

Selective Arene Photonitration via Iron-Complex β -Homolysis

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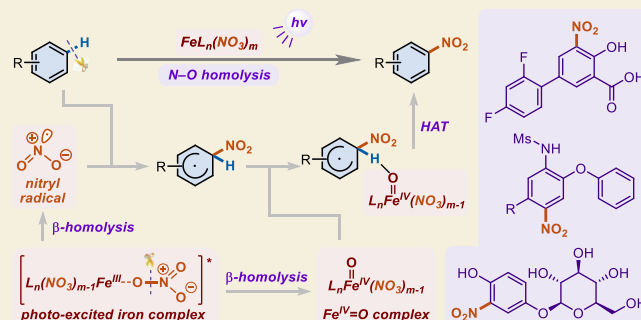
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ABSTRACT: Nitroaromatics, as an important member and source of nitrogen-containing aromatics, is bringing enormous economic benefits in fields of pharmaceuticals, dyes, pesticides, functional materials, fertilizers, and explosives. Nonetheless, the notoriously polluting nitration industry, which suffers from excessive discharge of fumes and waste acids, poor functional group tolerance, and tremendous purification difficulty, renders mild, efficient, and environmentally friendly nitration a formidable challenge. Herein, we develop a visible-light-driven biocompatible arene C–H nitration strategy with good efficiency and regioselectivity, marvelous substrate applicability and functional group tolerance, and wide application in scale-up synthesis, total synthesis, and late-stage functionalization. A nityl radical delivered through unusual β -homolysis of a photoexcited ferric-nitrate complex is proposed to be the key nitrification reagent in this system.

KEYWORDS: photochemistry, β -homolysis, nityl radical, arene nitration, late-stage functionalization



INTRODUCTION

Nitrogen-containing aromatic compounds, a family composed of dozens of extensively existing core structures, are among the largest volume commodity chemicals used in the manufacture of pharmaceuticals, dyes, pesticides, functional materials, fertilizers, and explosives (Figure 1a).¹ For instance, over 130 of the top 200 small molecule drugs by retail sales in 2022 belong to this family, occupying 77.6% of the total sales with the figure up to 253.5 billion (US dollars).² Arene nitration has been a widely used nitrogen-introducing method and an immensely important industrial process for decades, with the global sales of only nitrobenzene estimated to approach \$10 billion in 2023.³ Diverse well-established transformations from nitro groups to other nitrogen-containing functional groups render nitroaromatics a key building block and intermediate in organic synthesis.¹ Furthermore, the landscape of molecular synthesis has gained major impetus by the introduction of late-stage functionalization (LSF) methodologies over the past decade.⁴ Among diversified LSF strategies, direct modification of inert C–H bonds in a selective manner, which sets the stage for unconceived retrosynthetic disconnections, takes advantage of the availability of complex molecules as starting materials and makes previously unsynthesizable scaffolds accessible. Therefore, C(sp²)–H nitration as a significant LSF method with enormous economic benefits has attracted scientists' great efforts. As shown in Figure 1b, the nitroaromatic production traditionally relied on aromatic electrophilic substitution of nitronium ions (NO₂⁺) delivered by the "mixed acid" approach with concentrated sulfuric and nitric acids.⁵ Just because of

this, the nitration industry, a valuable but notoriously polluting process, suffers from the excessive discharge of nitrogen oxide (NO_x) fumes and waste acids, poor functional group tolerance resulting from superstoichiometric amounts of acid and harsh conditions, and tremendous difficulty on isomer purification up to now.⁶ To cross these hurdles, many improvements were proposed unremittably in the past few decades.⁷ Various presynthesized organic nitrating agents and activating methods for metal nitrates including ferric ones were impressively developed for the efficient generation of nitronium ions under thermal conditions by Katayev and co-workers in recent years.⁸ Metal-catalyzed C(sp²)–H activation at the *ortho*-position of a directing group is another effective strategy for selective nitration.⁹ Except for the polar pathway, some electron-rich aromatics can also be directly nitrated through a radical intermediate. The existing methods for nityl radical generation mainly depended on the oxidative decomposition of *tert*-butyl nitrite, the thermal decomposition of ferric nitrate, and single electron oxidation of nitrites (Figure 1c).^{8g,9,10} Nevertheless, several problems still exist, such as indispensable substrate prefunctionalization, harsh reaction conditions (high

