

Iron-Catalyzed Photoredox Functionalization of Methane and Heavier Gaseous Alkanes: Scope, Kinetics, and Computational Studies

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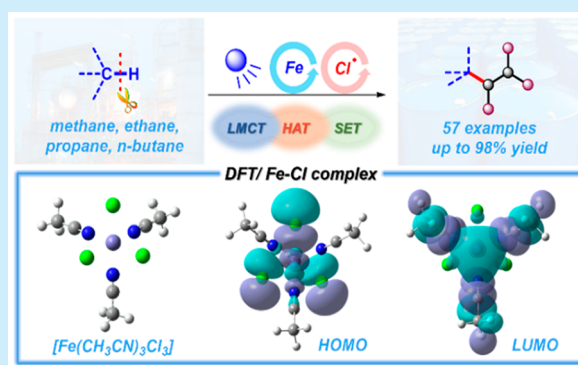


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ABSTRACT: Herein, we report the development of the photocatalytic C–H functionalization of methane, ethane, and heavier gaseous alkanes with good yields and selectivity, broad scope (57 examples), mild conditions, and low cost. Kinetics and density functional theory calculations were investigated for the key photoinduced ligand-to-metal charge transfer and hydrogen atom transfer processes to reveal the detailed mechanism of iron photocatalysis. This work may bring novel ideas for feedstock upgrading and catalyst design.



Gaseous alkanes, especially methane, are among the most abundant and low-cost organic carbon sources and are usually applied as fuels for heating, propulsion, or electricity generation.¹ However, both methane leakage during extraction and transportation and carbon dioxide emissions from alkane combustion result in the painful and disruptive effects of global warming.² In addition to these uses, methane and heavier analogues could also be employed as chemical feedstocks for high value-added synthesis without the need for functionalized reagents, bringing enormous economic and ecological benefits as well as great scientific challenges.³ These challenges include, but are not limited to, the intrinsic inertness and high bond dissociation energies (BDEs) of C(sp³)–H bonds (98.1–105.3 kcal/mol⁴) (Scheme 1a) and poor solubility of the gases in most solvents.^{3c–e} In recent decades, significant progress has been made in producing methanol from methane.^{3d,5} However, the vast majority of these transformations are carried out under heterogeneous conditions with additional well-known problems in terms of selectivity and high temperature.^{5a,b} Significantly, reports on the production of different methyl-containing derivatives, instead of methanol with methane and a homogeneous catalyst, are rare and remain largely underdeveloped.^{3d}

Photoinduced hydrogen atom transfer (HAT) catalysis has attracted much attention as one of the most environmentally friendly and efficient protocols for affording carbon-centered radicals from unactivated alkanes.⁶ However, little effort has been devoted to the valuable functionalization of methane and other gaseous alkanes with this strategy.⁷ Photodissociation of

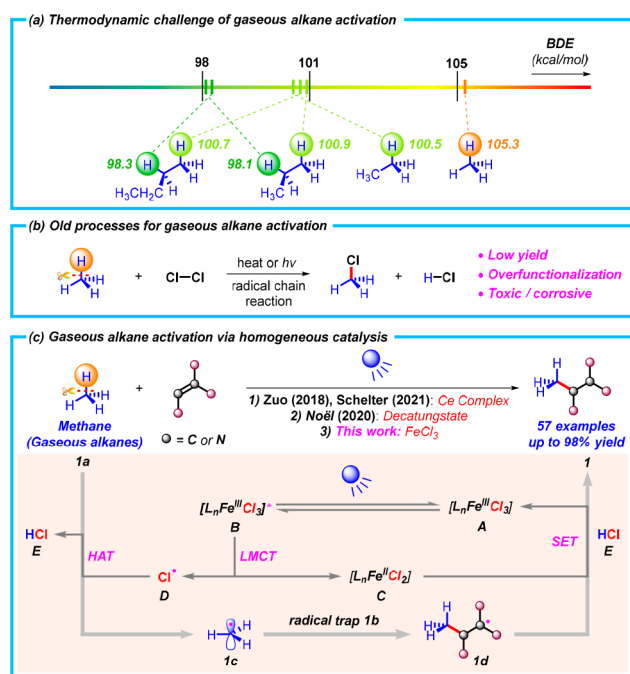
molecular chlorine is an effective approach to initiate methane halogenation in old processes; however, both the low yield and uncontrollable overfunctionalization of radical chain reactions and the use of toxic and corrosive molecular chlorine result in significant application limitations (Scheme 1b). Recently, the Zuo,^{7b} Noël,^{7d} and Schelter^{7e} groups made remarkable breakthroughs in light-driven methane-functionalizing reactions via homogeneous catalysis (Scheme 1c); to a certain degree, the high oxidation potentials of photocatalysts and moderate yields (38–66%) restrict the further development and industrial application of these systems.

