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Blue light mediated C–H arylation of heteroarenes using TiO₂ as an immobilized photocatalyst in a continuous-flow microreactor†

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Titanium dioxide was applied as an immobilized photocatalyst in a microstructured falling film reactor for the continuous-flow C–H arylation of heteroarenes with aryldiazonium salts as the starting material. Detailed investigations of the catalyst and a successful long-term run proved its excellent usability for this process. Very good yields up to 99% were achieved with broad substrate scope and were compared with batch synthesis. The transfer to the continuous-flow mode revealed an impressive boost in reactor performance solely resulting from the improved irradiation and contact of the catalyst, substrate and light.

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Introduction

Titanium dioxide has proved its potential as a heterogeneous photocatalyst for various applications in chemical synthesis.¹ The outstanding chemical and photochemical stabilities of TiO₂ allow, in combination with its high availability, low cost and non-toxicity, its use in advanced oxidation processes (AOP) for the mineralization of toxic compounds in wastewater.² In contrast to degradation processes TiO₂ has also attracted considerable interest as a photocatalyst for fine chemical syntheses.³ Alcohol,⁴ amine⁵ and thiol⁶ oxidation to aldehydes, imines and disulfides, respectively, are known as well as various methods for C–C⁷ and C–heteroatom^{8,9} bond forming reactions. Hydrogenation reactions, of *e.g.* nitro arenes to the respective amines,¹⁰ or the cyclisation of L-lysine to L-pipecolinic acid,¹¹ have been performed with pure TiO₂ or with Pt nanoparticles as a co-catalyst attached to the TiO₂ particle surface. Particularly the use of co-catalysts with TiO₂ has been explored in recent times in order to overcome the limiting UV absorption range of pure TiO₂ and enter the visible light region for a milder and even more sustainable syn-

thetic photo-process.^{12–15} The *in situ* surface modification of TiO₂ is another possibility to enhance the absorption range of the photocatalyst. As recently shown by Rueping *et al.*, the TiO₂ surface catalysed formation of a TiO₂ azoether from aromatic diazonium salts results in a strong light absorption in the blue region with a maximum of approx. 450 nm.¹⁶ Irradiating this substrate–catalyst combination results in the formation of aryl radicals, which efficiently add to heteroarenes like furan or thiophene available in the reaction solution.

In parallel to the development of photochemically catalysed reactions with visible light, continuous-flow technology has become one important tool for photochemists.^{17–19} Micro-tubular-based reactors are a commonly used reactor type for photochemical transformations.^{20–22} They are equipped with thin light transparent capillaries having an inner diameter of less than a millimetre. Energy-efficient light emitting diodes are recommended for the wavelength-selective irradiation of the liquid thin film of the reaction solution inside the capillary.^{23,24} In contrast to batch photo-reactions continuous-flow reactors allow the exact control of the irradiation time by the flow rate of the reaction solution being pumped through the capillary. This advantage minimizes detrimental effects on the product formation due to over-irradiation. Besides these advantages microstructured reactors also allow an intense mixing of liquid or gas–liquid phases inside the micro-sized channels yielding efficient mass transfer and accelerated reactions.^{25–28} The use of solid phases like heterogeneous photocatalysts needs another reactor design. Flexible capillaries are replaced by stiff microchannels made of inert polymers or glass. A heterogeneous catalyst material can be then coated to the walls of the microchannels.²⁹ This approach is usually used for reaction screening and synthesis development

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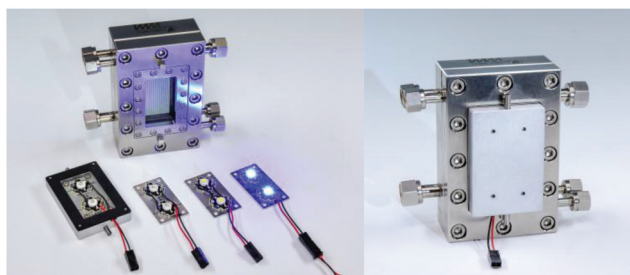


Fig. 1 FFMR as the key element of the lab plant with a royal blue LED array in a heat sink magnetically fixed to the top plate of the micro-reactor (© Fraunhofer ICT-IMM).

in chip reactors with a small internal volume and low flow rate on the $\mu\text{L min}^{-1}$ scale.^{30–32}

