

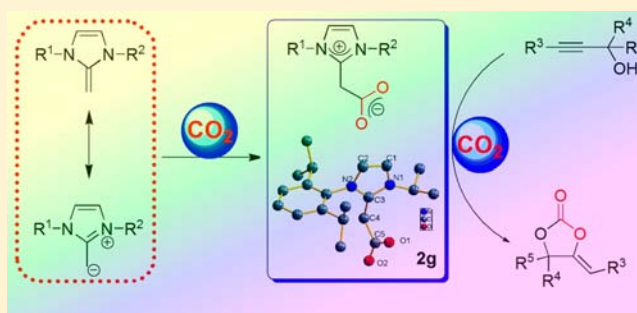
Fast CO₂ Sequestration, Activation, and Catalytic Transformation Using *N*-Heterocyclic Olefins

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S Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: *N*-Heterocyclic Olefin (NHO) with high electronegativity at the terminal carbon atom was found to show a strong tendency for CO₂ sequestration, affording a CO₂ adduct (NHO–CO₂). X-ray single crystal analysis revealed the bent geometry of the binding CO₂ in the NHO–CO₂ adducts with an O–C–O angle of 127.7–129.9°, dependent on the substitute groups of *N*-heterocyclic ring. The length of the C_{carboxylate}–C_{NHO} bond is in the range of 1.55–1.57 Å, significantly longer than that of the C_{carboxylate}–C_{NHC} bond (1.52–1.53 Å) of the previously reported NHC–CO₂ adducts. The FTIR study by monitoring the $\nu(\text{CO}_2)$ region of transmittance change demonstrated that the decarboxylation of NHO–CO₂ adducts is easier than that of the corresponding NHC–CO₂ adducts. Notably, the NHO–CO₂ adducts were found to be highly active in catalyzing the carboxylative cyclization of CO₂ and propargylic alcohols at mild conditions (even at ambient temperature and 0.1 MPa CO₂ pressure), selectively giving α -alkylidene cyclic carbonates in good yields. The catalytic activity is about 10–200 times that of the corresponding NHC–CO₂ adducts at the same conditions. Two reaction paths regarding the hydrogen at the alkenyl position of cyclic carbonates coming from substrate (path A) or both substrate and catalyst (path B) were proposed on the basis of deuterium labeling experiments. The high activity of NHO–CO₂ adduct was tentatively ascribed to its low stability for easily releasing the CO₂ moiety and/or the desired product, a possible rate-limiting step in the catalytic cycle.

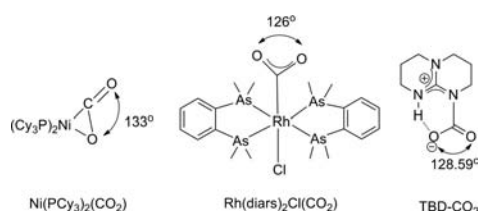


INTRODUCTION

The utilization of carbon dioxide as a C1 source for the production of organic chemicals can contribute to a more sustainable chemical industry.^{1,2} The key issue is the lack of effective catalysts to facilitate its activation and subsequent transformation, since CO₂ is such a thermodynamically and kinetically stable molecule. In 1975, Aresta and co-worker reported the isolation of the first CO₂-based complex, Ni(PCy₃)₂(CO₂).^{3a,b} The X-ray single-crystal analysis revealed that the CO₂ ligand was coordinated through the carbon atom and one of the oxygen atoms and thus possessed bent geometry with a O–C–O angle of 133° (Scheme 1), being distinct from the nonpolar linear structure of free CO₂ at ground state. A similar bent structure with a O–C–O angle of 132° was also observed in [Co(I)(^tPr-salen)K(CO₂)(THF)], in which CO₂ is

anchored to the nucleophilic cobalt(I) ion through a Co–C σ bond, while the oxygen atoms interact with the alkali cation in a polymeric structure.^{3c} Soon after, Herskovitz and co-workers revealed the structure of Rh(diars)₂Cl(CO₂), in which CO₂ trans to the chloride is formally η^1 -bound toward Rh(I) (Scheme 1).^{3d} Nevertheless, CO₂ prevalently behaves as an electrophile, since the electrophilicity of the carbon atom is higher than the nucleophilicity of each of the oxygen atoms. For example, strong nucleophiles such as the amidines and guanidines containing nitrogen heterocyclic have been reported to react with CO₂, expectantly affording zwitterionic adducts. Unfortunately, much effort to isolate and characterize a zwitterionic adduct between CO₂ and a nitrogen base was unsuccessful, and in most cases bicarbonate salts were unexpectedly produced owing to the presence of adventitious water.⁴ Until recently, the TBD–CO₂ adduct from the reaction of 1,5,7-triazabicyclo[4.4.0]dec-5-ene (TBD) with CO₂ was isolated under strictly anhydrous conditions and clearly characterized by the X-ray diffraction. The stability of TBD–CO₂ can be ascribed to the H-bond effect between N–H of TBD and O-atom of the carboxylate anion (Scheme 1).⁵

