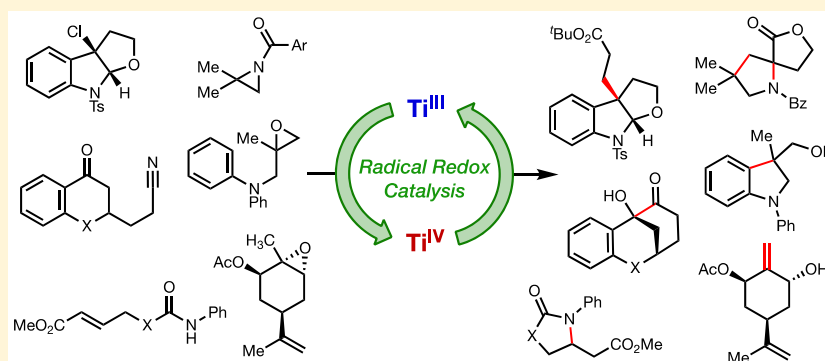


Recent Advances in Titanium Radical Redox Catalysis

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ABSTRACT: New catalytic strategies that leverage single-electron redox events have provided chemists with useful tools for solving synthetic problems. In this context, Ti offers opportunities that are complementary to late transition metals for reaction discovery. Following foundational work on epoxide reductive functionalization, recent methodological advances have significantly expanded the repertoire of Ti radical chemistry. This Synopsis summarizes recent developments in the burgeoning area of Ti radical catalysis with a focus on innovative catalytic strategies such as radical redox-relay and dual catalysis.

1. INTRODUCTION

Radical-based chemistry has long been a cornerstone of synthetic organic chemistry.¹ The high reactivity of organic radicals has made possible myriad new reactions that cannot be readily achieved using two-electron chemistry. However, the high reactivity of organic radicals is a double-edged sword, as the selectivity of these fleeting intermediates can be difficult to control in the presence of multiple chemotypes. In addition, catalyst-controlled regio- and stereoselective reactions involving free-radical intermediates remain limited,² and the discovery of such processes is highly desirable. In light of these challenges, the development of catalytic strategies that enable new radical transformations with precise control over chemo-, regio-, and stereoselectivity could substantially impact organic synthesis.

Owing to their rich redox chemistry, titanium-based complexes have been widely used for the development of synthetically useful organic transformations involving redox processes. Among these reactions are the Sharpless epoxidation, the McMurry reaction, the pinacol coupling, the Barbier reaction, and the Pauson–Khand reaction.^{3,4} In particular, the $\text{Ti}^{\text{IV/III}}$ redox couple offers unique opportunities to access radical intermediates in a chemoselective fashion. Although Ti^{III} complexes exhibit moderate reduction potentials [e.g., $E_{1/2}(\text{Cp}_2\text{TiCl}) = -0.65 \text{ V vs SCE}$], they effect electron transfer via inner-sphere pathways by binding to a “hard” Lewis basic group in the substrate (e.g., epoxides and carbonyls). This mode of activation allows Ti to engage substrates that are outside the redox range of the catalyst and promote their reactions with high chemo- and stereoselectivity. Finally, from

a green chemistry perspective, the abundance and low toxicity of Ti make its complexes highly attractive as reagents and catalysts in organic synthesis.⁵

A classic example of $\text{Ti}^{\text{IV/III}}$ -mediated reactivity is the reductive ring opening of epoxides. This process preferentially cleaves and functionalizes the more substituted C–O bond, providing complementary regioselectivity to Lewis acid promoted epoxide reactions. The synthetic value of Ti redox catalysis has been highlighted by their many uses in total synthesis (Scheme 1).^{6–10} A small exhibition of the panoply is demonstrated in the synthesis of the linear triquinane skeleton of ceratopicanol,^{11,12} the steroid core of fomitellin acid B,¹³ and the spirocyclic core of (–)-maoecrystal Z.¹⁴

Recent years have seen great expansion of $\text{Ti}^{\text{IV/III}}$ -mediated redox chemistry beyond epoxide functionalization. A wide range of new substrates have now been engaged in Ti^{III} -promoted single electron activities, including enones, nitriles, *N*-acylaziridines, chloroalkanes, and cyclopropyl ketones. These developments have opened new possibilities for the use of Ti radical redox catalysis in future synthetic endeavors. The aim of this Synopsis is to highlight recent advances in $\text{Ti}^{\text{IV/III}}$ redox catalysis (c. 2014) in three categories: net-reductive, redox-neutral (via radical redox-relay catalysis), and dual catalytic transformations. Much progress has also been made in the two-electron regime (i.e., $\text{Ti}^{\text{IV/II}}$ catalysis) in recent years, which has been systematically documented elsewhere and will not be covered herein.^{15,16}

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The image displays two chemical reaction schemes. The first scheme shows the conversion of compound 1 to Ceratopicanol (3). Compound 1 is a bicyclic molecule with a vinyl group and a methyl group. It reacts with Cp_2TiCl_2 and Zn in THF to form intermediate 2, which has a hydroxyl group and a methyl group. Intermediate 2 then undergoes further transformation to yield Ceratopicanol (3), which has a hydroxyl group and a methyl group.

The second scheme shows the conversion of compound 7 to (-)-Maeocrystal Z (9). Compound 7 is a bicyclic molecule with a vinyl group and a methyl group. It reacts with Cp_2TiCl_2 and Zn in THF to form intermediate 8, which has a hydroxyl group and a methyl group. Intermediate 8 then undergoes further transformation to yield (-)-Maeocrystal Z (9), which has a hydroxyl group and a methyl group.

Chemical reaction scheme showing the synthesis of Ceratopicanol (3) from compound 1, and the synthesis of (-)-Maeocrystal Z (9) from compound 7.

Reaction 1: Compound 1 reacts with Cp_2TiCl_2 and Zn in THF to form intermediate 2, which then yields Ceratopicanol (3).

Reaction 2: Compound 7 reacts with Cp_2TiCl_2 and Zn in THF to form intermediate 8, which then yields (-)-Maeocrystal Z (9).

Chemical structures shown include:

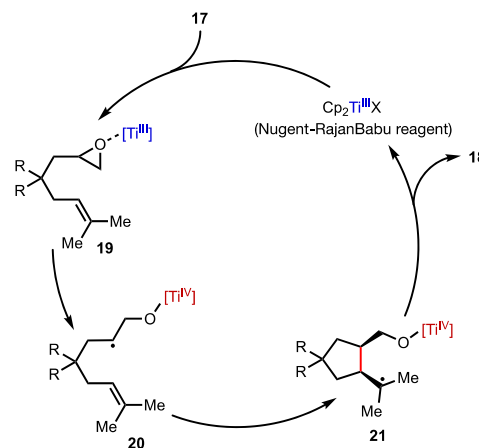
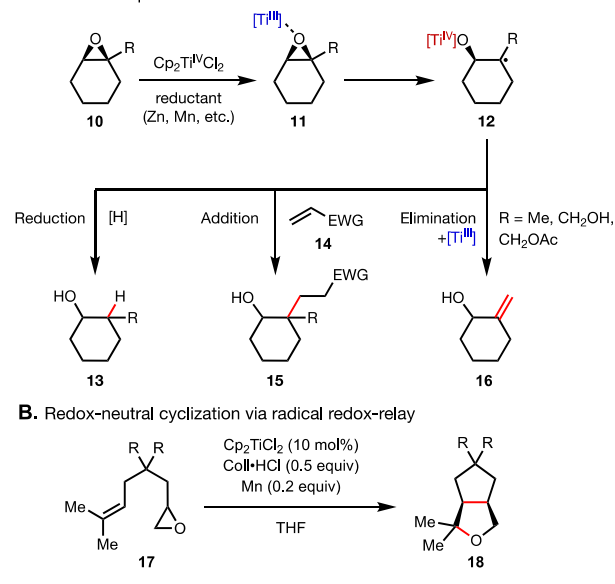
- Compound 1: A bicyclic molecule with a vinyl group and a methyl group.
- Intermediate 2: A bicyclic molecule with a hydroxyl group and a methyl group.
- Ceratopicanol (3): A bicyclic molecule with a hydroxyl group and a methyl group.
- Compound 7: A bicyclic molecule with a vinyl group and a methyl group.
- Intermediate 8: A bicyclic molecule with a hydroxyl group and a methyl group.
- (-)-Maeocrystal Z (9): A bicyclic molecule with a hydroxyl group and a methyl group.