For scale-up of a well-explored batch photo-reaction and its transfer into continuous-flow mode a larger reactor type is necessary, like the microstructured falling film reactor (FFMR) (Fig. 1). The design and working principle of the FFMR allows the formation of liquid thin films in open stainless steel microchannels with a thin film thickness below $100\ \mu\text{m}$ and flow rates of $1\ \text{mL min}^{-1}$ for the standard reactor version and up to $10\ \text{mL min}^{-1}$ for the large reactor version (for more details, see the ESI†).^{33–36} The FFMR has already been used for photochemical reactions like photochlorinations³⁷ and dye-sensitized singlet oxygen formation.^{38,39} Very recently the FFMR was evaluated in detail for the dye-sensitized photooxygenation of 1,5-dihydroxynaphthalene to Juglone.⁴⁰

In the work presented here the FFMR technology is used for the first time with a heterogeneous photocatalyst immobilized inside the microchannels. Based on previous work by Rueping *et al.* on the TiO_2 catalyzed C–H arylation of heteroarenes with diazonium salts as the starting material, this reaction is transferred from small scale batch to continuous-flow mode in the FFMR with TiO_2 as an immobilized photocatalyst in stainless steel microchannels. Besides catalyst analysis a wide range of aryldiazonium salts are investigated with furan, thiophene and pyridine as heteroarenes including a long-term run. Calculation of the specific reactor performance proves a considerable boost in the performance and superiority of continuous-flow synthesis in the FFMR against batch synthesis.

Results and discussion

Catalyst immobilisation and analysis

For all experiments reaction plates were used with 32 microchannels and a channel architecture of $600\ \mu\text{m}$ in width, $200\ \mu\text{m}$ in depth and $78\ \text{mm}$ in length (Fig. 2, left). TiO_2 (24 mg, anatase modification) was immobilized as a catalytically active metal oxide as described in the Experimental section (*vide infra*). Cleaning of the reaction plate with citric acid and heat treatment at $800\ ^\circ\text{C}$ prior to the immobilization of the metal oxide with poly-vinyl alcohol as a binder enables strong adhesion of the catalyst material to the stainless steel

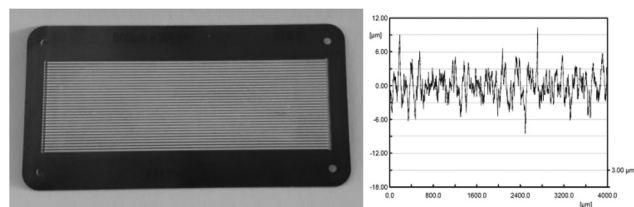


Fig. 2 FFMR reaction plate with TiO_2 immobilized in 32 microchannels (left) and the roughness of the catalyst material inside a microchannel (right).

surface.⁴¹ The applied method allows the immobilisation of a thin TiO_2 layer solely in the microchannels of the reaction plate. The surface roughness of the calcined catalyst material was investigated for five measuring lengths of $4\ \text{mm}$ along the bottom of one microchannel. The arithmetical mean deviation of the roughness profile is $R_a = 1.84\ \mu\text{m}$, and the average surface roughness is $R_z = 13.71\ \mu\text{m}$ (Fig. 2, right and ESI†). The data from these experiments indicate a constant roughness with an equal distribution of catalyst material on the wall of the surveyed microchannel. The surface roughness allows the generation of turbulence in the liquid thin film for efficient contact of the liquid stream with the catalyst surface.

The specific surface area and the pore diameter of the catalyst material were analysed before and after calcination (see the ESI† for details). Prior to the thermal treatment TiO_2 powder had a specific surface area of $157.11\ \text{m}^2\ \text{g}^{-1}$ with a median pore diameter of $6.6\ \text{nm}$. After wet catalyst preparation and calcination at $450\ ^\circ\text{C}$ the specific surface area was reduced to $118.93\ \text{m}^2\ \text{g}^{-1}$, whereas the median pore diameter had increased to $8.7\ \text{nm}$. These values obtained with the BET and BJH methods show a typical trend of mesoporous TiO_2 upon thermal treatment.⁴² Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) was used to visualize the particle size of TiO_2 before and after calcination. Large agglomerates are observed in both cases. Before temperature treatment TiO_2 particles show a regular dimension within the larger agglomerates (Fig. 3, left). After thermal treatment TiO_2 particles tend to stick together to larger structures within the agglomerates (Fig. 3, right). This appearance can be attributed to the adhesion between the particles upon interaction with the binder from catalyst preparation.