Iron, the most abundant transition metal element in the Earth's crust, has secured its place in photoinduced C–H activation of alkanes with a chlorine radical generated from the ligand-to-metal charge transfer (LMCT) process of an Fe–Cl complex.^{7f,8} Based on our previous work^{7f} and basic theories of photocatalysis⁹ and iron catalysis,¹⁰ the proposed mechanism of this efficient and sustainable system has been preliminarily established, as shown in Scheme 1c. The catalytic cycle starts at the photoexcitation of iron complex **A** near 365 nm (demonstrated by studies on UV–vis spectra^{7f}), generating its

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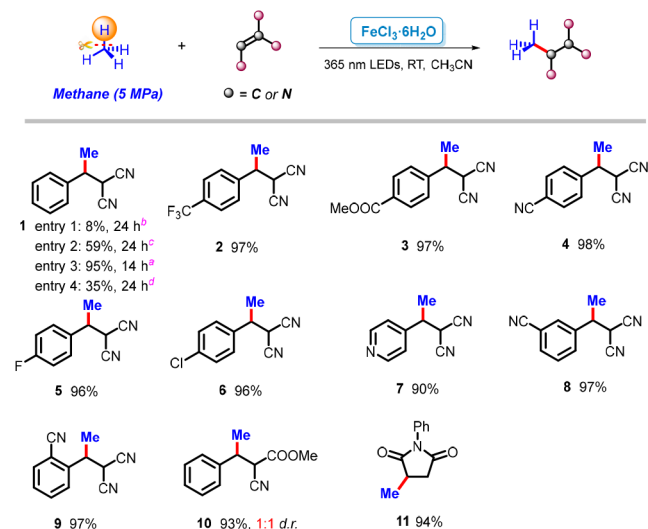
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Scheme 1. Photoinduced C(sp³)–H Activation of Gaseous Hydrocarbons

excited state B. The subsequent LMCT affords ferrous complex C and chlorine radical D. D, as a wonderful HAT catalyst, can activate the alkane substrate to carbon radical 1c, followed by a radical trapping process between 1c and radical trap 1b to give another carbon radical 1d. Finally, a single electron transfer (SET) takes place from C to 1d, providing final product 1 and regenerating catalyst A. Considering that the development of this green and practical catalysis still has large potential in extra functionalizing reaction types and industrial applications, further studies aimed at obtaining comprehensive insight into the mechanism are essential. Furthermore, the scope of gaseous alkane functionalization through this strategy is quite limited. As an extension of our continuous interest in light-driven synthetic reactions,^{7f,g,11} we embarked on enriching the substrate scope among gaseous hydrocarbons and performed kinetic and computational investigations on the detailed mechanism of iron photocatalysis.

