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Electroorganic Synthesis in Aqueous Solution via Generation of Strongly Oxidizing and Reducing Intermediates

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Water is the ideal green solvent for organic electrosynthesis. However, a majority of electroorganic processes require potentials that lie beyond the electrochemical window for water. In general, water oxidation and reduction lead to poor synthetic yields and selectivity or altogether prohibit carrying out a desired reaction. Herein, we report several electroorganic reactions in water using synthetic strategies referred to as *reductive oxidation* and *oxidative reduction*. Reductive oxidation involves the homogeneous reduction of peroxydisulfate ($S_2O_8^{2-}$) via electrogenerated Ru(NH₃)₆²⁺ at potential of -0.2 V vs. Ag/AgCl (3.5 M KCl) to form the highly oxidizing sulfate radical anion ($E^{0'}$ (SO₄^{-/}/SO₄²⁻) = 2.21 V vs. Ag/AgCl), which is capable of oxidizing species beyond the water oxidation potential. Electrochemically generated SO₄⁺⁻ then efficiently abstracts a hydrogen atom from a variety of organic compounds such as benzyl alcohol and toluene to yield product in water. The reverse analogue of reductive oxidation is oxidative reduction. In this case, the homogeneous oxidation of oxalate ($C_2O_4^{2-}$) by electrochemically generated Ru(bpy)₃³⁺ produces the strongly reducing carbon dioxide radical anion ($E^{0'}$ (CO₂⁻⁺/CO₂) = -2.1 V vs. Ag/AgCl), which can reduce species at potential beyond the water or proton reduction potential. In preliminary studies, the

 CO_2 has used to homogenously reduce the C–Br moiety belonging to benzyl bromide at an oxidizing potential in aqueous solution.

Introduction

A goal of chemical industries is to develop processes that can be performed in aqueous solution. Besides intrinsic greenness, several features such as abundance and minimal solvent handling make water a very appealing solvent. In this context, developing electroorganic reactions that can be carried out in an aqueous solution is a very attractive idea. In comparison to popular organic solvents such as dimethyl formamide (DMF) and acetonitrile (MeCN), water has a large dielectric constant, thus allowing for the use of common inorganic supporting electrolytes and reagents at high concentrations. However, in general, electroorganic reactions in an aqueous solution are limited by the small potential window of water, which is defined as the potentials beyond which water undergoes direct reduction and oxidation (i.e., eqs. 1 and 2).^{1, 2}

$$2H_2O + 2e^- \rightleftharpoons H_2 + 2OH^- E^0 = -1.1 \text{ V vs. Ag/AgCl} (3.5 \text{ M KCl}) (alkaline solution)$$
(1)

$$2H_2O \rightleftharpoons 4H^+ + O_2 + 4e^- E^0 = 1.03 \text{ V vs. Ag/AgCl} (3.5 \text{ M KCl}) \text{ (acidic solution)}$$
(2)

The majority of the electroorganic reactions, such as the electrochemical reduction of C–X (X = Cl, Br, I) bonds or electrochemical C–H bond oxidation, require the application of potentials beyond the water potential window.³ Therefore, water reduction/oxidation interferes with electroorganic reactions, yielding undesirable side products and low reaction yields.

In a recent report, we have proposed that the electrogeneration of highly oxidizing/reducing intermediates from water soluble reagents, and interception of these transient species by organic compounds, provides a promising approach to perform electroorganic reactions that would

normally be prohibited by the oxidation or reduction of water.¹² Electrogeneration of highly oxidizing and reducing intermediates was developed by Bard and coworkers to create excited state species in aqueous solutions that emitted light, a process referred to as electrogenerated chemiluminescence or ECL.⁴ In particular, two approaches for generating ECL are based on: (1) $S_2O_8^{2-}$ reduction to generate the strong oxidant, SO_4^{--} and (2) $C_2O_4^{2-}$ oxidation to generate the strong reductant, $CO_2^{-.4-6}$ In the present work, we employed $S_2O_8^{2-}$ reduction and $C_2O_4^{2-}$ oxidation as the initial steps in performing synthetic organic reactions in aqueous solutions.