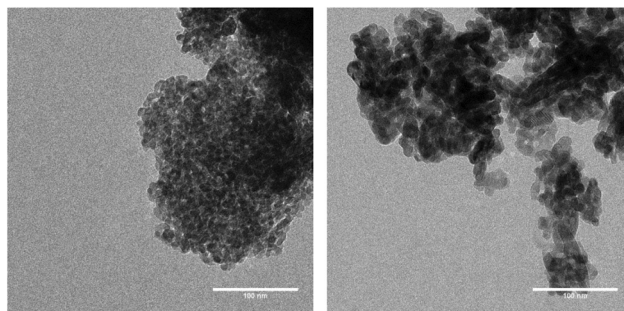


Fig. 3 TEM images of TiO_2 particles before (left) and after (right) calcination at $450\ ^\circ\text{C}$ (length scale: $100\ \text{nm}$).



Further analysis of TiO₂ was carried out using X-ray diffraction (XRD) in order to gain insight into the crystal modification of nano-powderous TiO₂ before and after thermal treatment. All patterns exhibit reflections due to the anatase as well as the rutile modification of TiO₂, the latter being the minor component (Fig. 4). The reflection profiles of the anatase phase are broad as expected for nanoscale materials, yet the tips of the reflections are too sharp. Thus the anatase component was modelled using two phases of identical crystallographic data, but with different crystallite sizes and mass ratios. In this model the sharp tips of the reflection profiles are due to a minor component of approx. 5 wt% with a crystallite size larger than 100 nm. In this crystallite size regime reflection broadening due to the crystallite size and the broadening due to the diffractometer technical limits become comparable, thus a more precise value of the crystallite size of the minor phase cannot be determined from laboratory diffractometer data. Importantly, calcination changes the TiO₂ catalyst only negligibly, but the composition and crystallite size before and after calcination are virtually the same.

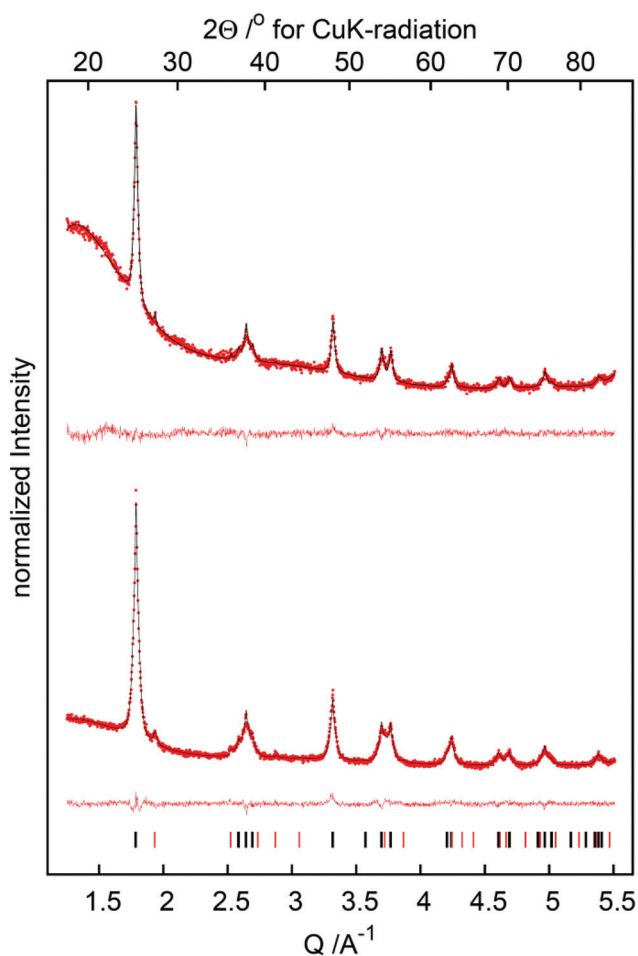


Fig. 4 X-ray powder diffraction patterns of the TiO₂ before (bottom) and after (top) calcination (red dots: experimental data, black line: fit, red line: difference curve; ticks indicate the reflection positions of the anatase (black) and rutile (red) phases, respectively).

