

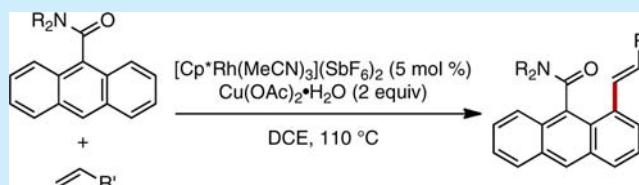
# Rhodium(III)-Catalyzed Directed *peri*-C–H Alkenylation of Anthracene Derivatives

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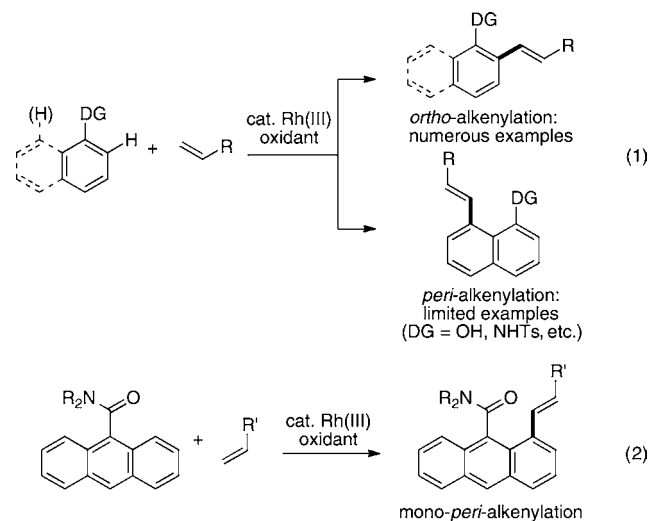
**S** Supporting Information

**ABSTRACT:** Rhodium(III)-catalyzed oxidative coupling reactions of anthracene-9-carboxylic acid derivatives with electron-deficient olefins are reported. A cationic rhodium(III) catalyst, in combination with a copper(II) oxidant, promotes selective monoalkenylation of anthracene-9-carboxamide, affording 1-alkenylantracene-9-carboxamide in moderate to good yields. A similar catalytic system also promotes the reaction of anthracene-9-carboxylic acid and an electron-deficient olefin, which affords a lactone derivative through C–H alkenylation followed by intramolecular conjugate addition.



The past few decades have witnessed significant development in the transition-metal-catalyzed, directing-group-assisted functionalization of aromatic compounds.<sup>1</sup> With the extensive development of transition metal catalysts, heteroatom directing groups, and carbon- and heteroatom-based coupling partners, this strategy now offers a myriad of methods for the conversion of aromatic C–H bonds into C–C and C–heteroatom bonds, some of which have found applications in pharmaceuticals and other functional molecules.<sup>2</sup> Given this background as well as the importance of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) in organic functional materials,<sup>3</sup> it was thought somewhat strange that such polyaromatic compounds have not been frequently employed as platforms in directed C–H functionalization.<sup>4</sup>

In the past several years, there has been explosive development in rhodium(III)-catalyzed directed C–H functionalization reactions of aromatic compounds under oxidative and nonoxidative conditions.<sup>5</sup> With respect to oxidative *ortho*-alkenylation with olefins, rhodium(III) catalysis has allowed the use of benzoic acids,<sup>6</sup> acetanilides,<sup>7</sup> acetophenones,<sup>8</sup> benzamides,<sup>8,9</sup> benzoic esters,<sup>10</sup> aryl oxime ethers,<sup>11</sup> phenol carbamate,<sup>12</sup> and many others<sup>13</sup> as substrates, which form five- or six-membered rhodacycles as the key intermediates (Scheme 1, eq 1). On the other hand, polyaromatic substrates for directed *peri*-functionalization have been mostly limited to 1-naphthol and 1-aminonaphthalene derivatives that can form a five-membered rhodacycle upon *peri*-C–H activation,<sup>14</sup> and other 1-functionalized naphthalene derivatives typically undergo C–H activation at the *ortho*-position rather than the *peri*-position. To our knowledge, functionalized anthracenes and higher acenes, including readily available anthracene-9-carboxylic acid and its derivatives, have been rarely used as substrates for the rhodium(III) catalysis.<sup>15</sup> With our recent development of a synthetic route to anthracene derivatives that features cobalt-catalyzed branch-selective addition of aromatic imines to styrenes,<sup>16,17</sup> we became interested in the possibility of directed

