

Visible Light-Gated Cobalt Catalysis for a Spatially and Temporally Resolved [2+2+2] Cycloaddition

Kyle E. Ruhl^{†,‡} and Tomislav Rovis^{*,†,‡,§}®

[†]Department of Chemistry, Colorado State University, Fort Collins, Colorado 80523, United States

 $^{
m \ddagger}$ Department of Chemistry, Columbia University, New York, New York 10027, United States

Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: The ability to exert spatial and temporal control over a transition-metal catalyst offers diverse opportunities for the fabrication of functional materials. Using an external stimulus such as visible light to toggle a catalyst between an active and dormant state has proven to be an effective approach for controlled, radical methodologies. Outside of radical bond formation, there is a dearth of evidence that suggests traditional transition metal catalysis can similarly be controlled with visible light energy. Many cobalt complexes that catalyze the [2+2+2] cycloaddition are assisted by UV photolysis, but strict photocontrolled methods are unattainable due to high levels of thermally driven reactivity. Herein, we disclose the first light-controlled, cobalt-catalyzed [2+2+2] cycloaddition via a dual cobalt and photoredox catalyst manifold. We demonstrate the power of this method with a spatially and temporally resolved technique for arene formation using photolithography.

T he need for increased control of catalyst activity for materials and biological applications has underscored the importance of spatially and temporally resolved transformations. This level of control is generally obtained by using an external stimulus to start or stop a catalytic reaction.^{1,2} By far the most ideal external stimulus is visible light, easy to handle and deliver spatially, inexpensive and widely accessible. The use of light to activate or inactivate a catalyst is referred to as light-gated catalysis, and represents a powerful approach to afford exquisite control over several transformations.^{3,4}

Forty years of cobalt catalysis literature has illustrated the synthetic utility of these catalysts in assembling arenes via [2+2+2] cycloadditions. The typical precatalysts used in these transformations such as $Co_2(CO)_8$ and $CpCo(CO)_2$, when irradiated with ultraviolet light, catalyze the [2+2+2] cycloaddition reaction at an accelerated rate.⁵ Although photodissociation of the labile CO ligand assists reactivity, thermal ligand dissociation is a competitive pathway which prevents a purely light-controlled reaction. A viable alternative to carbonyl-based precatalysts uses in situ reduction of phosphine-based Co(II) complexes with low-valent metals but affords little opportunity for external regulation.⁶ Indeed, examination of the relevant literature reveals that there are no light-gated catalysts for the vast majority of common organic transformations.^{37,8}

Photocaged metal catalysis involves uncaging and irreversible release of an active catalyst (Figure 1a). Light-gated catalysis

utilizes complexes that are active in the presence of light and inactive when the light source is removed (Figure 1b).⁹ This is the situation with photoredox catalysis, with the caveat that recent evidence suggests some extent of initiation behavior with these catalysts but with short lifetimes.¹⁰ Extending this control to new, nonradical bond constructions would greatly expand our ability to use diverse catalyst methods in myriad applications (Figure 1c).¹¹

We began our studies by examining [2+2+2] cycloadditions of three unsaturated coupling partners using earth-abundant Co(II) salts as precatalysts. High oxidation state Co is typically reduced in situ with (super)stoichiometric metal additives in an uncontrolled manner. We speculated that a photoredox catalyst and a sacrificial organic reductant would lead to the controlled formation of a catalytically active species. Voltammetry studies (see SI, Table S1) of phosphine-based cobalt complexes [CoX₂· $(PR_3)_2$ indicated many undergo a quasi-reversible reduction event at potentials ranging from -0.60 to -1.04 V versus Ag/ AgCl. Measurements also indicate $CoBr_2 \cdot (PCy_3)_2$ displays the highest ability to effectively stabilize low-valent cobalt with reduction events as -1.04 V [Co^{II}/Co^I] and -1.39 V [Co^I/Co⁰] versus Ag/AgCl. With this knowledge, we envisioned that a reductive quench of the photocatalyst excited state $\mathrm{Ir}^{\mathrm{III}*}$ with sacrificial amine would furnish the reduced Ir^{II} species $(E_{1/2}[Ir^{III}/$ Ir^{II}]= -1.30 V vs Ag/AgCl).¹² Reduction of $CoBr_2 \cdot (PCy_3)_2$ by $\mathrm{Ir}^{\mathrm{II}}$ would be thermodynamically favored to generate an active low-valent cobalt catalyst.

