

Multiple Routes for the Synthesis of Dimerized 3-Substituted-2-Oxindoles Employing Proton-Coupled Electron Transfer

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Abstract

We discussed four different synthetic routes for the dimerization of 3-carboxylate-2-oxindole (1a). The order of efficiency was: Stepwise electron transfer (ET)-proton transfer (PT)-Stepwise-ET-PT-ET<Stepwise-PT-ET<TEMPO⁺-catalyzed hydride (H) (2e⁻ & H⁺) transfer. We also discussed dimerization of 3-alkyl-2-oxindole (4a), which followed a kinetically slower TEMPO⁺-catalyzed 1e⁻ transfer mechanism, since pK_a of pseudobenzylic proton of 4a is significantly higher than that of 1a.



Keywords: Dimerization, Proton-Coupled Electron Transfer, Hydride Transfer, 3-Substituted-2-Oxindole

1. Introduction

Mother nature finds efficient routes for the synthesis of natural products, and a symphony can be found in natural product synthesis. Hence, scientists are always on the quest to understand nature. In this regard, dimeric hexapyrrolo[2,3,b] indole alkaloids such as chimonanthine, folicanathine, calycanthines are important natural products (Scheme 1).¹ A closer look at these natural products reveals that the dimerization of 3-substituted-2oxindoles were an important component towards the synthesis of these natural products. On the other hand, Proton-Coupled Electron Transfer (PCET) was discovered by Thomas J. Meyer in 1980, wherein the key discovery was concerted electron (e) and proton (H) transfer in a single step.^{2, 3} The beauty of this discovery lies in the fact that in this process, a neutral species is transferred, and a highenergy intermediate formation can be avoided for a reaction to occur. In due course, it was realized that nature exercises this process often to avoid excess activation barriers for a reaction to occur. Thereafter, the concept of PCET has now been expanded, and it involves different types of electron and proton transfer, such as stepwise electron transfer (ET) and proton transfer (PT), concerted electronproton transfer

(EPT), hydrogen atom transfer (HAT), hydride (H⁻) transfer, multi-site electron-proton transfer (MS-EPT) etc.^{3,4} Each of these pathways has its own advantages and disadvantages. Nevertheless, all these mechanisms are important to understand from a scientific point of view and, even more importantly, for our journey to unravel Mother Nature.



Scheme 1: Structures of (a) chimonanthine, (b) folicanthine, and (c) calycanthine.

Recently, electro-organic synthesis has been gaining momentum for organic molecules syntheses since electrode potential acts as an oxidant or reductant and hence avoids the necessity of chemical oxidants/reductants.⁵ Furthermore, electro-organic syntheses avoid the use of toxic metals, atom-economical and green in nature. However, the advancement of electro-organic synthesis did not focus much on finding energy-efficient routes utilizing PCET, which may lead to enhancing our understanding about nature's way of natural product synthesis as well. From this

perspective, we summarized our effort to synthesize the dimerized 3-carboxylate-2-oxindoles (1a) in four different PCET pathways.⁶ We also demonstrate the synthesis of dimerization of 3-alkyl-2-oxindole (4a) synthesis utilizing an electro-catalytic pathway.^{7,8} The efficiency of these pathways can be arranged in chronological order by connecting the yield of the reaction and understanding of the PCET. The results for this manuscript have been taken from J. Org. Chem. 2020, 85, 14926; ACS Catal. 2023, 13, 2118; and partly from Org. Biomol. Chem. 2021, 19, 9390, wherein organic molecules syntheses were the focal point. However, this manuscript has been presented from a very different scientific viewpoint than that of previously published manuscripts from our group. Herein, the discussion is about the kinetics of different PCET pathways and understanding this viewpoint can enhance the yield of these type of reactions further in the near future.