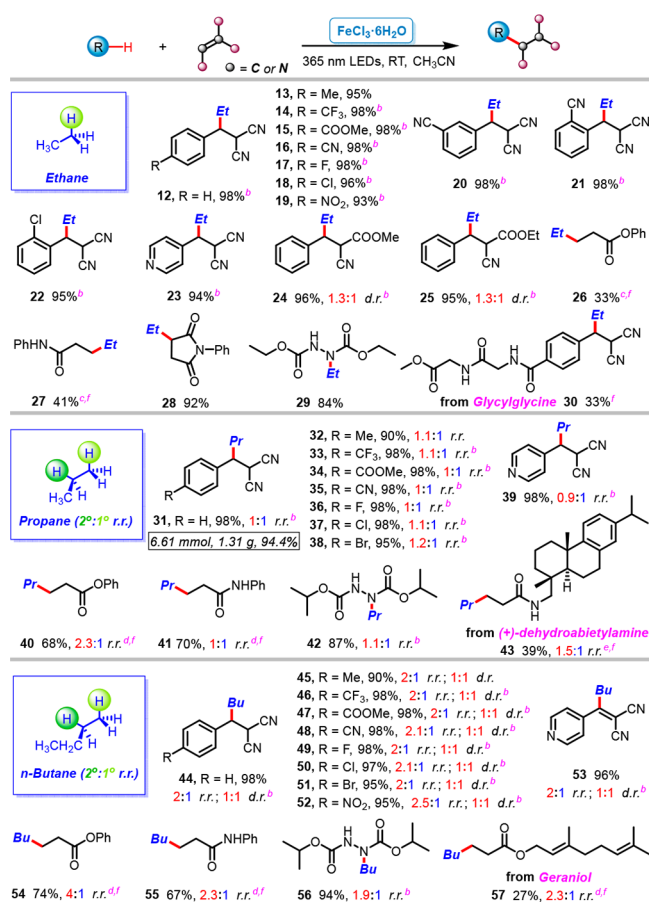
Among all volatile hydrocarbons, methane is undoubtedly the most challenging to activate due to the high BDE of CH₃–H bonds (up to 105.3 kcal/mol⁴) but is also the most valuable because of its wide distribution and large reserves. Moreover, the success in the cleavage of methane bonds through our approach will make the splitting of C–H bonds of other gaseous aliphatic feedstocks within reach. Although the BDE of Cl–H bonds (103 kcal/mol⁴) is slightly lower than that of CH₃–H bonds, the successful activation of methane in old processes via a chlorine radical instills confidence in us. Initially, the model reaction between methane (1a) and 2-benzylidenemalononitrile (0.1 M) (1b) was performed with 0.1 equiv of FeCl₃·6H₂O as the catalyst in CH₃CN under ambient methane pressure and light irradiation, affording the corresponding addition product 1 in only 8% yield with a messy system (entry 1 in Scheme 2). Increasing the methane pressure to 5 MPa gave an obviously improved but still moderate yield (entry 2). The undetected byproducts may

Scheme 2. Scope of Methane Functionalization^a

^aStandard conditions for methane functionalization: radical trap (1 equiv., 0.02 M), FeCl₃·6H₂O (0.1 equiv), CH₃CN (1 mL), temperature (rt, ~25 °C), 5 MPa methane pressure, 70 W 365 nm LEDs, 7–14 h reaction time (for more details, see the Supporting Information). Yields were determined by ¹H NMR analysis with an internal standard; d.r. value was determined by ¹H NMR analysis. ^bRadical trap (0.1 M), methane pressure (0.1 MPa). ^cRadical trap (0.1 M). ^dIrradiation with 30 W 405 nm LEDs.