To test this hypothesis and intercept an active cobalt(II) species for arene formation, we first screened reaction conditions for the [2+2+2] cycloaddition of diyne 1 and phenylacetylene 2. In the presence of $[Ir(dF-CF_3ppy)_2(dtbbpy)]PF_6$ and substoichiometric amounts of sacrificial reductant diisopropylethylamine (DIPEA), the complex $CoCl_2 \cdot (PCy_3)_2$ delivers arene product 2 in 74% yield (Figure 2A, entry 1). Exclusion of light or photocatalyst results in little to no conversion (Figure 2A, entries 2, 3) but removal of the amine reductant only diminishes reaction efficiency, still providing 3 in 43% yield. In the absence of sacrificial amine reductant, tricyclohexylphosphine ($E_{1/2}$ = +0.89 V vs Ag/AgCl) likely serves as a reductant for $\mathrm{Ir}^{\mathrm{III}*}$ which decreases the effective ligand concentration (Figure 2A, entry 4). Notably, heating the reaction in the absence of light also does not provide product (Figure 2A, entry 5). Although several cobalt precatalysts furnish product (Figure 2A, entry 6, 7), the highest

Received: August 22, 2016



Figure 1. (a) Light initiation of photocaged catalysis typically involves releasing the caged catalyst. (b) Light-gated catalysis leads to a catalyst being on under light irradiation and off once the light source is removed. (c) Light-gated process allows control of catalysis to specific times and spaces.



Figure 2. (A) Reaction optimization. Standard conditions: 0.20 mmol diyne, 0.35 mmol alkyne, 0.1 M MeCN. Yield determined by HPLC analysis using an internal standard. (B) Reaction scope. Reaction scope under conditions in entry 8, unless otherwise stated. (a) Photocatalyst removed. (b) Reaction heated to 80 °C. (c) 5% $CoBr_2(PEt_3)_2$, (d) DCE as solvent. (e) 50 °C. (f) 1:1 dr.

yield of 92% is obtained with $CoBr_2 \cdot (PCy_3)_2$ using a standard 14 W CFL bulb (Figure 2A, entry 8).

To examine further the impact of light we conducted experiments under alternating periods of irradiation and darkness. The parent precatalyst $CoBr_2 \cdot (PCy_3)_2$ shows a distinct response to light (controlled beyond initiation), which allows

precise temporal control over the entire reaction period (Figure 3). Initial irradiation affords product in 27% yield, but removing the light source quickly stops catalysis. Reactivity is easily restored with a second period of irradiation and the reaction proceeds to give a high yield of arene product. Furthermore, the precatalysts $CoCl_2$ ·(PEt₃)₂ and $CoBr_2$ ·(dppp) both deliver



Figure 3. (A) Ligand effect on catalysis. (B) Attempt at thermal restoration of catalysis.



Figure 4. (a) Light-gated spatial control of photolithographic modification of polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS). (b) Magnified fluorescence images of functionalized material with binary masks. (c) Gradient scale photomasks suggest increased light exposure gives rise to increased level of functional density on the PDMS surface. Plot shows average fluorescence as a function of distance, left to right.

product albeit in low yield. In contrast to CoBr_2 ·(PCy₃)₂, the precatalysts form arene product during periods of darkness which offers no external regulation beyond initiation.

Elevated temperatures are inefficient at restoring active catalyst in the absence of light. Subjecting an arrested reaction to 80 °C results in a modest increase in reactivity but the reaction stalls.¹³ Exposure of a cooled solution to ambient light results in complete restoration of reactivity (Figure 3B). After finding this unique ligand effect and its impact on reaction control, we began to explore the utility of light-gated arene formation.

One leading method to construct arene-rich materials uses arene radicals generated by the reduction of aryl diazonium salts.¹⁴ Although the high reactivity of arene radicals offers many opportunities for bond formation, it consequently leads to undesired side reactions. In most examples, diazonium salt reduction lacks spatial resolution and requires specialized equipment.¹⁵ Similarly, etching material from a uniform selfassembled monolayer can also be done with AFM or X-ray technology.¹⁶ We envisioned using photolithographic techniques to control arene formation spatially via light-controlled cobalt catalysis.

We chose polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS)¹⁷ as a support and began our studies with the installation of a diyne-bearing trichlorosilane to provide an alkyne-rich PDMS substrate. This functionalized PDMS is then treated with a solution containing precatalyst, photocatalyst, alkyne and reductant. The solution is liberally pipetted onto the PDMS substrate and a photomask is placed in direct contact. A blue LED is then used to irradiate the solution (Figure 4A). After irradiation, the PDMS is transferred to a solution of THF where excess reagents are removed from the PDMS with successive washes. Imaging the PDMS surface with a fluorescence microscope reveals the [2+2+2] cycloaddition occurs with excellent spatial resolution (Figure 4B). Control experiments in the absence of alkyne functionalization or cobalt precatalyst indicate little to no background fluorescence (see Supporting Information, Figure S2). In addition to binary photolithography, we wanted to further explore the reaction control at the surface through grayscale printing. Reports from Hawker and co-workers demonstrate that the functional density of ATRP is directly proportional to the amount of light exposure.^{18a-c} Indeed, conducting the spatially resolved [2+2+2] cycloaddition with a grayscale mask suggests the extent of arene functionalization on the surface correlates with the amount of light exposure (Figure 4C).