Figure 1: Cyclic voltammetry of 3-carboxylate-2-oxindole (1a) (5 mM) at 100 mV/s scan rate on a glassy carbon electrode with 0.1 M NH_4PF_6 in DMF. (a) In absence of NaH and (b) in presence of 5 mM NaH.



a) 22% Yield , b) 30% Yield , c) 60% Yield

Scheme 2: Dimerization of 3-carboxylate-2-oxindole (**1a**) at different electrolysis conditions.

2. Results of Dimerization of 3-substituted-2oxindoles

Dimerization of 3-carboxylate-2-oxindole (1a) was achieved by oxidation of 1a directly on a platinum working electrode employing different electrolytic conditions, which will be discussed. Cyclic voltammetry (CV) of 1a revealed two irreversible oxidation peaks at 0.17 and 1.14 V vs. Ag/Ag⁺ reference electrode in dimethyl formamide (DMF) solvent with 0.1 M NH₄PF₆ supporting electrolyte (Figure 1a). 1a also revealed two chemically irreversible oxidation peaks in CV at (+) 0.55 and (+) 1.15 V vs. Ag/Ag⁺ reference electrode in DMF with 5 mM NaH (base) in 0.1 M NH₄PF₆ supporting

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electrolyte (Figure 1b). Each of these CV peaks was tentatively assigned for 1e oxidation process of 1a. Thereafter, three important control potential electrolysis experiments were performed. The first experiment was performed in a three-electrodes configuration at (+) 0.2 V vs. Ag/Ag⁺ (Reference electrode) for 4 h in DMF with 0.1 M NH₄PF₆ without the addition of NaH (Scheme 2). Pt plate and Pt wire were taken as working and counter electrodes, respectively. The reaction yield was found to be only 22%. The second experiment was performed in a three-electrodes configuration at (+) 1.2 V vs Ag/Ag⁺ for 1 h in DMF with 0.1 M NH₄PF₆ without the addition of base in the same electrochemical setup (Scheme 2). The yield for the reaction was found to be 30% suggesting higher efficiency than in the previous experiment. The third experiment was performed at (+) 1.2 V vs. Ag/Ag⁺ in the same setup but with 5 mM NaH (base) for 1 h (Scheme 2). The yield of the third experiment was found to be 60%, suggesting a significant increase in the kinetics of the reaction. At this point, we highlight that the last two yields in three-electrodes configuration were not reported in the original manuscript (J. Org. Chem. 2020, 85, 14926). Furthermore, an experiment was performed by performing control potential electrolysis at (+) 0.55 V vs Ag/Ag⁺ for 2 h without the addition of base in the presence of a radical DPPH (2,2-diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl). scavenger The experiment revealed the formation of DPPH-2b complex which was confirmed by the results of ¹H NMR, ¹³C NMR and HRMS.⁶ This experiment confirmed the formation of a neutral radical species beyond the 1st peak of CV (Figure 1).



Scheme 3: Mechanisms of dimerization of 3-carboxylate-2oxindole (1a) at three different conditions. (a) at (+) 0.2 V vs Ag/Ag⁺ in absence of base, (b) at (+) 1.2 V vs Ag/Ag⁺ in absence of base, and (c) at (+) 1.2 V vs Ag/Ag⁺ in presence of 5 mM NaH (Base).

Since the control experiment suggested the formation of neutral radical species beyond the 1st peak in CV, the proposed mechanism at (+) 0.2 V vs Ag/Ag⁺ can be explained as follows: First, an electron transfer (ET) to the electrode from **1a** generated a radical cation species (**2a**) (Scheme 3a). The pK_a of **2a** is significantly lower than that of **1a** due to high electron deficiency in **2a** compared to **1a**, and hence, it loses the proton (PT) at 3-position immediately to generate a neutral radical species (**2b**) (Scheme 3a). Thereafter, dimerization of **2b** produced the dimerized 3-

carboxylate-2-oxindole (**3a**) (22% yield after 4 h of electrolysis) (Scheme 3a). Hence, the mechanism for this reaction follows a stepwise ET-PT

pathway, and the yield of the reaction was poor since neutral radical species (**2b**) were in-situ generated; and hence, the concentration of the species was low, which resulted in a lower yield.

