



Article

Organotellurium catalysis-enabled utilization of molecular oxygen as oxidant for oxidative deoxygenation reactions under solvent-free conditions

Xin Deng^a, Hongen Cao^{a,c}, Chao Chen^a, Hongwei Zhou^{b,*}, Lei Yu^{a,*}

^a School of Chemistry and Chemical Engineering, Yangzhou University, Yangzhou 225002, China

^b College of Biological, Chemical Sciences and Engineering, Jiaxing University, Jiaxing 314001, China

^c State Key Laboratory Breeding Base of Green Pesticide and Agricultural Bioengineering, Key Laboratory of Green Pesticide and Agricultural Bioengineering, Ministry of Education, Research and Development Center for Fine Chemicals, Guizhou University, Guiyang 550025, China

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received 26 June 2019

Received in revised form 4 July 2019

Accepted 4 July 2019

Available online 8 July 2019

Keywords:

Chalcogen

Organotellurium catalysis

Aerobic oxidation

Deoxygenation

Free radical

Tellurium

ABSTRACT

Catalyzed by commercially available (PhTe)₂, molecular oxygen could be utilized as the mild, cheap and safe oxidant for oxidative deoxygenation reactions under solvent-free conditions. As the first report on organotellurium-catalyzed deoxygenation reaction, this work not only provides an efficient deoxygenation method, but also discloses new features of tellurium catalyst different from those of the organoselenium catalysts.

© 2019 Science China Press. Published by Elsevier B.V. and Science China Press. All rights reserved.

1. Introduction

Chalcogen elements, such as S, Se and Te, have extensive application scopes and their compounds are important intermediates in organic synthesis, medicinal chemistry, biochemistry and materials science for the unique chemical and biological activities [1–4]. Recently, the catalytic activities of organoselenium compounds in oxidation reactions have drawn much attention [5–10]. In comparison with S–O, Se–O bond is even weaker to allow the oxygen transferring into another molecule. Thus, organoselenium compounds can serve as good oxygen carrier catalysts in a variety of reaction processes [11–16]. However, in many cases of the organoselenium-catalyzed reactions, generations of diselenides caused by the over reduction of hypervalent organoselenium species are unavoidable [17]. Because diselenides are stable compounds difficult to be directly re-oxidized by molecular oxygen under the general reaction conditions, strong chemical oxidants are excessively employed to restrain their generation so that the catalyst deactivation can be avoided [18–20]. Addition of iron salt as co-catalyst could promote the aerobic oxidation of diselenides

into hypervalent organoselenium species, so that the Se/Fe-co-catalyzed oxidation reactions could utilize molecular oxygen as the terminal oxidant [21], but introducing transition metal components into the catalyst systems might bring new issues, such as the increased catalyst cost, waste generation and the transition metal residues that might limit the application scope of the products. In comparison with the recently booming progresses of organoselenium catalysis [5–21], organotellurium-catalyzed reaction was not well-documented yet [22–25]. Recently, we found that, owing to the lower Te–Te bond energy (149 kJ/mol vs. 192 kJ/mol of Se–Se) [26], ditellurides are even more active than diselenides, so that the (PhTe)₂-catalyzed oxidation reactions could utilize molecular oxygen (O₂) as the mild, cheap and safe oxidant. This finding should be the beginning of the investigation on organotellurium catalysis, which is interesting and deserve to explore for potential industrial application value. Herein, we wish to report our findings.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. General methods

Reagents were purchased from reagent merchant with their purities more than 98% and were directly used as received.

* Corresponding authors.

E-mail addresses: zhouhw@zju.edu.cn (H. Zhou), yulei@yzu.edu.cn (L. Yu).

Solvents were analytical pure (AR) and directly used without any special treatment. Melting points were measured by WRS-2A digital instrument. IR spectra were measured on Bruker Tensor 27 Infrared spectrometer. NMR spectra were recorded on a Bruker Avance 600/400 instrument (600 or 400 MHz for ^1H NMR) using CDCl_3 as the solvent and Me_4Si as the internal standard. Chemical shifts for ^1H NMR were referred to internal Me_4Si (0 ppm) and J -values were shown in Hz.