Scanning electron microscopy was carried out to investigate the surface structure of immobilized TiO₂ before and after its use in the microreactor (Fig. 5). Despite a little change in colour from off-white to slightly yellowish, neither on the sub-micrometre scale nor on a larger scale any changes of the surface structure have been observed after intense use of the TiO₂ coated plate for all runs (see the ESI† for images with lower magnification).

In conjunction with SEM analysis energy dispersive X-ray (EDX) analysis was performed as well to check the composition of the catalyst material in the microchannels before and after its use in flow synthesis (Table 1 and ESI†). In both cases titanium and oxygen represent the major share of the detected elements in the correct ratio for TiO₂, whereas the oxygen share is slightly higher in the unused sample. This portion as well as the carbon content of 2.55 atom% can be attributed to residues of the binder poly(vinyl alcohol) from catalyst preparation. The used sample shows a significant carbon and fluorine content of 3.41 atom% and 3.20 atom%, respectively. Both elements result from the last experiments performed with trifluoromethylated benzenediazonium salts (*vide infra*). A low content of iron with 0.62 atom% and 1.05 atom%, respectively, most likely results from the stainless steel reaction plate as a catalyst carrier.

Lab plant design and reactor integration

The FFMR is part of an integrated multi-purpose lab plant for different reactor types (FFMR and tube-in-tube flow reactor) (Fig. 6). The heat exchanger of the FFMR is connected to a water-filled thermostat for maintaining the temperature of the reaction plate at 20 °C (see the ESI† for details of the flow

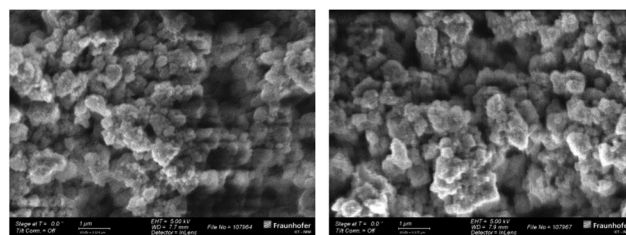


Fig. 5 SEM images of the TiO₂ surface in the microchannels before (left) and after (right) use in the FFMR (length scale: 1 μm).

Table 1 Element composition of catalyst material inside the microchannels as analysed by EDX

Element	Before use in FFMR, atom%	After use in FFMR, atom%
C	2.55	3.41
O	70.06	65.30
F	—	3.20
P	0.35	0.23
S	0.12	—
Ti	26.30	26.67
Cr	—	0.13
Fe	0.62	1.05



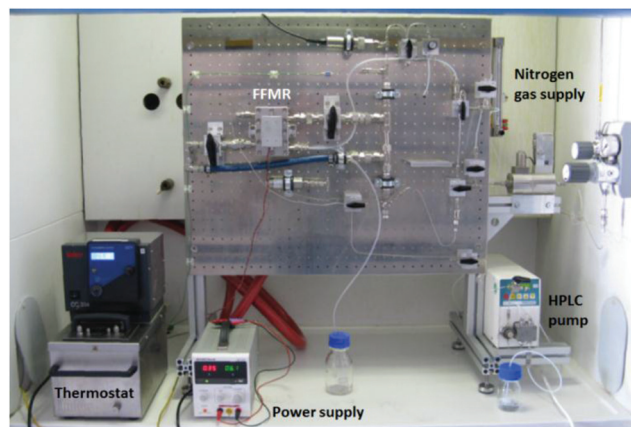


Fig. 6 FFMR lab plant with a HPLC pump, thermostat, nitrogen gas supply and power supply of the LED array.

chart). This external cooling is necessary since prolonged LED irradiation can lead to heating of the reaction plate and solvent evaporation in the microchannels which results in falsification of the residence time of the reaction solution in the microreactor. The starting material solution is pumped with a HPLC pump into the reactor at a flow rate $f_{liq} = 0.5 \text{ mL min}^{-1}$. A nitrogen gas stream is fed in counter-flow to the liquid stream into the FFMR. This inert gas flow of approx. 10 mL min^{-1} was used to support the self-draining of the reactor. All LEDs (actinic blue, royal blue, cold-white) used for the experiments are installed on an aluminium heat sink, which can be fixed magnetically in front of the inspection window of the FFMR (Fig. 1).

