-4-methoxyaniline **12** and 3-perfluoroheptyl-4-methoxyaniline **13** was obtained, in a 9 : 1 ratio.²⁵ This particular result made us consider the possibility of all-alkoxy-substituted arenes as candidate substrates in the context of this novel reaction system. Encouraged by the results obtained with the aniline derivatives we then undertook the photocatalysed perfluoroalkylation of methoxy-substituted arenes under the optimized reaction conditions, according to Table 3.

Table 3. Scope of the photocatalysed (RB / B12) perfluoroheptylation reaction of alkoxy-substituted benzenes (0.2 mmol) in the presence of TMEDA (3 equiv) in argon purged water under green LEDs irradiation. Reaction time: 20 hrs under constant stirring at room temperature.



^a Water : acetonitrile (1:1) used as solvent. ^b 0.6 mmol of substrate and 1 equiv of *n*-C₆F₁₃-Br



Scheme 3. Late-stage perfluorohexylation of dibenzo-24-crown-8 (**22**)

When 1,2-dimethoxybenzene was used as substrate under the standard reaction conditions (Table 3), an 85% yield of 4-perfluorohexyl-1,2-dimethoxybenzene **14** was obtained. 1,2-Diethoxybenzene afforded 75% yield of 4-perfluorohexyl-1,2-diethoxybenzene **15**. 1,4-Dimethoxybenzene afforded 55% yield of 2-perfluorohexyl-1,4-dimethoxybenzene **16**.

When 1,3,5-trimethoxybenzene was used as substrate under the standard reaction conditions, a 99% yield of 2-perfluorohexyl-1,3,5-trimethoxybenzene **17** was obtained. 3,4,5-Trimethoxybenzaldehyde afforded a 40% yield of 2-perfluorohexyl-3,4,5-trimethoxybenzaldehyde **18**.

2,6-dimethylanisole afforded a 44% combined yield of 3-perfluorohexyl-2,6-dimethylanisole **19** and 4-perfluorohexyl-2,6-dimethylanisole **20** in a 2 : 1.1 ratio. Products **19** and **20** were both identified as a mixture (see ESI).

Under the standard reaction conditions (Table 3), 1,4-dimethoxybenzene and 2,6-dimethylanisole afforded disubstitution products. However, altering the reaction stoichiometry (0.6 mmol of substrate and 1 equivalent of $n\text{-C}_6\text{F}_{13}\text{-Br}$) only monosubstituted products from 1,4-dimethoxybenzene (product **16**) and 2,6-dimethylanisole (products **19** and **20**) were obtained, thus avoiding disubstitution (entry b, Table 3).

4-*Tert*-butylanisole, according to the reaction conditions, afforded 97% yield of 2-perfluorohexyl-4-*tert*-butylanisole **21**.

The utility of the methodology described is further highlighted by the late-stage fluoroalkylation of dibenzo-24-crown-8 (**22**), as shown in Scheme 3. These results proved that this photocatalytic system is applicable as a simple and rapid means to access functionalized crown ethers, which represent one of the most exploited class of macrocycles for the development of supramolecular and interlocked architectures.²⁷ Under optimized reaction conditions and employing $n\text{-C}_6\text{F}_{13}\text{-Br}$ as fluoroalkyl radical source, a 40 % yield of the mono-perfluorohexylated dibenzo-24-crown-8 (**23**) was obtained with minimal purification efforts. Gratifyingly, when 1,2-dibromotetrafluoroethane was assessed as fluoroalkyl radical source and under optimized reaction conditions, a 50% yield of mono-2-bromo-1,1,2,2-tetrafluoroethylated dibenzo-24-crown-8 (**24**) was obtained.

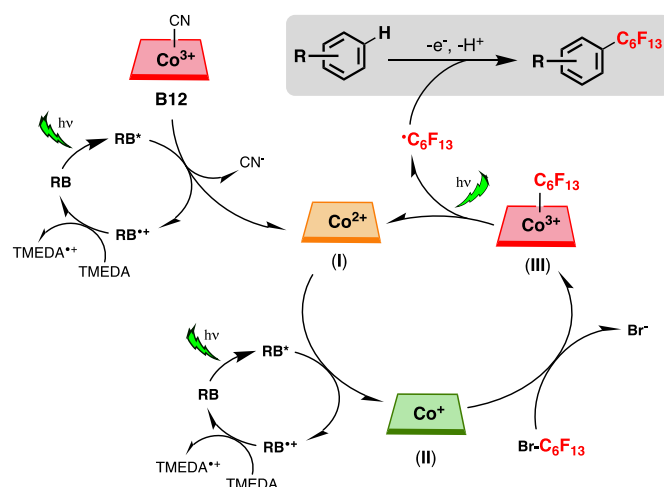
In order to estimate the greenness of the photocatalytic methodology in water herein presented, Sheldon's E-Factor (EF)²⁸ and complete E-Factor (cEF)²⁹ were both calculated for the perfluorohexylation of 2,6-xylylene (**1**) and compared with those obtained applying an alternative methodology²⁵ previously published by some of us (see ESI for details). Satisfyingly, an EF of 7.7 and a cEF of 83.4 were obtained

applying the methodology reported in this work as opposed to an EF of 20.1 and a cEF of 290.0 calculated for the previously reported protocol²⁵ in acetonitrile as solvent.