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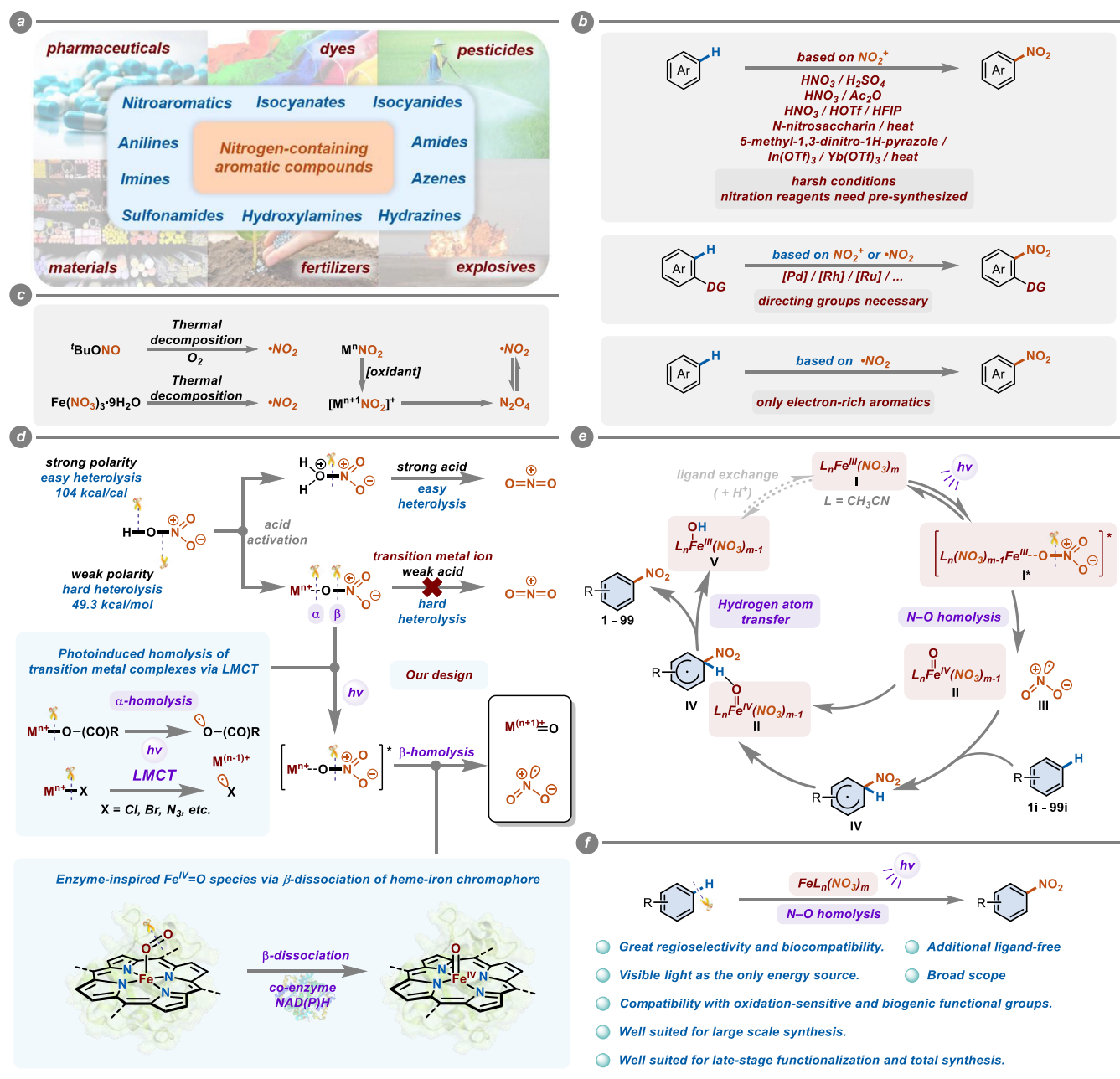
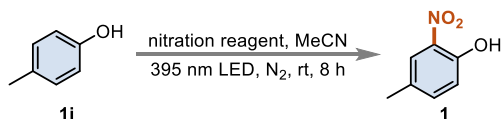


Figure 1. Introduction and our design. (a) Applications for nitroarenes. (b) Previous protocols for arene nitration. (c) Approaches for generating nitryl radicals. (d) Challenges and our design for nitrate activation under mild conditions. (e) General design plan for the mechanisms of arene photonitration via iron-complex β -homolysis. (f) This work.

temperature and strong acid), usage and unrecyclability of noble metal catalysts (Pd, Rh, and Ru), and limited reaction scopes, posing a formidable challenge of developing mild, efficient, and environmentally friendly nitration protocols to meet the requirements of green and circular economy.

To address this long-standing issue, we focused our attention back on the basic molecular structure of nitric acid, the most low-cost commercial nitrification reagent, to look for clues. As displayed in Figure 1d, the polarity of the O–H bond in HNO_3 is obviously stronger than that of the neighboring N–O bond, endowing the O–H bond with an easy-heterolysis characteristic responsible for the acidity of nitric acid. However, the generation of an active nitration species NO_2^+ requires a challenging heterolysis process of the N–O bond

with weak polarity. The ingenious solution from the “mixed acid” approach is to form an oxonium ion with the help of strong Brønsted acid H_2SO_4 to enhance the N–O bond polarity,⁵ but bringing serious pollution problems at the same time. To avoid the employment of excess acids, we planned to choose transition metal ions instead of protons as nitrate-activating reagents to cut off the weakly polar bond. Regrettably, the Lewis acidities, which are equivalent to the degrees of electron deficiency, of transition metal ions are always insufficient to realize N–O heterolysis directly under mild conditions. Recently, the rapid development of photocatalysis science,¹¹ especially on photoactive complexes with earth-abundant metals¹² affords us new opportunities to get out of this dilemma. Numbers of simple complexes of cheap

Table 1. Optimization of Reaction Conditions^{a,b}

entry	nitration reagent	yields [%]
1	Fe(NO ₃) ₃ ·9H ₂ O (0.4 equiv)	92
2	Fe(NO ₃) ₃ ·9H ₂ O (0.5 equiv)	85
3	Cu(NO ₃) ₂ ·3H ₂ O (0.7 equiv)	23
4	Co(NO ₃) ₂ ·6H ₂ O (0.7 equiv)	trace
5	NaNO ₃ (1.5 equiv)	N.R.
6	Fe(NO ₃) ₃ ·9H ₂ O (0.1 equiv) + NaNO ₃ (1.2 equiv)	16
7	Fe ₂ (SO ₄) ₃ (0.2 equiv) + NaNO ₃ (2 equiv)	trace
8	Fe ₂ (SO ₄) ₃ (0.2 equiv) + NBu ₄ NO ₃ (2 equiv)	N.R.
9	Fe(NO ₃) ₃ ·9H ₂ O (0.1 equiv) + HNO ₃ (1 equiv)	25
10	Fe(NO ₃) ₃ ·9H ₂ O (0.1 equiv) + NaNO ₃ (1 equiv) + MsOH (1 equiv)	47

^aStandard conditions: **1i** (0.2 mmol), nitration reagent, MeCN (2 mL), 395 nm LED, N₂, room temperature, 8 h. ^b¹H NMR yield. N.R.: No reaction.

transition metals were reported to be able to perform a distinctive photoinduced homolysis process called ligand–metal charge transfer (LMCT) by Doyle,¹³ Molander,¹⁴ Nocera,¹⁵ Zuo,¹⁶ and many other distinguished groups¹⁷ including us.^{17d–f} LMCT excitations tend to promote α homolysis of the metal–ligand bond, leading to the generation of a reduced metal complex together with a ligand-centered radical. This unique and straightforward photoexcitation has attracted significant research attention from synthetic chemists in recent years. Various heteroatom-center radicals given by this tactic under light irradiation have been widely applied in many fields of synthetic chemistry such as hydrocarbon activation,^{13–16,17a} and olefin functionalization.^{17k–s} Nonetheless, an analogous α -homolysis of our desired metal–nitrate complex will not provide any serviceable nitration agent. An enlightening inspiration for this issue is from an elementary catalytic procedure of natural cytochrome P450 enzyme that a specific β -dissociation will occur after the combination of multinitrogen-coordinated heme-iron center and oxygen with the assistance of coenzyme NADPH.¹⁸ With a similar pattern, we reasonably anticipated a rarely reported β -homolysis of a N–O single bond in a photoactivated iron–nitrate complex with acetonitrile as the solvent and a dynamic ligand, generating a Fe^{IV}=O species and a nitration agent \cdot NO₂. Another clue from the nitric acid's molecular structure is the weak bond dissociation energy (BDE) of the N–O single bond (49.3 kcal/mol),¹⁹ which naturally suggests a potential easy-homolysis property instead of heterolysis.