2.1. Background.

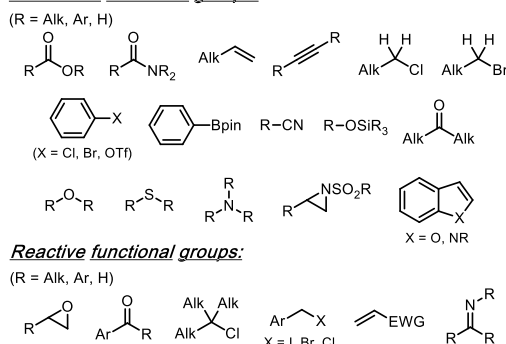
When using epoxides with a pendent trisubstituted alkene (**17**), the Ti^{III} -promoted epoxide ring opening (**20**) followed by *5-exo-trig* cyclization gives 3° radical **21**. Subsequently, homolytic radical substitution takes place, furnishing a new C–O bond and regenerating $\text{Cp}_2\text{Ti}^{\text{III}}\text{Cl}$ (Scheme 2B). This process yields bicyclic tetrahydrofuran **18** and constitutes a seminal example of redox-neutral methodology using $\text{Ti}^{\text{IV}}/\text{Ti}^{\text{III}}$ redox catalysis.^{22–24}

Following the initial establishment of reactivity, Gansäuer further applied Ti^{III} -mediated epoxide ring opening in

A. Reductive epoxide functionalization



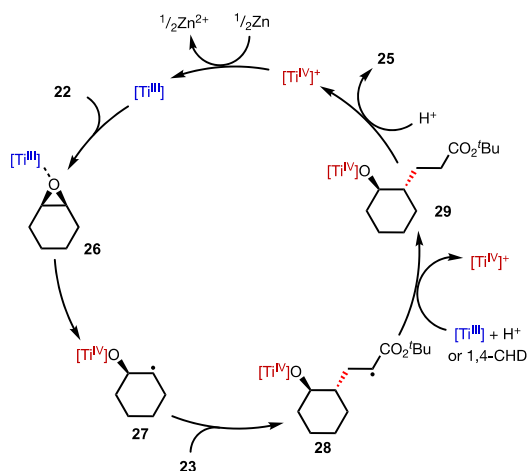
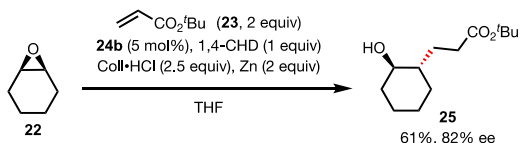
Unreactive functional groups:



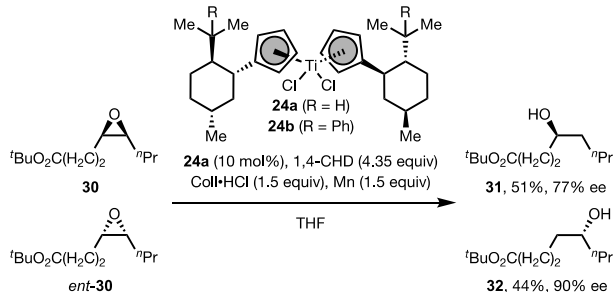
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J. Org. Chem. 2019, 84, 14369–14380

Scheme 4. Net-Reducing Enantioselective (A) and Regiodivergent (B) Epoxide Opening Reactions

A. Reductive desymmetrization of *meso*-epoxides



B. Regiodivergent ring opening of racemic epoxides



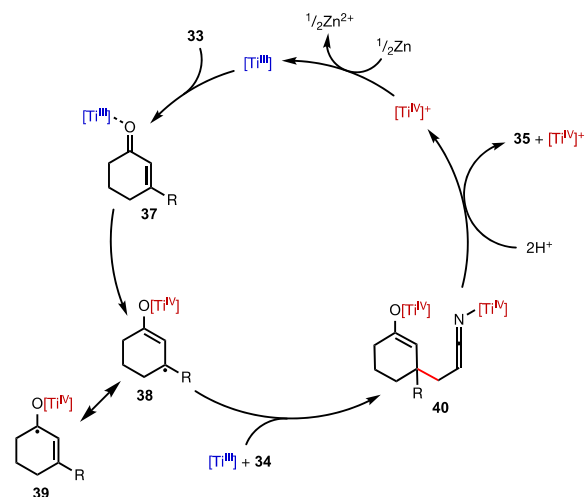
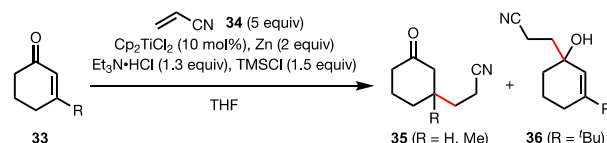
presence of 1,4-cyclohexadiene (CHD) as the H atom donor (Scheme 4B).^{29–32}

Extensive studies by Gansäuer and others on the mechanism of Ti^{III} activation of epoxides led to major findings summarized below. (1) The regioselectivity of reductive ring opening of epoxides favors the more substituted and stable alkyl radical ($3^\circ > 2^\circ > 1^\circ$).^{33,34} (2) Upon reduction of $\text{Cp}_2\text{Ti}^{\text{IV}}\text{Cl}_2$ by Mn or Zn, $\text{Cp}_2\text{Ti}^{\text{III}}\text{Cl}$ exists in an equilibrium between monomeric and dimeric complexes.³⁵ (3) $\text{Cp}_2\text{Ti}^{\text{III}}\text{Cl}$ undergoes reaction with epoxides at rates on the order of $0.5\text{--}3.9\text{ M}^{-1}\text{ s}^{-1}$, which is often the rate-determining step of the overall reaction.^{36,37} (4) Protonated amine salts, such as $\text{Coll}\cdot\text{HCl}$ and $\text{Et}_3\text{N}\cdot\text{HCl}$, likely promote the reaction by breaking up off-cycle Ti adducts (e.g., Ti^{III} dimers).^{36–38}