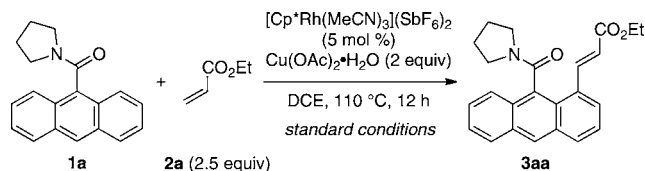
**Scheme 1. Rhodium(III)-Catalyzed Directed Oxidative C–H Alkenylation with Olefins**

and nondirected C–H functionalization of such PAH derivatives. Here, we report on a rhodium(III)-catalyzed oxidative coupling reaction of an anthracene-9-carboxamide and an electron-deficient olefin, which results in selective monoalkenylation of the proximal *peri*-position of the anthracene core (Scheme 1, eq 2).

Our effort was initially focused on the alkenylation of anthracen-9-yl(pyrrolidin-1-yl)methanone **1a** with ethyl acrylate **2a** (Table 1). Upon screening various reaction conditions, we managed to promote the desired reaction using  $[\text{Cp}^*\text{Rh}(\text{MeCN})_3](\text{SbF}_6)_2$  (5 mol %),  $\text{Cu}(\text{OAc})_2 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$  (2 equiv), and

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Table 1. Screening of Reaction Conditions<sup>a</sup>

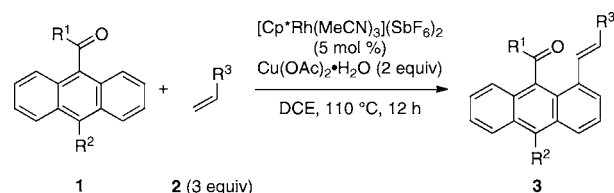
entry	deviation from standard conditions	yield (%) <sup>b</sup>
1	none	72 <sup>c</sup>
2	[Cp*RhCl <sub>2</sub> ] <sub>2</sub> /AgSbF <sub>6</sub> as the catalyst <sup>d</sup>	49
3	PhCl instead of DCE	65
4	<i>t</i> -AmylOH instead of DCE	36
5	1,4-Dioxane instead of DCE	24
6	DMF instead of DCE	5
7	AgOAc instead of Cu(OAc) <sub>2</sub> ·H <sub>2</sub> O	49
8	Ag <sub>2</sub> CO <sub>3</sub> instead of Cu(OAc) <sub>2</sub> ·H <sub>2</sub> O	35

<sup>a</sup>The reaction was performed on a 0.2 mmol scale. <sup>b</sup>Determined by <sup>1</sup>H NMR using mesitylene as an internal standard. <sup>c</sup>Isolated yield. <sup>d</sup>[Cp\*RhCl<sub>2</sub>]<sub>2</sub> (2.5 mol %) and AgSbF<sub>6</sub> (10 mol %) were used.

1,2-dichloroethane (DCE) as the catalyst, oxidant, and solvent, respectively, which afforded the *peri*-monoalkenylated product **3aa** in 72% yield (Table 1, entry 1). The use of a combination of Cp\*RhCl<sub>2</sub> dimer and AgSbF<sub>6</sub> instead of the cationic rhodium catalyst resulted in a lower yield (Table 1, entry 2). While a comparable result was obtained using PhCl instead of DCE (Table 1, entry 3), more polar and coordinating solvents such as *t*-AmylOH, 1,4-dioxane, and DMF were detrimental to the reaction (Table 1, entries 4–6). Replacement of the Cu(II) oxidant to a Ag(I) oxidant such as AgOAc and Ag<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> led to lower yields (Table 1, entries 7 and 8).