Reaction evaluation and substrate scope

The first set of experiments was performed with 4-fluorobenzene-diazonium salt **1a** and furan as a heterocycle. In order to investigate the necessity and type of photocatalyst several runs were performed with different metal oxides using royal blue light (455 nm) at a flow rate $f_{liq} = 0.5 \text{ mL min}^{-1}$ (Table 2). In the case of TiO_2 a yield of 79% was obtained (entry 1), whereas for ZnO and Bi_2O_3 only low yields could be achieved (entries 2 & 3).⁴³ In the case of a blank reaction plate without metal oxide no reaction took place (entry 4). The impact of the light source was investigated as well with the reaction plate carrying TiO_2 . The use of cold-white light (6500 K, entry 5) and actinic blue (410 nm, entry 6) as well as the absence of light as the blank test (entry 7) was ineffective compared to royal blue light, which provided a maximum light intensity at the absorption range of the photoactive TiO_2 azoether at approx. 450 nm.¹⁶ Therefore, all further experiments were performed with royal blue light for irradiation and TiO_2 as the catalyst material. Under these conditions the furan series was completed with three more diazonium salt derivatives showing approximately the same or better yields compared to the batch synthesis (entries 8–10, Table 2).

The next set of experiments was performed with thiophene as the heterocycle for C–H arylation (Table 3). In the case of **6b**

Table 2 Evaluation of the reaction conditions and substrate scope for furan series^a

Entry	Substrate	Metal oxide ^b	Light source ^c	Yield: flow synthesis ^d (%)	Yield: batch synthesis ^e (%)
1	1a	TiO_2	Royal blue	79	96
2	1a	ZnO	Royal blue	<10	—
3	1a	Bi_2O_3	Royal blue	<10	—
4	1a	—	Royal blue	0	—
5	1a	TiO_2	Cold-white	<10	—
6	1a	TiO_2	Actinic blue	<10	—
7	1a	TiO_2	—	0	—
8	1b	TiO_2	Royal blue	99	94
9	1c	TiO_2	Royal blue	87	90
10	1d	TiO_2	Royal blue	91	—

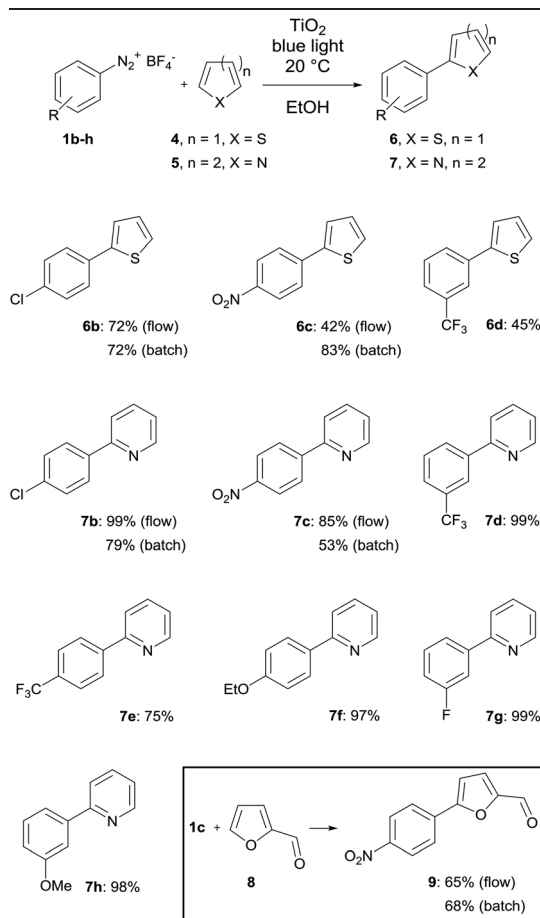
^a Reaction conditions: 5 mmol **1a–d** in 100 mL EtOH/furan (1 : 1, v/v); $T = 20 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$; $f_{liq} = 0.5 \text{ mL min}^{-1}$. ^b Amount of immobilized metal oxide: $m(\text{TiO}_2) = 24 \text{ mg}$, $m(\text{ZnO}) = 24 \text{ mg}$, $m(\text{Bi}_2\text{O}_3) = 27 \text{ mg}$. ^c Electrical power $P_{ele} \approx 2.4 \text{ W}$. ^d Yield after chromatographic purification. ^e See ref. 16.

