



Recyclable Cellulose-Palladium Nanoparticles for Clean Cross-Coupling Chemistry

Journal:	Organic & Biomolecular Chemistry
Manuscript ID	OB-ART-03-2018-000527.R1
Article Type:	Paper
Date Submitted by the Author:	20-Mar-2018
Complete List of Authors:	Hammond, Gerald; University of LOuisville, Chemistry Handa, Sachin; University of Louisville, Chemistry Lu, Zhichao; University of Louisville, Chemistry Jasinski, Jacek; Universiyty of Louisville, Conn Center for Renewable Energy Research

SCHOLARONE[™] Manuscripts

Organic & Biomolecular Chemistry

ARTICLE



Recyclable Cellulose-Palladium Nanoparticles for Clean Cross-Coupling Chemistry

Received 00th January 20xx, Accepted 00th January 20xx

Zhichao Lu^a, Jacek Jasinski^b, Sachin Handa^a, Gerald B. Hammond^a*

DOI: 10.1039/x0xx00000x

www.rsc.org/

Cheap, recyclable, and robust cellulose-palladium nanoparticles were developed and fully characterized by FTIR, TEM, XPS, TGA, and NMR. The nanoparticles enabled cross-coupling chemistry in a truly general fashion i.e., Suzuki–Miyaura, Heck, Sonogashira, and C-H activation. Notably, all types of transformations were achieved with a single type of nanocatalyst. Complete recyclability of the catalyst and low traces of palladium in the product demonstrates the greenness of the protocol.

Introduction

After peptide bond forming reactions,¹⁻³ palladium-catalyzed cross-couplings, such as Suzuki-Miyaura, Sonogashira, and Heck reactions have played a significant role in the construction of challenging carbon-carbon bonds,⁴⁻⁶ and in the recent developments in material chemistry.7, 8 However, because an economical access to palladium supplies is limited, this element is regarded as an endangered element.9 Significant efforts have been devoted by the scientific community to finding better catalysts that can assist in prolonging the palladium reserve, either by moving away from palladium or by developing alternative technologies.^{5, 10} Nonetheless, the high costs associated with ligands, the difficulty in recycling the catalysts, and, notably, their lack of generality toward all types of cross-coupling reactions are major unsolved pitfalls. In addition, catalyst residues inevitably contaminate the product during these reactions.¹¹ Thus, it is important to develop a catalyst that exhibits broader activity, that is designed from environmentally benign materials, that is easy to recycle without additional effort and without adversely affecting activity, and that will not cause trace metal contamination of the product.¹²

To address the above issues, cellulose, as a sustainable, costeffective, environmentally benign, and most abundant natural biopolymer,^{13, 14} is potentially a suitable scaffold. Its surface

This journal is © The Royal Society of Chemistry 20xx

catalytic activity. Cellulose possesses an extra handle to finetune its physiochemical behavior, i.e., solubility, dispersity, and ligation properties. Cellulose and its derivatives have been also used as efficient, cheap, renewable, and biodegradable supports in catalysis.¹⁵⁻²¹ Among the numerous methods that have been used to prepare cellulose-supported catalysts, deposited Pd particles on cellulose are one of the most widely studied.²²⁻²⁴ This approach though may cause problems like catalyst deactivation and metal leaching. Li and other groups have introduced diphenylphosphinite-anchored cellulose to coordinate with palladium. But this methodology required a tediously long-time for preparation and showed a narrow range of applications.^{25, 26} Herein, we report a cellulose-Pd nanocatalyst with wide catalytic activity. The efficiency and recyclability of this environmentally friendly cellulosepalladium catalyst was examined using common palladiumcatalyzed cross coupling reactions (Scheme 1).

can interact with metal nanoparticles to display the desired



Scheme 1 Cellulose-Pd nanoparticles for general cross-coupling chemistry.

Results and discussion

^{a.} Department of Chemistry, University of Louisville, Louisville, Kentucky, 40292, United States.

Email: gb.hammond@louisville.edu; sachin.handa@louisville.eduAddress here. ^{b.} Materials Characterization, Conn Center for Renewable Energy Research,

University of Louisville, Louisville, KY 40292, USA.