Scheme 1



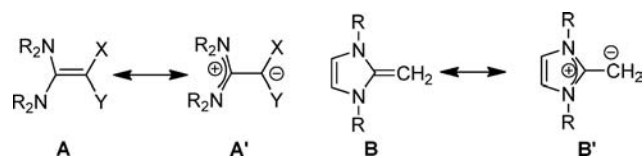
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N-heterocyclic carbene (NHC), a stronger nucleophile, was also found to easily react with CO₂ to form NHC–CO₂ adduct, in which a bent geometry with a O–C–O angle of 129–131° was observed by X-ray single-crystal study.⁶ Notably, the NHC–CO₂ adduct was shown to be an efficient organocatalyst for chemical fixation of CO₂ to organic compounds.⁷ Recently, superbase-based protic ionic liquids were demonstrated to efficiently capture an equivalent CO₂.⁸ It is noteworthy that the new metal-free systems of “frustrated Lewis pairs” first unveiled by Stephan et al.,⁹ were found to straightforwardly sequester CO₂ binding into frustrated Lewis acid and Lewis base centers.^{2d,e,10}

It is generally known that ene-1,1-diamines (ketene amins) as a kind of ylidic olefins possess a strongly polarized C=C double bond and thus made the charge of olefin separation which can be described through their resonance structure A' (Scheme 2).¹¹ Particularly, the incorporation of the nitrogen

Scheme 2. Resonance Structures of Ene-1,2-diamine and *N,N'*-Disubstituted-2-Methylene Imidazoline

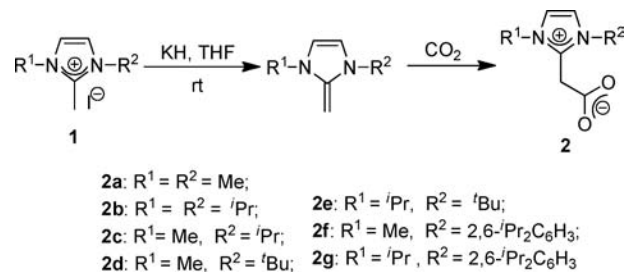


atoms into a five-membered ring, named *N*-heterocyclic olefin (NHO) shown in Scheme 2, will be advantageous to stabilize a positive charge, due to the aromatization of the heterocyclic ring, making the terminal carbon atom of the olefins more electronegative (resonance structure B ↔ B'). With respect to their special structures, NHOs were considered as potent nucleophiles and strong donor ligands.¹² A kind of *N*-heterocyclic olefin, IPr=CH₂ [IPr = 1,3-bis(2,6-diiso-propyl-phenyl) imidazol-2-ylidene], has been demonstrated by Rivard et al. as a nucleophile to stabilize GeH₂ and SnH₂ complexes.¹³ Mayr and co-workers reported the exocyclic olefinic carbon atoms of the *N*-heterocyclic olefins attacked a benzhydrylium ion to give azolium salts.¹⁴ More recently, treatment of the *N*-heterocyclic olefins with B(C₆F₅)₃ was described by Tamm et al. to afford classical or abnormal Lewis acid/base adducts.¹⁵ The strong nucleophilicity grants NHO to possess great potential in the application of CO₂ capture, activation, and further transformation. Herein, we for the first time report the synthesis of various NHO–CO₂ adducts and unveil their geometries by X-ray single crystal analysis. Additionally, these CO₂ adducts were also applied as effective organocatalysts for CO₂ transformation to useful chemicals.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A series of NHO–CO₂ adducts **2a–2g** were prepared in good yields using a procedure shown in Scheme 3, utilizing the corresponding *N,N'*-disubstituted derivatives of 2-methyl imidazolium iodide **1** as starting material. Compound **1** was first treated with KH in tetrahydrofuran solvent at room temperature in the absence of light, affording the intermediate, *N,N'*-disubstituted-2-methyleneimidazoline, which was further transformed into the corresponding NHO–CO₂ adduct by diffusion of CO₂ into its tetrahydrofuran solution under strictly anhydrous conditions. Obvious differences in chemical shift were observed in the ¹H and ¹³C NMR spectra of compounds **1** and **2**. In comparison with the 2-methyl of **1a–1g**, a chemical

Scheme 3. Synthesis of NHO–CO₂ Adducts 2a–2g



shift of methylene H at the same position in **2a–2g** clearly moves downfield. Meanwhile, ¹³C NMR data of **2a–2g** show strong carboxylate carbon signals at 162.3–164.3 ppm. The C=O stretching frequency of the carboxylate in **2a–2g** at FTIR spectra changes from 1615 cm⁻¹ to 1642 cm⁻¹, obviously lower than that of NHC–CO₂ adducts (1645–1695 cm⁻¹), dependent on the substitute groups in the imidazolium ring.^{6f,7a}

