

Ruthenium(II)-Catalyzed C–C Arylations and Alkylations: Decarbamoylative C–C Functionalizations

Marc Moselage⁺, Jie Li⁺, Frederik Kramm, and Lutz Ackermann*

Abstract: Ruthenium(II)biscarboxylate catalysis enabled selective C–C functionalizations by means of decarbamoylative C–C arylations. The versatility of the ruthenium(II) catalysis was reflected by widely applicable C–C arylations and C–C alkylations of aryl amides, as well as acids with modifiable pyrazoles, through facile organometallic C–C activation.

The recent progress in C–H activation chemistry has arguably revolutionized the way in which molecular synthesis is conducted.^[1] In sharp contrast, selective functionalizations of otherwise inert C–C σ-bonds continue to be scarce,^[2] with notable recent progress achieved by ruthenium(II) catalysis.^[3] In spite of undisputable advances, ruthenium-catalyzed C–C activations are thus far largely restricted to decarboxylation^[4] manifolds being devoid of *ipso*-C–C functionalization. Within our ongoing program on ruthenium(II)-catalyzed^[5] step-economical diversifications,^[6] we have identified reaction conditions for the first ruthenium-catalyzed^[7] decarbamoylative C–C functionalization, on which we report herein. Notable features of our findings are not limited to 1) versatile ruthenium(II)-catalyzed decarbamoylative C–C arylations, 2) expedient C–C arylations and C–C alkylations on modifiable^[8] pyrazoles, as well as 3) detailed mechanistic insights into organometallic C–C cleavage reactions (Figure 1).

Our studies were initiated by probing various reaction conditions for the envisioned C–C functionalization of the indazolyl (Ind) amide **1a** with the aryl chloride **2a** (Table 1; see Table S1 in the Supporting Information). We were pleased to observe that $[\text{RuCl}_2(p\text{-cymene})_2]$ enabled the desired C–C arylation, however with low efficacy when using KOAc as the base (entry 1). A careful interrogation of additives and bases revealed MesCO₂H and K₂CO₃ to be optimal (entries 2–9). Likewise, the well-defined complex $[\text{Ru}(\text{O}_2\text{CMes})_2(p\text{-cymene})]$ (**4**)^[9] proved to be active as a user-friendly single-component catalyst (entry 10). It is also noteworthy that the C–C arylation could be performed by means of microwave irradiation, thus furnishing the C–C arylation product within only 30 minutes (entry 11). Reactions con-

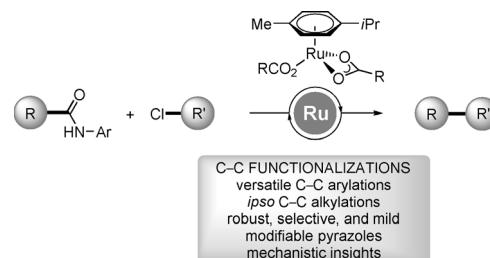
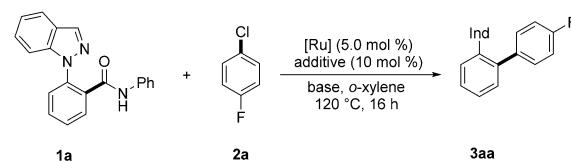


Figure 1. C–C functionalizations by ruthenium(II) catalysis.

Table 1: Ruthenium(II)-catalyzed decarbamoylative C–C arylation.^[a]