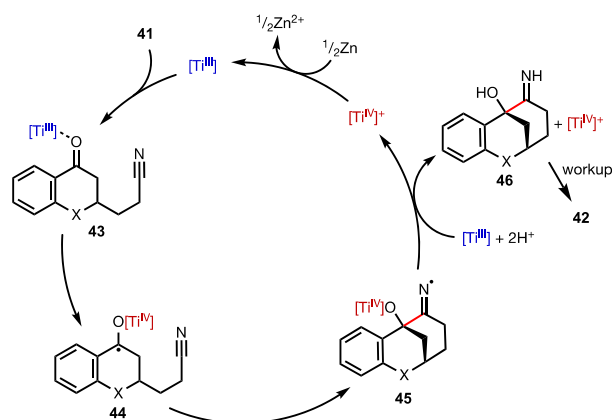
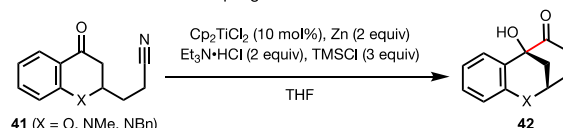
2.2. Reductive Ketone–Nitrile Coupling. Ti^{III} is capable of reductively activating conjugated aldehydes and ketones to form the corresponding ketyl radicals.³⁹ Recently, Streuff explored this reactivity in the reductive cross coupling of enones with acrylonitriles (Scheme 5A).⁴⁰ In these reactions, the in situ generated Ti^{III} binds to the cyclic enone (33 to 37), which triggers the inner-sphere SET to provide resonance stabilized ketyl radical 38/39. This intermediate subsequently undergoes addition to acrylonitrile (34). In this step, Streuff proposes that Ti^{III} also activates 34 through binding of the CN group. Upon formation of 40, protonation of both Ti^{IV} -enolate

Scheme 5. Reductive Coupling of Ketones with Nitriles

A. Reductive cross-coupling of enones and acrylonitrile



B. Reductive ketone–nitrile coupling

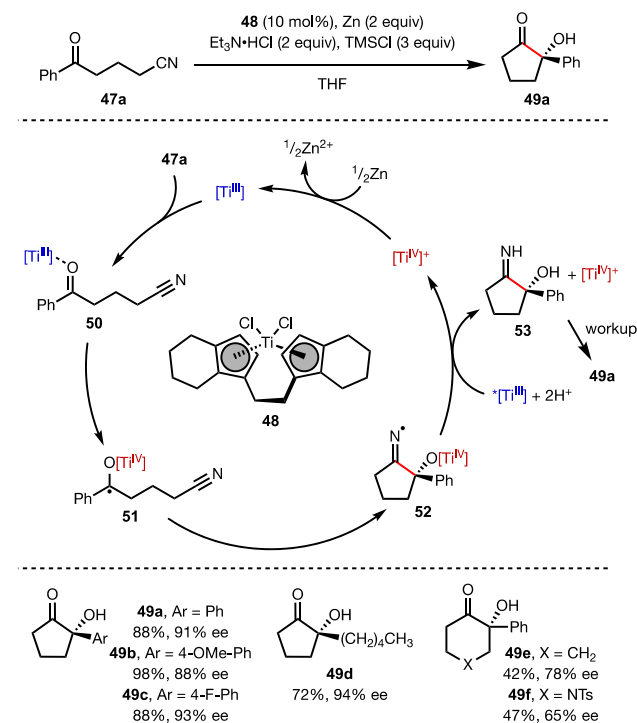


and Ti^{IV} -ketenimine groups gives rise to C–C coupling product 35. Interestingly, increasing the size of the R group in 33 imparts a steric bias that results in predominant formation of 1,2-addition product 36 from intermediate 39.

Early studies showed that Ti^{III} -mediated epoxide ring opening could trigger radical cyclization onto a tethered nitrile group.⁴¹ Streuff expanded on this reactivity in the intramolecular reductive coupling of ketones and nitriles to form α -hydroxyketones. For example, chromones and quinolones with pendent nitrile groups (41) can undergo reductive ketone–nitrile cyclization to yield product 42 (Scheme 5B).^{42–44} In this reaction, ketyl radical 44 generated from Ti^{III} -activation of ketone 41 adds to the nitrile group to furnish intermediate 45. Subsequent reduction of the N-centered radical, protonation, and imine hydrolysis led to product 42. Streuff further

developed an enantioselective variant of the reductive ketone–nitrile cyclization using Brintzinger's *ansa*-titanocene complex (**48**), providing efficient access to enantioenriched α -hydroxyketones (**49**) with a fully substituted stereocenter (Scheme 6).^{45,46}

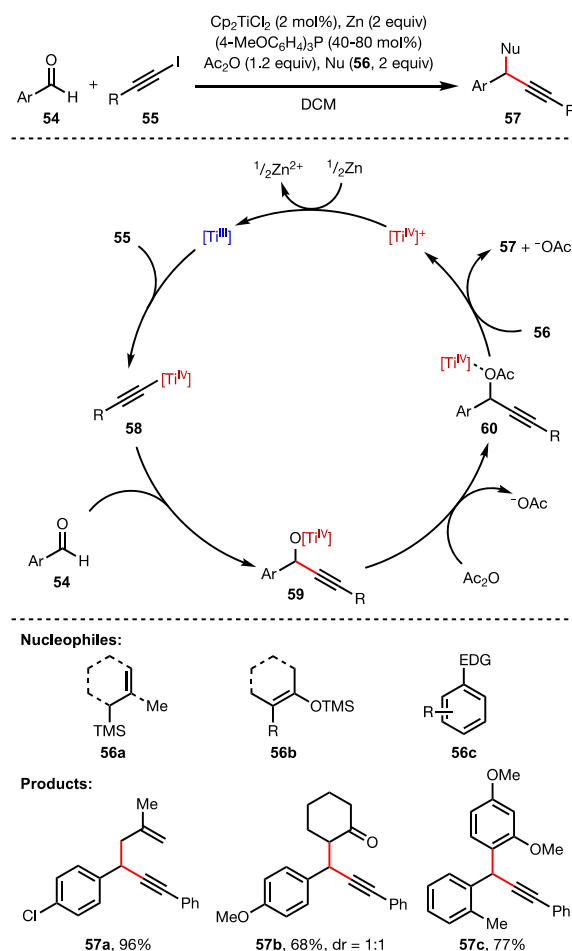
Scheme 6. Enantioselective Reductive Ketone–Nitrile Coupling



2.3. Three-Component Coupling of Aldehydes, Iodoacetylides, and π -Nucleophiles. Ashfield advanced Ti-promoted redox–Lewis acid relay catalysis for the three-component coupling of aldehydes (**54**), iodoacetylides (**55**), and nucleophiles (**56**; Scheme 7).^{47–51} In this reaction, the Ti catalyst is proposed to take on multiple roles in the mechanism by behaving as both a Lewis acid and a single-electron reductant. The reaction begins with the reductive activation of **55** by Cp₂Ti^{III}Cl to form Ti^{IV}-acetylide **58**. This intermediate can undergo transmetalation with ZnCl₂—generated from the reduction of Cp₂Ti^{IV}Cl₂ by Zn—to form Zn^{II}-acetylide. The metal acetylides (**58**, Ti^{IV} or Zn^{II}, Ti^{IV} depicted in Scheme 7 for clarity) then proceed to add to aldehyde **54**, giving propargyl alkoxide **59**. After reaction with Ac₂O, acetate **60** undergoes ionization, likely assisted by a Lewis acid (Ti^{IV} or Zn^{II}), and subsequent nucleophilic addition to furnish three-component coupling product **57** with two newly constructed C–C bonds. Carbon nucleophiles such as allylsilanes (**56a**), silyl enol ethers (**56b**), and electron-rich arenes (**56c**) have proven suitable coupling partners in this reaction.