Under the conditions in entry 1, the unreacted starting material **1a** was mostly recovered and no identifiable byproduct was detected. Further modifications of the reaction parameters (e.g., catalyst loading, amount of **2a**, temperature) have not allowed us to achieve significant improvement of the conversion of **1a** and the yield of **3aa**. It should be noted that, when using 10 equiv of **2a**, we observed the formation of a small amount of a *peri*-dialkenylation product (<5% yield according to <sup>1</sup>H NMR analysis).

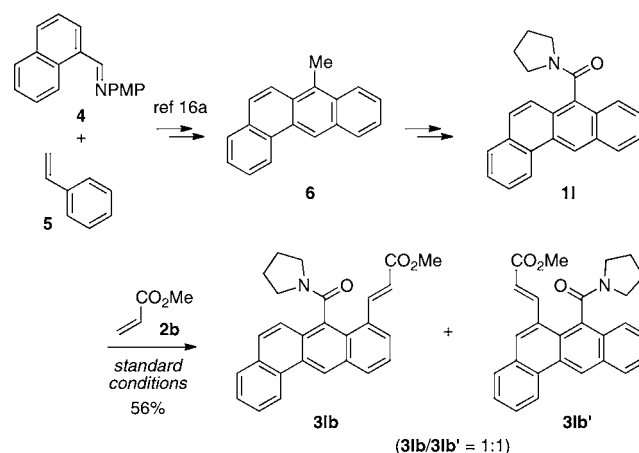
With the optimized reaction conditions in hand, we next explored the scope of anthracene amides and olefins for the present *peri*-alkenylation reaction (Table 2). The reactions of **1a** with acrylates proceeded smoothly regardless of the alkyl group, affording the corresponding alkenylation products **3aa**–**3ae** in yields of 61%–80% (Table 2, entries 1–5), while phenyl vinyl sulfone reacted more sluggishly (Table 2, entry 6). Acrylonitrile and styrene failed to participate in the reaction (Table 2, entries 7 and 8). In the coupling with methyl acrylate **2b**, pyrrolidine-derived **1a** afforded the highest yield among the tertiary amides examined (Table 2, entry 1), followed by those derived from other cyclic amines (Table 2, entries 9 and 10) and then by *N,N*-dimethyl- and *N,N*-diethylamides (Table 2, entries 11 and 12). *N*-Isopropylamide also underwent the *peri*-alkenylation reaction with **2b** to afford the desired product **3fb** in a moderate yield of 48% (Table 2, entry 13). Note that, in this case, intramolecular cyclization of the amide group and the acrylate moiety was not observed. Anthracene-9-carboxamides bearing extra substituents such as aryl, alkynyl, amino, and bromo groups on the 10-position all participated in the reaction with **2b**, affording the corresponding alkenylation products **3gb**–**3kb** in reasonable yields (Table 2, entries 14–18).

Table 2. Scope of *peri*-C–H Alkenylation<sup>a</sup>

entry	R <sup>1</sup>	R <sup>2</sup>	R <sup>3</sup>	3, yield (%) <sup>b</sup>
1 <sup>c</sup>	pyrrolidinyl	H	CO <sub>2</sub> Et	<b>3aa</b> , 72
2	pyrrolidinyl	H	CO <sub>2</sub> Me	<b>3ab</b> , 80
3	pyrrolidinyl	H	CO <sub>2</sub> Bu	<b>3ac</b> , 74
4	pyrrolidinyl	H	CO <sub>2</sub> <i>t</i> -Bu	<b>3ad</b> , 64
5	pyrrolidinyl	H	CO <sub>2</sub> Bn	<b>3ae</b> , 61
6	pyrrolidinyl	H	SO <sub>2</sub> Ph	<b>3af</b> , 36
7	pyrrolidinyl	H	CN	0
8	pyrrolidinyl	H	Ph	0
9	piperidinyl	H	CO <sub>2</sub> Me	<b>3bb</b> , 66
10	morpholinyl	H	CO <sub>2</sub> Me	<b>3cb</b> , 61
11	NMe <sub>2</sub>	H	CO <sub>2</sub> Me	<b>3db</b> , 48
12	NEt <sub>2</sub>	H	CO <sub>2</sub> Me	<b>3eb</b> , 42
13	NHiPr	H	CO <sub>2</sub> Me	<b>3fb</b> , 48
14	pyrrolidinyl	Ph	CO <sub>2</sub> Me	<b>3gb</b> , 70
15	pyrrolidinyl	<i>m</i> -Tol	CO <sub>2</sub> Me	<b>3hb</b> , 71
16	pyrrolidinyl	PhC≡C	CO <sub>2</sub> Me	<b>3ib</b> , 64
17	pyrrolidinyl	morpholinyl	CO <sub>2</sub> Me	<b>3jb</b> , 64
18	pyrrolidinyl	Br	CO <sub>2</sub> Me	<b>3kb</b> , 56