According to the above thoughts, a proposed mechanism for arene photonitration *via* iron–complex β -homolysis is envisioned in Figure 1e. Initially, a photoactive complex **I** composed of a ferric ion center and several nitrate/acetonitrile ligands was reversibly stimulated to reach an excited state **I*** under light irradiation.¹² A spontaneous N–O homolysis released a desired nitryl radical **III** and a Fe^{IV}=O complex **II** that has been demonstrated as a crucial intermediate for direct C(sp³)–H^{18b,c,20} and C(sp²)–H²¹ cleavage. A subsequent electrophilic addition between an electron-deficient radical **III** and an electron-rich arene substrate resulted in a cyclic radical **IV**.²² Compared to the “mixed acid” approach, the essential hydrogen atom dissociation step from **IV** to the nitroaromatic product reflects a higher degree of difficulty than the corresponding deprotonation step in the NO₂⁺ pathway.

Fortunately, the strong hydrogen-atom-transfer (HAT) ability of **II** can easily get over this barrier.^{18b,c,20} Finally, the resulting iron complex **V** from HAT may undergo an in situ ligand exchange assisted by the additional acid for regenerating the photoactive complex **I**. On the basis of the aforementioned design, we herein achieved photoinduced radical-mediated nitration of arenes with good regioselectivity and biocompatibility, a broad scope, ample functional group tolerance, and wide application in synthesis (Figure 1f).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Condition Optimization

According to our design, we initiated our study with a commercial Fe–NO₃ complex, ferric nitrate, as the nitro source, and MeCN as the solvent. Satisfyingly, the model reaction from *p*-cresol (**1i**) to 4-methyl-2-nitrophenol (**1**) with Fe(NO₃)₃·9H₂O (0.4 equiv, equivalent to NO₃[−] 1.2 equiv) under irradiation of 395 nm LEDs afforded a satisfactory yield of 92% (Table 1, entry 1). Further increasing the equivalents of Fe(NO₃)₃·9H₂O did not provide an enhanced yield (entry 2). Kinds of metal nitrates including Cu(NO₃)₂·3H₂O, Co(NO₃)₂·6H₂O, and NaNO₃ were tested then, but only copper nitrate could give the corresponding product in a low yield (entries 3–5) probably because of the similar photoexcited property between iron and copper.^{17a,d,y} Simple combinations of catalytic ferric salts [Fe(NO₃)₃·9H₂O, Fe₂(SO₄)₃] and other nitrates (NaNO₃, NBu₄NO₃) appear to be unsuccessful due to the low interaction rate between each other thanks to the poor solubility of these salts in MeCN (entries 6–8). We also attempted to conduct the reaction with a catalytic amount of Fe(NO₃)₃·9H₂O and equivalent nitrate anions as the nitro source under slightly acidic conditions, and the yields of the corresponding product can only reach a moderate level (entries 9–10). Different types of solvents were also examined, showing acetonitrile to be the best choice (see details in the Supporting Information, Table S1, entries 11–15). Applying mixed solvents of MeCN and water or DMSO which are well-known good solvents for metal salts made no improvement in yields (Table S1, entries 16–17). Variations in illumination wavelengths and atmospheres exhibited no positive effects (Table S1, entries 18–21). Finally, a control experiment