To throw some light into the reaction mechanism a radical inhibition experiment with TEMPO (2,2,6,6-tetramethyl-1-piperidinyloxy), a well-known radical scavenger, was performed. Under standard conditions employing **1** as substrate in the presence of TEMPO (3 equiv), product **2** formation was completely suppressed and a TEMPO- C_6F_{13} adduct was detected by ¹⁹F-NMR (see ESI for details). This result strongly supports the operation of a radical pathway in the reaction mechanism and demonstrates the presence of $n\text{-C}_6\text{F}_{13}^{\bullet}$ radicals in the catalytic cycle.

We also undertook steady-state UV-vis absorption spectra studies of aqueous solutions containing Rose Bengal, B12 and TMEDA before and after green LEDs irradiation under Ar atmosphere. It was pleasing to observe that upon irradiation the characteristic absorption bands of B12 disappeared along with appearance of distinctive cob(II)alamin bands³⁰ (see ESI for details).

According to the investigations performed and the information available in the literature,^{8,31} a plausible reaction mechanism is proposed in Scheme 4. Initially, B12 undergoes one electron reduction promoted by a RB oxidative photocatalytic cycle affording, upon cyanide loss, cob(II)alamin (I, Scheme 4); this one-electron reduction process has been extensively studied by means of pulse radiolysis techniques in aqueous solutions by Blackburn and collaborators.³⁰ The aforementioned proposal is also in agreement with the results obtained from the fluorescence quenching of RB upon addition



Scheme 4. Proposed reaction mechanism

of B12; a Stern–Volmer quenching rate constant of $1.77 \times 10^4 \text{ M}^{-1}$ was obtained which indeed confirms the ET step under our reaction conditions (see ESI for details). Also, as observed from Table 1 (entries 12 and 13) the photocatalysed reactions employing $\text{R}_F\text{-Br}$ as fluoroalkylating agent in the presence of B12 and absence of photocatalyst RB did not render any product, indicating that no reduced Co(I) species can be formed in the absence of RB as photocatalyst, supporting the RB-oxidative electron transfer to Co species.¹⁸

The reaction pathway continues with further reduction of cob(II)alamin³⁰ (I, Scheme 4) by an additional RB oxidative photocatalytic cycle to afford cob(I)alamin (II, Scheme 4) that rapidly reacts with $n\text{-C}_6\text{F}_{13}\text{Br}$ providing the Co(III)- C_6F_{13} complex (III, Scheme 4) and a bromide anion. The Co(III)- C_6F_{13} complex (III, Scheme 4) upon light irradiation¹⁸ releases a $n\text{-C}_6\text{F}_{13}^{\bullet}$ radical and regenerates the cob(II)alamin (I, Scheme 4), completing the cobalt mediated co-catalytic cycle. The $n\text{-C}_6\text{F}_{13}^{\bullet}$ radical formed reacts with the arene via a homolytic aromatic substitution mechanism²⁵ affording the perfluorohexylated reaction product. Part of the reaction success is due to the excellent stability of RB in the reaction media, allowing the electron transfer process from the electron donor TMEDA to the ultimate electron acceptor $n\text{-C}_6\text{F}_{13}\text{Br}$ with the aid of B12. This whole electron transfer process can be understood as a simplified biomimetic model of long-range electron transfer within vitamin B12-dependent reductive dehalogenases, which serve as terminal reductases in organohalide-respiring bacteria.³²

Conclusions

The methodology described in this paper enables fluoroalkylation reactions in water of electron rich arenes by the dyad RB / B12 as catalyst and co-catalyst, respectively. The use of B12 is amply justified to produce fluoroalkyl radicals from perfluoroalkyl bromides, since in its absence, the reaction does not render any product. The role of RB catalyst in the perfluoroalkylation of electron-rich arenes in water with perfluoroalkyl bromides is to produce the super-nucleophilic Co(I) species that effects the very reduction of perfluoroalkyl bromides to perfluoroalkyl radicals, in oxidative photoredox cycles. The method is shown to be superior to other reported photocatalytic perfluoroalkylation strategies when employing substrates with electron-attracting groups such as nitro, where moderate-to-good yields of perfluoroalkylated products are obtained. This methodology allowed the synthesis and characterization of 15 new fluorinated products. In summary, we have developed the first photocatalysed fluoroalkylation reaction of arenes in a heterogeneous water system, that employs perfluoroalkyl bromides as fluoroalkyl radical precursors. Native non-modified vitamin B12 has been employed for the first time in fluoroalkylation reactions, as an activation mode that emulates Nature's biological chemistry.

Author contributions

DEY performed the experiments. AP, MB and SBV wrote the paper. All authors participated in conceptualization, analysed the data, discussed the results, and commented on the manuscript.

Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts to declare.

Acknowledgments

DEY thanks a post-doctoral scholarship to Consejo Nacional de Investigaciones Científicas y Técnicas (CONICET). AP and SBV are research members of CONICET. The following financial agencies are acknowledged: CONICET, UBA-SeCyT, and ANPCyT.