2.2. General procedure for the deoxygenation reactions

To a 15 mL reaction tube, 1 mmol of ketoximes (**1**) and 0.025 mmol of $(\text{PhTe})_2$ were added. The tube was then equipped with an O_2 balloon and was heated at $60\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ for 24 h. The mixture was separated by preparative thin-layer chromatography (eluent: petroleum/EtOAc = 15/1) to produce the related ketones (**2**). The characterization data and NMR spectra were given in Supplementary data.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Reaction condition optimizations

During our continuous investigations on green catalysis science and technologies [27–30], we recently focused on the oxidative deoxygenation reaction because of the great significances of this transformation in fine chemical production, as well as the total synthesis of natural products [31,32]. Thus, in this work, commercially available $(\text{PhTe})_2$ was tested to catalyze the oxidative deoxygenation reaction, which, at present stage, usually requires chemical reagents generating a lot of solid waste [33], explosive oxidants [34,35], halogen- or nitro-contained solvents or additives [36], or precious metal catalysts [37]. By using organoselenium catalysts, the reaction occurred under relatively green conditions, but strong oxidants such as H_2O_2 or transition metal co-catalysts were used to avoid the Se catalyst deactivation [21,34].

In this work, benzophenone oxime **1a** was initially chosen as the model substrate and it was heated with 2.5 mol% of $(\text{PhTe})_2$ catalyst in MeCN using air as the oxidant. Catalytic amount of H_2O_2 (15 mol %) was introduced to convert $(\text{PhTe})_2$ into the more active $\text{PhTe}(\text{O})\text{OH}$ species and the desired ketone **2a** was produced in 70% yield (Table 1, entry 1). Without H_2O_2 , the yield of **2a** decreased to 48% (Table 1, entry 2). It was then found that O_2 was a better oxidant, giving **2a** in 95% yield even in the absence

Table 1
Condition optimizations. ^a

Entry	Conditions	cat./%	2a yield (%) ^b
1	H_2O_2 (15 mol %), MeCN, $60\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, air	2.5	70
2	MeCN, $60\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, air	2.5	48
3	MeCN, $60\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, O_2	2.5	95
4	EtOH, $60\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, O_2	2.5	92
5	H_2O , $60\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, O_2	2.5	89
6	no solvent, $60\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, O_2	2.5	93
7	no solvent, $40\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, O_2	2.5	83
8	no solvent, $80\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, O_2	2.5	87
9	no solvent, $60\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, O_2	1	90
10	no solvent, $60\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, O_2	0.5	88
11	no solvent, $60\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, O_2	0.1	86

^a 1 mmol of **1a**, 0.025 mmol of $(\text{PhTe})_2$ and 1 mL of solvent (or no solvent) were employed; The reaction was performed with a balloon charged with air or O_2 .

^b Isolated yields on the basis of **1a** amount.

of H_2O_2 (Table 1, entry 3). Solvent screenings demonstrated that the reaction occurred smoothly in both EtOH and H_2O (Table 1, entries 4,5), but solvent-free conditions were more favorable from the practical viewpoint, affording **2a** in 93% yield (Table 1, entry 6).

Parallel experiments showed that $60\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, as we initially employed, should be the preferable reaction temperature (Table 1, entries 6 vs. 7, 8). Reducing the catalyst amount to 1 mol%, **2a** was generated in 90% yield (Table 1, entry 9). The product yield decreased to 88% and 86% in the reactions of **1a** with 0.5 mol% or 0.1 mol% of $(\text{PhTe})_2$ respectively (Table 1, entries 10, 11). Notably, the product yield of the reaction using 0.1 mol% of $(\text{PhTe})_2$ catalyst was still higher than the same reaction catalyzed by 2.5 mol% of diselenide (86% in Table 1, entry 11 vs. 81% in Ref. [34]), showing that the Te catalyst was even more active than its Se analogues.

3.2. Extension of the substrate scopes

Under the optimized conditions (Table 1, entry 6), the reactions of a series of different oximes were tested to extend the substrate scopes of the method (Table 2). Introducing electron-donating groups onto the aryl ring resulted in decreased product yields (Table 2, entries 2, 3 vs. 1), while the electron-deficient substrate **1d** could produce the desired ketone **2d** in slightly enhanced yield (Table 2, entries 4 vs. 1). Reaction of acetophenone oxime **1e** led to acetophenone **2e** in 53% yield (Table 2, entry 5). The decreased product yield was probably due to its volatility that caused the weight loss in separation steps. Other acetophenone oximes **1f–k** led to

