Modular Photocatalytic Synthesis of α -Trialkyl- α -Tertiary Amines

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ABSTRACT: Molecules displaying an α -trialkyl- α -tertiary amine motif provide access to an important and versatile area of biologically-relevant chemical space but are challenging to access through existing synthetic methods. Here we report an operationally straightforward, multicomponent protocol for the synthesis of a range of functionally and structurally diverse α -trialkyl- α -tertiary amines, which makes use of three readily available components: dialkyl ketones, benzylamines and alkenes. The strategy relies on the of use visible-light-mediated photocatalysis with readily available Ir(III) complexes to bring about single-electron reduction of an all-alkyl ketimine species to an α -amino radical intermediate; the α -amino radical undergoes Giese-type addition with a variety of alkenes to forge the α -trialkyl- α -tertiary amine center. The mechanism of this process is believed to proceed through an overall redox neutral pathway that involves photocatalytic redox-relay of the imine, generated from the starting amine-ketone condensation, through to an imine-derived product. This is possible because the presence of a benzylic amine component in the intermediate scaffold drives a 1,5-hydrogen atom transfer step after the Giese addition to form a stable benzylic α amino radical, which is able to close the photocatalytic cycle. These studies detail the evolution of the reaction platform, an extensive investigation of the substrate scope and preliminary investigation of some of the mechanistic features of this distinct photocatalytic process. We believe this transformation will provide convenient access to previously unexplored α -trialkyl- α -tertiary amine scaffolds that should be of considerable interest to practitioners of synthetic and medicinal chemistry in academic and industrial institutions.

INTRODUCTION

Molecules displaying an α -tertiary amine (ATA) motif — a nitrogen with an α -carbon bearing three C–C bonds — show versatile and tunable physicochemical and biological properties, making it an important structural unit that is found in a diversity of pharmaceutical agents and biologically-relevant natural products (Figure 1A).^{1,2,3,4} The fully substituted carbon atom adjacent to the nitrogen atom impacts on amine basicity⁵ and lipophilicity, and provides three exit vectors through which interactions with a biological receptor can be tuned. Furthermore, when coupled with the capacity to add up to two further substituents to the nitrogen atom, the presence of an α -tertiary amine can substantially impact the topology of molecules.

Topological complexity in pharmaceutical candidates has been shown to lead to a decrease in attrition of lead compounds and one way of achieving this is to increase the fraction of $C(sp^3)$ atoms in a molecule.⁶ In the context of the ATA scaffold, the incorporation of three functionalized α -alkyl substituents represents a particularly attractive class of $C(sp^3)$ -rich amine scaffold. A number of compounds bearing α -trialkyl-ATA motifs are showing great promise as treatments across a range of disease areas (Figure 1B). The α -trialkyl-ATA feature is particularly prevalent in compounds acting on the nervous system. For example, β -hydroxy α -trialkyl-ATAs have been fundamental in the development of S1P receptor modulators, such as fingolimod (Gilenya), for the treatment of multiple sclerosis,^{2a-b} with further studies suggesting that the ATA motif is thought to play a crucial role in the mechanism of action;^{2c} fingolimod has indications in a number of other disease areas.^{2d} The α -trialkyl-ATA Elayta is in phase II trials for the treatment of Alzheimer's disease.^{2e-f} A number of kinase inhibitors, such CCT128930^{4a} and PF-06843195,^{4b}

contain the α -trialkyl-ATA motif and have been utilized as candidates for the treatment of cancer. Despite the apparent importance of the α -trialkyl-ATA motif, they remain under represented structural features in pharmaceutical candidates, most likely because effective methods for their assembly remain limited. Therefore, the development of strategies for the streamlined synthesis of functionalized C(sp³)-rich complex α -trialkyl-ATAs has been recognized as an important challenge in organic synthesis.⁷

The assembly of ATAs, in their broadest sense, is challenging because reactions to connect classical synthons arising from disconnecting around the α -center are usually hampered by steric effects in one of the components. Nevertheless, a number of innovative strategies have been developed to circumvent these challenges and deliver the ATA structure¹. Methodologies which forge the α -tertiary center through formation of a C-N bond can be achieved through a number of different reaction types. For example, nucleophilic amination via Ritter-type reactions and metal-catalyzed hydroaminations constitute important approaches for the synthesis of ATAs.^{1,8,9} Alternative C-N bond-forming methods that employ nitrogen as the electrophile have also shown great utility upon reaction with suitable carbon nucleophiles; nitrenes and metallonitrenoids can form C–N bonds on reaction with tertiary $C(sp^3)$ –H bonds in saturated hydrocarbons.^{10,11} Molecular rearrangements,^{1a,12} in particular the Curtius reaction, have been utilized to great effect in converting readily available functional groups into α-trialkyl-ATAs within complex frameworks.