Furthermore, the structures of compounds **2b**, **2c**, **2d**, **2f**, and **2g** were solved using single crystal X-ray crystallography (Figure 1). Selected bond lengths and bond angles are shown in Table 1. The O–C–O angles of NHO–CO₂ adducts are in the range of 127.7(2)° and 129.9(5)°, indicating the bent geometry of the binding CO₂. The C3–C4 bond length (1.470(3)~1.491(5) Å), is significantly longer than that of the C=C bond in 1,3,4,5-tetramethyl-2-methyleneimidazoline (1.357(3) Å).^{12b} This should be ascribed to the extreme polarization of the exocyclic double bond of imidazoline ring, since the polarization process allows for the most resonance stabilization of the zwitterionic structure consisting of an imidazolium cation and a carboxylic anion. Correspondingly, both N1–C3 and N2–C3 bond lengths become shorter in comparison with the N–C bond in 1,3,4,5-tetramethyl-2-methyleneimidazoline. Far different from the NHC–CO₂ adducts, the dissymmetrical *N*-alkyl substituent has little effect on the discrepancy between C5–O1 and C5–O2 bond lengths of the carboxylate. The distances of C5–O1(2) bonds for the carboxylate are nearly equivalent for asymmetrical NHO–CO₂ adducts, while the biggest discrepancy of only 0.009 Å was found in the crystal data of compound **2b** possessing a symmetrical substituent at the heterocyclic ring. This result indicates that the negative charge is uniformly distributed between the central carbon and the two oxygens. The lengths of C4–C5 bond in the NHO–CO₂ adducts are between 1.549(3) Å and 1.598(6) Å, which are significantly longer than that of the C_{carboxylate}–C_{NHC} bond (1.520–1.530 Å) in the NHC–CO₂ adducts previously reported by Rogers^{6a} and Louie.^{6b,f} This might mean that the decarboxylation of NHO–CO₂ adducts are easier than that of NHC–CO₂ adducts. Note that the atoms C4, C5, O1, and O2 are nearly coplanar for all NHO–CO₂ adducts. Similarly, the atoms N1, N2, C3, and C4 are also nearly coplanar. The dihedral angle of two planes is 93.8°, 81.7°, 99.6°, 108.8°, and 109.6° for **2b**, **2c**, **2d**, **2f**, and **2g**, respectively.

Generally, the structural data reflects the physical and chemical properties of organic compounds. With those crystal data in hand, we then explored the thermal stability of NHO–CO₂ adducts. The thermal stability was studied by means of in situ FTIR method with monitoring the ν(CO₂) region of infrared spectra using a temperature-controlled high pressure liquid cell (HPL-TC).^{7a} Because of its better solubility in CH₂Cl₂, the NHO–CO₂ adduct **2g** was first selected to

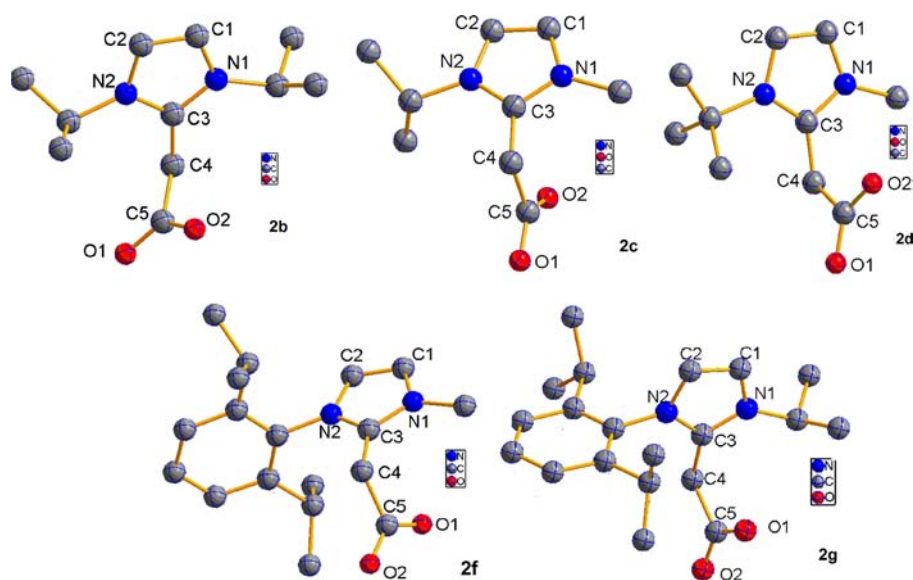


Figure 1. Molecular structures of 2b, 2c, 2d, 2f, and 2g with thermal ellipsoids drawn at 30% probability. Hydrogen atoms have been omitted for clarity.

Table 1. Selected Bond Lengths (Å) and Angles (deg) in Complexes 2b, 2c, 2d, 2f, and 2g

complex	C3–N1 (Å)	C3–N2 (Å)	C3–C4 (Å)	C4–C5 (Å)	C5–O1 (Å)	C5–O2 (Å)	N1–C3–N2 (deg)	O1–C5–O2 (deg)
2b	1.337 (2)	1.346 (2)	1.480 (2)	1.551 (2)	1.234 (2)	1.243 (2)	107.2 (1)	128.5 (2)
2c	1.333 (2)	1.343 (2)	1.479 (2)	1.549 (3)	1.242 (2)	1.242 (2)	107.5 (2)	127.7 (2)
2d	1.344 (5)	1.346 (5)	1.491 (5)	1.598 (6)	1.226 (5)	1.230 (5)	107.6 (3)	129.9 (5)
2f	1.341 (3)	1.340 (3)	1.470 (3)	1.557 (3)	1.241 (3)	1.241 (3)	106.6 (2)	128.3 (2)
2g	1.340 (2)	1.349 (2)	1.476 (2)	1.568 (2)	1.230 (2)	1.237 (2)	106.7 (1)	129.1 (2)

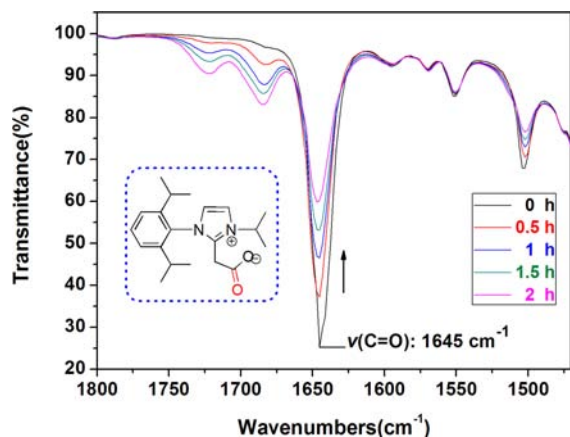


Figure 2. FTIR spectra of 2g in CH₂Cl₂ at various times at 40 °C.