Table 2
Application scope examinations. ^a

Entry	1 : R^1, R^2	T ($^\circ\text{C}$)	2 : yield (%) ^b
1	1a : Ph, Ph	60	2a : 93
2	1b : 4-MeC ₆ H ₄ , 4-MeC ₆ H ₄	60	2b : 84
3	1c : 4-MeOC ₆ H ₄ , 4-MeOC ₆ H ₄	60	2c : 70
4	1d : 4-FC ₆ H ₄ , 4-FC ₆ H ₄	60	2d : 94
5	1e : Ph, Me	60	2e : 56 ^c
6	1f : 4-MeC ₆ H ₄ , Me	60	2f : 85; 87 ^d , 83 ^d , 78 ^d , 77 ^d
7	1g : 3-MeC ₆ H ₄ , Me	60	2g : 84
8	1h : 4-ClC ₆ H ₄ , Me	60	2h : 82
9	1i : 3-ClC ₆ H ₄ , Me	60	2i : 80
10	1j : 2-ClC ₆ H ₄ , Me	60	2j : 72
11	1k : 4-NO ₂ C ₆ H ₄ , Me	60	2k : 82
12	1l : Ph, <i>n</i> -C ₃ H ₇	60	2l : 54
13	1m : Ph, <i>n</i> -C ₄ H ₉	60	no reaction
14		80	2m : 65
15	1n : Ph, <i>n</i> -C ₆ H ₁₃	80	no reaction
16		100	2n : 60 (86)
17	1o : <i>n</i> -C ₆ H ₁₃ , Me	60	2o : (73) ^e
18	1p :	60	2p : (56) ^e
19		60	no reaction
20		100	2q : 5 (80)
21	1q :	120	2q : 26 (85)
22	1r :	100	2r : 31 (60)

^a 1 mmol of **1** and 0.025 mmol of $(\text{PhTe})_2$ were employed.

^b Isolated yields based on oximes **1** without special instruction; values in parenthesis were the yields based on converted oximes **1**.

^c Diminished yield due to product volatility.

^d Yields for the 10 mmol-scale reactions with the catalyst used for the first to fourth time respectively.

^e GC yield.

the related ketones **2f–k** in good yields (Table 2, entries 6–11). Notably, the organotellurium catalyst is robust to be recycled and reused. In the 10 mmol-scale reaction of **1f**, ketone **2f** was obtained in 87% yield with fresh (PhTe)₂ catalyst. The product was separated by distillation under vacuum, while the residues containing Te catalytic species could be reused as catalyst for the next turn of reaction, giving **2f** in 83% yield. The catalyst could be recycled and reused for at least three times to produce **2f** in good yields (Table 2, entry 6).

Bearing a bulky alkyl, (*E*)-1-phenylbutan-1-one oxime **1l** was less reactive, and produced 1-phenylbutan-1-one **2l** in decreased yield (Table 2, entry 12). The substrate reactivity decreased with the growing alkyl chain: The reaction of **1m** produced **2m** in 65% yield at 80 °C (Table 2, entries 14 vs. 13), while for **1n**, even higher reaction temperature was crucial (Table 2, entries 16 vs. 15). The reaction of aliphatic (*E*)-octan-2-one oxime led to octan-2-one in 73% yield (Table 2, entry 17). Cyclic ketone oximes, such as **1p–q**, were unfavorable substrates, and their reactions produced the related ketones in decreased yields even at high reaction temperature (Table 2, entries 18–21). These phenomena indicated that the deoxygenation process was remarkably affected by the steric hindrances of substrate. The Te-catalyzed reaction showed some degree of tolerance to heterocycles and substrate **1r** could produce the related ketone **2r** at 100 °C (Table 2, entry 22), but it was not applicable for aldoximes, and the reaction of benzaldehyde oxime led to PhCN and the Beckmann rearrangement product PhC(O)NH₂ in 67% and 33% GC yield respectively, other than the desired benzaldehyde product.

3.3. Reaction mechanism studies

The mechanism of this interesting organotellurium-catalyzed reaction was our next concern. Control experiments were performed to get sufficient information for mechanism study (Table 3). The reaction under N₂ protection led to **2a** in only 8% yield, indicating that O₂ was a crucial oxidant for this transformation (Table 3, entry 1). Although H₂O₂ was an efficient oxidant in many organoselenium-catalyzed reactions, the use of it instead of O₂ still resulted in a dramatically decreased **2a** yield at 18% (Table 3, entry 2) and this result demonstrated that the reaction might occur through a completely different mechanism. Addition of azodisobutyronitrile (AIBN) as the free-radical initiator obviously accelerated the reaction and produced **2a** in 85% yield within 6 h, whereas, the parallel reaction without AIBN led to **2a** in only 12% yield within the same reaction time (Table 3, entries 3 vs. 4). Moreover, addition of 2,2,6,6-tetramethylpiperidine-1-oxyl (TEMPO) as a free-radical scavenger restrained the reaction, and **2a** was