Figure 1. Pharmaceuticals displaying α -trialkyl-ATA motifs.

Disconnection at the C–C bond offers, arguably, the most effective approach to form the α -tertiary center.^{1a,13,14} A cornerstone of such strategies is 1,2-addition of carbon-centered nucleophiles to ketimines. The most commonly adopted variation of this approach involves organometallic addition to N-activated ketimine derivatives. Ellman pioneered the use of a tert-butanesulfinamide auxiliary to activate the ketimine species and control the stereochemistry of the organometallic addition.¹⁵ Whilst undeniably a powerful method, there are surprisingly few examples of the addition of an organometallic to dialkyl ketimines as a means to make α -trialkyl-ATA derivatives, likely due to sterically compromised reactivity and competitive α -deprotonation brought about by the basic nature of the nucleophile.¹⁶ Recently, Dixon reported an indirect method for organometallic additions to dialkyl ketimine derivatives.^{15h} Although tailored intermediates were required, the multi-step, one-pot transformation demonstrates a good substrate scope in α -trialkyl-ATAs.

An important contemporary strategy for the synthesis of ATAs has recently emerged that involves the reactions of α -amino radicals generated via visible-light-mediated photoredox catalysis (Figure 2A).¹⁷ The α -amino radical is nucleophilic and represents the umpolung of the imine and, hence, affords an alternative C–C bond disconnection for the α -trialkyl-ATA motif that obviates the problems encountered using basic organometallics. There are two main approaches for generation of such radicals, in this context: direct α -hydrogen atom transfer (HAT) of primary amines and single-electron reduction of ketimines. Rovis, Schoenebeck and co-workers demonstrated a HAT-mediated α -alkylation of N-primary α -secondary

amines using electron deficient alkenes. Enabled by a reversible reaction between the amine and CO₂, in situ carbamate formation lowers the bond dissociation energy of the α -C–H bond and engages a radical cation, which together facilitate an efficient HAT process.¹⁸ In 2020, Cresswell and co-workers reported the direct coupling of a wide range of N-primary α -secondary amines with alkenes, this time employing a photocatalytically-generated azide radical as the electrophilic HAT reagent to enable α -amino radical formation.¹⁹

In the regime involving photocatalyst-mediated single-electron reduction of ketimines to α -amino radicals, the range of existing methods is more restricted. While aryl-substituted ketimines (on C and N) have been utilized in visible-light-mediated reductive coupling reactions,²⁰ all-alkyl ketimines have proven to be incompatible with this type of transformation to form α -trialkyl-ATAs owing to their very low reduction potentials,²¹ which precludes α -amino radical formation. However, the modularity provided by an activation mode based on single-electron reduction of an in situ-generated ketiminium makes the successful realization of this process an important challenge for the synthesis of α -trialkyl-ATAs.

Here we report the development of an operationally straightforward and modular synthesis of a range of functionally and structurally diverse α -trialkyl-ATAs (Figure 2B). Visible-light-mediated photocatalytic single-electron reduction of a dialkyl-imine, generated in situ from a ketone and primary amine, forms an α -amino radical, which can engage a range of alkenes through Giese addition. The carefully designed process permits a redox-relay pathway through imine intermediates that leads to a redox neutral reaction without the need for any external reagents. The reaction's broad substrate scope provides convenient access to previously unexplored α trialkyl-ATA scaffolds that should be of considerable interest to practitioners of synthetic and medicinal chemistry in academic and industrial institutions.