include products from hydrogenation or NCCH₂–H bond activation, while d₃-acetonitrile was employed to partly avoid the formation of byproducts based on previous reports.^{7b,d,e} Impressively, without similar concerns, our iron-catalyzed method was able to acquire 1 with normal acetonitrile in an excellent yield (up to 95%) just by lowering the substrate concentration of 1b, which meant increasing the relative concentration of methane (entry 3). With the optimized conditions in hand (for more details on optimization of reaction conditions, see entry 4 and Table S4), the scope of methane functionalization was explored next (Scheme 2). Multifarious electronically distinct benzylidenemalononitriles were tested first, and all showed great efficiency (1–9). Many cross-coupling-useful functional groups, such as halogeno (5, 6), cyano (4, 8, 9), and ester (3) groups, and biocompatible building blocks, such as trifluoromethyl (2) and pyridyl (7) groups, were involved at different substituted positions, demonstrating the good functional group tolerance and utilization potential of this reaction. In addition, two synthetically practical feedstocks (10 and 11) were obtained in excellent yields with methyl 2-cyano-3-phenylacrylate and N-phenylmaleimide as radical traps, respectively.

Sequentially, the functionalization scope of ethane, which is isolated from natural gas or petrochemical byproducts of petroleum refining, was examined (Scheme 3). Due to the higher solubility of ethane in acetonitrile than that of methane, the reactions could proceed efficiently in regular tubes under atmospheric pressure. Various benzylidenemalononitriles were tested first, and we obtained similar excellent results relative to methane (12–23). Many other types of hydroethylated compounds (24–29) were also provided in moderate to good yields with different radical traps. Furthermore, with a complicated substrate prepared from glycylglycine, the method displayed moderate reactivity toward the naturally sourced

Scheme 3. Scope of Ethane, Propane, and *n*-Butane Functionalization^a

^aStandard conditions for ethane, propane and *n*-butane functionalization: radical trap (1 equiv., 0.1 mmol), FeCl₃·6H₂O (0.03 equiv), CH₃CN (3 mL), temperature (rt, ~25 °C), 0.1 MPa pressure, 30 W, 365 nm LEDs, and 0.5–12 h reaction time (for more details, see the Supporting Information). Yields were determined by ¹H NMR analysis with an internal standard; *d.r.* and *r.r.* values were determined by ¹H NMR analysis or GC–MS analysis. ^bThe pure products were obtained by aqueous washing without chromatography. ^cFeCl₃·6H₂O (0.1 equiv), CH₃CN (5 mL), 2 MPa pressure. ^dFeCl₃·6H₂O (0.1 equiv). ^eFeCl₃·6H₂O (0.5 equiv). ^fYields were determined by ¹H NMR analysis with internal standard after isolation.