conduct the thermal stability study. Figure 2 shows the absorption intensity of asymmetric $\nu(\text{CO}_2)$ vibrations of 2g at 1645 cm^{-1} gradually decreases with the extension of time in CH₂Cl₂ at 40 °C, which clearly indicates the decarboxylation of 2g. Meanwhile in situ infrared monitoring of 2g in CH₂Cl₂ solution was conducted at various temperatures to further investigate the effect of temperature on thermal stability of NHO–CO₂ adducts. At 25 °C, 2g is relatively stable in CH₂Cl₂. On the contrary, the decarboxylation of most 2g molecules appeared within 40 min at 80 °C (Figure 3). Then the stability difference of NHO–CO₂ adducts 2b, 2c, 2d, 2f, and 2g in CH₂Cl₂ at 40 °C was investigated (Figure 4). The result indicates that the decomposition rate was related to the C4–C5 bond length of NHO–CO₂ adduct. Generally, the

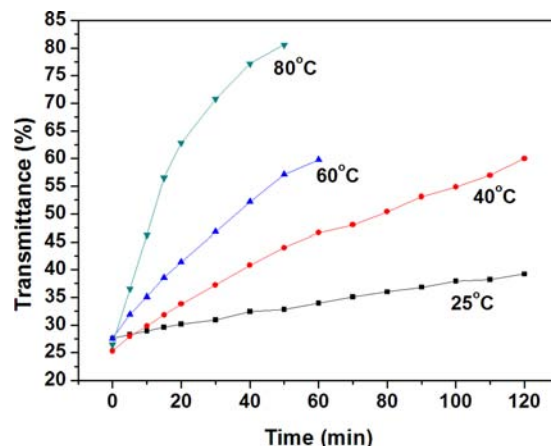


Figure 3. Plots of transmittance (%) at 1645 cm^{-1} versus time for the decomposition of NHO–CO₂ adduct 2g at various temperatures.

longer the C4–C5 bond length is, the less stable the NHO–CO₂ adduct is, except 2d out of the rule.

For a comparison purpose, a typically dissymmetric NHC–CO₂ adduct 3 (1-(2,6-diisopropylphenyl)-3-isopropyl-imidazolium-2-carboxylate) with the same imidazolidine structure of compound 2g was also prepared and its solid structure is shown in Figure 5. A decarboxylation experiment of in situ infrared monitoring of 3 in CH₂Cl₂ solution at 1683 cm^{-1} was performed with time at 40 °C (Figure 6). Contrast to the decarboxylation of most 2g molecules occurred within 2 h, only small amounts of compound 3 decomposed at the same condition. These results demonstrate that the decarboxylation

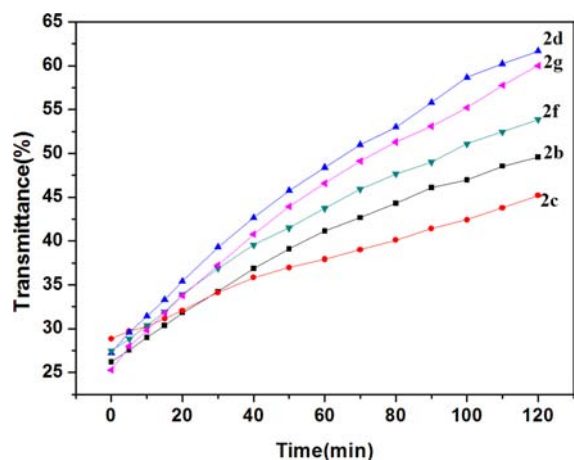


Figure 4. Comparison plots of transmittance for NHO-CO₂ adducts 2b, 2c, 2d, 2f and 2g versus time for decomposition in CH₂Cl₂ at 40 °C.

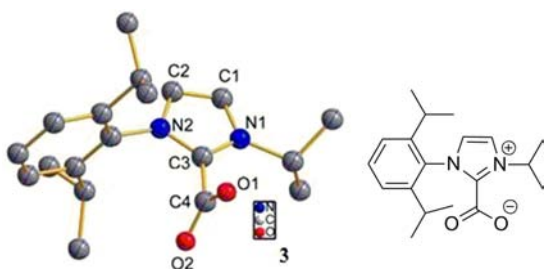


Figure 5. Molecular structure of the NHC-CO₂ adduct 3 with thermal ellipsoids drawn at 30% probability. Hydrogen atoms have been omitted for clarity. Selected bond lengths (Å) and angles (°): C3-C4 1.528(2), C4-O1 1.204(2), C4-O2 1.207(2), C3-N1 1.331(2), C3-N2 1.342(2), N1-C3-N2 107.7(1), and O1-C4-O2 129.2(2).