References

- 1 P. Kirsch, *Modern Fluoroorganic Chemistry*, Wiley, 2004.
- 2 S. Barata-Vallejo, M. V. Cooke and A. Postigo, *ACS Catal.*, 2018, **8**, 7287–7307.
- 3 M. Hapke and G. Hilt, *Cobalt Catalysis in Organic Synthesis*, Wiley, 2020.
- 4 M. Moselage, J. Li and L. Ackermann, *ACS Catal.*, 2016, **6**, 498–525.
- 5 G. Cahiez and A. Moyeux, *Chem. Rev.*, 2010, **110**, 1435–1462.
- 6 C. Gosmini, J. M. Bégouin and A. Moncomble, *Chem. Commun.*, 2008, 3221–3233.
- 7 G. Pattenden, *Chem. Soc. Rev.*, 1988, **17**, 361–382.
- 8 M. Giedyk, K. Goliszewska and D. Gryko, *Chem. Soc. Rev.*, 2015, **44**, 3391–3404.
- 9 M. Ociepa and D. Gryko, in *Cobalt Catalysis in Organic Synthesis*, Wiley, 2020, pp. 417–451.
- 10 M. Kojima and S. Matsunaga, *Trends Chem.*, 2020, **2**, 410–426.
- 11 D. C. Hodgkin, J. Kamper, M. MacKay, J. Pickworth, K. N. Trueblood and J. G. White, *Nature*, 1956, **178**, 64–66.
- 12 K. Tahara and Y. Hisaeda, *Green Chem.*, 2011, **13**, 558–561.
- 13 H. Shimakoshi, M. Tokunaga, T. Baba and Y. Hisaeda, *Chem. Commun.*, 2004, 1806–1807.
- 14 H. Tian, H. Shimakoshi, K. Imamura, Y. Shiota, K. Yoshizawa and Y. Hisaeda, *Chem. Commun.*, 2017, **53**, 9478–9481.
- 15 L. Chen, Y. Kametani, K. Imamura, T. Abe, Y. Shiota, K. Yoshizawa, Y. Hisaeda and H. Shimakoshi, *Chem. Commun.*, 2019, **55**, 13070–13073.
- 16 M. Ociepa, O. Baka, J. Narodowicz and D. Gryko, *Adv. Synth. Catal.*, 2017, **359**, 3560–3565.
- 17 W. K. Tang, Z. W. Xu, J. Xu, F. Tang, X. X. Li, J. J. Dai, H. J. Xu and Y. S. Feng, *Org. Lett.*, 2019, **21**, 196–200.
- 18 M. J. Hossain, T. Ono, K. Wakiya and Y. Hisaeda, *Chem. Commun.*, 2017, **53**, 10878–10881.
- 19 S. Zhang, F. Weniger, C. R. Kreyenschulte, H. Lund, S. Bartling, H. Neumann, S. Ellinger, C. Taeschler and M. Beller, *Catal. Sci. Technol.*, 2020, **10**, 1731–1738.
- 20 Y. Li, H. Neumann and M. Beller, *Chem. - A Eur. J.*, 2020, **26**, 6784–6788.
- 21 C. Yuan, P. Dai, X. Bao and Y. Zhao, *Org. Lett.*, 2019, **21**, 6481–6484.
- 22 M. Moreno-Mañas, R. Pleixats and S. Villarroja, *Synlett*, 1999, 1996–1998.
- 23 C. Y. He, J. W. Gu and X. Zhang, *Tetrahedron Lett.*, 2017, **58**, 3939–3941.
- 24 J. Kong, J. Jiang, Y. Huang, Y. G. Lou, X. F. Li and C. Y. He, *Asian J. Org. Chem.*, 2017, **6**, 1737–1740.

- 25 S. Barata-Vallejo, D. E. Yerien and A. Postigo, *European J. Org. Chem.*, 2015, 7869–7875.
- 26 H. X. Song, Q. Y. Han, C. L. Zhao and C. P. Zhang, *Green Chem.*, 2018, **20**, 1662–1731.
- 27 F. Nicoli, M. Baroncini, S. Silvi, J. Groppi and A. Credi, *Org. Chem. Front.*, DOI:10.1039/D1QO00699A.
- 28 R. A. Sheldon, *Green Chem.*, 2007, **9**, 1273–1283.
- 29 R. A. Sheldon, *Green Chem.*, 2017, **19**, 18–43.
- 30 R. Blackburn, A. Y. Erkol, G. O. Phillips and A. J. Swallow, *J. Chem. Soc. Faraday Trans. 1 Phys. Chem. Condens. Phases*, 1974, **70**, 1693–1701.
- 31 Y. Hisaeda, K. Tahara, H. Shimakoshi and T. Masuko, *Pure Appl. Chem.*, 2013, **85**, 1415–1426.
- 32 C. Kunze, M. Bommer, W. R. Hagen, M. Uksa, H. Dobbek, T. Schubert and G. Diekert, *Nat. Commun.*, 2017, **8**, 1–11.

View Article Online
DOI: 10.1039/D1GC02654B