2.4. Giese Radical Addition of *N*-Acyl Aziridines. In 2017, Gansäuer expanded the scope of titanocene-based reactivity from epoxides to *N*-acylaziridines, achieving their reductive ring opening followed by Giese-type addition to electron-deficient alkenes (Scheme 8).⁵² For example, aziridine **61a** can be activated by Cp₂Ti^{III}Cl through Ti–carbonyl coordination (**63**) and subsequent SET, resulting in ring rupture and formation of radical intermediate **64**. This

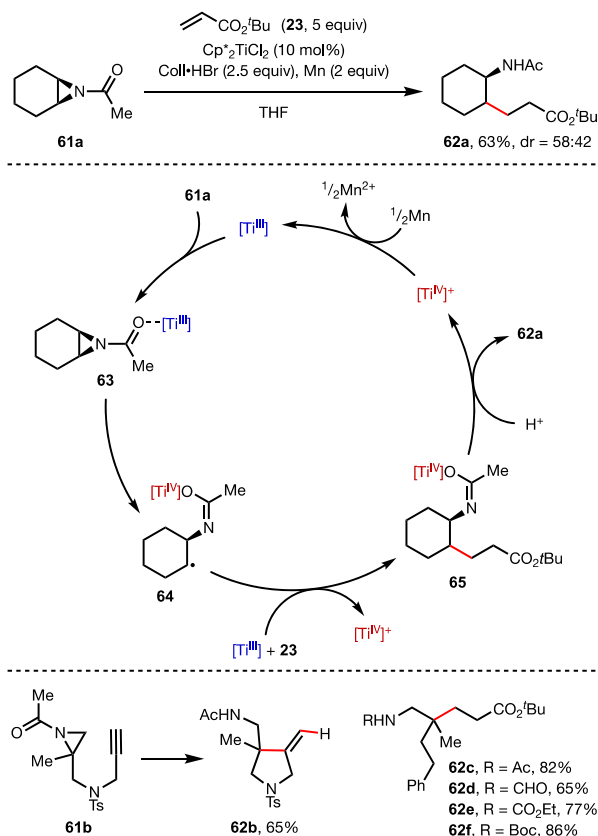
Scheme 7. Ti-Catalyzed Three-Component Coupling of Acetylides, Aldehydes, and Nucleophiles



intermediate then adds to acrylate **23**, leading to adduct **65** after further reduction by Ti^{III}. Upon the final protonation step, the overall reaction gives rise to protected δ -amino acid **62a**. The formation of an intermediate radical during the reaction was demonstrated in the *5-exo-dig* cyclization of **61b**. Aziridines with various *N*-protecting groups (**61c–f**) proved suitable substrates.

2.5. Activation of Chloroalkanes toward Giese-Type Radical Addition. In 2018, our team expanded the scope of Ti^{III}-catalysis to the reductive activation of unactivated 2° and 3° chloroalkanes (Scheme 9).²⁵ C(sp³)–Cl bonds are traditionally challenging to engage in C–C forming reactions due to their high bond dissociation energy (BDE ~ 85 kcal/mol). Recent advances in Ni catalysis have made possible cross-coupling reactions of unactivated chloroalkanes;⁵³ however, this strategy is currently not amenable to reactions with 3° substrates due to competing β -H elimination.

In a related previous work by Zheng, hemiaminals (**66**) were shown to undergo reductive Giese reaction in the presence of Cp₂Ti^{III}Cl via α -chlorolactam intermediates (**67**, Scheme 9A).⁵⁴ This reaction, however, is limited to activated substrates with an α -N atom that can stabilize key radical intermediate derived from **67**. In our work, the reaction scope is extended to unactivated chloroalkanes (**69**) using a half-sandwich Cp^{*}Ti^{III}Cl₂ complex. The increased reactivity in comparison to titanocene-type catalysts is attributed to the smaller steric profile of Cp^{*}Ti^{III}Cl₂. The reaction begins with activation of

Scheme 8. Reductive Giese-Type Addition of *N*-Acyl-Protected Aziridines

the substrate C–Cl bond by Ti^{III} via inner-sphere Cl atom (**72**) transfer to generate the corresponding C-centered radical (**73**). This intermediate is difficult to access through outer-sphere SET pathways owing to the high redox potentials of chloroalkanes ($E_{\text{pc}} > -2.5$ V vs $\text{Fc}^{+/0}$). Finally, nucleophilic radical **73** adds to electron-deficient alkene **70** to generate product **71**.

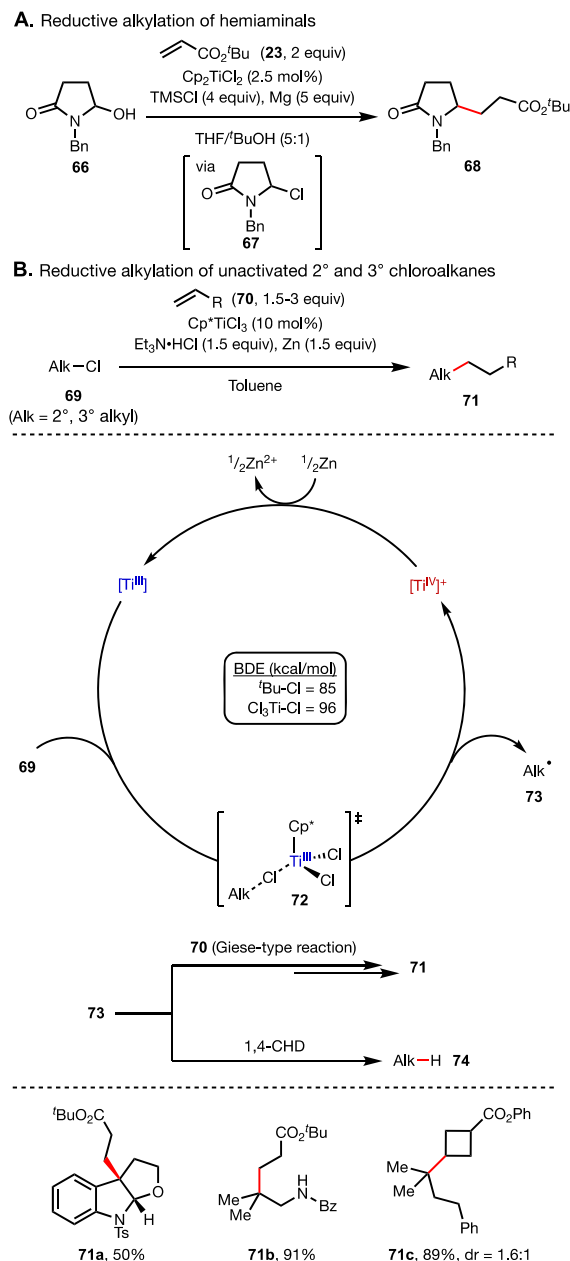
This methodology is applicable to the alkylation of a catalog of readily available chloroalkanes (**69a–c**) using various alkene acceptors, including bicyclobutanes (giving **71c**). The intermediacy of an alkyl radical was supported through reduction with CHD to form **74**. This reaction also provides a mild protocol for the reductive hydrodechlorination of chloroalkanes.