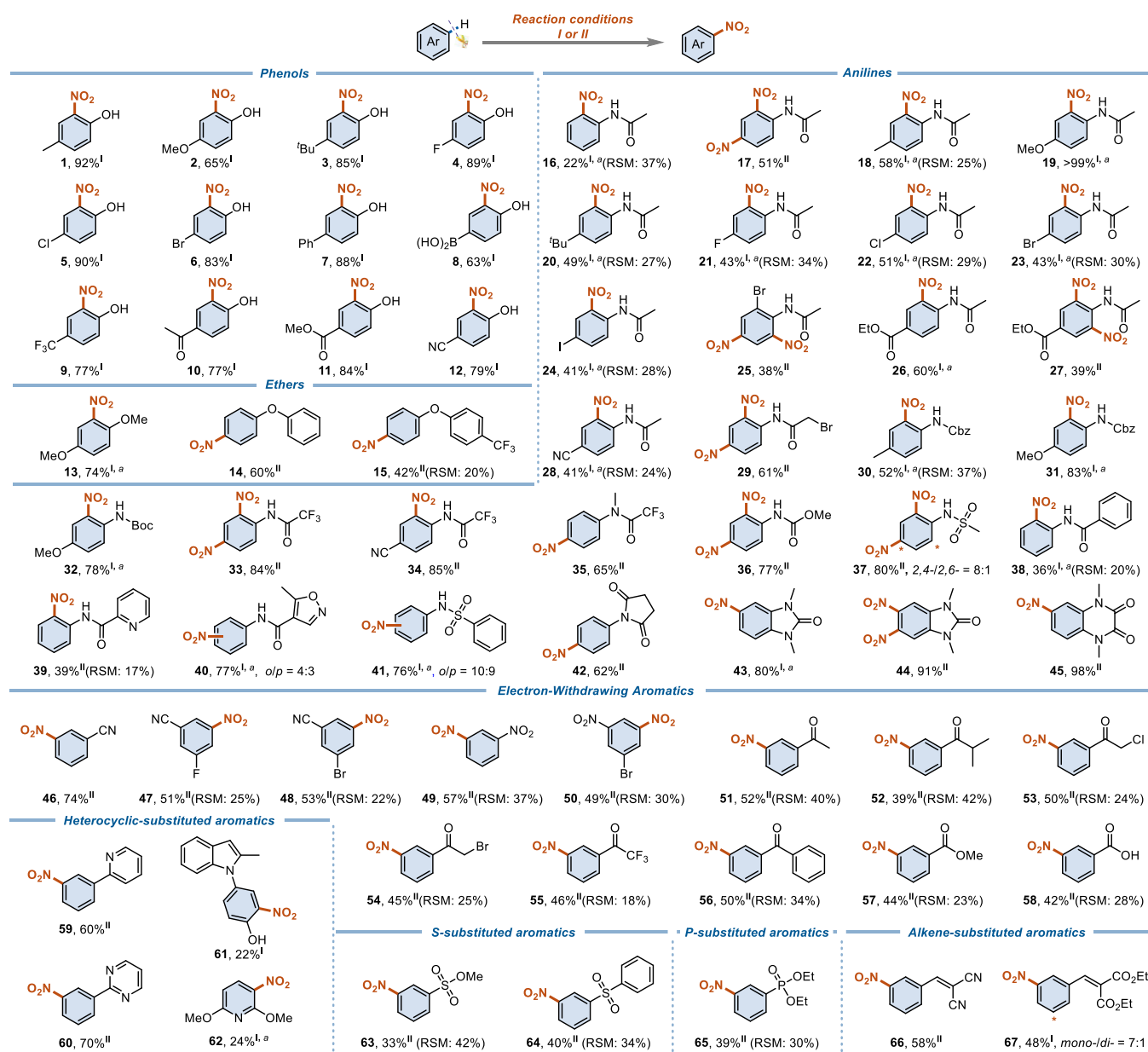


Figure 2. Substrate scope of simple arenes. Reaction conditions: I: Arene (0.2 mmol), $\text{Fe}(\text{NO}_3)_3 \cdot 9\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (0.4 equiv) ($^a\text{Fe}(\text{NO}_3)_3 \cdot 9\text{H}_2\text{O}$ 0.5 equiv), MeCN (2 mL), N_2 , rt, 395 nm LEDs, 8 h; II: Arene (0.2 mmol), $\text{Fe}(\text{NO}_3)_3 \cdot 9\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (1.5 equiv), MsOH (1.1 equiv), MeCN (2 mL), O_2 , rt, 395 nm LEDs, 8 h. RSM, recovered starting material.

indicated that the reaction would not occur without visible light as an energy source (Table S1, entry 22).

Substrate Scope Scanning

With the optimized reaction conditions in hand, a broad range of arenes were selected as subjects to examine the generality of our protocol. As shown in Figure 2, a large number of simple arenes with electron-donating groups, including phenols, ethers, and anilines, were tried first, delivering the corresponding nitroaromatics in moderate to excellent yields (1–45). Most products could be obtained in a single isomer, and the regioselectivity of different positions appeared to be governed by the electronic properties of substituents in a similar fashion to electrophilic aromatic substitution.^{1a} As vital synthons, halogen-substituted aromatics were all suitable substrates to furnish multifunctionalized products (4–6, 21–25), offering a good chance for further derivatization. Meanwhile, their useful

Suzuki-Miyaura-coupling partner,^{1a} arylboronic acid, also supplied the nitrated product (8) in a good yield without any requirement of protecting groups. The introduction of strong electron-withdrawing substituents, such as trifluoromethyl, acetyl, ester, and cyano groups, just brought little negative influence on yields (9–12, 26–29, 34). Nitrated anilines protected by various groups including α -bromoacetyl (29), benzyloxy-carbonyl (30, 31), *tert*-butoxycarbonyl (32), trifluoroacetyl (33–35), methoxy-carbonyl (36), sulfonyl (37, 41), benzoyl (38), and heterocycloformyl (39, 40) were synthesized efficiently as well, implying that our method has tremendous potential in LSF of natural products such as peptides. Derivatives of benzimidazole and quinoxaline rings were employed next, and the corresponding products were achieved in excellent yields (43–45). Notably, mono- or dinitration could be conveniently modulated for selected