Table 3
Control reactions. ^a

Entry	conditions	t (h)	2a yield (%) ^b
1	N ₂	24	8
2	H ₂ O ₂ (100 mol %), N ₂	24	18
3	AIBN (100 mol %), O ₂	6	85
4	O ₂	6	12
5	TEMPO (100 mol %), O ₂	24	23
6	Yb(OTf) ₃ (1 mol %), O ₂	24	92
7	Yb(OTf) ₃ (1 mol %), Air	24	35
8	Yb(OTf) ₃ (1 mol %), O ₂	6	10

^a Without special instruction, 1 mmol of **1a**, 0.025 mmol of (PhTe)₂ and 1 mL of solvent (or no solvent) were employed.

^b Isolated yields on the basis of **1a** amount.

generated in only 23% yield (Table 3, entry 5). Previously, it was found that Yb(OTf)₃ as a Lewis acid could activate carbonyls in Se-catalyzed reaction occurred via a nucleophilic attack step [34], but in this reaction, it was ineffective and did not enhance the **2a** yield (Table 3, entries 6, 7) or accelerate the reaction (Table 3, entries 8 vs. 4). The above experimental results (Table 3, entries 3–7) clearly revealed that the Te-catalyzed deoxygenation proceeded through a free-radical mechanism other than the reported ionic reaction steps.

The catalytic Te species during the reaction processes were investigated by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) analysis. As shown in Fig. 1a, (PhTe)₂ was completely oxidized into the Te (IV) species such as PhTe(O)OH after 24 h of reaction. In the same sample, hypervalent nitrogen species such as NO₃⁻ was also detected (see Fig. S1 online), indicating that nitrogen moiety of the substrate was sufficiently oxidized under O₂ atmosphere. Heating (PhTe)₂ in air for 0.5 h, Te (IV) species began to emerge, while Te (II), which might attribute to PhTeOTePh, was the major Te species (Fig. 1b). Te(IV) ratio increased to 35% in the treated sample with O₂ as a stronger oxidant (Fig. 1c). Interestingly, (PhTe)₂ was completely converted into the hyper-valent Te (IV) species after being heated with the oxime **1a** under N₂ protection (Fig. 1d), indicating that the Te species was so reactive that it could be oxidized by the oxygen-containing substrates even without any additional oxidant.

Based on the above experimental results as well as the literature reports, a plausible mechanism was supposed (Scheme 1). As indicated in XPS spectra (Fig. 1), (PhTe)₂ could be oxidized by O₂ to generate intermediate **3** as the Te(II) species. Thermocleavage of the weak Te-O bond in **3** led to PhTeO and PhTe free-radicals **4** and **5** and the later could be oxidized to the former one by O₂. Further oxidation of **4** by O₂ led to the Te (IV) free-radical **6**. The free radical addition of **6** with substrate **1** produced **7** as the reaction intermediate. In this step, substrates with large steric hindrances were unfavorable and higher reaction temperature was required (Table 2, entries 13–20).

Decomposition of **7** led to the product **2** and by-product nitrosyl hydride (HNO) as well as the catalytic species **4** to restart the major catalysis circle A (Scheme 1) [21,34]. Under O₂ atmosphere, HNO could be sufficiently oxidized into hyper valent nitrogen species, which was detected in XPS spectrum (see Fig. S1 online). Moreover, it was also possible for **4** to directly react with **1** and generated

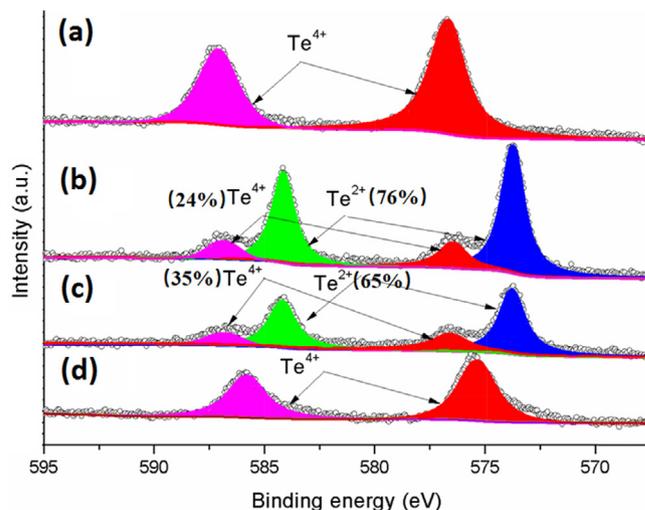


Fig. 1. (Color online) XPS studies of the Te species: (a) sample after a standard reaction; (b, c) heating (PhTe)₂ with air (image b) or O₂ (image c) at 60 °C for 0.5 h; (d) heating **1a** with catalytic amount of (PhTe)₂ (2.5 mol %) at 60 °C for 1 h under N₂ protection.