Electronic Supplementary Information (ESI) available: [details of any supplementary information available should be included here]. See DOI: 10.1039/x0xx00000x

Journal Name

ARTICLE

We study using an inexpensive 2began our (diphenylphosphino) benzoic acid that acted as a linker to the microcrystalline cellulose (Cell) and which was then coordinated with palladium nanoparticles (NPs). It was anticipated that the position of the phosphine and ester linkages was going to be crucial for imparting stability and efficacy to the resulting catalyst. The steric bulk from the diphenylphosphine motif was thought to protect the ester linkage from hydrolysis under basic conditions. At the same time, the ester group was thought to coordinate with the Pd center to stabilize the catalyst. The synthetic protocol began with the nucleophilic substitution of Cell-OTs with 2-(diphenylphosphino) benzoic acid (Scheme 2). The resulting microcrystalline cellulose-phosphinite was then doped with palladium nanoparticles to complete the preparation of 5; this catalyst was fully characterized by FTIR and NMR. (see Supporting Information)



Scheme 2. Synthetic protocol of Cellulose-Pd NPs.

After obtaining 5, its catalytic activity was surveyed. At first, it was used in Suzuki-Miyaura (SM) cross-couplings (Table 1). Aryl bromides and iodides displayed very good reactivity. MIDA boronate and boronic acid were also tolerated. Fluoro (8a), cyclic ether (8a, b, f), acetyl (8b-e, h), nitrile (8e), trifluoromethyl (8f), and aldehyde (8h) functionalities displayed good-to-excellent reactivity. The activity of this nanocatalyst was next tested in Sonogashira couplings (Table 2). Aryl iodides and bromides showed good reactivity. Excellent yields were obtained in all cases. Nitro (11b), acetyl (11c), nitrile (11d), ester (11e, k), trifluoromethylether (11g), sulfonamide (11i), aldehyde (11j), and trifluoromethyl (11k) residues tolerated the reaction conditions without decrease in reaction yields. Notably, esters 11e, k did not hydrolyze.

Table 1. Catalytic activity of 5 for Suzuki–Miyaura couplings



Reaction conditions: Aryl halide (0.2 mmol), aryl boronic acid (1.1 equiv), 5 (3 mol %), K2CO3 (2.0 equiv.), 2 mL EtOH, 1 mL H2O, 80 $^\circ$ C, 3 h.



Reaction conditions: Aryl halide (0.2 mmol), alkyne (1.1 equiv.), 5 (3 mol %), Cul (5 mol %), Et₃N (2.0 equiv.), 1 mL DMF, 80 $^{\circ}$ C, 15 h. [a] X = Br

The catalytic activity was also examined in Heck crosscouplings. (Table 3). Both aryl iodide (14a) and bromides (14bg) were suitable substrates. Electron-rich and electron-

Journal Name

deficient (14a, g) residues displayed similar behaviours. Different functionalities such as ether (14e), ester (14a, f, g), ketal (14e), and sulfonamide (14d) were tolerated. Notably, substrates possessing the difluoromethyl (14b, 14e) and pentafluorosulfur (14c) motifs remained intact and no side reactions were observed. Furthermore, no ester hydrolysis was observed in cases where coupling partners had ester residues (14f, g).





Reaction conditions: Aryl halide (0.2 mmol), alkene (1.1 equiv.), ${\bf 5}$ (3 mol %), Et_3N (1.1 equiv.), K_2CO_3 (1.5 equiv.), 1 mL DMF, 120 °C, 15 h.

The catalyst activity was further tested in a tandem reaction, namely C—H activation followed by annulation, to prepare a hydroxylisoindolone derivative.²⁷ As shown in Scheme 3a, the reaction was completed in one hour, furnishing **17b** in excellent isolated yield. Surprisingly, the bromo functionality on the aryl residue did not show any reactivity. This nanocatalyst was then employed on a gram scale intermolecular Heck reaction: within 4 h the product **14h** was obtained in 88% yield, employing only 1 mol% catalyst. Another application of this protocol was the synthesis of a ligand precursor. Upon reaction of aryl triflate **19** with a sterically congested 2,6-dimethylphenylboronic acid, the product **20** was obtained in 68% isolated yield, along with catalyst recovery and re-use.^{28, 29}

3a) tandem C—H activation and annulation



conditions: 15 (0.5 mmol), 16 (1.5 mmol), 5 (10 mol%), TBHP (5.0 equiv.), 1,4-dioxane, 100 °C, 1 h); see SI for details.