the same yield of 72% was obtained by flow and batch synthesis. The nitro derivative **6c**, however, gave a considerably lower yield of 42% compared to 83% in the batch synthesis. A moderate yield of 45% was achieved for the trifluoromethylated compound **6d** (Table 3). Pyridine was used as the last heterocycle. Surprisingly, the pyridine series yielded in continuous-flow far better results than *via* the batch synthesis. In the case of **7b** 99% yield was obtained compared to 79% in batch. The same trend was observed for **7c** with 85% yield in flow synthesis compared to 53% in batch. Therefore, a broader substrate scope was investigated. Except for **7e** (*p*- CF_3) with 75% yield excellent yields of up to 99% were obtained for all other pyridine compounds (Table 3). To complete the substrate scope, the precursor of dantrolene, an API for muscle relaxation, was synthesized as well in continuous-flow mode (Table 3, framed). Furfural (**8**) was used as a heterocycle with **1c** as a diazonium salt under standard reaction conditions with $f_{liq} = 0.5 \text{ mL min}^{-1}$, $T = 20 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ and royal blue light with TiO_2 as a photocatalyst. A slightly lower yield of 65% was achieved for **9** in continuous-flow mode compared to 68% in batch. The conversion of **9** with 1-aminohydantoin hydrochloride provided dantrolene in an excellent yield of 92% (see the ESI†).

Long-term run

The long-term run was performed with 4-trifluoromethylbenzene diazonium salt (**1e**) in EtOH and pyridine as heteroarenes. Standard reaction conditions were applied as well in this experiment with $T = 20 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, $f_{liq} = 0.5 \text{ mL min}^{-1}$, royal blue light and TiO_2 immobilized in the microchannels. During the



Table 3 Reaction conditions and substrate scope for thiophene and pyridine series^a

^a Reaction conditions: 5 mmol **1b-h** in 100 mL EtOH/thiophene or pyridine (1 : 1, v/v); $T = 20^\circ\text{C}$; $f_{\text{liq}} = 0.5 \text{ ml min}^{-1}$; amount of immobilized metal oxide: $m(\text{TiO}_2) = 24 \text{ mg}$; yield of continuous-flow synthesis after chromatographic purification; yield of batch synthesis, see ref. 16.

complete run time of 180 min nine samples were taken from the reactor outlet and mixed with 4-trifluoromethylbenzyl alcohol as the internal standard (^{19}F NMR (56 MHz) $\delta = -65.99$; s, 3F) in DMSO- d_6 . Over the complete run time the process was performing constant with a mean conversion of 77%, which is in good agreement with the yield of 75% achieved with the synthesis during substrate scope evaluation (Fig. 7). The NMR spectra revealed only the product **7e** (^{19}F NMR (56 MHz) $\delta = -66.44$) and the diazoether of **1e** with ethanol being the intermediate compound of the synthesis (^{19}F NMR (56 MHz) $\delta = -66.28$). It has to be pointed out that reaction evaluation and long-term run has been performed with solely one plate with immobilized TiO_2 . This fact proves the exceptional durability and reusability of the immobilized catalyst.

Flow reactor performance

The specific reactor performance L is an important parameter to characterize chemical processes performed using different

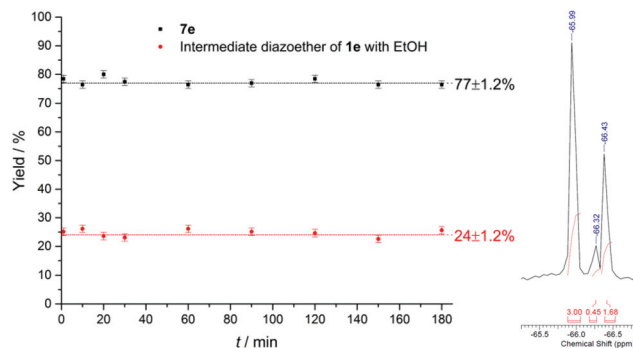


Fig. 7 Constant yields for **1d** during long-term run over 180 minutes (left) and part of the ^{19}F NMR spectra of the sample taken after 30 minutes (right).