- [24] Oba M, Tanaka K, Nishiyama K, et al. Aerobic oxidation of thiols to disulfides catalyzed by diaryl tellurides under photosensitized conditions. *J Org Chem* 2011;76:4173–7.
- [25] Okada Y, Oba M, Arai A, et al. Diorganotelluride-catalyzed oxidation of silanes to silanols under atmospheric oxygen. *Inorg Chem* 2010;49:383–5.
- [26] Housecroft CE, Sharpe AG. *Inorganic Chemistry*. fourth ed. Pearson Education Ltd.; 2012.
- [27] Yu L, Qian R, Deng X, et al. Calcium-catalyzed reactions of element-H bonds. *Sci Bull* 2018;63:1010–6.
- [28] Cao H, Zhu B, Yang Y, et al. Recent advances on controllable and selective catalytic oxidation of cyclohexene. *Chin J Catal* 2018;39:899–907.
- [29] Zhang D, Wei Z, Yu L. Easily fabricated and recyclable Pd&Cu@Al catalyst for gram-scale phosphine-free heck reactions with high TON. *Sci Bull* 2017;62:1325–30.
- [30] Zhang H, Han M, Yang C, et al. Gram-scale preparation of dialkylideneacetones through Ca(OH)₂-catalyzed Claisen-Schmidt condensation in dilute aqueous EtOH. *Chin Chem Lett* 2019;30:263–5.
- [31] Zheng Y, Wu A, Ke Y, et al. Recent advances on deoxygenation: from stoichiometric reaction to catalytic reaction. *Chin Chem Lett* 2019;30:937–41.
- [32] Zhang G, Wen X, Wang Y, et al. Recent advances in oxidative deoxygenation. *Prog Chem* 2012;24:361–9.
- [33] Pradhan PK, Dey S, Jaisankar P, et al. Fe-HCl: an efficient reagent for deprotection of oximes as well as selective oxidative hydrolysis of nitroalkenes and nitroalkanes to ketones. *Synth Commun* 2005;35:913–22.
- [34] Jing X, Yuan D, Yu L. Green and practical oxidative deoxygenation of oximes to ketones or aldehydes with hydrogen peroxide/air by organoselenium catalysis. *Adv Synth Catal* 2017;359:1194–201.
- [35] Chu S, Cao H, Chen T, et al. Selenium-doped carbon: an unexpected efficient solid acid catalyst for Beckmann rearrangement of ethyl 2-(2-aminothiazole-4-yl)-2-hydroxyiminoacetate. *Catal Commun* 2019;129:105730.
- [36] Zhang G, Wen X, Wang Y, et al. Sodium nitrite catalyzed aerobic oxidative deoxygenation under mild conditions. *J Org Chem* 2011;76:4665–8.
- [37] Isart C, Bastida D, Burés J, et al. Gold(III) complexes catalyze deoxygenations/transoxygenations at neutral pH. *Angew Chem Int Ed* 2011;50:3275–9.



Hongwei Zhou received his Ph.D. degree from Zhejiang University in 2004. He conducted the postdoctoral research at McMaster University (2004–2005). He is now a Professor at Jiaxing University. His research interest focuses on the chalcogen chemistry, heterocyclic chemistry and pharmaceutical synthesis.



Lei Yu received his B.Sc. degree from Nanjing University in 2003 and his Ph.D. degree from Zhejiang University in 2008. He conducted postdoctoral research at Yangzhou University (2008–2011) and Nanjing University (2011–2013) respectively. He visited Prof. Mark Lautens' group at the University of Toronto (2013–2014) as a visiting scholar. He is now a professor at Yangzhou University. His current research focuses on selenium chemistry including the related applications on green synthesis, catalysis and novel materials development.



Xin Deng received his B.Sc. degree from Yangzhou University in 2017. He is now a master student under the supervision of Prof. Lei Yu. His research focuses on the Te catalysis.