Entry	[Ru]	Additive	Base	Yield [%]
1	$[\text{RuCl}_2(p\text{-cymene})_2]$	MesCO ₂ H	KOAc	5
2	$[\text{RuCl}_2(p\text{-cymene})_2]$	PPh ₃	K ₂ CO ₃	–
3	$[\text{RuCl}_2(p\text{-cymene})_2]$	PCy ₃	K ₂ CO ₃	–
4	$[\text{RuCl}_2(p\text{-cymene})_2]$	AcOH	K ₂ CO ₃	5
5	$[\text{RuCl}_2(p\text{-cymene})_2]$	PhCO ₂ H	K ₂ CO ₃	51
6	$[\text{RuCl}_2(p\text{-cymene})_2]$	1-AdCO ₂ H	K ₂ CO ₃	64
7	$[\text{RuCl}_2(p\text{-cymene})_2]$	MesCO ₂ H	Na ₂ CO ₃	38
8	$[\text{RuCl}_2(p\text{-cymene})_2]$	MesCO ₂ H	Cs ₂ CO ₃	66
9	$[\text{RuCl}_2(p\text{-cymene})_2]$	MesCO ₂ H	K ₂ CO ₃	78
10	$[\text{Ru}(\text{O}_2\text{CMes})_2(p\text{-cymene})]$ (4)	–	K ₂ CO ₃	71
11	$[\text{RuCl}_2(p\text{-cymene})_2]$	MesCO ₂ H	K ₂ CO ₃	75 ^[b]
12	$[\text{Ru}_3(\text{CO})_{12}]$	–	K ₂ CO ₃	–
13	$\text{RuCl}_3 \cdot (\text{H}_2\text{O})_n$	MesCO ₂ H	K ₂ CO ₃	–
14	$[\text{RuCl}_2(p\text{-cymene})_2]$	–	K ₂ CO ₃	11
15	–	MesCO ₂ H	K ₂ CO ₃	–
16	$[\text{RuCl}_2(p\text{-cymene})_2]$	MesCO ₂ H	–	–

[a] Reaction conditions: **1a** (0.20 mmol), **2a** (0.40 mmol), [Ru] (5.0 mol %), additive (10 mol %), *o*-xylene (0.5 mL), 120 °C, 16 h.

[b] Under microwave irradiation at 200 W for 30 min. Ad = adamantyl, Ind = *N*-indazolyl.

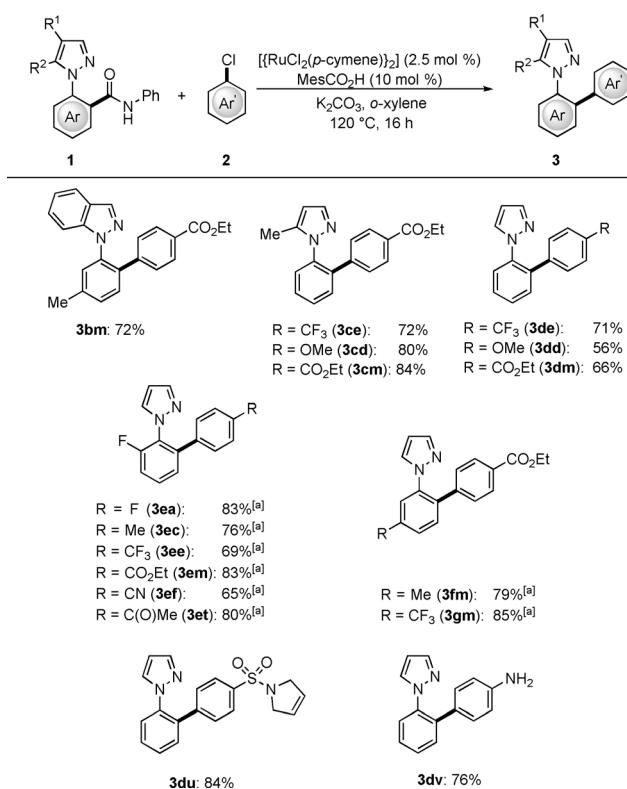
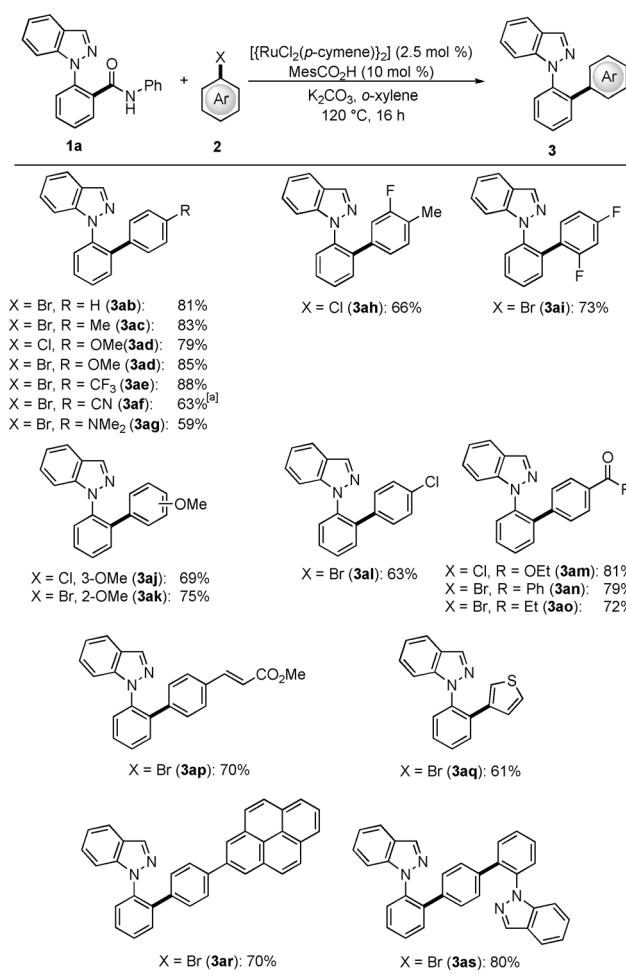
ducted with other typical ruthenium sources, such as $[\text{Ru}_3(\text{CO})_{12}]^{[3f]}$ or $\text{RuCl}_3 \cdot (\text{H}_2\text{O})_n$, failed to give any conversion of the substrate **1a** (entries 12 and 13). Further, control experiments verified the essential role of the base, the additive, and the ruthenium catalyst (entries 14–16).