Figure 1 shows the cyclic voltammogram for the direct reduction of $S_2O_8^{2-}$ (red trace) and oxidation of $C_2O_4^{2-}$ (blue trace) at a glassy carbon (GC) electrode. Briefly, the one-electron reduction of $S_2O_8^{2-}$ generates $S_2O_8^{3-}$, which rapidly dissociates to form SO_4^{2-} and the highly oxidizing sulfate radical anion ($E^{0'}$ (SO_4^{-}/SO_4^{2-}) = 2.21 V vs. Ag/AgCl (3.5 M KCl).⁵⁻⁷ Electrogenerated SO_4^{--} can be further reduced at the working electrode. Alternatively, SO_4^{--} can accept an electron from a molecular species in solution, resulting in oxidation of that species (e.g., halides, organometallic complexes, arenes).⁸ Because the reduction of $S_2O_8^{2-}$ results in the oxidation of a molecule in solution, we refer to this electrochemical reaction sequence as *reductive oxidation*. In contrast to $S_2O_8^{2-}$, the one-electron oxidation of $C_2O_4^{2-}$ yields the transient $C_2O_4^{--}$ that rapidly dissociates to CO_2 and the highly reducing carbon dioxide radical anion ($E^{0'}$ (CO_2^{--}/CO_2) = -2.1 V vs. Ag/AgCl (3.5 M KCl)).^{9, 10} Electrogenerated CO_2^{--} can undergo a subsequent 1*e* oxidation at the working electrode or can be used to reduce a solution species. Hence, the electrochemical reaction sequence is referred to as *oxidative reduction*.

The short-lived intermediates $S_2O_8^{3-}$ ($\tau_{1/2} \sim 5 \text{ ps}$)¹² and $C_2O_4^{-}$ ($\tau_{1/2} \sim 1 \text{ µs}$)¹¹ decompose to SO_4^{-} and CO_2^{-} respectively, in close vicinity to the electrode surface and can be rapidly reduced to SO_4^{2-} or oxidized to CO_2 , respectively. Consequently, direct oxidation of $C_2O_4^{2-}$ or reduction

of $S_2O_8^{2-}$ generates low amounts of CO_2^{-} and SO_4^{-} in solution, respectively, that can be used to carry out synthetic transformations (left side of Figure 1B and 1C). To avoid the oxidation of CO_2^{-} and reduction of SO_4^{-} at the electrode surface, an outer-sphere redox mediator (i.e., species A in Figure 1B and 1C) is required to reduce $S_2O_8^{2-}$ and oxidize $C_2O_4^{2-}$. In contrast to the direct reactions of these species at the electrode, the use of a mediator yields SO_4^{-} and CO_2^{-} several tens of micrometers from the working electrode, ¹² where they can be intercepted by organic compounds for synthetic purposes.



Figure 1. (A) Cyclic voltammetry in an O₂-free aqueous solution containing 5.0 mM Na₂S₂O₈ (red trace), 5.0 mM Na₂C₂O₄ (blue trace) and 0.1 M Na₂SO₄ (pH = 6.8). Schematic of direct vs. mediated mechanisms for the (B) reductive oxidation and (C) oxidative reduction processes. Voltammograms were recorded at a scan rate (v) of 100 mV/s using a 0.07 cm² GC working electrode, a Pt mesh auxiliary electrode, and a Ag/AgCl (3.5 M KCl) reference electrode.

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 $S_2O_8^{2-}$ is widely employed in (non-electrochemical) organic synthesis. SO_4^{-} , generated by heat or light, is an efficient reagent for hydrogen atom abstraction from organic compounds, and there are several reports where $S_2O_8^{2-}$ is utilized for C–H activation reactions.¹³⁻¹⁵ In contrast, to the best of our knowledge, $C_2O_4^{2-}$ has never been utilized for synthetic purposes. Rather, the CO_2^{-} is typically generated from formate oxidation.¹⁶⁻¹⁸ Recent reports show that photochemically generated CO_2^{-} can be used to reductively cleave the C–Cl moiety in electron-deficient chloroarenes^{16, 17} or in hydrocarboxylation reactions.¹⁸ In both cases, however, an organic solvent was employed to carry out the chemical reaction, and the SO_4^{-} and CO_2^{-} were generated using light or heat.

Herein, we describe our recent efforts to apply the mediated electrochemical reduction of $S_2O_8^{2-}$ by electrogenerated hexaammineruthenium(II) (Ru(NH₃)₆²⁺) to carry out C–H oxidation of benzyl alcohol and toluene in aqueous solution. Additionally, we describe preliminary studies of the mediated electrooxidation of oxalate using tris(bipyridine)ruthenium(III) (Ru(bpy)₃³⁺) to form CO_2^{-} in an aqueous solution. Electrogenerated CO_2^{-} is used for the homogeneous reduction of the C–Br moiety in benzyl bromide and for the reduction of Zn²⁺ in an aqueous solution.