The mechanism at (+) 1.2 V vs Ag/Ag⁺ in the absence of base has been shown in Scheme 3b. First, an electron transfer (ET) from **1a** to the electrode generated the radical cation species **2a** and thereafter, **2a** lost the proton (PT) to generate **2b**. The second CV peak in Figure **1a** was due to the loss of another electron transfer (ET) from **2b**, which resulted in the formation of a cationic species **2c**. **2c** can also be present in another resonance form **2d**. **2c/2d** then reacted with enol form of **1a** (**1a**'), which was present in large excess to form dimeric 3-carboxylate 2-oxindole (**3a**) after losing a proton. Hence, this mechanism was described as a stepwise ET-PT-ET pathway, and this pathway was significantly more efficient than the stepwise ET-PT pathway.

The mechanism in the presence of a base (NaH) at (+) 1.2 V vs. Ag/Ag⁺ has been described in Scheme 3c. The strong base removed the proton of **1a** to generate an anionic species **2e** since the pK_a of **1a** was estimated to be low (~18). The **2e** undergoes two successive ET steps to generate cation species **2c/2d**, and thereafter **2c/2d** reacts with **2e** and results in the formation of a dimeric product (**3a**). The excess potential ((+) 0.4 V) required for the first electron transfer in the presence of base compared to in the absence of base (Figure 1) was due to the excess energy requirement for the removal of an electron from a negatively charged species (**2e**). The overall mechanism in the presence of base can be summarized as a stepwise PT-ET-ET pathway, which is kinetically more facile than that of the previous two pathways (Scheme 3c).



Scheme 4: TEMPO⁺-catalyzed dimerization of 3-carboxylate-2-oxindole (1a) in acetonitrile (ACN) solvent with 0.2 M NH_4PF_6 as electrolyte.

Next, an electrocatalytic pathway for the dimerization of **1a** was attempted. In this pathway, **1a** was oxidized at a significantly lower potential ((+) 0.8 V vs. Ag/Ag⁺) than that of direct oxidation of **1a** ((+) 1.2 V vs. Ag/Ag⁺) on the electrode surface by an in-situ generated catalyst, i.e. TEMPO⁺ generated from TEMPO (2,2,6,6-tetramethyl-1-piperidinyloxy). As shown in Scheme 5, dimerization of **1a** was achieved in acetonitrile (ACN) solvent with 0.008 M

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TEMPO and 0.2 M NH_4PF_6 on Pt mesh working electrode without the addition of any base. 75% yield was obtained in only 15 min of electrolysis without addition of any base. The 0.4 V lowering of potential



Scheme 5: (a) CV of TEMPO at 10 mVs⁻¹ scan rate on Pt disk electrode in ACN solvent with 0.5 M NH₄PF₆ electrolyte (0.5 mM) with increasing concentration of **1a** (0 (black), 15 (red), 20 (blue), 25 (purple), and 30 mM (green)) in presence of N₂, and (b) TEMPO⁺ catalyzed mechanism for dimerization of **1a**.