Another demonstration of the value of our catalyst was in the synthesis of organic materials; as shown in Scheme 4, dibromoperylene diimide (PDIs) **21** underwent simultaneous double substitution to afford **22** in good yield.³⁰



Condition: 21 (0.2 mmol), 5 (2 mol%), ethynyltrimethylsilane (3 mmol), Cul (1 mol%), Et_3N (3 equiv), 1,4-dioxane, 0.2 M, 80 $^\circ$ C, 27 h

Our catalyst was recycled by simple filtration, without any additional manipulation, and without losing its catalytic activity. A recycling study revealed that the effectiveness of the catalyst held for up to five cycles. To recycle this catalyst, the liquid phase was removed after reaction completion by centrifugation, followed by washing with water to remove the salt. The catalyst was re-used without adding more palladium nanoparticles (see SI for details). A control experiment was also conducted using Pd(OAc)₂ and cellulose particles; in it we observed a 80% reduction in yield in the second recycle event (Scheme 5a, for details, See SI). In a separate control experiment, a Heck reaction was conducted with cellulose and Pd(OAc)₂ and none of the desired product was detected, underscoring the importance of our catalyst grafting process (Scheme 5b).

Scheme 4. Synthesis of PDI.

ARTICLE

a) Suzuki-Miyaura coupling with grafted catalyst 5 and ungrafted Pd



In order to gain insights into the nature of catalyst **5**, transmission electron microscopic (TEM) images of the fresh as well as the five-times recycled catalyst were recorded in Figure 1. In both samples, a high concentration of Pd nanoparticles (appearing as bright spots) was observed on the surface of carbon support particles (Figure 1 a,c). There is a clear difference in the Pd nanoparticle size distribution between these two samples.



Figure 1. (a). Low-magnification STEM data from fresh catalyst, (b) Highermagnification STEM images of regions marked in panel (a); (c). Low-magnification STEM data from five-times recycled catalyst; (d) Higher-magnification STEM images of regions marked in panels (c).

For the fresh catalyst, a bimodal size distribution is evident with many nanoparticles having ~1 nm diameter and with the remaining nanoparticles in a size range of about 3-4 nm (Figure 1b). On the other hand, the recycled catalyst shows almost all particles in the 3-4 nm range (Figure 1d). XPS analysis of these two catalysts shows the change in the Pd valence state. As indicated by the analysis of the Pd3d line, both catalysts show Pd(II) and Pd(0) states. The relative concentration of these valence states changed slightly, from 0.44 in the fresh catalyst (Figure 2a) to 0.39 in the recycled catalyst (Figure 2b), which helped to explain why the catalyst maintained its catalytic efficiency. Thermogravimetric analysis was performed to evaluate the stability of the catalyst at high temperature. As shown in Figure S2 in the SI, the catalyst system showed high thermal stability with decomposition occurring around 225 °C.



The residual palladium in the product was also assayed with inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS). Two products, **8a** and **14b**, from different types of coupling reactions were tested and both fell within the normal limits set by the FDA (**8a**: 2ppm, **14b**: 0.3ppm). The low Pd content further underscored the usefulness of this cellulose-bound nanocatalyst.

Conclusions

In summary, we have developed a new cellulose-palladium nanocatalyst (Cell-OOCPhPPh₂-Pd) using simple starting materials and a convenient synthesis. This catalyst shows good activity in C-H activation and three other types of cross-coupling reactions. The products from those reactions contain low Pd residues. This catalyst was also easily recycled without obvious loss in the catalytic activity even after several runs. Considering the importance of the above features, we believe that this catalyst could be an excellent choice for the pharmaceutical industry.

Experimental

General procedure for Suzuki-Miyaura coupling reactions:

An 8-mL vial fitted with a stirring bar was charged with aryl halide (0.2 mmol), K_2CO_3 (0.4 mmol), boronic acid (0.22mmol), 3% catalyst **5** (4 mg). 3 mL of a mixed solvent (ethanol: water = 2:1) was added and the mixture was flushed with argon for 1 min. The reaction was heated to 80 °C and stirred at 500 r/min for 2 hours while monitored by GC-MS. After the reaction was

Journal Name

Journal Name

completed, the mixture was poured into 30 mL EtOAc that was then washed with 10 mL water, and brine. The organic layer was dried over Na_2SO_4 . filtered and the filtrate was concentrated. The resulting crude product was purified with flash chromatography.

Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts to declare

Acknowledgements

We are grateful to the National Science Foundation for financial support (CHE-1401700). Z.L. is grateful to the Institute of Molecular Diversity and Drug Design (IMD3) of the University of Louisville for a graduate fellowship.