Results and Discussion

The direct reduction of $S_2O_8^{2-}$ and rapid dissociation of $S_2O_8^{2-}$ produces SO_4^{+-} within ~10 nm of the GC electrode. Therefore, the direct reduction of the SO_4^{+-} at the GC electrode occurs prior to being intercepted by an organic compound. Several outer-sphere mediators were explored for the homogeneous reduction of $S_2O_8^{2-}$. Figure 2 shows the cyclic voltammetry (CV) of the GC electrode in solutions containing nitrobenzene (NB), hexaammineruthenium(III) chloride (Ru(NH₃)₆³⁺), potassium hexacyanoferrate(III) (Fe(CN)₆³⁻), and potassium hexachloroiridate(III) ([IrCl₆]³⁻) in the presence and absence of $S_2O_8^{2-}$. All four mediators show chemically and

thermodynamically reversible 1*e* reduction behavior in the absence of $S_2O_8^{2-}$. Upon addition of $S_2O_8^{2-}$, the voltammetric responses of $[IrCl_6]^{3-}$ and $Fe(CN)_6^{3-}$ remain unchanged. On the other hand, the CVs of Ru(NH₃)₆³⁺ and NB in the presence of $S_2O_8^{2-}$ show an increase in the cathodic peak current, concurrent with the disappearance of the reverse anodic peak. These results indicate that the electrogenerated Ru(NH₃)₆²⁺ and NB radical anion are both capable of reducing $S_2O_8^{2-}$, presumably by a 1*e* transfer. In comparison with nitrobenzene, Ru(NH₃)₆²⁺ reduces $S_2O_8^{2-}$ at a less negative potential and generates a larger electrocatalytic current. Therefore, Ru(NH₃)₆³⁺ was selected as the electrocatalyst to homogenously generate SO₄⁻⁻ for the subsequent electroorganic reactions. We also note that Ru(NH₃)₆²⁺ reduces $S_2O_8^{2-}$ at potentials approximately 0.5 V more positive than where $S_2O_8^{2-}$ is directly reduced at GC. Thus, Ru(NH₃)₆²⁺ acts as an efficient electrocatalyst for $S_2O_8^{2-}$ reduction, generating SO₄⁻⁻ in the solution at potentials where $S_2O_8^{2-}$ is not directly reduced at the GC electrode. This combination of properties ensures that SO₄⁻⁻ is available for synthetic purposes, as shown on the right-side column of Figure 1B.



Figure 2. Cyclic voltammetry of 0.5 mM (magenta) NB, (blue) $\text{Ru}(\text{NH}_3)_6^{3+}$, (green) $\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6^{3-}$, and (red) $[\text{IrCl}_6]^{3-}$ in an O₂-free aqueous solution, in the absence and presence of 5 mM Na₂S₂O₈ (dashed black trace). Voltammograms were recorded at a scan rate (v) of 100 mV/s using a 0.07 cm² GC working electrode, a Pt mesh auxiliary electrode, and a Ag/AgCl (3.5 M KCl) reference electrode. The solution contained 0.1 M Na₂SO₄ (pH = 6.8).

Figure 3 shows the variation of the height of the cathodic peak upon addition of 2.0 mM benzyl alcohol (**BA**) to a solution containing 0.5 mM Ru(NH₃)₆³⁺ and 4.5 mM S₂O₈^{2-,12} The dependence of the cathodic peak current as function of **BA** concentration is shown in Figure 3B. We have previously proposed a five-step mechanism for the electrocatalytic reduction of S₂O₈²⁻ via Ru(NH₃)₆³⁺ (eq. 1–5) based on CV analysis. The 1*e* reduction of Ru(NH₃)₆³⁺ yields Ru(NH₃)₆²⁺ (eq. 1), which homogeneously reduces S₂O₈²⁻ resulting in the regeneration of Ru(NH₃)₆³⁺ and the generation of S₂O₈³⁺⁻ (eq. 2). Electrogenerated S₂O₈³⁺⁻ dissociates rapidly (i.e., $\tau_{1/2} < 5$ ps) forming SO₄²⁻ and SO₄⁺⁻. Finally, SO₄⁺⁻ reduces by 1*e* either via homogeneous reduction by Ru(NH₃)₆²⁺ (eq. 4) or directly at the working electrode (eq. 5).

$$\operatorname{Ru}(\operatorname{NH}_3)_6{}^{3+} + e^- \rightleftharpoons \operatorname{Ru}(\operatorname{NH}_3)_6{}^{2+} \tag{1}$$

$$Ru(NH_3)_6{}^{2+} + S_2O_8{}^{2-} \rightleftharpoons Ru(NH_3)_6{}^{3+} + S_2O_8{}^{3-}$$
(2)

$$S_2 O_8^{3 \bullet} \rightleftharpoons SO_4^{2-} + SO_4^{\bullet-} \tag{3}$$

$$\operatorname{Ru}(\operatorname{NH}_3)_6{}^{2+} + \operatorname{SO}_4{}^{-} \rightleftharpoons \operatorname{Ru}(\operatorname{NH}_3)_6{}^{3+} + \operatorname{SO}_4{}^{2-}$$
(4)

$$SO_4 - + e^- \rightleftharpoons SO_4^{2-}$$
 (5)