translates to an 9.2 kcal/mol decrease in the energetics of the reaction (calculated from the relation between the Gibbs Free Energy and emf). This remarkable improvement in the kinetics of dimerization of 1a was not only attributed to the involvement of the electrocatalytic pathway but also due to the avoidance of electrode passivation during electrocatalysis compared to direct oxidation on the electrode surface. Scheme 5a shows a reversible CV for TEMPO in the same solvent and electrolyte (Black curve). During the forward scan, TEMPO (nitroxyl radical) oxidizes to TEMPO⁺ (oxoammonium cation) in a chemically reversible process since the peak intensities for forward and reverse scans were same. However, the CVs show that with the increasing addition of 1a, the oxidation peak intensity increased systematically while the reverse reduction peak decreased. These electrochemical features represent that in-situ generated TEMPO⁺ oxidized 1a and simultaneously TEMPO⁺ was reduced to TEMPOH (hydroxylamine) through a hydride transfer (H⁻) mechanism, which was confirmed by further experiments (vide infra). During a CV scan for a reversible reaction, at a particular potential, the concentration of [TEMPO⁺]/[TEMPO] is maintained following the Nernst equation. However, consumption of TEMPO⁺ due to reaction with 1a decreases the concentration of TEMPO⁺ at the electrode surface, and the electrode tries to regenerate TEMPO⁺ by oxidizing excess TEMPO present in the solution. This phenomenon increases the current, and this enhanced current is known as catalytic current. This discussion suggests that the current enhancement during the CV scan is dependent on the reaction kinetics between TEMPO⁺ and 1a. CVs in Scheme 5a show that with increasing concentration of **1a**, current enhances due to 1st order dependence of reaction kinetics with 1a. The data obtained from Scheme 5a and further scan rate-dependent results, the second-order rate

constant for the reaction between TEMPO⁺ and 1a was obtained, and a modest rate constant of 1.2 M⁻¹ s⁻¹ was obtained considering 2e transfer process for the catalytic reaction. These kinetic analyses suggested even with modest kinetics, an excellent conversion of 1a was obtained, and further improvement of reaction kinetics is possible. Next, the mechanism for this reaction was investigated. Electrochemical results ruled out the possibility of a radical intermediate generation. In-situ spectroelectrochemical results confirmed the presence of TEMPOH during the reaction. Based on this evidences, the mechanism for the reaction was proposed wherein a hydride (H⁻) transfer from 1a to TEMPO⁺ results in the formation of TEMPOH and a radical cation intermediate 2c/2d (Scheme 5b). Thereafter, 2c/2d reacts with the enol form of 1a (1a') to form 3a after losing a proton (PT) (Scheme 5b). The hydride transfer can be viewed as a 2e transfer process since hydride is composed of a proton and 2e⁻.

In summary, four different pathways for the dimerization of 3-carboxylate-2-oxindole (1a) have been demonstrated and based on the yields of these pathways with reaction time information, the order of kinetic efficiency can be summarized. They were stepwise ET-PT (1e⁻ transfer radical pathway, in absence of base) < stepwise ET-PT-ET (2e⁻ transfer cationic intermediate pathway, in the absence of base) < stepwise PT-ET-ET (2e⁻ transfer cationic intermediate pathway, in the presence of base) < Electrocatalytic hydride transfer pathway (2e⁻ transfer pathway catalyzed by TEMPO⁺).

The dimerization of 3-alkyl-2-oxindole (4a) was attempted through an electrocatalytic route. The pK_a of the pseudobenzylic proton of 4a was estimated to be in the range of 21-24, which is significantly higher than that of 3-carboxylate-2-oxindole (1a). The dimerized product 6a was obtained in 70% yield in ACN solvent having 0.35 M NH₄PF₆ electrolyte and 0.01 M TEMPO at the applied potential of 0.8 V Ag/Ag⁺ in N₂ atmosphere (Scheme 6). However, the reaction time was enhanced to 1 h 20 min, besides 0.1 M NaH (base) was also needed.



Scheme 6: TEMPO⁺-catalyzed dimerization of 3-alkyl-2oxindole (4a) in acetonitrile (ACN) solvent with 0.2 M NH_4PF_6 as electrolyte and 0.1 M NaH in N_2 atmosphere.

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Scheme 7: (a) CV of 0.004 M TEMPO at 10 mVs⁻¹ scan rate on Pt disk electrode in ACN solvent with 0.5 M NH_4PF_6 electrolyte (0.5 mM) with increasing concentration of 4a with 30 mM NaH in presence of N_2 (b) TEMPO⁺-catalyzed mechanism for dimerization of **4a**.