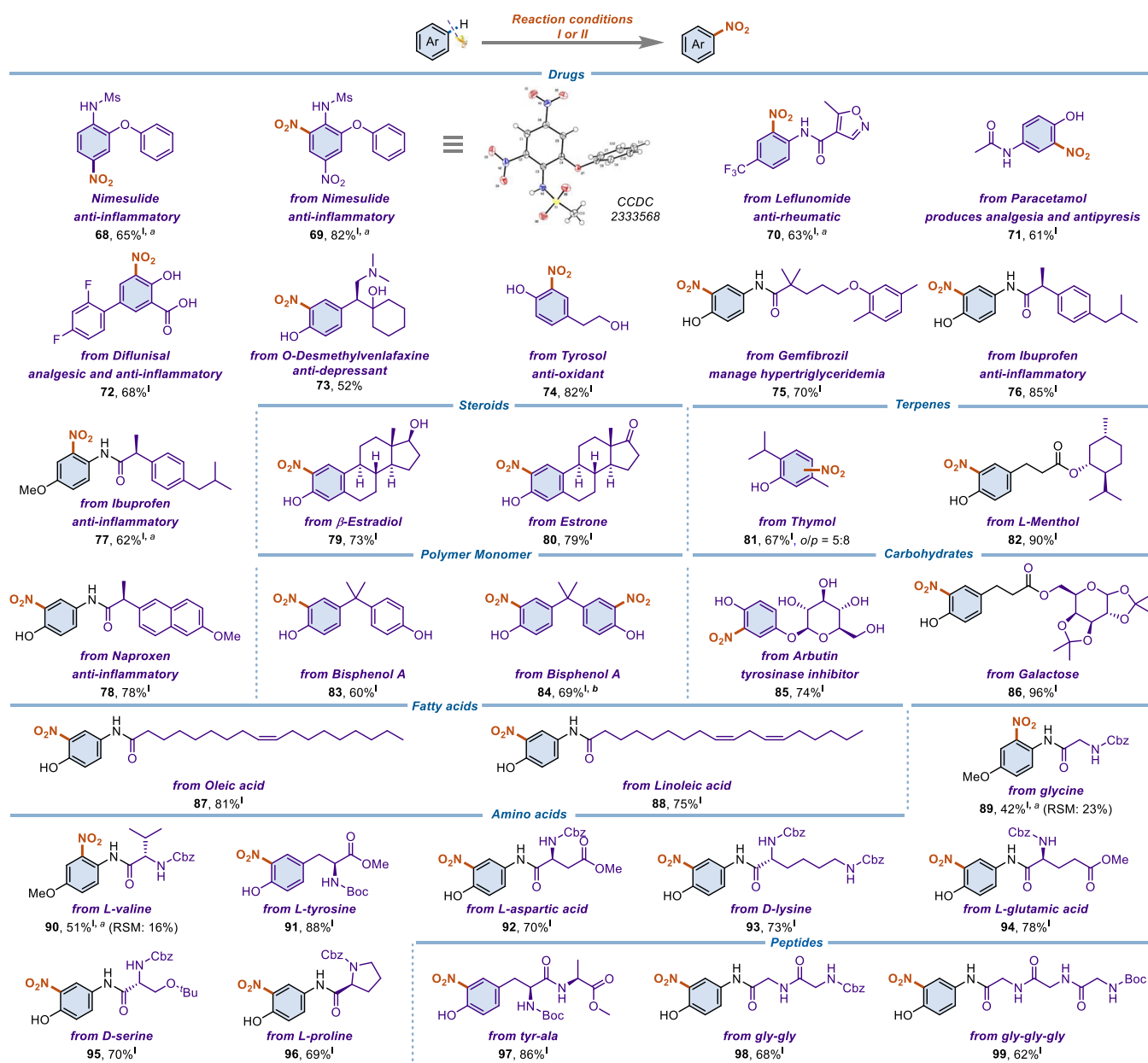


Figure 3. Late-stage photonation of drugs, polymer monomer, and biorelevant compounds. Reaction conditions: I: Arene (0.2 mmol), $\text{Fe}(\text{NO}_3)_3 \cdot 9\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (0.4 equiv) ($^a\text{Fe}(\text{NO}_3)_3 \cdot 9\text{H}_2\text{O}$ 0.5 equiv; $^b\text{Fe}(\text{NO}_3)_3 \cdot 9\text{H}_2\text{O}$ 0.7 equiv), MeCN (2 mL), N_2 , rt, 395 nm LEDs, 8 h; II: Arene (0.2 mmol), $\text{Fe}(\text{NO}_3)_3 \cdot 9\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (1.5 equiv), MsOH (1.1 equiv), MeCN (2 mL), O_2 , rt, 395 nm LEDs, 8 h. RSM, recovered starting material.

examples by usage of different equivalences of ferric nitrate (16 and 17, 26 and 27, and 43 and 44). According to the fundamental characteristics of electrophilic aromatic substitution,^{1a} direct nitration of strongly electron-deficient arenes presents more challenges as well as more research values than those of electron-rich ones, especially via a nitril radical pathway. After proper adjustment of reaction conditions (Table S2), the nitration goals of diverse electron-deficient arenes were successfully reached in good to moderate yields with excellent regioselectivity and functional group tolerance (46–67). Plenty of substituents applicable for postmodification in synthetic methodology, including nitriles (46–48), nitroarenes (49, 50), ketones (51–56), ester (57), benzoic acid (58), benzenesulfonate (63), and phenylphosphonate (65) were all compatible, providing the *meta*-nitrated products in good isolated yields.

Furthermore, the well-known active aryl/alkyl halides (F, Cl, and Br) (47, 48, 50, 53, and 54) and olefins (66 and 67) showed good stability under these conditions, providing a huge space for further cross-couplings. Two frequently used directing groups in transition-metal catalysis, pyridin-2-yl and pyrimidin-2-yl, were, respectively, assembled on benzenes as substrates, and the nitration transformation still proceeded well at *meta*-position (59 and 60). As valuable heteroaromatics, indole and pyridine were next involved, and the corresponding products could also be achieved (61 and 62). Thanks to the slightly lower electrophilic property of the nitril radical than that of the nitronium ion, the nitrating regioselectivities toward relative electron-rich sites were promoted compared to the “mixed-acid” approach (such as regioselectivities for substrate 57: *m:o* = 4²³ for mixed-acid protocol; only *meta*-isomer obtained for our method).