The decrease of the cathodic peak height (i.e., i_{pc}) in the presence of BA results from SO₄⁻⁻ abstracting a hydrogen atom from benzyl alcohol to form the corresponding benzyl alcohol radical (**BAR**) (eq. 6). The BAR can then be oxidized to yield benzaldehyde (**BAL**) via reaction with SO₄⁻⁻ (eq. 7) or Ru(NH₃)₆³⁺ (eq. 8). A direct consequence of eqs. 6 and 7 is the homogenous conversion of SO₄⁻⁻ to SO₄²⁻ in solution rather than at the electrode. Thus, i_{pc} decreases with increasing concentration of BA, as shown in Figure 3B.



 $Ru(NH_3)_6^{3+} + BAR \rightarrow Ru(NH_3)_6^{2+} + H^+ + BAL \quad (8)$



Figure 3. (A) Cyclic voltammetric response in an O₂-free H₂O-MeCN solution (80% H₂O v/v) containing (red) 0.50 mM Ru(NH₃)₆³⁺, (black) 0.50 mM Ru(NH₃)₆³⁺and 4.5 mM S₂O₈²⁻, and (green) 0.50 mM Ru(NH₃)₆³⁺, 4.5 mM S₂O₈²⁻, and 2.0 mM **BA**. (B) Cathodic peak current (i_{pc}) versus the concentration of benzyl alcohol. Voltammograms were recorded at a scan rate (v) of 100 mV/s using a 0.07 cm² GC working electrode, a Pt mesh auxiliary electrode, and a Ag/AgCl (3.5 M KCl) reference electrode. The solution contained 0.1 M Na₂SO₄ (pH = 6.8).

The utility of the Ru(NH₃)₆³⁺/S₂O₈²⁻ system for the electrochemical oxidation of BA was examined via constant potential electrolysis at -0.5 V vs. Ag/AgCl (3.5 M KCl) in a divided cell, using a reticulated vitreous carbon (RVC) disk as the working electrode.¹² The scope of the aliphatic and benzylic alcohol oxidation via mediated reductive oxidation is shown in Figure 4A. Mediated reductive oxidation of various alcohols in neutral pH (i.e., pH = 6.8) yields aldehydes/ketones whereas electrolysis in basic pH (i.e., pH = 12.5) predominately yields carboxylic acids.



Figure 4. Utility of reductive oxidation for: (A) selective oxidation of aliphatic and benzylic alcohols; (B) oxidation of benzylic $C(sp^3)$ –H; and (C) hydroxylation of aliphatic amines. Constant potential electrolysis was performed at -0.5 V vs. Ag/AgCl (3.5 M KCl) in an O₂-free H₂O-MeCN solution (80% H₂O v/v) containing 0.1 M Na₂SO₄ using a divided cell. In (A) and (C), a RVC disk was employed as the working electrode, whereas in (B) a graphite rod working electrode was used.

Electrochemical reductive oxidation of BA involves the reaction of SO_4 with a relatively weak benzylic C–H bond (BDE ~80 kcal/mol).¹⁹ In preliminary experiments, we next examined the utility of reductive oxidation toward activation of the significantly stronger benzylic C(sp³)– H bond of toluene (BDE ~88 kcal/mol).²⁰ The benzylic C–H activation of toluene is typically carried out using photochemical methods.^{21,22} As shown in Figure 5A, the peak potential for the direct oxidation of toluene overlaps with the onset of water oxidation. Therefore, any attempt to directly oxidize toluene at E > 1.95 V vs. Ag/AgCl (3.5 M KCl) in an aqueous solution results in water oxidation. However, reductive oxidation via reduction of S₂O₈^{2–} at negative potentials allows for toluene oxidation. Upon addition of 5.0 mM toluene to an aqueous solution containing 0.5 mM Ru(NH₃)₆³⁺ and 3.0 mM S₂O₈²⁻, the height of the cathodic peak decreases (Figure 5B). In the absence of toluene, electrogenerated SO₄⁻⁻ is reduced by Ru(NH₃)₆²⁺ (i.e., eq. 4) or directly at the working electrode (i.e., eq. 5). However, electrogenerated SO₄⁻⁻ homogeneously oxidizes toluene, which manifests itself as a decrease in the cathodic peak current, suggesting that reductive oxidation enables toluene oxidation in aqueous solution. Electrolysis of 5.0 mM toluene was carried out in the presence of 1.0 mM Ru(NH₃)₆³⁺ and 25 mM S₂O₈²⁻ at a constant potential of – 0.5 V vs. Ag/AgCl (3.5 M KCl). Electrolysis was performed in a divided cell containing an O₂-free solution of H₂O-MeCN (80% v/v H₂O) using a graphite rod as the working electrode. Analysis of the product distribution revealed that ~ 80% of the toluene was oxidized to bibenzyl, and ~ 17% of the toluene was converted to benzaldehyde as the result of overoxidation via SO₄⁺⁻ (Figure 4B).