The synthesis of 6a from 4a revealed a comparatively slower kinetics compared to the dimerization of 1a. Thereafter, CVs were collected for 4a in the presence of 0.004 M TEMPO with 30 mM NaH and 0.5 M NH₄PF₆ in ACN solvent. CV of TEMPO had reversible peaks, and with increasing concentration of substrate (4a), the peaks became somewhat irreversible since the oxidation current increased while the reduction current declined (Scheme 7a). These results clearly suggested that TEMPO⁺ can catalyze the oxidation of 4a; however, comparing the CVs shown in Scheme 5 for 1a, it can be speculated that the kinetics of 4a oxidation by TEMPO⁺ was significantly slower and indeed the electrochemical analysis revealed a rate constant of only 0.29 M⁻¹s⁻¹, considering electrocatalytic process was a 1e⁻ transfer process, which was confirmed by further experiments (vide infra). The electrochemical CV comparison of TEMPO⁺catalyzed 4a oxidation provided a higher current in the N₂ environment compared to the O2 environment, which suggested the presence of a radical species during the reaction. Furthermore, in-situ UV-vis results during the electrolysis revealed that TEMPOH was not generated and indicated that the catalytic cycle was limited between TEMPO and TEMPO⁺. Furthermore, a radical intermediate was trapped by a radical scavenger (DPPH). These results clearly suggested one-electron transfer oxidation of 4a by TEMPO⁺. The mechanism for 4a oxidation has been shown in Scheme 7b. First, the strong base NaH abstracted the proton (PT) from 4a to generate an anionic species 5aa. Thereafter, 5aa reacted with TEMPO⁺ to generate **5ab**, which homolytically cleaved to generate TEMPO and radical intermediate 5b. Overall, this process involves 1e⁻ transfer from TEMPO⁺ to 4a, which is contrary to 2e⁻ transfer reaction mechanism for 1a discussed earlier. Thereafter, two radical intermediates reacted to obtain dimerized 3-alkyl-2-oxindole (6a). These results are interesting because the same catalyst changed

the mechanism for oxidation based on the difficulty of molecules to oxidize.

3. Conclusions and Future directions

In conclusion, we summarized the dimerization of 3carboxylate-2-oxindole (1a) and 3-alkyl-2-oxindoles (4a) employing direct electrode oxidation and electrocatalytic pathways. 3-carboxylate-2-oxindole (1a) was oxidized in four different pathways, and the efficiency of these pathways was significantly different. The electrocatalytic TEMPO⁺-catalyzed 2e⁻ hydride transfer (H⁻) mechanism was kinetically most efficient, which was not only due to the kinetics but also because of the avoidance of electrode passivation during the reaction. Thereafter, three direct electrode oxidation mechanisms followed the following trend: stepwise PT-ET-ET> stepwise ET-PT-ET> stepwise ET-PT (radical intermediate). It is important to highlight that the cationic intermediate generation provided a higher yield compared to the radical intermediate pathway since the radical intermediate pathway required two in-situ generated radical intermediates to couple, while the cationic intermediate can react with the monomer present in a large excess to provide the product. However, more insights for this observation can be obtained from theoretical investigations since 3carboxylate-2-oxindole (1a) molecules are sterically hindered and C3a-C-3a bonds are significantly longer than that of normal C-C single bonds (1.54 Å). 3-alkyl-2-oxindole (4a) was much more difficult to oxidize, and TEMPO⁺-catalyzed reaction with 3-alkyl-2-oxindole (4a) followed a one-electron transfer radical intermediate mechanism, which required a significantly longer time and the presence of a base for the reaction to complete. These syntheses provided important insights into the reaction kinetics of dimerization of 3substituted-2-oxindoles. Indeed, following this direction, future research directed towards electrochemical synthesis of natural products may bring important breakthroughs towards improving the efficiency of reactions employing the understanding about PCET.

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5. Notes and References

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