3. REDOX-NEUTRAL METHODOLOGY: RADICAL REDOX-RELAY CATALYSIS

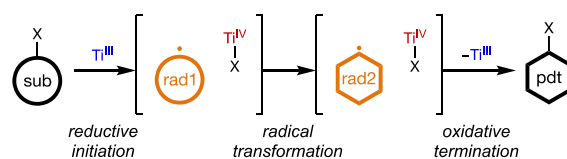
3.1. Background. Previous examples highlighted herein demonstrate the ability of Ti^{III} -complexes to promote reactions wherein the substrates undergo net-reductive transformations. In these reactions, the Ti catalysts are turned over by stoichiometric reducing metals (e.g., Mn, Zn). In principle, overall redox-neutral reactions could also be achieved by means of a sequence of self-sustained reduction and oxidation steps regulated by a redox-active catalyst in the absence of an extraneous stoichiometric reductant. This redox relay strategy could facilitate the development of dual catalytic processes that may not be feasible otherwise (see section 4).

Transition-metal-catalyzed redox-neutral transformations are by no means a novel concept. For example, Pd-mediated cross coupling reactions are net-redox neutral processes that consist

Scheme 9. Reductive Giese-Type Addition of Tertiary and Secondary Chloroalkanes



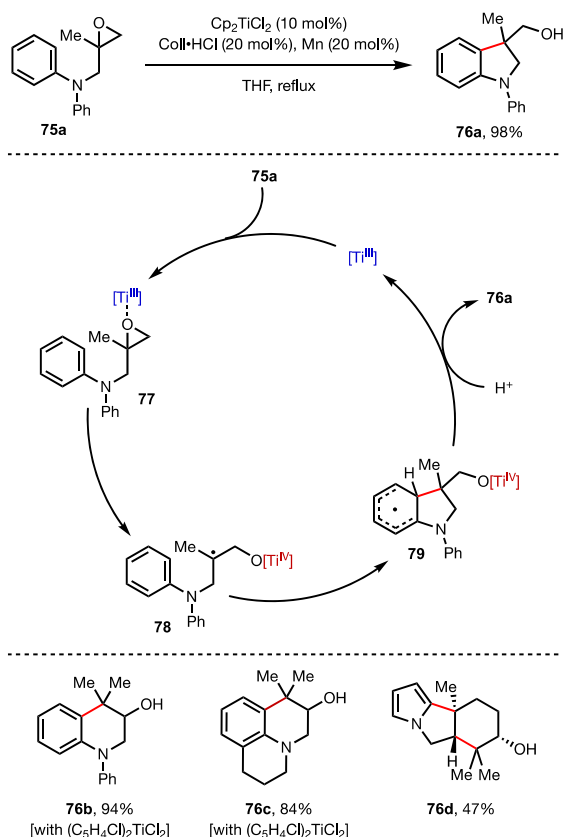
of multiple elementary steps (e.g., oxidative addition, transmetalation, reductive elimination) during which the oxidation state of the catalyst cycles between Pd^{II} and Pd^0 . Radical redox-relay catalysis borrows from the same principle but operates in a single-electron manifold.⁵⁵ In the context of $\text{Ti}^{\text{IV/III}}$ catalysis (Scheme 10), Ti^{III} reductively activates the substrate to generate a radical intermediate (rad 1) while the catalyst is

Scheme 10. General Principle of Radical Redox-Relay Catalysis by $\text{Ti}^{\text{IV/III}}$ 

oxidized to Ti^{IV} . Rad 1 undergoes subsequent transformations to rad 2 before returning an electron to the catalyst to furnish the product and regenerate Ti^{III} . In this mechanism, Ti promotes electron-transfer and bond-forming/cleaving events in an inner-sphere manner, thus allowing catalyst-control over the reaction stereoselectivity. This section will review new transformations made possible by recent developments in Ti-promoted radical redox-relay catalysis as well as the enantioselective processes that they enable.

3.2. Redox-Neutral Epoxide Arylation. Expanding upon their previous work on reductive epoxide chemistry, Gansäuer and Flowers II developed early examples of Ti-catalyzed radical redox-relay in the context of epoxide arylation (Scheme 11).^{56–63} This methodology leverages the known capabilities

Scheme 11. Redox-Neutral Arylation of Epoxides

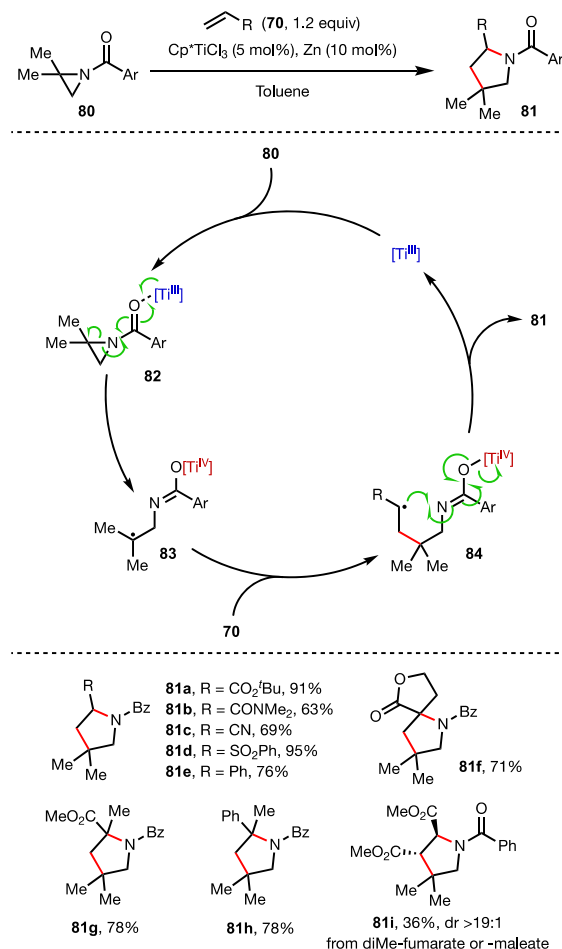


of $\text{Cp}_2\text{Ti}^{\text{III}}\text{X}$ of inducing reductive ring opening of epoxides (75a–78) and C-centered radicals of undergoing cyclization to π -systems (78–79) to achieve intramolecular $\text{C}(\text{sp}^2)\text{--C}(\text{sp}^3)$ coupling. The strong tendency of the aryl-based radical (79) to undergo rearomatization provides the driving force for catalyst turnover. Specifically, the cyclohexadienyl motif in 79 transfers an electron and a proton to the pendent Ti^{IV} -alkoxide, which occurs consecutively or in concert, to furnish the bicyclic product and regenerate the Ti^{III} catalyst. This reaction was applied to the synthesis of indolines (76a) and tetrahydroquinolines (76b,c) as well as cascade cyclizations to form polycyclic products (76d).

3.3. Formal [3 + 2] Cycloaddition of *N*-Acylaziridines and Alkenes. Coinciding with Gansäuer's report on the reductive alkylation of *N*-acylaziridines (Section 2.4), in 2017, we employed this new class of substrates for Ti^{III} catalysis in the redox-neutral formal [3 + 2] cycloaddition with radical

acceptor alkenes (Scheme 12).⁶⁴ In contrast to Gansäuer's net-reducing transformation using $\text{Cp}_2\text{Ti}^{\text{IV}}\text{Cl}_2$ and stoichiometric

Scheme 12. Formal [3 + 2] Cycloaddition of *N*-Acylaziridines with Alkenes



Mn, our protocol uses half-sandwich $\text{Cp}^*\text{Ti}^{\text{IV}}\text{Cl}_3$ with substoichiometric Zn and provides cyclic pyrrolidines as products.