Figure 5. (A) Cyclic voltammetry in the absence (green) and presence of 5.0 mM toluene (magenta). (B) CVs of a solution containing: (black) 0.50 mM Ru(NH₃)₆³⁺; (red) 0.50 mM Ru(NH₃)₆³⁺and 4.5 mM S₂O₈²⁻; and (blue) 0.50 mM Ru(NH₃)₆³⁺, 4.5 mM S₂O₈²⁻, and 2.0 mM BA. All CVs were recorded using a 0.07 cm² GC working electrode, a Pt mesh auxiliary electrode, and a Ag/AgCl (3.5 M KCl) reference electrode. The measurements were made at v = 100 mV/s in an O₂-free H₂O/MeCN solution (80% H₂O v/v) containing 0.1 M Na₂SO₄ (pH = 6.5).

Finally, we examined the activation of even stronger 3° C–H bonds in protonated aliphatic amines (BDE ~96 kcal/mol). The oxygenation of analogous substrates was carried out previously

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by Sanford and coworkers via thermal activation of $S_2O_8^{2-}$ to functionalize 3° C(sp³)–H bonds in a dilute H_2SO_4 solution.²³ This homogenous chemical process was shown to have a high yield and to be applicable to a large scope of substrates.

Electrochemical hydroxylation was carried out at constant potential of -0.5 V vs. Ag/AgCl in a phosphate buffer solution (pH = 3.1) containing 1.0 mM Ru(NH₃)₆³⁺, 30 mM S₂O₈²⁻, and 5.0 mM of an aliphatic amine. As shown in Figure 4C, three aliphatic amines were hydroxylated at the 3° site, demonstrating the utility of mediated reductive oxidation for this class of substrates.

Analogous to the use of $S_2O_8^{2-}$ reduction for carrying out oxidations, $C_2O_4^{2-}$ oxidation can be used for performing reduction of organic species. The direct oxidation of $C_2O_4^{2-}$ ($E^{0'}$ ($C_2O_4^{--}$ $C_2O_4^{2-}$) = 1.2 vs Ag/AgCl (3.5 M KCl)) results in the formation of the CO_2^{-} very close to the electrode surface (< 1 μ m), which leads to the preferential oxidation of the CO₂⁻ at the electrode rather than in solution with a reaction partner.¹¹ To circumvent this problem, a redox mediator can be used to generate CO₂⁻⁻ further away from the electrode surface. Potassium hexachloroiridate(II) $([IrCl_6]^{4-}),$ tris(2,2'-bipyridine)iron(II) tetrafluoroborate $(Fe(bpy)_{3^{2+}}),$ and tris(2,2'bipyridine)ruthenium(II) chloride (Ru(bpy)₃²⁺) were screened for the ability of their oxidized forms to oxidize $C_2O_4^{2-}$ (Figure 6). In general, as $E^{0'}$ of the metal-based mediator becomes more positive, the rate of mediation increases, in agreement with prior results reported by Bard and coworkers.²⁴ As shown in Figure 6A, a minimal increase in the anodic peak current for [IrCl₆]^{4–} oxidation occurs upon addition of $C_2O_4^{2-}$, indicating that transfer of an electron from $C_2O_4^{2-}$ to $[IrCl_6]^{3-}$ is negligible. Upon addition of $C_2O_4^{2-}$ to a solution containing Fe(bpy)₃²⁺, a sigmoidal CV shape representative of sluggish homogeneous electron transfer is observed, as previously reported.²² However, the CV of Ru(bpy)₃²⁺ in the presence of $C_2O_4^{2-}$ shows that electrogenerated $Ru(bpy)_{3^{3+}}$ can rapidly accept an electron from $C_{2}O_{4^{2-}}$, in agreement with previous reports.²⁴



Figure 6. Cyclic voltammetry of in an O₂-free H₂O/MeCN solution (90% H₂O v/v) containing 0.1 M PBS (pH = 7.3) with (red) 1.0 mM IrCl₆⁴⁻; (violet) Fe(bpy)₃²⁺; and (blue) Ru(bpy)₃²⁺, in the absence and presence of 2.0 mM C₂O₄²⁻ (dashed black traces). All CVs were recorded using a 0.07 cm² GC working electrode, a Pt mesh auxiliary electrode, and a Ag/AgCl (3.5 M KCl) reference electrode. The measurements were made at v = 10 mV/s.