reactor systems. In the case of a batch reactor system the specific reactor performance L_{batch} is usually described by:⁴⁴

$$L_{\text{batch}} = \frac{c_{\text{starting material}} \times Y_{\text{product}}}{t_{\text{R}} + t_{\text{D}}} \quad [\text{mol L}^{-1} \text{min}^{-1}] \quad (1)$$

with $c_{\text{starting material}}$ as the molar concentration of the starting material, Y_{product} as the yield of the desired product and t_{R} as the reaction time. The dead time t_{D} can be assumed for filling the reaction vial, starting the reaction and quenching the reaction afterwards. The specific reactor performance of the FFMR L_{FFMR} can be calculated by:⁴⁴

$$L_{\text{FFMR}} = \frac{c_{\text{starting material}} \times Y_{\text{product}}}{\tau} \quad [\text{mol L}^{-1} \text{min}^{-1}] \quad (2)$$

with τ as the residence time of the reaction solution in contact with the catalyst material. The residence time τ can be calculated by:⁴⁵

$$\tau = \frac{N \times V_{\text{c}}}{f_{\text{liq}}} = \frac{N \times W \times L \times \delta}{f_{\text{liq}}} \quad [\text{s}] \quad (3)$$

with N as the number of microchannels on the reaction plate, V_{c} as the irradiated volume of the reaction solution in one microchannel, W as the width of a microchannel, L as the microchannel length, δ as the liquid thin film thickness and f_{liq} as the flow rate of the reaction solution. The liquid thin film thickness δ can be expressed by the Nusselt equation:^{45,46}

$$\delta = \sqrt[3]{\frac{3 \times f_{\text{liq}} \times \mu_{\text{liq}}}{N \times \rho_{\text{liq}} \times W \times g}} \quad [\mu\text{m}] \quad (4)$$

with μ_{liq} as the dynamic viscosity of the reaction solution, ρ_{liq} as the density of the reaction solution and g as the gravitational constant. The conversion of 4-chlorobenzenediazonium salt (**1b**) with pyridine to 2-(4-chlorophenyl)pyridine (**7b**) was chosen for comparing batch and continuous-flow synthesis. In Table 4 all necessary data are compiled for the calculation of the specific reactor performance of the batch system and the continuous-flow reactor. In the case of the batch synthesis a specific reactor performance of $L_{\text{batch}} = 5.4 \times 10^{-5} \text{ mol L}^{-1} \text{min}^{-1}$ was calculated. For the continuous-flow synthesis in the FFMR a specific



Table 4 Data for and results of the calculation of the specific reactor performance L

	Batch ^a	Flow	Unit
Molar concentration	0.05	0.05	mol L ⁻¹
$c_{\text{starting material}}$			
Yield Y_{product}	79%	99%	—
Number N of microchannels	—	32	—
Microchannel width, W	—	600	μm
Channel length, L	—	78 ^c	mm
Gravitational constant, g	—	9.81	m s ⁻²
Liquid flow rate, f_{liq}	—	0.5	mL min ⁻¹
Dynamic viscosity, μ	—	0.8839 ^d	g mL ⁻¹
Density, ρ	—	0.8910 ^d	mPa s
Reaction time, t_{R}	720	—	min
Dead time, t_{D}	15 ^b	—	min
Liquid thin film thickness, δ	—	50.9	μm
Residence time, τ	—	9.1	s
Specific reactor performance, L	5.4×10^{-5}	0.32	mol L ⁻¹ min ⁻¹

^aData extracted from ref. 16. ^bEstimated dead time. ^cThe full length of a microchannel is used for the calculation, since the dual role of TiO₂ (diazoether formation and photocatalysis) is not only limited to the directly and fully irradiated length of 54 mm. ^dData extracted from ref. 47.

reactor performance of $L_{\text{FFMR}} = 0.32 \text{ mol L}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$ was calculated. The extreme performance increase by a factor of approx. 6000, solely by switching from batch to continuous-flow mode, can be attributed to the following reasons. The FFMR offers a strongly improved irradiation of the reaction solution compared to the batch synthesis. The royal blue LED array provides solely the light exactly matching to the absorption range of the TiO₂ diazoether. During the process the volume of the reaction solution inside the microchannels is quite small (approx. 0.08 mL) and in intense contact with the fully irradiated catalyst surface. This efficient combination is in clear contrast to the batch synthesis where the complete catalyst suspension volume is irradiated by a rather unspecific light source.