With the optimized ruthenium(II) catalyst in hand, we tested its versatility in the C–C arylation of **1a** with a representative set of aryl halides (**2**; Scheme 1). Thus, we were delighted to observe that aryl bromides, as well as more challenging aryl chlorides, proved to be viable substrates in the C–C functionalization process. The remarkable chemo-

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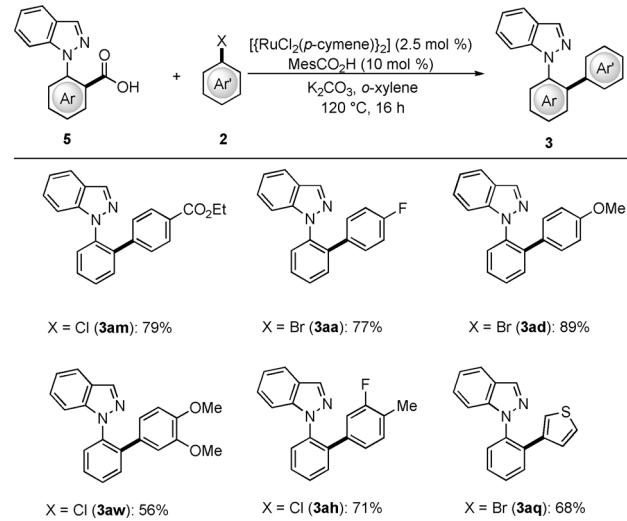
Supporting information and the ORCID identification number(s) for the author(s) of this article can be found under: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/anie.201701231>.



selectivity of the ruthenium(II) catalyst was reflected by fully tolerating valuable functional groups, including nitriles, amines, halides, activated alkenes, esters, and enolizable ketones, in either the *ortho*-, *meta*-, or *para*-position. The widely applicable ruthenium(II) biscarboxylate catalyst proved effective for the conversion of both electron-deficient as well as electron-rich, thus deactivated, aryl halides. Hence, the direct introduction of either heteroarenes (**3aq**) or the fluorescent pyrene motif (**3ar**) was enabled. The twofold C–C activation also proved viable to furnish the product **3as**.

Thereafter, we explored the scope of amenable pyrazoyl-substituted arenes **1** in the C–C arylation regime (Scheme 2). Here, the site selectivity of an intramolecular competition experiment with the *meta*-substituted arene **1b** was guided by repulsive steric interactions. In addition, various pyrazoyl-substituted arenes delivered the desired products **3** with excellent mono-selectivity. The outstanding robustness of the ruthenium C–C activation catalyst was reflected by fully tolerating, among others, cyano or free NH₂ amino functional groups.