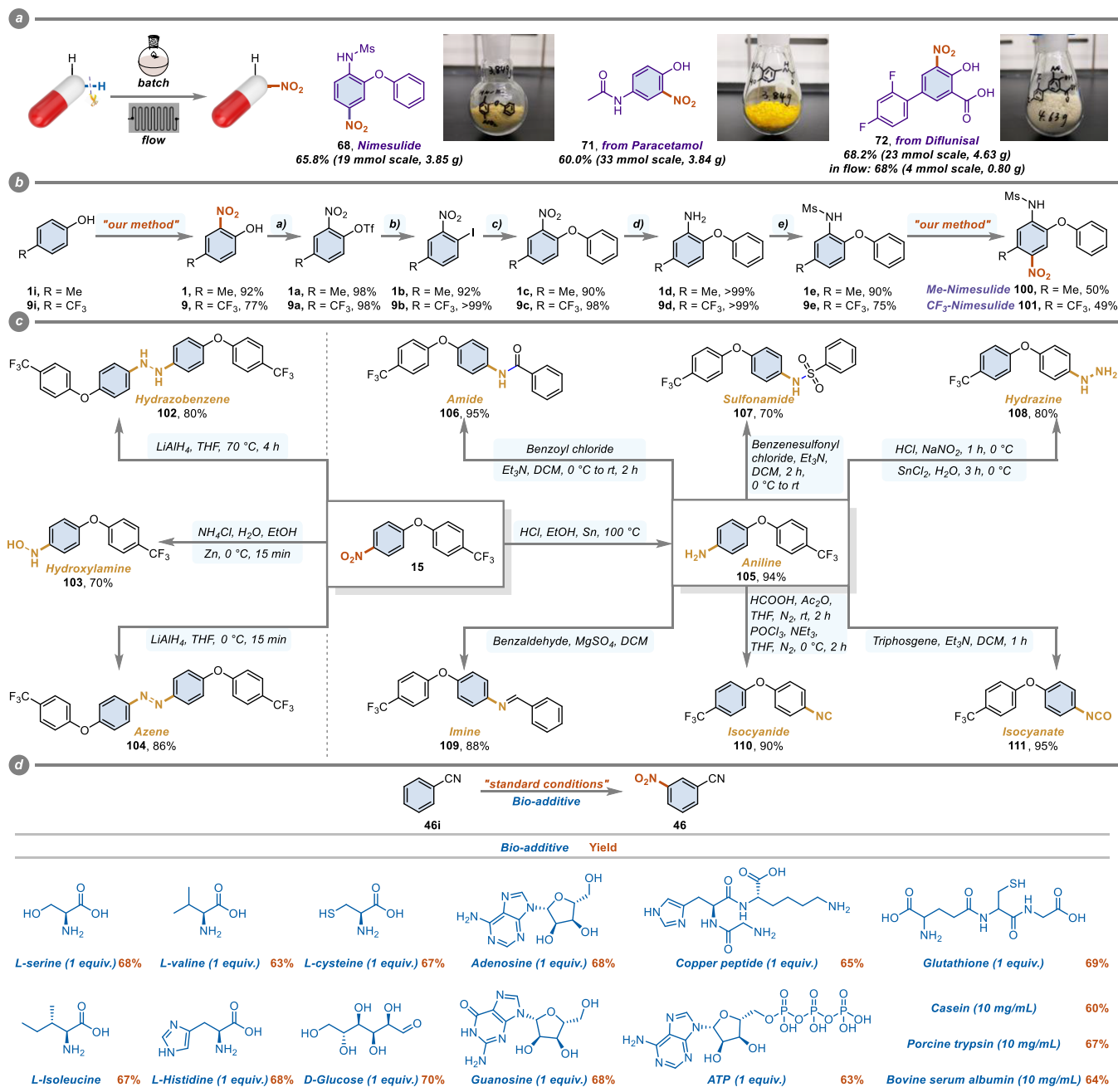


Figure 4. Synthetic applications. (a) Scale-up synthesis of Nimesulide, NO₂-Paracetamol, and NO₂-Diflunisal. (b) Total synthesis of two Nimesulide analogs. (c) Functional-group transformations of the nitrated product. (d) Investigation on the compatibility of bioadditives.

The nitro group is considered to be a unique and key functional group in some drugs such as anticancer, antiparasitic, and antitubercular agents, antibiotics, and tranquilizers.²⁴ Consequently, expanding the applicable scope to late-stage photomnitration of drugs and biorelevant compounds will greatly enhance the application value of our strategy in pharmaceutical and agrochemical discovery and functional molecule modification (Figure 3). For this purpose, a nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drug, Nimesulide, was successfully synthesized in 66% yield (68) first and then was nitrated again under the same conditions in 82% yield (69, the structure confirmed with Single-crystal X-ray diffraction^{8b}). Sequentially, a vast series of nitrated derivatives of known drugs and bioactive molecules, including Leflunomide (70),

Paracetamol (71), Diflunisal (72), O-Desmethylvenlafaxine (73), Tyrosol (74), Gemfibrozil (75), Ibuprofen (76, 77), and Naproxen (78), were synthesized in good to excellent yields. Nitration conversion of types of biogenic complex molecules was also tried, and the corresponding products from steroids (79 and 80), terpenes (81 and 82), carbohydrates (85 and 86), and fatty acids (87 and 88) were all achieved efficiently. Moreover, our protocol was efficaciously applied in nitration of derivatives from diversified amino acids including glycine (89), L-valine (90), L-tyrosine (91), L-aspartic acid (92), D-lysine (93), L-glutamic acid (94), D-serine (95), and L-proline (96), and even those from dipeptides (97 and 98) and tripeptides (99) were also demonstrated to be suitable substrates, exhibiting foreseeable application of our method in protein