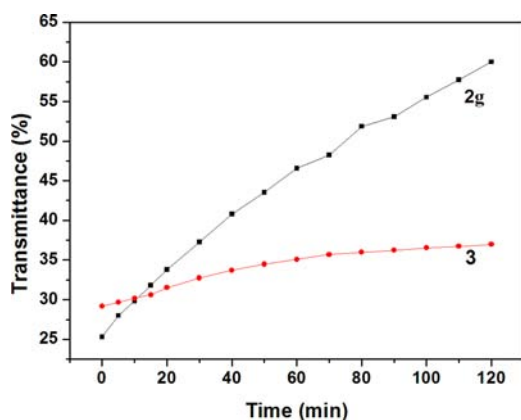


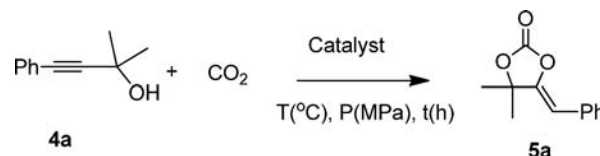
Figure 6. Comparison plots of transmittance at 1645 cm⁻¹ for NHO-CO₂ adduct 2g and at 1683 cm⁻¹ for NHC-CO₂ adduct 3 versus time for decomposition in CH₂Cl₂ at 40 °C.

of NHO-CO₂ adduct is significantly easier than that of NHC-CO₂ adduct, which is agreement with the discrepancy in bond length: 1.568(2) Å of the C4-C5 bond of NHO-CO₂ adduct 2g versus 1.528(2) Å of the C3-C4 bond of NHC-CO₂ adduct 3. The relatively poor thermal stability of NHO-CO₂ adducts probably offers an important chance to serve as a highly active catalyst for CO₂ transformation. Therefore, the

exploration of CO₂ transformation using NHO-CO₂ as potential catalyst become a primary goal of our research.

Chemical fixation of carbon dioxide into useful organic chemicals is of great interest and has been a long-standing goal for chemists,¹⁶ since CO₂ is an abundant, inexpensive, and renewable C1 feedstock. Previously, NHC-CO₂ adducts were reported as an effective organocatalyst for CO₂ transformation. Because the carboxylate in NHO-CO₂ adduct shows lower stability than that of the corresponding NHC-CO₂ adduct, it perhaps exhibits more excellent reactivity toward some substrates, especially the nucleophile-promoted reaction. With kinds of NHO-CO₂ adducts in hand, we are of great interest to explore the transformation of the binding CO₂ and further application of these adducts as potential catalyst for CO₂ chemical fixation. We initially studied the carboxylate cyclization of propargylic alcohols with CO₂ to give α -alkylidene cyclic carbonates, which are versatile intermediates in organic synthesis and polymer chemistry.¹⁷ Usually, the use of a metallic species¹⁸ including Ru, Co, Cu, Pd, or Ag as catalyst is necessary to make this reaction run smoothly. Although phosphine,¹⁹ guanidine,²⁰ or *N*-heterocyclic carbenes²¹ were found to be active in catalyzing this coupling reaction, the activities were not satisfactory. To our delight, we initially attempted this coupling reaction of 2-methyl-4-phenylbut-3-yn-2-ol (4a) with CO₂ using 2 mol % 2a to give a yield of 51% under 60 °C and 2 MPa CO₂ pressure (Table 2,

Table 2. Optimization of Reaction Conditions for the Carboxylate Cyclization of 2-methyl-4-phenylbut-3-yn-2-ol (4a) with CO₂^a



entry	catalyst (mol %)	T (°C)	P (MPa)	t (h)	yield (%) ^b
1	2a (2)	60	2	12	51
2	2b (2)	60	2	12	72
3	2c (2)	60	2	12	64
4	2d (2)	60	2	12	68
5	2e (2)	60	2	12	84
6	2f (2)	60	2	12	70
7	2g (2)	60	2	12	88
8	2g (5)	60	2	12	93
9	2g (1)	60	2	12	70
10	2g (5)	50	2	12	76
11	2g (5)	70	2	12	85
12	2g (5)	60	2	6	72
13	2g (5)	60	2	24	94
14	2g (5)	60	1	12	88
15	2g (5)	60	4	12	94

^aReaction conditions: substrate 4 (3 mmol). ^bIsolated yield.

entry 1). Driven by this result, the carboxylate cyclization of 4a with CO₂ as model reaction was chose to optimize reaction conditions. The results from Table 2 revealed that the substituents on the nitrogen atoms of the NHO framework have an obvious influence on the catalyst activity (Table 2, entries 1–7), the isopropyl-substituted NHO-CO₂ adducts showed higher catalytic activity than those methyl-substituted adducts, probably due to its higher solubility. The lower catalyst

loading and the reduced temperature have negative effects on the yield (Table 2, entries 9–11). Interestingly, CO₂ pressure had very limited impact on the yield of the cyclic carbonate (Table 2, entries 8, 14, and 15).

The formation of carboxylative cyclization product **5a** from 2-methyl-4-phenylbut-3-yn-2-ol (**4a**) was once realized by MTBD-catalyzed reaction in supercritical carbon dioxide to give 55% yield.²⁰ The same reaction was reported by Ikariya and co-workers using 1,3-*tert*-butyl-imidazolium-2-carboxylate as catalyst at an enhanced temperature of 80 °C and a 4.5 MPa CO₂ pressure to obtain **5a** in 84% yield.^{21b} For a comparison purpose of the discrepancy in catalytic activity of NHO–CO₂ and NHC–CO₂ adducts, the reaction was conducted using compounds **2g** and **3** as catalyst, respectively, since they have the same substituents in the *N* atom of imidazole ring. The results are shown in Table 3. It was found that NHO–CO₂