Notes and references

1. B. L. Nilsson, M. B. Soellner and R. T. Raines, Annu. Rev. Biophys. Biomol. Struct., 2005, 34, 91-118.

2. O. Koniev and A. Wagner, Chem. Soc. Rev., 2015, 44, 5495-5551.

3. V. R. Pattabiraman and J. W. Bode, Nature, 2011, 480, 471-479.

4. T. J. Colacot, Platinum Met. Rev., 2011, 55, 84-90.

5. C. C. Johansson Seechurn, M. O. Kitching, T. J. Colacot and V. Snieckus, Angew. Chem. Int. Ed., 2012, 51, 5062-5085.

6. P. G. Gildner and T. J. Colacot, Organometallics, 2015, 34, 5497-5508.

7. J. M. Brown, Angew. Chem. Int. Ed., 2015, 54, 5003-5003.

8. N. T. S. Phan, M. Van Der Sluys and C. W. Jones, Adv. Synth. Catal., 2006, 348, 609-679.

9. D. Chattopadhyay, Resonance, 2017, 22, 79-87.

10. J. Magano and J. R. Dunetz, Chem. Rev., 2011, 111, 2177-2250.

11. C. C. C. Johansson Seechurn, A. DeAngelis and T. J. Colacot, in New Trends in Cross-Coupling: Theory and Applications, The Royal Society of Chemistry, 2015, DOI: 10.1039/9781782620259-00001, pp. 1-19.

12. E. J. O'Neal, C. H. Lee, J. Brathwaite and K. F. Jensen, ACS Catal., 2015, 5, 2615-2622.

13. E. R. P. Keijsers, G. Ylmaz and J. E. G. van Dam, Carbohydr. Polym., 2013, 93, 9-21.

14. M. Jonoobi, R. Oladi, Y. Davoudpour, K. Oksman, A. Dufresne, Y. Hamzeh and R. Davoodi, Cellulose (Dordrecht, Neth.), 2015, 22, 935-969.

15. X. Wang, Y. Xu, F. Wang and Y. Wei, J. Appl. Polym. Sci., 2015, 132, 41427/41421-41427/41428.

16. T. Baran, I. Sargin, M. Kaya and A. Menteş, Carbohydr. Polym., 2016, 152, 181-188.

17. M. Kaushik and A. Moores, Green Chem., 2016, 18, 622-637.

18. C. M. Cirtiu, A. F. Dunlop-Brière and A. Moores, Green Chem., 2011, 13, 288-291.

19. T. Yasukawa, H. Miyamura and S. Kobayashi, Chem. Sci., 2015, 6, 6224-6229.

20. M. Kaushik, K. Basu, C. Benoit, C. M. Cirtiu, H. Vali and A. Moores, J. Am. Chem. Soc., 2015, 137, 6124-6127.

21. Y. Li, L. Xu, B. Xu, Z. Mao, H. Xu, Y. Zhong, L. Zhang, B. Wang and X. Sui, ACS Appl. Mater. Interfaces, 2017, 9, 17155-17162.

22. K. Rajender Reddy, N. S. Kumar, P. Surendra Reddy, B. Sreedhar and M. Lakshmi Kantam, J. Mol. Catal. A: Chem., 2006, 252, 12-16.

23. Y. Xu, L. Zhang and Y. Cui, J. Appl. Polym. Sci., 2008, 110, 2996-3000.

24. A. Molnar and A. Papp, Catal. Sci. Technol., 2014, 4, 295-310.

25. Q. Du and Y. Li, Beilstein J. Org. Chem., 2011, 7, 378-385.

26. Q. Du and Y. Li, Res. Chem. Intermed., 2012, 38, 1807-1817.

27. Q. Yu, N. Zhang, J. Huang, S. Lu, Y. Zhu, X. Yu and K. Zhao, Chem. Eur. J., 2013, 19, 11184-11188.

28. Q. Zhao, C. Li, C. H. Senanayake and W. Tang, Chem. Eur. J., 2013, 19, 2261-2265.

29. W. Tang, A. G. Capacci, X. Wei, W. Li, A. White, N. D. Patel, J. Savoie, J. J. Gao, S. Rodriguez, B. Qu, N. Haddad, B. Z. Lu, D. Krishnamurthy, N. K. Yee and C. H. Senanayake, Angew. Chem. Int. Ed., 2010, 49, 5879-5883.

30. H. Kang, W. Jiang and Z. Wang, Dyes and Pigments, 2013, 97, 244-249.