<sup>a</sup>The reaction was performed on a 0.2 mmol scale. <sup>b</sup>Isolated yield. <sup>c</sup>2.5 equiv of ethyl acrylate were used.

As briefly mentioned previously, the combination of cobalt-catalyzed branch-selective addition of aryl aldimine to styrene and subsequent indium-catalyzed dehydrative cyclization allows for the facile synthesis of methylated anthracene derivatives, such as 7-methyltetraphene **6** (Scheme 2).<sup>16a</sup> The methyl group

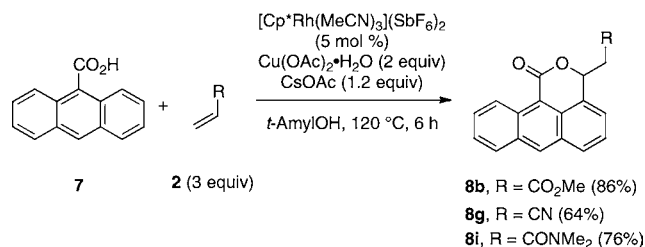
Scheme 2. Alkenylation of Tetraphene-7-carboxamide<sup>a</sup>

<sup>a</sup>See the Supporting Information for the conversion of **6** to **11**.

of **6** was then converted to a tertiary amide group in a few steps, thus affording unsymmetrical tetraphene-7-carboxamide **11**. Because both of the *peri*-positions of **11** are sterically unhindered, not unexpectedly, the rhodium(III)-catalyzed reaction of **11** and **2b** afforded a mixture of regioisomers **3b** and **3b'** in an approximate ratio of 1:1.

Oxidative *peri*-functionalization of parent anthracene-9-carboxylic acid **7** was also achieved (Scheme 3). Thus, the

### Scheme 3. *peri*-C–H Alkenylation/Cyclization of Anthracene-9-carboxylic Acid<sup>a</sup>

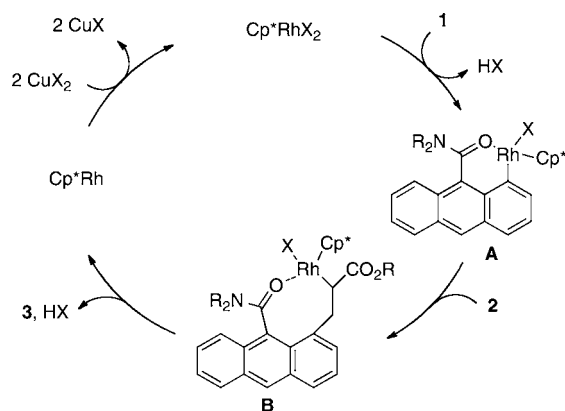


<sup>a</sup>The reaction was performed on a 0.2 mmol scale.