Table 3. Catalytic Activity Comparison for NHO–CO₂ Adduct **2g and NHC–CO₂ Adduct **3** toward Carboxylative Cyclization of Propargylic Alcohols with CO₂^a**

entry	R	catalyst	yield (%) ^b
1	C ₆ H ₅ (4a)	2g	93 (5a)
2	C ₆ H ₅ (4a)	3	43 (5a)
3	4-MeOC ₆ H ₄ (4b)	2g	56 (5b)
4	4-MeOC ₆ H ₄ (4b)	3	12 (5b)
5	4-MeC ₆ H ₄ (4c)	2g	78 (5c)
6	4-MeC ₆ H ₄ (4c)	3	trace (5c)
7	3-pyridyl(4d)	2g	90 (5d)
8 ^c	3-pyridyl(4d)	2g	42 (5d)
9	3-pyridyl(4d)	3	40 (5d)
10 ^d	4-CF ₃ C ₆ H ₄ (4e)	2g	93 (5e)
11 ^c	4-CF ₃ C ₆ H ₄ (4e)	2g	63 (5e)
12 ^d	4-CF ₃ C ₆ H ₄ (4e)	3	trace (5e)
13 ^d	4-CH ₃ COC ₆ H ₄ (4f)	2g	94 (5f)
14 ^c	4-CH ₃ COC ₆ H ₄ (4f)	2g	65 (5f)
15 ^d	4-CH ₃ COC ₆ H ₄ (4f)	3	trace (5f)

^aReaction conditions: **2g** or **3** (0.15 mmol), substrate **4** (3 mmol), 60 °C, 12 h, 2 MPa CO₂. ^bIsolated yield. ^cReaction conditions: **2g** (0.15 mmol), substrate **4** (3 mmol), rt, 0.5 mL CH₂Cl₂, 1 atm CO₂. ^dReaction conditions: **2g** or **3** (0.15 mmol), substrate **4** (3 mmol), rt, 0.5 mL CH₂Cl₂, 2 MPa CO₂.

adduct **2g** was superior to NHC–CO₂ adduct **3** in catalyzing the carboxylative cyclization of CO₂ with various propargylic alcohols. Furthermore, taking the carboxylative cyclization of **4f** and CO₂ as an example, simple kinetic studies of the two catalyst systems by monitoring the reaction at various time points using ¹H NMR spectroscopy revealed that the rate using **2g** as catalyst was obviously higher than that with NHC–CO₂ adduct **3** system whether at 25 or 60 °C (Figure 7). It is worthy of mention that with **4e** or **4f** as substrate, the carboxylative cyclization with CO₂ performed smoothly at ambient temperature (Table 3, entries 10–15), a rare example of organo-catalyzed CO₂ fixation at 25 °C. Notably, **5e** and **5f** were obtained in moderate yields under 1 atm CO₂. In comparison with NHC–CO₂ adduct, the instability of NHO–CO₂ adducts from the above crystal data and decarboxylation experiment

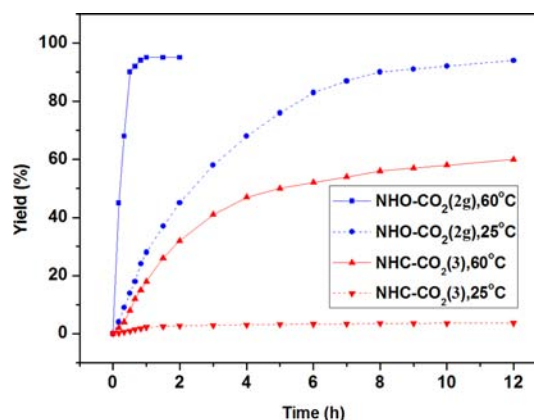


Figure 7. Plot of yield versus time for the carboxylative cyclization of **4f** and CO₂ catalyzed by **2g** and **3** at various temperature. Yields were determined by ¹H NMR.

should make a contribution to their higher activity in catalyzing this carboxylative cyclization. Furthermore, a relationship ($\rho = 1.876$) between the rate constant *k* of the 4-aryl substituted propargylic alcohol and the Hammett parameters was established. The result shows that the carboxylative cyclization was accelerated by the nucleophilic attack according to the hammett plot (see Supporting Information, SI, Figure S2).

Otherwise, the scope with respect to other propargylic alcohols substrates was then explored under the optimized reaction conditions. As shown in Table 4, various terminal and

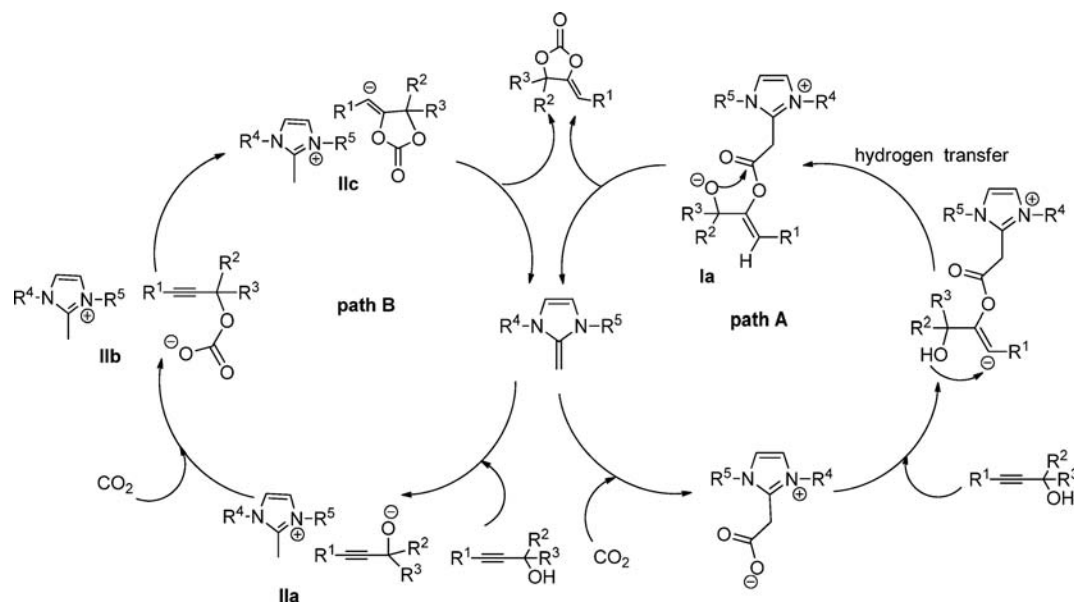
Table 4. Carboxylative Cyclization of Various Propargylic Alcohols with CO₂ to Give α -alkylidene Cyclic Carbonates by **2g^a**