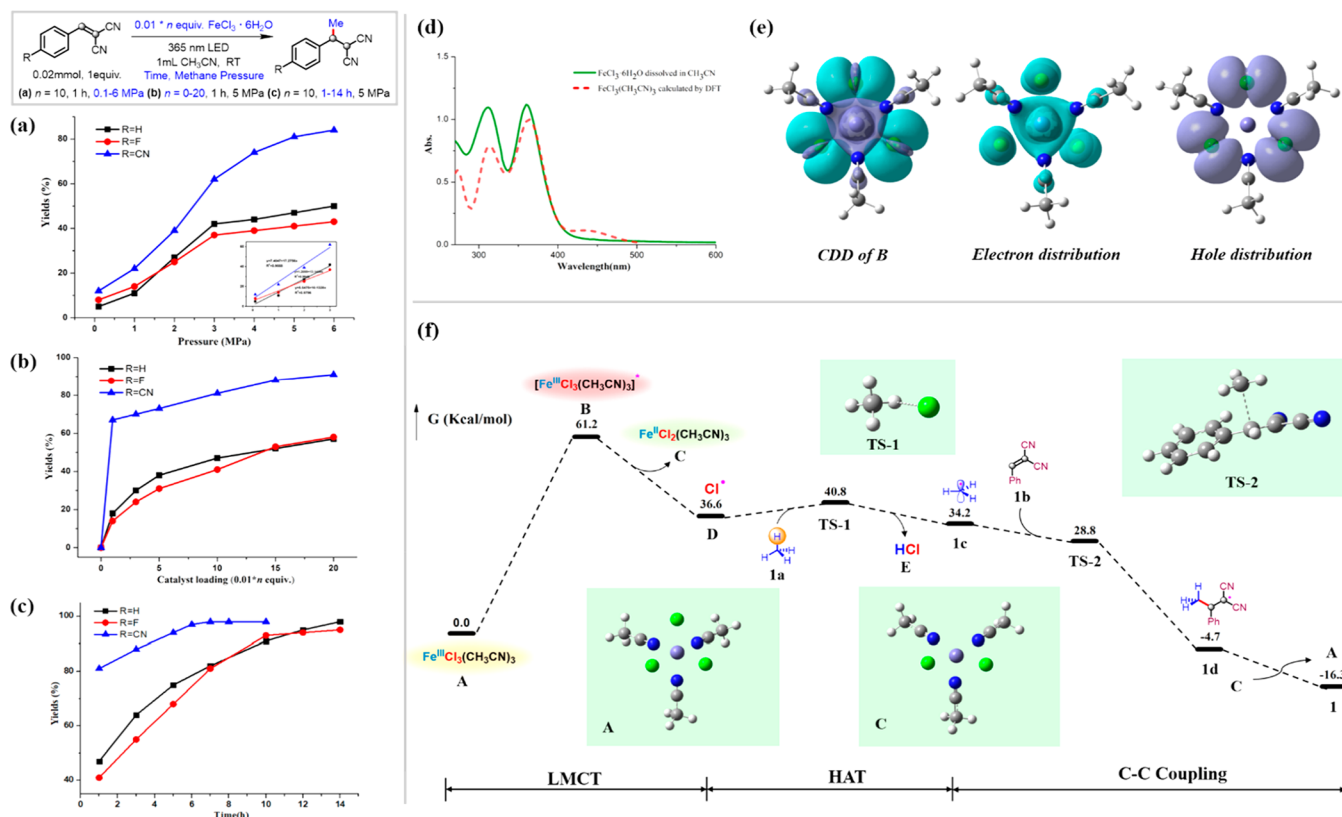
example (30). Next, a similar research strategy was performed to extend the substrate scope for propane and *n*-butane, the major components of liquid petroleum gas (LPG) (Scheme 3). The reactions retained good to excellent efficiency in generating the corresponding hydroalkylation products (31–42, 44–56). The reaction yield did not obviously decrease in gram-scale synthesis (31). Further studies on the regiomer ratios (*r.r.*) of target products at different positions of alkanes (such as 1:1 for 31, 2:1 for 44) suggested that the regioselectivities were mainly determined by different transition state energies of HAT progressing in situ (2°/1°) and quantities of hydrogens with the same chemical environment.^{7f,12} Another two naturally sourced samples from (+)-dehydroabietylamine and geraniol were synthesized as well and exhibited moderate reaction yields (43, 57), further highlighting the potential utility of this approach for late-stage modification of complex molecules. Three typical examples for liquid alkanes (58–60) were also attempted as substrates, and

great reaction yields were obtained (Table S5). Importantly, with the pursuit of practical and sustainable chemistry, most desired pure products could be achieved with a simple aqueous wash without chromatography because of the superb conversion rate of the substrates to products and the water-soluble ferric catalyst as the only additive. The reaction residue of this system exhibited slightly acidic based on the pH of the reaction detected as 3.7 after being diluted 10-fold with water. Meanwhile, we also tried some unactivated olefins and electron-rich alkenes as radical traps and found that they did not work well in this system (Table S6).