reactions of **7** and electron-deficient olefins proceeded under modified reaction conditions employing CsOAc as an additive and *tert*-amyl alcohol instead of DCE as a solvent, thus affording lactone derivatives **8b**, **8g**, and **8i** in good yields, presumably through C–H alkenylation followed by intramolecular conjugate addition.<sup>6</sup> Note that the reaction of **7** and **2b** in the absence of CsOAc afforded **8b** in a lower yield of 70%. We speculate that CsOAc acts as a base to facilitate the formation of rhodium(III) anthracene-9-carboxylate, which would be an intermediate prior to C–H activation.<sup>18</sup>

While our attempts to characterize a reaction intermediate have not been successful, we assume that the present *peri*-alkenylation reaction involves a catalytic cycle that is essentially the same as those proposed for related *ortho*-alkenylation reactions (Scheme 4).<sup>5</sup> Thus, the rhodium(III) catalyst

### Scheme 4. Plausible Catalytic Cycle



undergoes *peri*-C–H activation of the anthracene substrate **1** to form a rhodacycle **A** with concomitant deprotonation. Insertion of olefin **2** into the C–Rh bond of **A** gives an alkylrhodium intermediate **B**, which may or may not retain the chelation of the amide oxygen atom. Subsequent  $\beta$ -hydride elimination results in the formation of the product **3** and reduction of rhodium(III) to rhodium(I). Reoxidation of the rhodium(I) species with the copper(II) oxidant regenerates the active rhodium(III) catalyst.

Table 3 summarizes the UV–visible absorption and fluorescence properties of **1a** and selected *peri*-alkenylated anthracene derivatives. The starting material **1a** showed multiple absorption and emission peaks reflecting the vibrational fine structure, which is characteristic to anthracene and

**Table 3. Photophysical Properties of Selected Alkenylated Anthracenes<sup>a</sup>**

entry	1 or 3	$\lambda_{\max}/\text{nm}$	$\log \epsilon$	$\lambda_{\text{em}}/\text{nm}^b$	$\Phi_{\text{F}}^c$
1	<b>1a</b>	347, 366, 385	4.18, 4.36, 4.33	389, 412, 436	0.18
2	<b>3ab</b>	391	4.24	473	0.42
3	<b>3af</b>	394	4.08	485	0.44
4	<b>3gb</b>	401	4.15	484	0.44
5	<b>3ib</b>	417, 438	4.52, 4.51	487	0.55
6	<b>3jb</b>	409	4.13	467	0.028

<sup>a</sup>In CH<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>2</sub>. <sup>b</sup>Excited at the longest absorption maxima wavelength except for **1a** (366 nm) and **3ib** (417 nm). <sup>c</sup>Determined with anthracene as a standard.

its simple derivatives (Table 3, entry 1). Such fine structures disappeared in most of the *peri*-alkenylated derivatives (Table 3, entries 2–6), except for the 10-alkynyl derivative **3ib** which showed two absorption maxima (Table 3, entry 5). Expectedly, the *peri*-alkenyl group of **3ab** and **3af** caused a substantial red shift of  $\lambda_{\max}$  and  $\lambda_{\text{em}}$  compared to **1a** (Table 3, entries 2 and 3), while further influence of the 10-substituent (**3gb**, **3ib**, **3jb**) was relatively small (Table 3, entries 4–6). The *peri*-alkenylated derivatives showed light blue-green fluorescence (Table 3, entries 2–5), with the exception of 10-morpholino derivative **3jb** which was almost nonfluorescent presumably due to excited state intramolecular electron transfer (Table 3, entry 6).

In summary, we have demonstrated that a rhodium(III) catalyst is capable of catalyzing *peri*-C–H alkenylation of anthracene-9-carboxamides and anthracene-9-carboxylic acid with electron-deficient alkenes under oxidative conditions. Further improvement of the catalytic activity and exploration of other carbon- and heteroatom-based coupling partners may lead to versatile methods for the functionalization of anthracene and higher acenes, producing functionalized polyaromatic compounds that are not readily accessible by conventional methods.

## ■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

### Supporting Information

Experimental details and characterization of new compounds. 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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(18) The addition of CsOAc to the reaction of **1a** and **2a** had a detrimental effect (52% yield). We consider that the amide oxygen serves as an effective directing group for C–H activation without deprotonation.