entry	substrate	R ¹	R ²	R ³	yield (%) ^b
1	4g	H	Me	Me	>98 ^c
2	4h	H	Me	Ph	87
3	4i	H	–(CH ₂) ₅ –	–	83
4	4j	Ph	–(CH ₂) ₅ –	–	66
5	4k	Ph	Me	Ph	50
6	4l	2-pyridyl	Me	Me	83
7	4m	4-ClC ₆ H ₄	Me	Me	84

^aReaction conditions: **2g** (0.15 mmol), substrate **4** (3 mmol), 60 °C, 12 h, 2 MPa CO₂. ^bIsolated yield. ^cYield determined by GC spectroscopy.

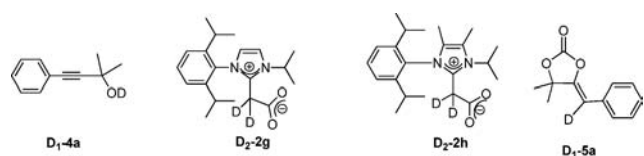
internal propargylic alcohols smoothly underwent the carboxylation cyclization reaction and were converted into the corresponding alkylidene cyclic carbonates in moderate to excellent yields.

We are greatly interested to note that only a slight difference in structure between NHO–CO₂ adduct **2g** and NHC–CO₂ adduct **3** resulted in the significant discrepancy of catalytic activity for the carboxylative cyclization reaction. The higher reactivity associated with NHO–CO₂ adduct was tentatively ascribed to the low stability of the C_{carboxylate}–C_{NHO} bond, demonstrated by X-ray single crystal analysis and FTIR study. In NHC–CO₂ adduct catalyzed carboxylative cyclization of

Scheme 4. Plausible Mechanisms for Carboxylative Cyclization of Propargyl Alcohols with CO₂ Catalyzed by NHO–CO₂

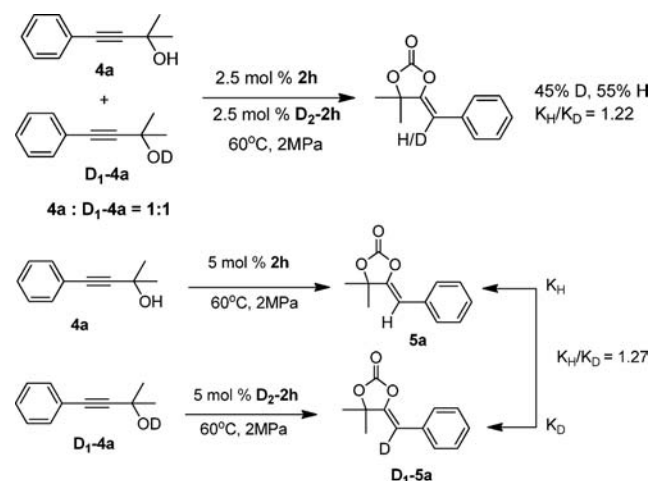
propargylic alcohols with CO₂, Ikariya et al. proposed a mechanism regarding the nucleophilic attack of the CO₂ moiety bound to the substrates. First, the zwitterionic compound NHO–CO₂ could add to triple bond of propargylic alcohol by nucleophilic attack. Meanwhile, hydrogen transfer of alcohol generates the new zwitterions (Ia) (Scheme 4), alkoxide anion of which attacked the carbonyl carbon to release the desired product and NHO, which rapidly captures free CO₂ to form the compound NHO–CO₂ for finishing a catalytic cycle. However, because of the instability of NHO–CO₂ adduct, it is possible to release the free NHO from the decomposition of the adduct, and thus a kinetic equilibrium exists in the catalytic system, dependent on CO₂ pressure and reaction temperature. NHO with high electronegativity at the terminal carbon atom could abstract hydrogen of propargylic alcohol to form the intermediate IIa, which reacts with CO₂ to give the intermediate IIb. Subsequently, the intermediate IIc can be obtained by an intramolecular ring-closing reaction of the intermediate IIb, which snatches the hydrogen of 2-methyl imidazolium to release the desired product. The obvious difference of two paths is the hydrogen at the alkenyl position of cyclic carbonates coming from substrate (see Scheme 4, path A) or both substrate and catalyst (path B). In our study, deuterium labeling experiments were carried out to gain insight into the reaction course (see Scheme 5 and the SI). Due to the strong H/D exchange between the hydrogen atom of C4, C5 in the imidazoline ring and –CD₂CO₂ (see SI Figure S6), the synthesis of deuterated NHO–CO₂ adducted D₂-2g was unsuccessful. D₂-2h was obtained by replacing the H atom of C4, C5 in the imidazoline ring with methyl. Unfortunately, the