Conclusions

For the first time the falling film microreactor technology was successfully applied to a photochemically catalysed reaction with TiO₂ as an immobilized photocatalyst in the microchannels of a continuous-flow reactor. A wide variety of arenediazonium salts were used as the starting material for blue light mediated C–H arylation of heteroarenes in continuous-flow mode. Furan, thiophene and pyridine as well as furfural were converted into the desired products with good to excellent yields up to 99%. A long-term run over 180 min was successfully performed as well in order to demonstrate the catalyst performance. Detailed XRD, SEM and EDX analyses of the catalyst material before and after calcination and its use in the microreactor, respectively, proved the excellent stability and usability of TiO₂ as an immobilized photocatalyst in a continuous-flow microreactor. The transfer of the C–H arylation of heteroarenes from batch mode to continuous-flow revealed a

boost in the specific reactor performance up to a factor of 6000. This strong increase can be attributed to the improved irradiation and substrate–catalyst–light interaction on the microstructured surface of the continuous-flow reactor. These results clearly show the major advantages for photochemistry when performed in a microstructured environment.

Experimental

Catalyst preparation and immobilization

A slurry-washcoat process was used for the immobilization of catalyst material on the FFMR reaction plate. The preparation of TiO₂, ZnO and Bi₂O₃ washcoats was carried out according to literature procedures.^{41,48} The method is exemplified here for TiO₂. 2.5 g of poly(vinyl alcohol) (PVA) used as a binder (Sigma Aldrich, Mowiol 40–88) were mixed with 42.5 mL of distilled water and stirred at 65 °C until PVA had completely dissolved (approx. 2–3 h). 5 g of TiO₂ (Alfa Aesar, 45603, anatase modification) and 0.375 g concentrated acetic acid were added to the solution and stirred for 3 h at 65 °C, and finally at room temperature for 2–3 days, until the suspension became homogeneous and dense.

All reaction plates were cleaned with citric acid solution (10 wt% in water) under ultrasound treatment. After rinsing the cleaned plates with distilled water, they were heated in an oven at 800 °C. Prior to the deposition of the washcoat in the microchannels, the area on the reaction plate not to be coated with a catalyst was covered with an adhesive tape. Afterwards the microchannels were completely filled with the prepared suspension and the excess of the suspension was wiped off. After drying at room temperature in air, the coated plates were calcined at 450 °C for 6 h.

Catalyst analysis

The surface roughness of the catalyst layer inside the microchannels was measured with a NanoFocus AF 2000. The surface area and the pore diameter of the catalyst material were determined before and after calcination. Low temperature nitrogen physisorption was performed with Sorptomatic 1990 (Carlo Erba Instruments) automatic apparatus. The obtained information was used for the calculations of the surface area and the pore diameter by applying the BET and BJH methods. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images were recorded with a Zeiss Libra® 120 on copper grids with a carbon thin film (CF300-CU, EM Science). X-ray powder diffraction (XRD) patterns were recorded from powders prepared between two stripes of 3 M Scotch tape using a Siemens D5000 equipped with a Ge (111) monochromator (Huber 611 Guinier monochromator) and a Braun M50 position sensitive detector in transmission mode. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images were taken with a Zeiss Leo 1550 VP Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscope. The reaction plates containing TiO₂ were scanned without any sample preparation. The acceleration voltage was 5.00 kV, and the working distance was



between 7.7 and 8.0 mm. Energy Dispersive X-ray (EDX) analysis was performed with an Oxford INCA II setup.

General procedure for the TiO₂ catalyzed arylation in continuous-flow

Aryldiazonium tetrafluoroborates **1a–h** were synthesized according to literature procedures (for details, see the ESI†). The appropriate salt was dissolved in a solvent mixture of EtOH and the corresponding heterocycle (furan, thiophene, pyridine or furfural, v:v 1:1, 50 mM). The resulting mixture was stirred until complete solvation of the diazonium salt. Then, the mixture was pumped into the falling film microreactor for collapsing down into the microchannels. As soon as the reaction solution equally rinsed all microchannels irradiation was started by switching on the LED array connected to the FFMR. The crude reaction mixture was collected and filtered over a short plug of silica and flushed with ethyl acetate. If necessary, the final products were further purified using flash column chromatography on silica gel (eluent cyclohexane/ethyl acetate).

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