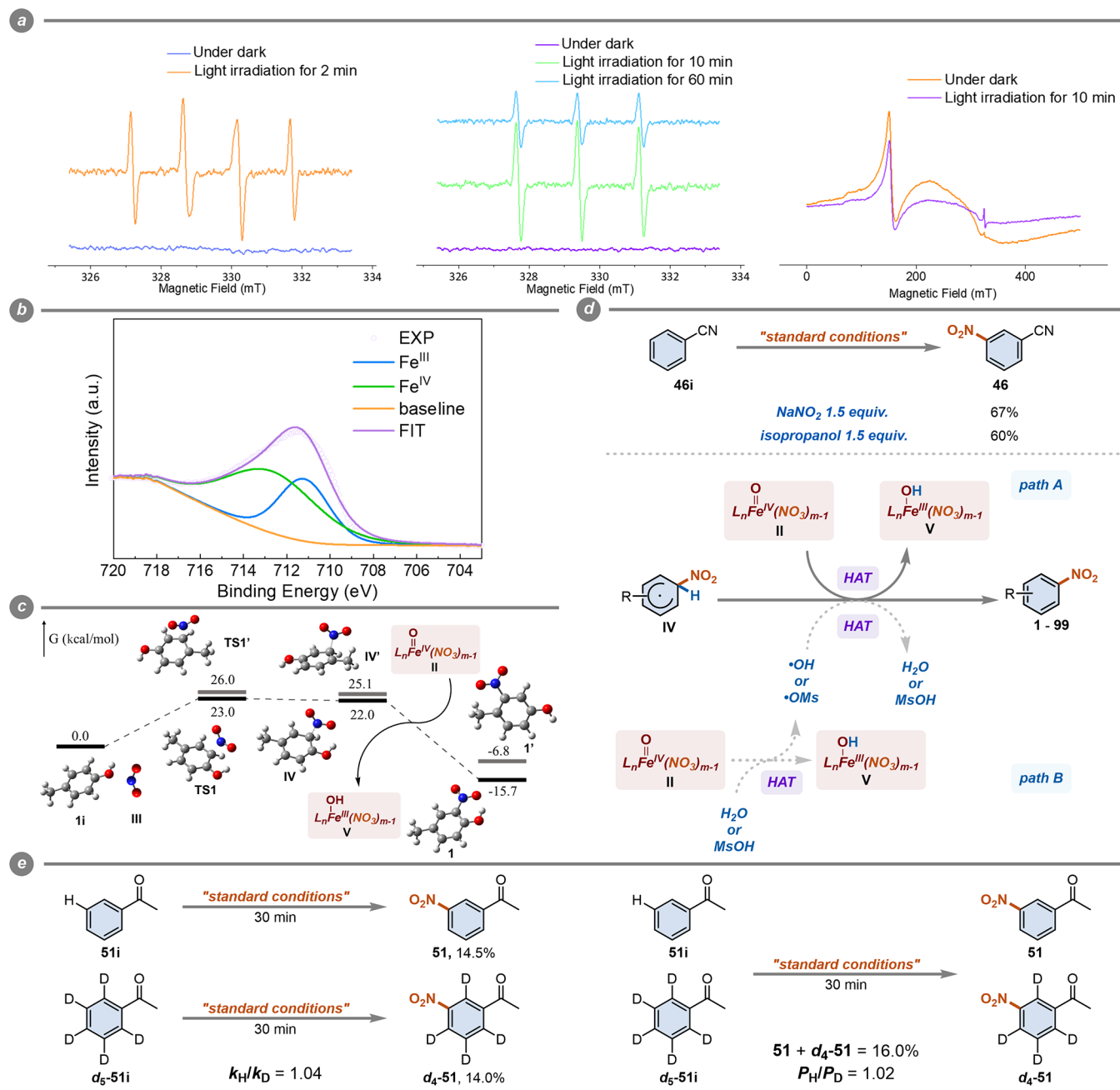


Figure 5. Mechanistic studies. (a) In situ ESR spectra. (b) Fe $2p_{3/2}$ XPS spectra. (c) Computational study of electrophilic aromatic substitution of a nitranyl radical. (d) Control experiments with a hydroxyl radical scavenger. (e) KIE studies.

postmodification in situ. Additionally, bisphenol A, a famous polymer monomer of polycarbonates and epoxy resins, was utilized, availablely furnishing mono- and dinitrated products under different conditions (**83** and **85**). It is worth mentioning that many complex drug molecules with multiple active functional groups such as Leflunomide (**70**), *O*-Desmethylenlafaxine (**73**), etc. are directly nitrated for the first time to our knowledge, and the yields and regioselectivities for many products are improved toward those of the previous state of the art (Table S3), showing the advanced nature of our approach.

Applications and Mechanistic Investigation

Whether a synthetic reaction can be conveniently scaled up is a key factor in evaluating synthetic practicability. For our

photonitration system, gram-scale synthesis of **68**, **71**, and **72** was carried out, respectively, in a batch reaction, obtaining 3.85 g of Nimesulide, 3.84 g of NO_2 -Paracetamol, and 4.63 g of NO_2 -Diflunisal in high purities without obvious loss of efficiency (Figure 4a, details see Figure S11). To further increase the light utilization efficiency, a well-designed continuous-flow photocatalytic microreactor²⁵ was attempted, capable of affording nitrated Diflunisal **72** in a similar result to that of the batch reaction with a reduced time and attenuated light irradiation (for details, see Figure S12). To further showcase the method's practicability, we applied our strategy to the total synthesis of two never-reported Nimesulide analogs. As a nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drug with pain medication and fever-reducing properties, Nimesulide is approved for the treatment of acute pain, symptomatic

treatment of osteoarthritis, and primary dysmenorrhea.²⁶ Previous routes to Nimesulide invariably suffered from the use of excess nitric and sulfuric acids under heating. In our protocol shown in Figure 4b, the first nitrogen-introducing step on a substituted phenol ring was performed with our photonitration method (1 and 9). After multistep synthesis, our approach was utilized again in the final nitration process, delivering the desired Me-Nimesulide 100 and CF₃-Nimesulide 101 in moderate yields. Our green and sustainable protocol substantially expands the readily accessible chemical space around this scaffold. Furthermore, transformations of the nitro group according to the long-standing studies of its utilization in organic synthesis¹ were presented by using the oxidibenzene derivative 15 (Figure 4c). Upon different reduction conditions, diphenylhydrazine 102, hydroxylamine 103, dye-like azo compound 104, and amine 105 were efficiently generated. Sequentially, acylation and sulfonation of 105 led to amide 106 and sulfonamide 107. A two-step oxidation–reduction procedure through a diazonium intermediate transferred 105 to hydrazinobenzene 108 effectively, while a dehydration reaction between 105 and benzaldehyde afforded imine 109 in 88% yield. Isocyanide 110 and isocyanate 111 as active synthons for further couplings were also achieved *via* C1 growth of 105.

As shown in Figure 3, our photonitration system demonstrated good functional group compatibility, and the next issue that we cared about was its tolerance of different kinds of biochemically important molecules²⁷ (Figure 4d). When a series of bioadditives including amino acids, monosaccharide, peptide, adenosine triphosphate, and nucleotides were added, they were found to have little influence on the reaction result. In addition to these small molecules, some albumins and enzymes as core macromolecules in organisms were involved as bioadditives in the nitration reaction, and the corresponding nitrated products were supplied in satisfactory yields. These experiments suggest the possible biocompatibility and potential adaptability of the visible-light-driven selective nitration system toward a humoral environment.

To validate our conjecture about the mechanism, several trapping experiments were conducted first. When stoichiometric 2,2,6,6-tetramethylpiperidinoxy (TEMPO), 2,6-di-*tert*-butyl-4-methylphenol (BHT), and 1,1-diphenyl-ethylene were respectively added to the reaction system, the yields of 46 slashed dramatically, which suggested that a radical process was involved (Figure S2). Furthermore, the electron spin-resonance (ESR) experiments were performed to further distinguish the radical category. The ESR spectrum of a mixture of Fe(NO₃)₃·9H₂O and diphenyl ether (14i) in MeCN with 5, 5-dimethyl-1-pyrroline *N*-oxide (DMPO) as a radical spin trap under dark conditions showed no signal of a trapped radical. After irradiation for 2 min, an obvious quartet-signal ($g = 2.0031$, $a_N = 1.50$ mT, $a_H = 1.52$ mT) was observed, indicating the appearance of a nitryl radical (Figure 5a, left part).²⁸ To our delight, the ·NO₂ signal could be directly detected *in situ* as a triplet-signal ($g = 2.0031$, $a = 1.73$ mT) without DMPO after 10 min irradiation, and the intensity of the signal markedly diminished after 60 min illumination which implied the consumption of ·NO₂ through nitration of 14i (Figure 5a, middle part). Meanwhile, the variation of the paramagnetic Fe^{III} signal of a saturated solution of Fe(NO₃)₃·9H₂O in MeCN at 110 K before and after light irradiation was also explored. The results showed the Fe^{III} signal around 150.7 mT was slightly attenuated by a 10-minute irradiation,