The Ru(bpy)₃²⁺/C₂O₄²⁻ system was used to generate the CO₂⁻⁻ for the reduction of benzyl bromide and Zn²⁺ ions. Figure 7A shows a decrease in the anodic peak current for Ru(bpy)₃²⁺ oxidation upon addition of 3.0 mM benzyl bromide to a solution of 1.0 mM Ru(bpy)₃²⁺ and 2.0 mM C₂O₄²⁻. Based on the reported ECL mechanism for the Ru(bpy)₃²⁺/C₂O₄²⁻ system along with analysis of the CV of Ru(bpy)₃²⁺ in the presence of C₂O₄²⁻, a 7-step mechanism for the oxidation of C₂O₄²⁻ by electrogenerated Ru(bpy)₃³⁺ (eq. 9–15) is proposed to occur.^{24, 25} Briefly, Ru(bpy)₃³⁺ is produced from the 1*e* oxidation of Ru(bpy)₃²⁺ (eq. 9). Then, Ru(bpy)₃³⁺ homogeneously oxidizes C₂O₄²⁻ to yield C₂O₄⁻⁻ (eq. 10), which rapidly decomposes (i.e., $\tau_{1/2} \approx 1 \mu$ s) into CO₂ and CO₂⁻⁻ (eq. 11). The CO₂⁻⁻ in solution can reduce Ru(bpy)₃³⁺ to Ru(bpy)₃²⁺ (eq. 12), reduce Ru(bpy)₃²⁺ to Ru(bpy)₃⁴⁺ to generate two equivalents of Ru(bpy)₃²⁺ (eq. 15).²⁷

$$Ru(bpy)_{3}^{2+} \rightleftharpoons Ru(bpy)_{3}^{3+} + e^{-}$$
(9)

$$Ru(bpy)_{3}^{3+} + C_{2}O_{4}^{2-} \rightleftharpoons Ru(bpy)_{3}^{2+} + C_{2}O_{4}^{--}$$
(10)

$$C_{2}O_{4}^{--} \rightleftharpoons CO_{2} + CO_{2}^{--}$$
(11)

$$Ru(bpy)_{3}^{3+} + CO_{2}^{--} \rightleftharpoons Ru(bpy)_{3}^{2+} + CO_{2}$$
(12)

$$Ru(bpy)_{3}^{2+} + CO_{2}^{--} \rightleftharpoons Ru(bpy)_{3}^{+} + CO_{2}$$
(13)

$$CO_{2}^{--} \rightleftharpoons CO_{2}^{--} + e^{-}$$
(14)

$$Ru(bpy)_{3}^{3+} + Ru(bpy)_{3}^{+} \rightleftharpoons 2Ru(bpy)_{3}^{2+}$$
(15)

An alternative reaction pathway for the CO₂- becomes available upon the addition of benzyl bromide to the $Ru(bpy)_3^{2+}/C_2O_4^{2-}$ system (eq. 16) wherein the C-Br bond contained in benzyl bromide is reductively cleaved via a homogeneous one-electron transfer from CO₂⁻⁻. In the absence of benzyl bromide, the CO_2 acts to regenerate the primary current-contributing species, $Ru(bpy)_{3^{2+}}$ (eq. 12–14). In the presence of benzyl bromide, however, the CO₂ - is intercepted (i.e., eq. 16), thereby avoiding the occurrence of eqs. 12-15, which leads to the decrease in anodic peak current (i_{pa}) observed in Figure 7A. In very preliminary studies, the electrolysis of the $Ru(bpy)_3^{2+}/C_2O_4^{2-}$ system in the presence of benzyl bromide predominately gives benzaldehyde as the major product. Although this result demonstrates the capability of CO₂⁻ to reductively cleave the benzylic C-Br moiety, a net oxidation occurs. At the potential required to generate CO_2 , the benzylic radical shown in eq. 16 and Br⁻ can both undergo heterogeneous oxidation to generate a benzylic cation and Br₂.²⁶ The oxygen contained in the product likely originates from water, which can act as a nucleophile to add to the electrophilic benzylic cation. This yields benzyl alcohol that is either oxidized at the electrode (or by Br₂) to give the product, benzaldehyde. Oxidative reduction reactivity can also be applied to the reduction of zinc ions (eq. 17) ($E^{0'}$