Scheme 5. Deuterium Labelling Substrate, Catalyst, and Product



H/D exchange between the hydrogen atom of propargylic alcohols and –CD₂CO₂ was observed (see SI Figure S10). Since the mechanism of path B involves the cleavage of a C–H bond of the intermediate IIc, the measurement of kinetic isotope effects (KIEs)²² was performed. As shown in Scheme 6,

Scheme 6. KIE Measurement from Intermolecular and Intramolecular Reactions



whether an intramolecular or intermolecular labeled substrate and catalyst, the value of KIE reveals a small, perhaps secondary isotope effect, indicating that path B makes a lower contribution to the carboxylative cyclization. Otherwise, when 4f reacted with ¹³C-labeled 2g under 1 atm CO₂, ¹³C_{carbonyl}-labeled 5f was detected (see SI Figure S11), which may imply that NHO–CO₂ adduct was involved in the catalytic reaction. Compared with NHC–CO₂ adduct, the decreased stability of the NHO–CO₂ adduct benefits the departure of the product from NHO, which might be a possible rate-limiting step in the catalytic cycle.

CONCLUSIONS

In summary, we have established a simple procedure for the synthesis of various NHO–CO₂ adducts from *N*-heterocyclic olefins. The X-ray single crystal study revealed that the binding CO₂ moiety possesses a bent geometry with an O–C–O angle of 127.7–129.9°, dependent on the substitute groups of *N*-heterocyclic ring. The length of the C_{carboxylate}–C_{NHO} bond is in the range of 1.55–1.57 Å, significantly longer than that of the C_{carboxylate}–C_{NHC} bond of the corresponding NHC–CO₂ adducts.

Moreover, the NHO–CO₂ adduct was demonstrated to be an efficient organocatalyst for the carboxylative cyclization of CO₂ and propargylic alcohols at mild temperature and pressure, selectively giving α -alkylidene cyclic carbonates in good yields. The catalytic activity is about 10–200 times that of the corresponding NHC–CO₂ adducts at the same conditions. The plausible mechanism of the carboxylative cyclization was suggested, with regard to the hydrogen at the alkenyl position of cyclic carbonates coming from substrate (path A) or both substrate and catalyst (path B) on the basis of deuterated labeling experiments.

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

General Procedure for the Synthesis of NHO–CO₂ Adducts.

Taking the synthesis of **2a** as example: *N,N'*-dimethyl-2-methylimidazolium iodide (2 mmol, 0.48g) was added to a suspension of KH (0.16 g, 4 mmol) in THF (10 mL) and the mixture was stirred at ambient temperature for 48 h in the absence of light. After filtration to remove the salt, the filtrate filled in antipressure Schlenk flask was transferred to the Schlenk line equipped with a CO₂ and the flask was degassed at –78 °C in vacuo, filled with 1 atm CO₂. The solution was stirred to room temperature for 2 h. The precipitate was formed and collected via filtration. Subsequent the solid was washed with Et₂O (10 mL) to afford the corresponding NHO–CO₂ adduct **2a** and then pumped to dryness in 85% yield as white power. **2a**: ¹H NMR (400 MHz, DMSO-*d*₆): δ = 7.52 (s, 2H, CH=CH), 3.71 (s, 2H, CH₂CO₂), 3.60 (s, 6H, NCH₃). ¹³C NMR (100 MHz, DMSO-*d*₆): δ = 164.0, 146.9, 121.7, 34.9, 34.5. IR (KBr) 1616 cm^{–1} (vs).

Representative Experimental Procedure for the Carboxylative Cyclization. Taking the carboxylative cyclization of 2-methyl-4-phenylbut-3-yn-2-ol (**4a**) with CO₂ as example: A 10 mL oven-dried autoclave containing a stir bar was charged the **4a** (480.6 mg, 3 mmol), 2g (49.2 mg, 0.15 mmol) after purging the autoclave with CO₂ three times. The sealed autoclave was pressurized to appropriate pressure with CO₂. The reaction mixture was stirred at 60 °C for 12 h, then the autoclave was cooled to room temperature and the remaining CO₂ was vented slowly. The crude reaction mixture was purified by column chromatography on silica gel (PE/EtOAc = 10:1) to give **5a** in 93% yield. **5a**: ¹H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃): δ = 7.53–7.55 (m, 2H, C₆H₅), 7.23–7.37 (m, 3H, C₆H₅), 5.50 (s, 1H, C=CH), 1.68 (s, 6H, CH₃). ¹³C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl₃): δ = 151.4, 150.8, 132.5, 128.7, 128.6, 127.7, 101.6, 85.7, 27.8. IR (cm^{–1}) (neat) 1835, 1814, 1701. HRMS (ESI, *m/z*) calcd. for C₁₂H₁₂O₃Na [M + Na]⁺: 227.0684, found: 227.0676.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

General experimental procedures for the synthesis of various CO₂ complexes, as well as their characterizations. X-ray crystallographic file in CIF format for the structure determination of NHO–CO₂ adducts **2b**, **2c**, **2d**, **2f** and **2g**, and NHC–CO₂ adduct **3**. Synthetic procedures of various α -alkylidene cyclic carbonates and labeling experiments. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at <http://pubs.acs.org>.

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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