suggesting the transformation of a part of Fe^{III} to a diamagnetic species (Figure 5a, right part). Furthermore, X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) detection was conducted to figure out the valence state change of iron. As shown in Figure 5b, the peaks located at 711.32 and 712.99 eV in the Fe 2p_{3/2} XPS spectra of the iron residue were, respectively, attributed to Fe^{III} and Fe^{IV} according to the reported literature,²⁹ indicating the system undergoes a Fe^{III}–Fe^{IV} pathway. To further dissect the reaction mechanism, we then studied the detailed procedures of electrophilic aromatic substitution between 1 and a nitryl radical based on density functional theory (DFT) calculations (Figure 5c). The most favorable pathway for radical nitration of 1 consisted of electrophilic addition (1i-TS1-IV), followed by spontaneous dehydrogenation through HAT (IV to 1). Notably, the high regioselectivity between ortho- and meta-positions resulted from the distinct Gibbs free energy gaps at the transition state (TS1, $\Delta\Delta G^\ddagger = 3.0$ kcal mol⁻¹) and cyclic radical intermediate state (IV, $\Delta\Delta G^\ddagger = 3.1$ kcal mol⁻¹). Additionally, hydroxyl radicals that can act as the HAT mediator may also be generated especially in the presence of MsOH. To further investigate this issue, stoichiometric OH radical scavengers (NaNO₂ and isopropyl alcohol) were, respectively, added to the MsOH-consisting reaction system. The outcomes showed the yields of 46 slightly decreased, which suggested that the OH radical might make a little contribution inside this system through Path B (Figure 5d).³⁰ Besides, for electron-deficient arenes, the addition of MsOH may neutralize the resultant hydroxide (V to I in Figure 1e) and maintain a high concentration of the nitryl radical to overcome the hard electrophilic addition, while the oxygen atmosphere may be helpful for the dehydrogenation process of IV through singlet oxygen. Moreover, kinetic isotopic effect (KIE) studies with separate kinetic experiments were employed to gain insights into the C–H cleavage step for this nitration process. The KIE values given by k_H/k_D and P_H/P_D were measured as 1.04 and 1.02 *via* using 51i/*d*₅-51i, respectively, as substrates (Figure 5e, left part) or a 1:1 mixture of 51i and *d*₅-51i as substrates (Figure 5e, right part) to produce 51. These KIE outcomes disclosed that the C–H splitting process did not appear to be a “rate-determining step”.³¹ A light-on–off experiment was carried out next, revealing that continuous light irradiation was crucial for this transformation (Figure S10).

CONCLUSIONS

The results presented here demonstrate a visible-light-initiated biocompatible arene C–H nitration with high efficiency and regioselectivity, marvelous functional group tolerance and substrate suitability, and wide application in scale-up synthesis, total synthesis, and late-stage modification. A nitryl radical is found to be the key nitrification reagent generated by the unusual β -homolysis of a ferric-nitrate complex. The next phase of these studies will focus on other hypervalent heteroatom-center radicals given by similar β -homolysis of diverse metal-anion complexes, which together could provide the development of a general platform for multitudinous C(sp²)–H and C(sp³)–H functionalization of great interest to practitioners of synthetic chemistry in academic and industrial institutes.

METHODS

General Procedure for Selective Arene Photonitration

General Procedure I. Arene (0.2 mmol), $\text{Fe}(\text{NO}_3)_3 \cdot 9\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (0.08 mmol, 0.4 equiv, 32 mg), and MeCN (2 mL) were added into a 10 mL reaction tube with a magnetic stir bar in sequence. The mixture was allowed to stir under N_2 with irradiation of a 30 W 395 nm LED (1 cm away, with circulating water to keep the reaction at room temperature) for 8 h. Upon completion, the reaction solution was concentrated under reduced pressure, and the residue was purified by silica gel flash column chromatography to give the desired product.

General Procedure II. Arene (0.2 mmol), $\text{Fe}(\text{NO}_3)_3 \cdot 9\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (0.3 mmol, 1.5 equiv, 120 mg), MeCN (2 mL) and MsOH (0.22 mmol, 1.1 equiv, 21 mg) were added into a 10 mL reaction tube with a magnetic stir bar in sequence. The mixture was allowed to stir under O_2 with irradiation of a 30 W 395 nm LED (1 cm away, with circulating water to keep the reaction at room temperature) for 8 h. Upon completion, the reaction solution was concentrated under reduced pressure and the residue was purified by silica gel flash column chromatography to give the desired product.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/jacsau.4c00880>.

Optimizations, synthetic procedures, mechanism investigations, DFT calculations, characterization data, and NMR spectra of synthesized compounds (PDF)

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Author Contributions

Y.J. supervised the project and provided guidance on the project. Y.J. and S.L. conceived and designed the study. All authors performed and analyzed the experiments. S.L., M.J., Q.L., and Y.J. wrote and revised the paper. CRediT: **Shuyang Liu** conceptualization, data curation, formal analysis, investigation, methodology, project administration, validation, writing - original draft, writing - review & editing; **Ziyu Gan** investigation, methodology; **Min Jiang** investigation, methodology, writing - original draft, writing - review & editing; **Qian Liao** investigation, methodology, writing - original draft, writing - review & editing; **Yusheng Lu** investigation; **Hongyao Wang** investigation; **Zhiyan Xue** investigation; **Ziyang Chen** investigation; **Yongqiang Zhang** investigation; **Xiaobo Yang** investigation; **Chunying Duan** funding acquisition; **Yunhe Jin** conceptualization, funding acquisition, investigation, methodology, project administration, resources, supervision, writing - original draft, writing - review & editing.

Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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