The most surprising aspect is the role that light and photocatalyst play in regulating catalysis. We propose, thus, that the Ir photocatalyst plays two distinct roles. Confirmed by electrochemical measurements, the photocatalyst acts as a reductant to deliver a catalytically active low valent cobalt species (*i*, Scheme 1).^{19–21} Cyclic voltammetry (CV) studies in the presence of diyne substrate suggest oxidative cyclization occurs favorably at Co(0) to deliver a cobaltacyclopentadiene

Scheme 1. Proposed Mechanism



observed by CV (*ii*, Scheme 1). After an oxidation²² of *ii* by the photocatalyst excited state to the octahedral intermediate *iii*, alkyne coordination provides intermediate *iv*.²³ Insertion and subsequent reductive elimination from v generates a Co(I) species which is reduced to the active cobalt(0) species by the Ir^{II} reduced state.²⁴ Thus, the unique features inherent to photoredox catalysis allow the mechanism to access every oxidation step at Co between 0 and 3.

In conclusion, we have identified a cobalt catalyst that enables light-controlled arene assembly using visible light as the external stimulus. This photochemically gated process provides unique opportunities for external regulation of catalysis, illustrated with the photolithographic patterning of PDMS.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the ACS Publications website at DOI: 10.1021/jacs.6b08792.

Procedures and compound characterization (PDF)

AUTHOR INFORMATION

Corresponding Author

*tr2504@columbia.edu

ORCID[©]

Tomislav Rovis: 0000-0001-6287-8669

Present Address

[§]Department of Chemistry, Columbia University, New York, New York 10027, United States

Funding

NSFCHE-1339674.

Notes

The authors declare the following competing financial interest(s): A provisional patent has been filed on this technology.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This research was conducted in connection with the Catalysis Collaboratory for Light-activated Earth Abundant Reagents (C-CLEAR), which is supported by the National Science Foundation and the Environmental Protection Agency through the Network for Sustainable Molecular Design and Synthesis program (NSFCHE-1339674). We thank Rachel Feeney and Charles S. Henry (CSU) for technical assistance and Travis Bailey (CSU) for access to instrumentation.

REFERENCES

(1) (a) Treat, N. J.; Fors, B. P.; Kramer, J. W.; Christianson, M.; Chiu, C.-Y.; Read de Alaniz, J.; Hawker, C. J. ACS Macro Lett. **2014**, 3, 580– 584. (b) Theriot, J. C.; Lim, C.-H.; Yang, H.; Ryan, M. D.; Musgrave, C. B.; Miyake, G. M. Science **2016**, 352, 1082–1086. (c) Dadashi-Silab, S.; Tasdelen, M. A.; Yagci, Y. J. Polym. Sci., Part A: Polym. Chem. **2014**, 52, 2878–2888. (d) Perkowski, A. J.; You, W.; Nicewicz, D. A. J. Am. Chem. Soc. **2015**, 137, 7580–7583.

(2) Leibfarth, F. A.; Mattson, K. M.; Fors, B. P.; Collins, H. A.; Hawker, C. J. Angew. Chem., Int. Ed. **2013**, *52*, 199–210.

(3) Stoll, R. S.; Hecht, S. Angew. Chem., Int. Ed. 2010, 49, 5054-5075.
(4) (a) Blanco, V.; Leigh, D. A.; Marcos, V. Chem. Soc. Rev. 2015, 44, 5341-5370.
(b) Neilson, B. M.; Bielawski, C. W. ACS Catal. 2013, 3, 1874-1885.
(c) Teator, A. J.; Lastovickova, D. N.; Bielawski, C. W. Chem. Rev. 2016, 116, 1969-1992.
(e) Shanmugam, S.; Xu, J.; Boyer, C. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 2015, 137, 9174-9185.
(d) Trotta, J. T.; Fors, B. P. Synlett 2016, 27, 702-713.

(5) (a) Agenet, N.; Buisine, O.; Slowinski, F.; Gandon, V.; Aubert, C.; Malacria, M. Org. *React.* **2007**, *68*, 1–302. (b) Vollhardt, K. P. C. *Angew. Chem., Int. Ed. Engl.* **1984**, *23*, 539–556. (c) Gandon, V.; Aubert, C.; Malacria, M. *Chem. Commun.* **2006**, 2209–2217.