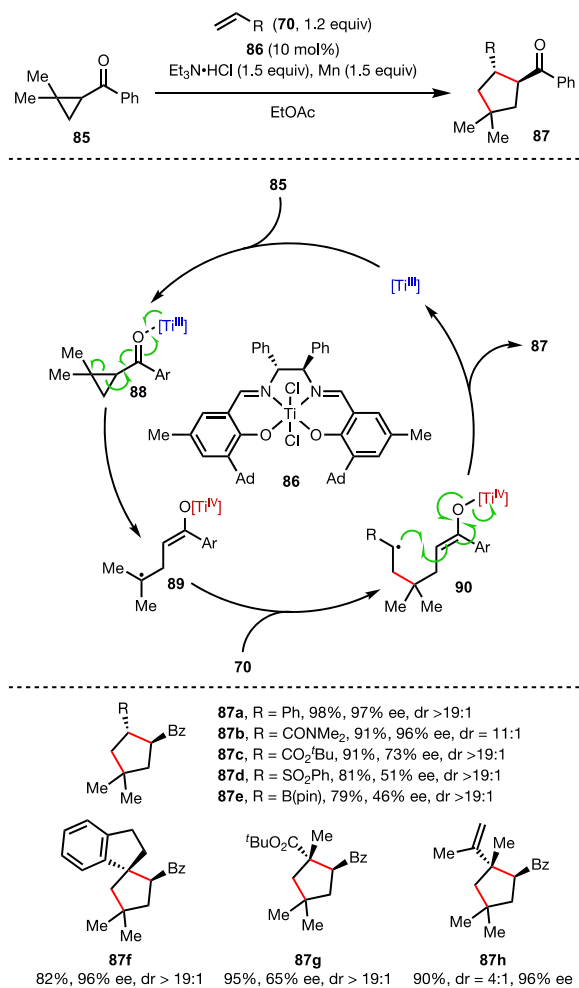
The proposed catalytic cycle begins with coordination of the Ti catalyst to the *N*-acylaziridine (80–82). Subsequent inner-sphere SET causes ring rupture, giving an alkyl radical tethered to a Ti^{IV} -azaenolate group (83). This nucleophilic radical undergoes addition to an electron-deficient alkene (83 to 84), which is followed by cyclization of the ensuing electrophilic C-centered radical onto the nucleophilic Ti^{IV} -azaenolate to construct the desired C–N bond (84 to 81) and regenerate Ti^{III} . This overall reaction displays perfect atom economy through the redox cycling of an electron.

The distinct chemoselectivity shown in our and Gansäuer's reports is intriguing, given that the reactions employ very similar conditions. We hypothesize that the use of less bulky $\text{Cp}^*\text{Ti}^{\text{IV}}\text{Cl}_3$ instead of $\text{Cp}^*_2\text{Ti}^{\text{IV}}\text{Cl}_2$ alleviates any steric repulsion between the catalyst and the substrate during the C–N cyclization event (84–81), thus allowing it to occur more readily. A variety of aziridines and radical acceptors such as styrenes and acrylates are successfully engaged in the [3 + 2] cycloaddition reaction (81a–h). The stepwise radical addition mechanism is validated using dimethyl maleate and dimethyl fumarate, both giving predominantly *trans*-81i. Together with

Gansäuer's complementary method, this reaction represents an important expansion of Ti^{III} catalysis and demonstrates the ability of catalyst control of reaction chemoselectivity.

3.4. Enantioselective Formal [3 + 2] Cyclization of Cyclopropyl Ketones and Alkenes. As a logical extension of the *N*-acylaziridine reaction (Section 3.3), we reported in 2018 the formal [3 + 2] cycloaddition of cyclopropyl ketones (85) with alkenes (Scheme 13).⁶⁵ This reaction employs

Scheme 13. Enantioselective Dormal [3 + 2] Cyclization of Cyclopropyl Aryl Ketones and Alkenes



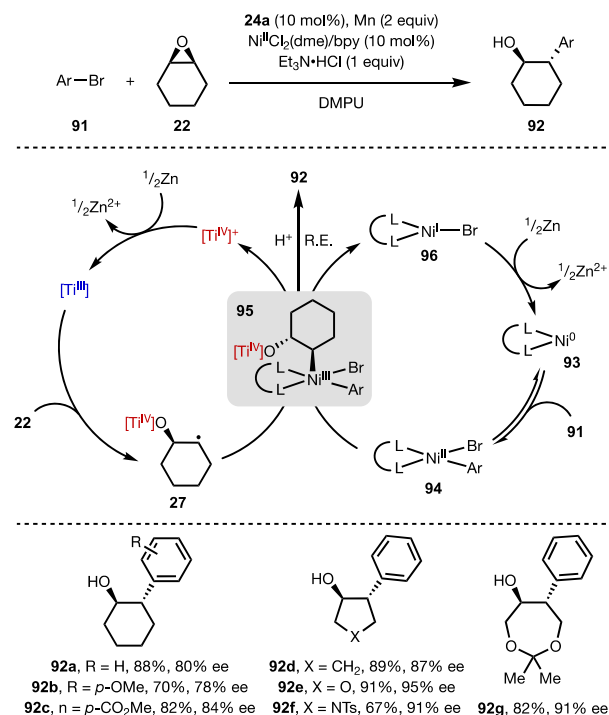
readily available $\text{Ti}(\text{salen})$ catalysts (e.g., 86) and constructs polysubstituted cyclopentane products. The proposed mechanism starts from a low-valent Ti^{III} catalyst coordinating with the cyclopropyl ketone (85 to 88), which triggers SET to generate the Ti^{IV} enolate appended radical 89. Upon addition to alkene 70, the resultant intermediate 90 undergoes cyclization to liberate desired product 87 and regenerate Ti^{III} .

$\text{Ti}(\text{salen})$ complexes are readily made chiral, making it possible to render the cycloaddition reaction enantioselective. Using catalyst 86, various polysubstituted cyclopentanes, including those with quaternary stereocenters (87f–h), are constructed with excellent enantioselectivity and diastereoselectivity. At the current stage, electron-deficient alkenes such as acrylates and vinylboronates provide products in lower enantioselectivity (87c–e, 46–73% ee). Nonetheless, these electrophiles give rise to interesting structures that are challenging to access using known methods.