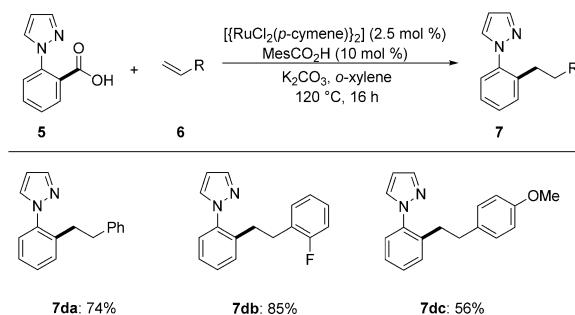
The widely applicable ruthenium(II) catalysis regime was not restricted to C–C cleavages with amides **1**. Indeed, decarboxylative C–C arylations proved to be viable under otherwise identical reaction conditions (Scheme 3). In con-



Scheme 3. Decarboxylative C–C arylation with the aromatic acids **5**.

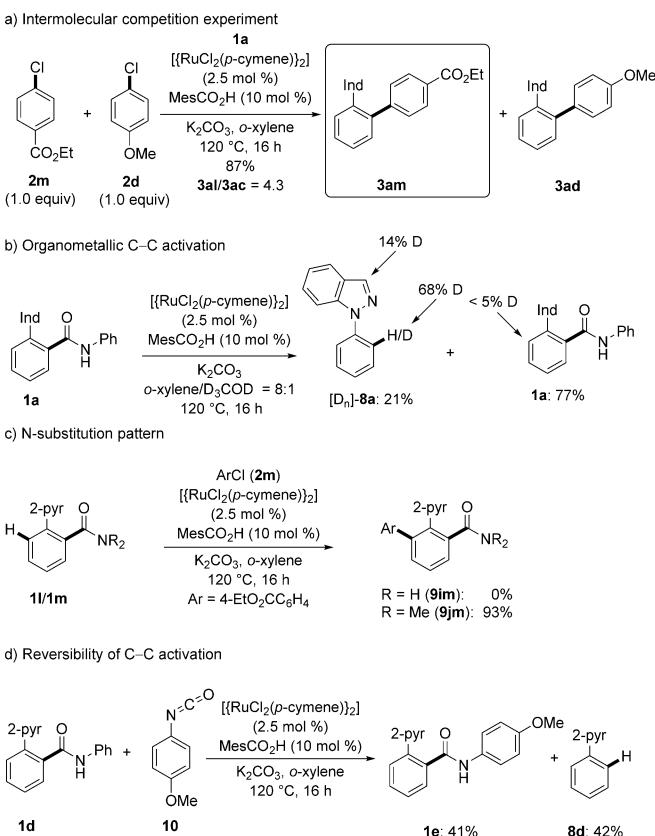
trast to recently reported protocols,^[3a–d] the arylation did not occur at the *ortho*-position, but instead with *ipso*-selectivity. It is noteworthy that the decarboxylative C–C functionalization was viable in the absence of either copper(II) or silver(I) salts, which are typically required for either palladium- or rhodium-catalyzed decarboxylative transformations.^[10] Generally, the versatile ruthenium(II) biscarboxylate catalyst allowed C–C arylation with aryl bromides and demanding chlorides.

The power of the ruthenium(II)-catalyzed C–C functionalization approach was further illustrated by enabling efficient C–C alkylations when using the alkenes **6**,^[11] thereby selectively delivering the monoalkylated products **7** (Scheme 4).



Scheme 4. Ruthenium-catalyzed C–C alkylation.

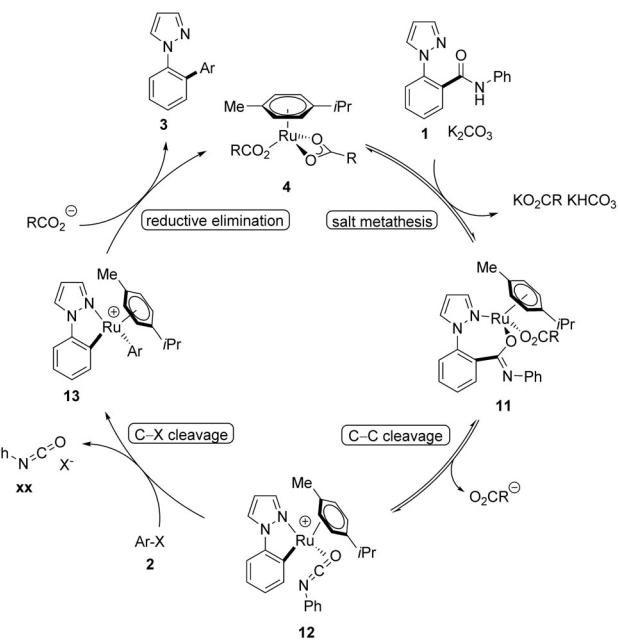
Given the unique features of the ruthenium(II)-catalyzed C–C functionalization, we became intrigued in unravelling its mode of action. To this end, we first performed competition experiments using an electron-deficient aryl halide **2**, which is inherently more reactive (Scheme 5a). Second, reactions performed in the presence of BHT and TEMPO led to partial and complete inhibition, respectively, of the catalytic activity.^[12] Third, C–C arylations with the isotopically labelled