(6) (a) Gandeepan, P.; Cheng, C.-H. *Acc. Chem. Res.* **2015**, *48*, 1194–1206. (b) Slowinski, F.; Aubert, C.; Malacria, M. *Adv. Synth. Catal.* **2001**, 343, 64–67.

(7) Prier, C. K.; Rankic, D. A.; MacMillan, D. W. C. Chem. Rev. 2013, 113, 5322-5363.

(8) (a) Tellis, J. C.; Primer, D. N.; Molander, G. A. *Science* **2014**, *345*, 433–436. (b) Zuo, Z.; Ahneman, D.; Chu, L.; Terrett, J.; Doyle, A. G.; MacMillan, D. W. C. *Science* **2014**, *345*, 437–440. (c) Terrett, J. A.; Cuthbertson, J. D.; Shurtleff, V. W.; MacMillan, D. W. C. *Nature* **2015**, *524*, 330–334.

(9) Hecht (ref 3) loosely defines light-gated catalysis to include photocaged and photoswitchable catalysis, the latter presumably requiring a light-stimulus to achieve both on and off states. We prefer to borrow the definition of light-gated as used in the ion-channel literature which states that the channel (or catalyst) is open or on with light and off or closed in its absence. It specifically excludes photocaged examples from the definition; see: Banghart, M. R.; Volgraf, M.; Trauner, D. *Biochemistry* **2006**, *45*, 15129–15141.

(10) Cismesia, M. A.; Yoon, T. P. Chem. Sci. 2015, 6, 5426-5434.

(11) For examples of spatially and temporally controlled transition metal catalysis, see: (a) Davis, J. J.; Bagshaw, C. B.; Busuttil, K. L.; Hanyu, Y.; Coleman, K. S. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 2006, 128, 14135–14141.
(b) Buchner, M. R.; Bechlars, B.; Ruhland, K. J. Organomet. Chem. 2013, 744, 60–67.

(12) Roth, H. G.; Romero, N. A.; Nicewicz, D. A. Synlett 2016, 27, 714–723.

(13) We interpret the modest increase in catalytic activity as a thermal disproportionation of inactive Co catalyst (likely Co(I) to Co(II) and Co(0)).

(14) Aryl diazonium salts. In *New coupling agents in polymer and surface science;* Chehimi, M. M., Ed.; Wiley-VCH: Weinheim, 2012.

(15) Kirkman, P. M.; Güell, A. G.; Cuharuc, A. S.; Unwin, P. R. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 2014, 136, 36–39.

(16) Koh, S.-J. Nanoscale Res. Lett. 2007, 2, 519-545.

(17) (a) Miller, P. J.; Matyjaszewski, K. *Macromolecules* **1999**, *32*, 8760–8767. (b) Semsarzadeh, M. A.; Abdollahi, M. J. Appl. Polym. Sci. **2013**, *123*, 2423–2430.

(18) (a) Fors, B. P.; Poelma, J. E.; Menyo, M. S.; Robb, M. J.; Spokoyny, D. M.; Kramer, J. W.; Waite, J. H.; Hawker, C. J. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **2013**, *135*, 14106–14109. (b) Poelma, J. E.; Fors, B. P.; Meyers, G. F.; Kramer, J. W.; Hawker, C. J. *Angew. Chem., Int. Ed.* **2013**, *52*, 6844– 6848. (c) Adzima, B. J.; Tao, Y.; Kloxin, C. J.; DeForest, C. A.; Anseth, K. S.; Bovman, C. N. *Nat. Chem.* **2011**, *3*, 258–261. (d) For a recent review, see: Barner-Kowollik, C.; Goldmann, A. S.; Schacher, F. H. *Macromolecules* **2016**, *49*, 5001–5016.

(19) Buriez, O.; Labbe, E.; Périchon, J. J. Electroanal. Chem. 2006, 593, 99–104.

(20) Voltammetry on $CoBr_2 \cdot (PCy_3)_2$ also suggests Co^0 is likely generated via initial reduction to Co^I and subsequent bimolecular disproportionation to deliver a Co^0 and Co^{II} species.

(21) For evidence of Co^0 activity in the [2+2+2], see: Chiusoli, G. P.; Pallini, L.; Terenghi, G. *Transition Met. Chem.* **1984**, *9*, 360–362.

(22) The irreversibility of this intermediate observed by CV is potentially due to a rapid chemical event (coordination or insertion of alkyne) following oxidation. See SI, Figure S3.

(23) For octahedral cobaltacyclopentadiene, see: Bouayad, A.; Dartiguenave, M.; Menu, M.-J.; Dartiguenave, Y. Organometallics 1989, 8, 629-637.

(24) Alternatively, a bimolecular disproportionation reaction could regenerate active intermediate i and a reducible cobalt(II) species.