 $(Zn^{2+}/Zn) = -0.95$ V vs. Ag/AgCl (3.5 M KCl)), where two equivalents of electrogenerated CO₂⁻⁻ reduce Zn²⁺ to neutral zinc metal (Figure 7B). Although it is hypothesized that Zn⁰ is formed in this reaction, isolation and analysis of product following bulk electrolysis is still required.

$$H H + CO_2 + CO_2 + CO_2 + Br + CO_2$$
(16)

$$Zn^{2+} + 2CO_2 - \rightarrow Zn^0 + 2CO_2$$
(17)



Figure 7. (A) Cyclic voltammetry in solutions containing: (red) 0.50 mM Ru(bpy)₃²⁺; (blue) 0.50 mM Ru(bpy)₃²⁺ and 2.0 mM $C_2O_4^{2-}$; and (black) 0.50 mM Ru(bpy)₃²⁺, 2.0 mM $C_2O_4^{2-}$, and 3.0 mM benzyl bromide. (B) Cyclic voltammetry in solutions containing: (red) 0.50 mM Ru(bpy)₃²⁺; (blue) 0.50 mM Ru(bpy)₃²⁺, and 5.0 mM $C_2O_4^{2-}$; and (black) 0.50 mM Ru(bpy)₃²⁺, 5.0 mM $C_2O_4^{2-}$, and 3.0 mM ZnCl₂. Voltammogram A was recorded in a H₂O/MeCN solution (90% H₂O v/v) containing 0.1 M PBS (pH = 7.3), and B was recorded in an aqueous solution containing 0.1 M PBS (pH = 7.3). All CVs were carried out with a 0.07 cm² GC working electrode, a Pt mesh auxiliary electrode, and a Ag/AgCl (3.5 M KCl) reference electrode at v = 100 mV/s in O₂-free solutions.

Tri-*n*-propylamine (TPA) also presents an opportunity to conduct oxidative reduction as its oxidation gives rise to a strong reducing agent. The electrochemical behavior of TPA has been studied previously.²⁶ When TPA is oxidized, the TPA⁺⁺ ($\tau_{1/2} \approx 1$ ms) is rapidly deprotonated to yield TPA[•] ($E^{0'}$ (TPA[•]/TPA⁻) = -1.7 V vs. Ag/AgCl (3.5 M KCl)), which is then capable of homogeneously reducing organic compounds. Based on the half-life for the TPA^{•+}, the TPA[•] is predicted to be generated approximately 1 µm from the electrode surface where it is susceptible to oxidation. Voltammetric analysis of TPA in the presence of 2,2,6,6-tetramethyl-1-piperidinyloxy (TEMPO) demonstrates that the oxidized form of TEMPO acts as an electrocatalyst for TPA oxidation (Figure 8A). Thus, TEMPO was used to mediate TPA oxidation to form TPA[•] further from the electrode. Then, upon introduction of benzyl bromide to the TEMPO/TPA system, a decrease in peak current was observed, characteristic of oxidative reduction chemistry (Figure 8 B).



Figure 8. (A) Cyclic voltammetry in O₂-free H₂O/MeCN (90% H₂O v/v) solutions containing: (blue) 1.0 mM TEMPO; (green) 6.0 mM TPA; and (black dashed line) 1.0 mM TEMPO and 6.0 mM TPA. (B) Cyclic voltammetry in O₂-free H₂O/MeCN (90% H₂O v/v) solutions containing: (blue) 1.0 mM TEMPO; (black) 1.0 mM TEMPO and 6.0 mM TPA; and (green) 1.0 mM TEMPO, 6.0 mM TPA, and 3.0 mM benzyl bromide. All voltammograms were recorded at v = 100 mV/s using a 0.07 cm² GC working electrode, a Pt mesh auxiliary electrode, and a Ag/AgCl (3.5 M KCl) reference electrode. All solutions contained 0.1 M PBS (pH = 10.5).

Conclusion

In this work, we showcased the utility of the electrochemically generated intermediates SO_4^{-} and CO_2^{-} to carry out electroorganic reactions close to the water potential window. In both

reductive oxidation and oxidative reduction, a mediator was required to produce CO_2^{-} and SO_4^{-} away from the working electrode to allow these radical ions to react with the organic substrate. Our analysis shows that $Ru(NH_3)_6^{3+}$ is the optimal electrocatalyst for the homogeneous reduction of $S_2O_8^{2-}$. The mediated reductive oxidation using $Ru(NH_3)_6^{3+}$ and $S_2O_8^{2-}$ was employed to oxidize various benzylic and aliphatic alcohols, toluene, and aliphatic amines at -0.5 V vs. Ag/AgCl in $H_2O/MeCN$ solutions with high yield. Analogous to previous findings, oxalate oxidation can be mediated by $Ru(bpy)_3^{3+}$ to generate CO_2^{-} in water. The utility of the CO_2^{-} for electrosynthesis was examined by reductive cleavage of the C–Br moiety in benzyl bromide as well as in the reduction of Zn ions.