Scheme 5. Summary of key mechanistic findings.

cosolvent [D_4]MeOH delivered the partially deuterated arene [D_n]**8a**, thus providing strong support for the organometallic nature of the C–C cleavage step (Scheme 5b). Fourth, variation of the N-substitution pattern was probed. Thus, the NH₂ amide **1l** failed to give any arylation product, whereas an intramolecular competition with the tertiary amide **1m** solely led to C–H arylation (Scheme 5c). These observations highlight the importance of a deprotonatable N–H bond to initiate the decarbamoylative C–C cleavage. Fifth, the use of the isocyanate^[13] **10** provided evidence for a facile reversible C–C metalation.

On the basis of our mechanistic findings we propose a plausible catalytic cycle to commence with a rapid organometallic C–C cleavage induced by the formation of the ruthenium(II) complex **11** (Scheme 6). Thereafter, the acti-

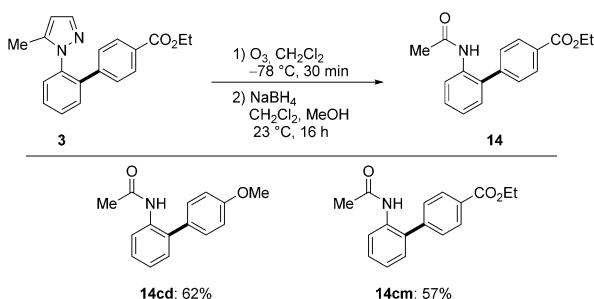


Scheme 6. Proposed catalytic cycle for the ruthenium-catalyzed C–C arylation.

vation of the C–Hal bond occurs by the action of the intermediate **12**, arguably through an SET-type (SET = single-electron transfer) process. Finally, reductive elimination delivers the C–C arylation product **3**, while regenerating the catalytically active ruthenium(II) catalyst **4**.

Finally, the synthetic utility of the ruthenium(II)-catalyzed C–C activation strategy was illustrated by the successful late-stage diversification by ozonolysis^[14] to provide access to the arylated anilides **14** (Scheme 7).

In summary, we have reported on the unprecedented ruthenium-catalyzed decarbamoylative σ -C–C arylation. Hence, a versatile ruthenium(II) catalyst enabled efficient decarbamoylative C–C arylations with modifiable pyrazoles as well as *ipso*-C–C arylations and alkylations of benzoic acids. Mechanistic studies provided strong support for an organometallic mode of action through facile C–C cleavage.



Scheme 7. Facile access to the biarylanilides **14**.

Acknowledgments

Generous support by the European Research Council under the European Community's Seventh Framework Program (FP7 2007–2013)/ERC Grant agreement no. 307535, and the Chinese Scholarship Council (fellowship to J.L.) is gratefully acknowledged.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Keywords: amides · arylation · C–C activation · reaction mechanisms · ruthenium

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Manuscript received: February 3, 2017

Final Article published: ■■■■■, ■■■■■

Communications



C–C Activation

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Ruthenium(II)-Catalyzed C–C Arylations
and Alkylations: Decarbamoylative C–C
Functionalizations



Amid the methods: Amide σ -C–C arylations were accomplished by versatile ruthenium(II) carboxylate decarbamoylative catalysis, which enabled decarboxy-

lative *ipso* C–C alkylations by facile organometallic C–C cleavage. The method is versatile, robust, and mild, and mechanistic insights are discussed.