The kinetic experiments were conducted on three model reactions (1, 4, and 5) to gain deep insights into the mechanism of iron-catalyzed methane activation (Scheme 4a–c, for more details see Tables S1–S3). First, the kinetic profiles of methane pressure are presented in Scheme 4a. A linear relationship between the first-hour yields (related to initial reaction rates) and methane pressure from 0.1 to 3 MPa was observed, which implied a first-order dependence on methane concentration in solvent. The lost linear relationship under pressures over 3 MPa may have resulted from the decreasing concentration of substrate and the high-pressure effect that influenced the solubility of gas.¹³ A positive but nonlinear correlation between the first-hour yields and iron catalyst loading was revealed next (Scheme 4b), exhibiting that both methane and catalyst concentrations contributed positively to the formation of hydromethylation products. Finally, no exponential upward trend was found in the time curves of the three model reactions (Scheme 4c), which suggested that radical chain reactions made little contribution in this system, contrary to old processes. The quantum yield of the 1-generating reaction was also measured as 0.0015 ≪ 1 to further prove this issue (for more details, see Scheme S1).¹⁴

Using the reaction of methane and 1b as a representative, density functional theory (DFT) and time-dependent DFT (TDDFT) calculations (for computational details, see the Supporting Information) were carried out to dissect the reaction pathway (Scheme 4d–f). First, to recognize the real iron complex that was photoexcited and launched the reaction, we predicted the UV–vis spectra of FeCl₃(CH₃CN)₃, [FeCl₂(CH₃CN)₄]⁺, and [FeCl(CH₃CN)₅]²⁺ (Figures S9–S11), in which the spectrum of FeCl₃(CH₃CN)₃ (A) matched accurately with the experimental spectrum of FeCl₃·6H₂O dissolved in CH₃CN at the characteristic absorption peaks near 315 and 365 nm (Scheme 4d). Sequentially, the detailed excitation states of A were calculated (Table S7). The tiny differences in excitation levels led to high rates of internal conversion, supporting all of the deexcitation processes occurring at the S₁ state (B) according to Kasha's rule.¹⁵ B was proposed to be a long-lifetime state due to the attenuated radiative transition resulting from its C₃ axial symmetry and oscillator strength calculated as 0. In addition, the examination of the HOMO and LUMO of A (Figures S12 and S13) provided the possibility for undergoing the desired LMCT from Cl[−] to Fe(III) with the long-lifetime excitation. More evidence was supplied by calculation of the charge density difference (CDD) of B (Scheme 4e), reflecting B to be a typical charge-transfer state with electrons predominantly localized to Fe and holes localized to Cl. As a result, the holes induced by photoexcitation could oxidize Cl[−] to HAT-active Cl radicals. Analysis of the Gibbs free energy change with optimized structures was conducted in three stages (Scheme 4f). For the LMCT stage, the excitation energy of B

Scheme 4. Kinetic Studies and Computational Investigations



(61.2 kcal/mol) was higher than the free energy change from A to C and D (36.6 kcal/mol), proving that the process takes place according to thermodynamic law. For the HAT stage, the weak free energy change from D to I_c (-2.4 kcal/mol) was responsible for the difficulty and low reaction rate during methane activation. Furthermore, the large gap between the two energy barriers (A → B vs D → TS-1) should verify that the photoexcitation of A is the “rate-determining step” while the C–H activation step is just the “product-determining step”.^{7f} The production of alkyl radicals was also proved by radical trapping experiments (for more details, see Figure S8). Only a negative transition state¹⁶ with no energy barrier was observed when we scanned the whole potential energy surface of the last C–C coupling stage, confirming that the reaction completed spontaneously. This result further reflected the strong radical-capture ability of I_b, which was responsible for the significant yield and the uniqueness of this kind of radical trap for this reaction.

Given the easy accessibility and low cost of the photocatalyst and substrates, mild reaction conditions, large scope with natural product fragments involved, and convenience of purification, we believe that the highly efficient, green, and concise system outlined herein is ideal from the vantage point of feedstock upgrading. Deep insights into the LMCT and subsequent HAT processes and the importance of solvent effects with kinetic and computational studies may offer intriguing opportunities for expanding transition types and commercial application of simple hydrocarbon functionalization and for novel inspiration for further design of photocatalysts and catalytic systems.

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

SI Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acs.orglett.2c00224>.

Mechanism investigations, synthetic procedures, characterization data and ¹H and ¹³C NMR spectra of these synthesized compounds (PDF)

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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