4. TI-MEDIATED DUAL CATALYSIS

4.1. $\text{Ti}^{\text{III}}/\text{Ni}^0$ -Catalyzed Reductive Arylation of Epoxides. In 2014, Weix reported the cross-electrophile coupling of epoxides (22) with aryl bromides (91) to access β -aryl alcohols (92; Scheme 14) using a catalytic combination of Ni

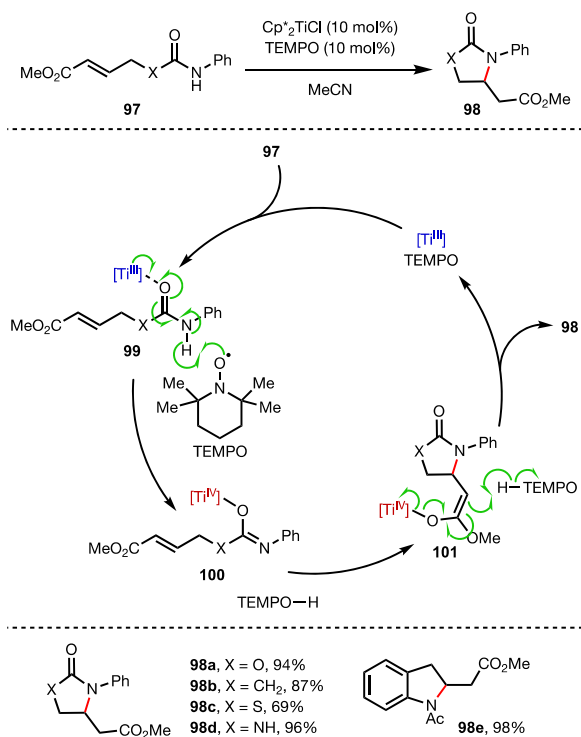
Scheme 14. Enantioselective Ti/Ni Dual Catalyzed Arylation of *meso*-Epoxides



and Ti complexes (24a).^{66,68} This work merges two well-established radical reactions, Ni-mediated $\text{C}(\text{sp}^2)-\text{C}(\text{sp}^3)$ cross coupling⁶⁷ and Ti^{III} -promoted epoxide reduction. In the proposed dual catalytic cycle, Ni^0 (93) undergoes oxidative addition to aryl halide 91 to form the Ni^{II} -aryl complex 94. Meanwhile, Ti^{III} activates epoxide 22 to generate alkyl radical 27. Intermediate 27 reacts with 94 to form Ni^{II} complex 95, which undergoes reductive elimination to liberate desired arylation product 92. Both catalysts (24a and 96) are subsequently turned over by Mn. Finally, using Kagan's complex (24a) rendered the arylation highly enantioselective (92a–g).⁶⁸

4.2. Conjugate Amination via Proton-Coupled Electron Transfer (PCET). In 2015, Knowles demonstrated Ti^{III} -promoted bond-weakening catalysis in the context of intramolecular conjugate aminations (Scheme 15).⁶⁹ Amide substrates such as 97 have an estimated N–H bond dissociation free energy (BDFE) of 99 kcal/mol, making it challenging to cleave homolytically. Association of $\text{Cp}^*\text{Ti}^{\text{III}}\text{Cl}$ to the amide (99), however, drastically lowers the BDFE of the N–H bond to 66 kcal/mol. This bond-weakening effect enables a PCET event to occur in the presence of a weak H atom abstractor such as TEMPO, furnishing TEMPO-H (BDFE = 67 kcal/mol) along with a Ti^{IV} -azaenolate (100). This intermediate then undergoes intramolecular conjugate addition to form the desired C–N bond. The resultant Ti^{IV} -enolate (101) and TEMPO-H undergo proton and electron transfer events to liberate product 98 along with the $\text{Cp}^*\text{Ti}^{\text{III}}\text{Cl}$ and TEMPO catalysts.

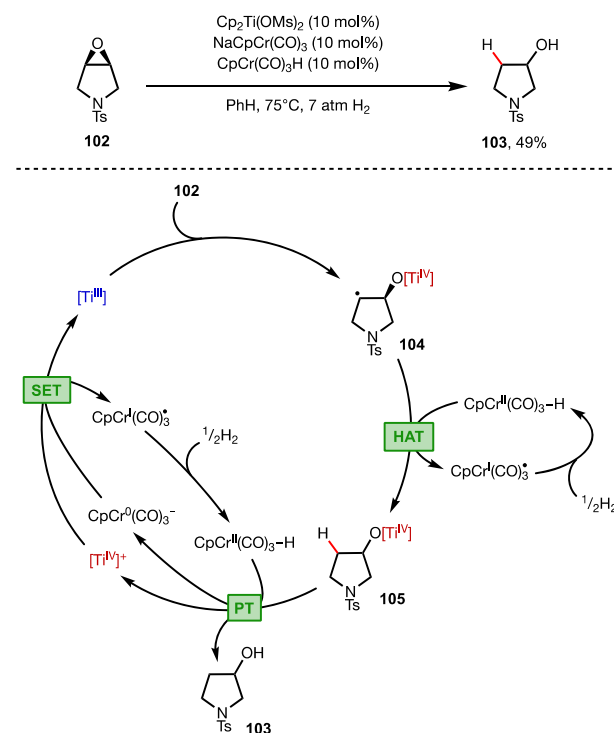
Scheme 15. Dual Catalytic Conjugate Amination via PCET



On thermodynamic grounds, the catalytic duo Ti^{III} and TEMPO are incompatible with one another and could undergo radical annihilation to form TEMPO– Ti^{IV} adducts. Indeed, such an adduct is observed when treating TEMPO with $\text{Cp}_2\text{Ti}^{\text{III}}\text{Cl}$, an inactive catalyst combination in the cyclization reaction. The sterically congested $\text{Cp}^*_2\text{Ti}^{\text{III}}\text{Cl}$, however, can coexist with TEMPO as a radical pair. In fact, electron spin resonance analysis of the mixture of these two catalysts showed signals characteristic of both open-shell species.

4.3. Dual $\text{Ti}^{\text{III}}/\text{Cr}^{\text{II}}$ Catalysis for the Ring-Opening Hydrogenation of Epoxides. The heterogeneous nature of Ti^{III} -catalyzed reductive functionalization of epoxides using stoichiometric metal reductants (Scheme 4) makes them challenging to be adopted beyond laboratory scales. To address this limitation, Norton and Gausäuer developed a dual catalytic system encompassing Ti^{III} -mediated epoxide ring opening and Cr-promoted HAT (Scheme 16).⁷⁴ Specifically, upon reductive activation of epoxide 102, radical 104 accepts an H atom from cocatalyst $\text{CpCr}^{\text{II}}(\text{CO})_3\text{-H}$. The resultant intermediate 105 reacts with another molecule of $\text{CpCr}^{\text{II}}(\text{CO})_3\text{-H}$ via proton transfer (PT) to furnish alcohol 103. The ensuing catalytic species $\text{CpCr}^0(\text{CO})_3^-$ and Ti^{IV} undergo electron transfer with one another, returning Ti^{IV} to the active Ti^{III} oxidation state. The turnover of the active $\text{CpCr}^{\text{II}}(\text{CO})_3\text{-H}$ catalyst is achieved using H_2 as the terminal reductant. This dual catalytic strategy is reminiscent of Gausäuer's previous reports on hydrogenation of epoxides using Ti and Rh/Ir cocatalysis^{70–73} but removes the need for stoichiometric metal reductants.