Experimental

Cyclic Voltammetry Studies

Cyclic voltammetry studies were carried out using a Biologic Dual Channel SP300 Potentiostat and a three-electrode configuration including a 0.07 cm² glassy carbon (GC) working electrode, a Pt mesh auxiliary electrode, and a Ag/AgCl (3.5 M KCl) reference electrode in an undivided cell. The GC electrode was polished with a slurry of 1- μ m alumina in H₂O and then dried with stream of N₂.

Controlled-Potential Electrolysis

Controlled-potential electrolysis was performed at room temperature using a Biologic Dual Channel SP300 Potentiostat. A detailed description for the preparation of the electrolysis cell and the electrolysis procedure is outlined elsewhere.²⁸ An example *i*-t trace for the mediated electrolysis of benzyl alcohol and the sequence of addition of reagents during electrolysis is shown in Figure 9. First, 20 mL of a deoxygenated H₂O-MeCN (80% H₂O v/v) was placed in the cathode compartment of the electrolysis cell. The cathode compartment was maintained under Ar for the

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duration of the electrolysis. Next, a constant potential of -0.5 V vs Ag/AgCl (3.5 M KCl) was applied to the cell which is marked by a current spike (**1**, Figure 9). Once the charging current reached a steady baseline, benzyl alcohol was dissolved in 2 mL of MeCN and injected into the cathode compartment (**2**, Figure 9). Next, 1 mL of the deoxygenated catholyte was removed from the electrolysis cell and was used to dissolve Na₂S₂O₈. The solution of Na₂S₂O₈ was then injected into the cathode compartment (**3**, Figure 9). The same procedure was carried out to introduce Ru(NH₃)₆³⁺ into the electrolysis cell. A current spike was observed upon injection of Ru(NH₃)₆³⁺ to the cathode compartment of the electrolysis cell (**4**, Figure 9). The electrolysis was concluded once the current returned to the baseline level and remained steady for ~15 min (**5**, Figure 9).

A similar procedure was carried out for mediated reductive oxidation of benzylic and aliphatic alcohols, toluene, aliphatic amines, and benzyl bromide. Electrolyses of aliphatic amines were carried out in an aqueous phosphate buffer (pH = 3.10). Electrolysis of benzyl bromide was carried out at $E_{app} = 1.2$ V vs. Ag/AgCl (3.5 M KCl) using Ru(bpy)₃³⁺ as the mediator for oxalate oxidation.



Figure 9. The sequence of events of in mediated electrolysis including: (1) applying -0.5 V vs. Ag/AgCl, (2) injecting benzyl alcohol, (3) introduction of $S_2O_8^{2-}$, (4) injection of $Ru(NH_3)_6^{3+}$, and (5) end of the electrolysis.

Product Isolation

A similar procedure was carried out for the product purification and yield determination upon reductive oxidation of benzylic and aliphatic alcohols, toluene, and benzyl bromide.¹² In summary, the catholyte was mixed with 20 mL of brine solution and 30 mL of ethyl acetate in a separatory funnel, and the mixture was shaken vigorously. The mixture in the separatory funnel was left to separate into immiscible organic and aqueous layers. Next, the organic phase was removed from the separatory funnel, and the aqueous phase was extracted with ethyl acetate two more times. The three ethyl acetate portions were mixed and dried over anhydrous Na₂SO₄. After one-hour, the dried organic phase was separated from Na₂SO₄ and was condensed under reduced pressure to give a 1-mL organic solution. Next, the components of the organic solution were separated via normal phase chromatography.

Post-electrolysis workup and separation of hydroxylated aliphatic amines followed the procedure reported by Sanford and coworkers.²¹ In summary, once electrolysis was complete, the pH of the catholyte was lowered to 1.98 using dropwise additions of dilute H_3PO_4 . Next, the catholyte solution was mixed with 20 mL toluene, and the mixture was completely evaporated at 60° C under reduced pressure. The remaining solid in the round bottom flask was mixed with 50 mL MeCN, 12 mL of tri-*n*-ethylamine, and 30 µL of benzoyl chloride. The mixture was stirred at room temperature overnight. Next, MeCN was evaporated under reduced pressure and the solid materials were extracted with 20 mL CH₂Cl₂. Finally, the organic phase was concentrated under reduced pressure to 1-mL, and components of the organic phase were separated using normal phase chromatography.

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