4.4. Dual $\text{Ti}^{\text{III}}/\text{Co}^{\text{II}}$ Radical Redox-Relay Catalysis for the Isomerization of Epoxides to Allylic Alcohols. Our most recent foray into the realm of Ti redox-relay catalysis showcased the stereoselective isomerization of epoxides (22) to allylic alcohols (107) via dual Ti/Co catalysis (Scheme 17).⁷⁵ The reaction design combines Ti^{III} -promoted epoxide

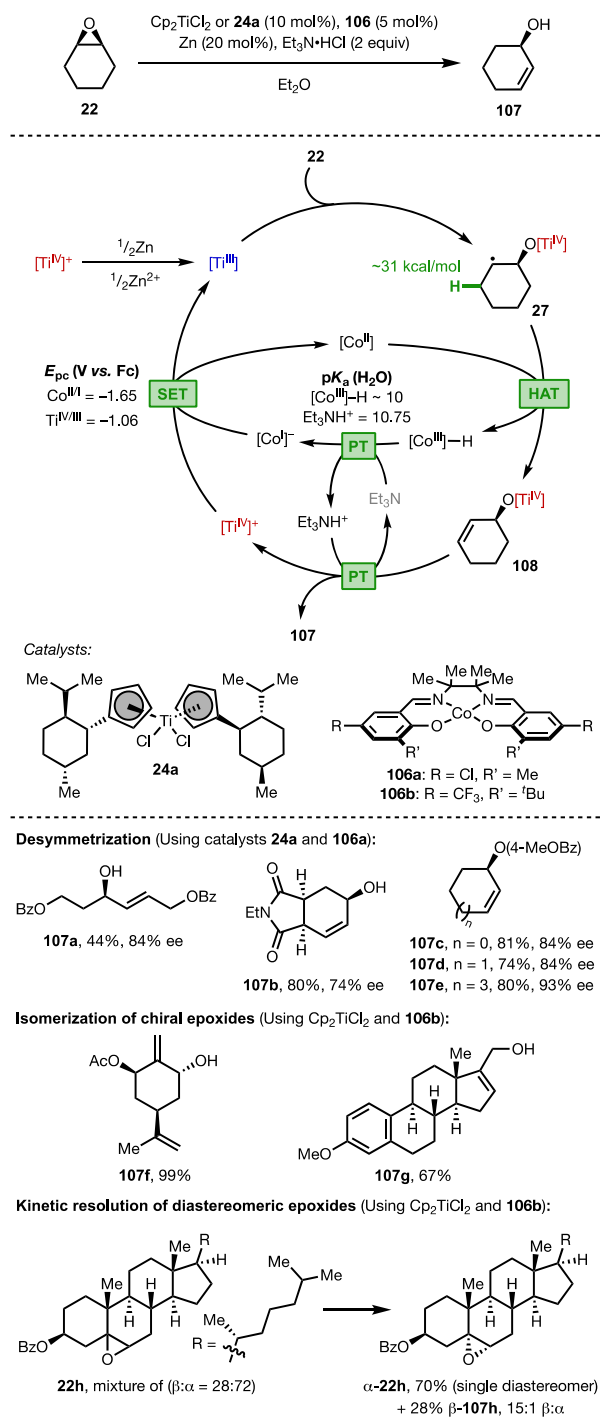
Scheme 16. Ti/Cr -Catalyzed Reductive Epoxide Ring Opening

chemistry and Co^{II} -mediated HAT⁷⁶ in the same catalytic system. Specifically, Ti^{III} first induces reductive ring opening of epoxide 22 to give intermediate 27. The radical character in 27 significantly weakens the adjacent C–H bond (BDE ~ 31 kcal/mol),⁷⁷ which allows Co^{II} catalyst 106 to readily abstract the H atom and form a C=C bond. This step produces a formally $\text{Co}^{\text{III}}\text{-H}$ intermediate and Ti^{IV} -alkoxide 108. The final product formation and catalytic turnover can occur through a stepwise proton transfer/electron transfer (PT/ET) process. First, $\text{Et}_3\text{N}\cdot\text{HCl}$ protonates Ti^{IV} -alkoxide 108 to furnish allylic alcohol 103 and liberate the Ti^{IV} catalyst. Meanwhile, the acidic $\text{Co}^{\text{III}}\text{-H}$ ($\text{pK}_a = 10\text{--}15$)⁷⁶ loses a proton to Et_3N to form the corresponding $[\text{Co}]^{\text{I-}}$ intermediate. This intermediate is sufficiently reducing to give up an electron to Ti^{IV} , thus completing the turnover of both catalysts. This reaction itself is overall redox-neutral, and the proposed catalytic mechanism is self-sustaining without need for a stoichiometric reductant.

We successfully implemented this reaction design using Cp_2TiCl_2 and $\text{Co}(\text{salen})$ complexes. The optimal reaction conditions require only a catalytic amount of Zn, which functions to reduce the Ti^{IV} precursor to Ti^{III} to kick start the radical reaction. The scope of the reaction is broad with various epoxides prepared from cyclic or acyclic alkenes readily converted to the allylic alcohols.

The use of chiral Ti catalyst 24a expands the scope of the reaction to the desymmetrization of *meso*-epoxides. Chiral linear and cyclic allylic alcohols are obtained with enantioselectivities ranging from 64 to 94% (107a–e). Compared with chiral base-mediated isomerization, our reaction operates under neutral conditions and preserves stereogenic centers that are sensitive to epimerization (e.g., 107b). The reaction also gives allylic alcohol products (107f,g) from natural

Scheme 17. Enantioselective Epoxide Isomerization Using Dual Ti^{III}/Co^{II} Redox Catalysis



product derived epoxide sources such as (+)-carvone and estrone.

The epoxide isomerization reaction is also stereoselective. For example, when cholesterol-derived epoxide **22h** was subjected to the dual-catalytic system as a mixture of α/β -isomers, the β -anomer reacts at a much faster rate, generating alcohol **107h** in 15:1 dr, whereas the α -anomer was nearly fully recovered as a single diastereomer. This kinetic resolution activity is also demonstrated with several other substrates. Although the origin of the observed stereoselectivity is not clear at this stage, we reason that the large steric profile of the

titanocene catalyst makes it sensitive to the steric properties of the epoxide substrates. This kinetic resolution activity has not been reported in previous reaction systems involving Ti^{III} and provides an efficient means to access diastereomerically pure epoxides that are challenging to synthesize directly using epoxidation.

This methodology represents another example of a Ti-mediated redox-neutral transformation in the absence of stoichiometric reductants, wherein catalyst turnover is achieved via redox-relay with a Co-cocatalyst.

5. OUTLOOK

During the past few decades, the knowledge and understanding with respect to titanocene-based redox transformations has greatly expanded. In recent years, this foundational work has transformed to a wide range of net-reducing and redox-neutral transformations, many of which are stereoselective. Ongoing methodological advancements, new catalyst development, and stereoselective synthesis will continue to enrich the synthetic value of Ti-redox radical catalysis. New studies concerned with the merger of Ti catalysis with other redox modules in dual catalytic systems as well as the use of photoredox catalysis⁷⁸ and electrochemistry⁶¹ as a means to promote redox cycling of Ti will drive this growing field of research.

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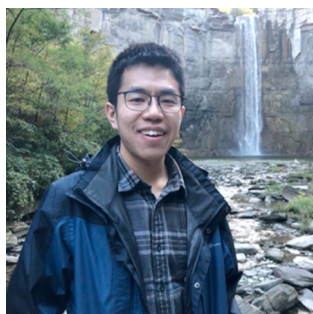
Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

Biographies



Terry McCallum originates from Abitibi-Témiscamingue, Canada. He received his B.Sc. (2013) and Ph.D (2018) at the University of Ottawa, where he studied under the tutelage of Professor Louis Barriault in the field of photoredox gold catalysis. Terry is currently a postdoctoral researcher in Professor Song Lin's lab at Cornell University exploring new transformations in radical redox-relay catalysis.



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Song Lin grew up in Tianjin, China, and received his B.S. degree from Peking University in 2008. After completing his Ph.D. at Harvard University with Prof. Eric Jacobsen, he joined the laboratory of Prof. Christopher Chang at UC Berkeley to carry out his postdoctoral studies. In July 2016, he moved to Cornell University to start his independent research career and is currently a Howard Milstein Faculty Fellow and Assistant Professor of Chemistry.

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