RESULTS & DISCUSSION

In 2018, our group reported a multicomponent alkene hydroaminoalkylation of olefins that leveraged photocatalytic single-electron reduction of alkyl iminium ions, derived from aliphatic aldehydes and benzylic secondary amines, to form α -amino radicals (Figure 3A).²² Key to the success of this strategy was the alignment of a number of design features that enabled the orchestration of a complex mechanism: Hantzsch ester (HEH) quenches the excited state of the Ir(III)-photocatalyst to form a highly reducing [Ir(II)]⁻ species, which promoted single-electron reduction of an alkyl iminium ion to form an α -amino radical; the α -amino radical undergoes Giese addition to an electron deficient alkene. The resulting radical underwent fast, thermodynamically driven 1,5-HAT to form a benzylic α-amino radical, which was ultimately reduced to form the product. While this alkene hydroaminoalkylation exhibited a broad substrate scope, it carried a number of limitations that could preclude its wider application: firstly, only highly activated or electron deficient alkenes were competent acceptors for the α -amino radical addition; secondly, the Hantzsch ester, while a critical enabling component, complicates the reaction from a mechanistic standpoint as well as being a poorly atom economic reagent considering it formally transfers a only single hydrogen atom; finally, condensation of ketones and secondary amines was prohibitively slow under the reaction conditions, meaning that α -trialkyl-ATAs were not directly accessible using this process.



Figure 2. (A) Photoredox catalysis for the synthesis of α -trialkyl-ATAs. (B) Redox neutral photocatalytic strategy for the synthesis of α -trialkyl-ATAs.

Subsequent work from our group addressed some of these limitations,^{23,24} but failed to provide a platform for a general intermolecular alkene hydroaminoalkylation to α-trialkyl-ATAs (Figure 3B-C). For example, an intramolecular variant of the original process accommodated cyclic ketones in combination with a range of homoallylic secondary amines to generate N-heterospirocycles (Figure 3B).²³However, we believe the successful deployment of ketones, in this case, arises from the irreversible process-terminating HAT step to the exocyclic primary radical, which drives the equilibria of the discrete steps towards product formation. Importantly, this work revealed that the use of more reducing photocatalysts could change the nature of the quenching cycle, directly engaging the iminium species through single-electron reduction rather than being reduced by HEH (as in Figure 3A). As part of our total syntheses of (-)-FR901483 and (+)-TAN1251C,²⁴ we also showed that cyclic ketones could be utilized in a modified intermolecular alkene hydroaminoalkylation reaction (Figure 3C). There, the use of a primary amine circumvented the condensation problems associated with ketiminium formation, but the radical addition step required the use of a highly activated acceptor. Non-benzylic primary amines could be used because addition to the Karady-Beckwith alkene²⁵ generates a capdodative radical that cannot undergo the 1,5-HAT back on the amine framework, as required in our original work.²²

Taken together, it was clear that the requirements of our previous alkene hydroaminoalkylation protocols (Figure 3) would preclude the sought-after process for a modular synthesis of α -trialkyl-ATAs and so we set out to redesign an activation platform that could draw from readily available ketone, amine and alkene feedstocks. Our previous work had highlighted three factors that would be important in a new design plan: (1) the use of a photocatalyst with a more reducing excited state may provide a pathway by which HEH could be removed from the reaction components; (2) the use of a primary amine would likely address problems associated with ketimine formation; and (3) the primary amine component would

still require a benzylic substituent to drive the 1,5-HAT step designed to translocate the radical from the acceptor framework to the amine scaffold. While this latter feature was crucial in our original work, we speculated that it could function as a lynchpin mechanistic step for unlocking the desired modular α -trialkyl-ATA synthesis.



Figure 3. Previous work on alkene hydroaminoalkylation.

14 examples & two natural products

specifc alkene

only

primary

amine

ketones



Figure 4. Strategy and reaction design for multicomponent photocatalytic α -trialkyl-ATA synthesis.^{27, 28}

Guided by these factors, we proposed a mechanistic blueprint that begins with condensation of a representative benzylamine (1a) and ketone (2a), which was expected to deliver imine 6a. The reduction potential of all-alkyl ketimines, however, is predicted to be in the region of -3.0 V (vs. SCE in MeCN²¹; for comparison, the reduction potential of elemental Li is -3.05 V vs SHE²⁶), placing it out of reach of most convenient reducing photocatalysts. Instead, we anticipated that protonation of **6a** to form ketiminium **int-Ia** would significantly lower the reduction potential and bring it into the range of the more Ir(III)-photocatalysts reducing such as Ir(dMeppy)₃ $(E_{1/2}[Ir(IV)/Ir(III)^*] = -1.86 V vs SCE in CH_2Cl_2^{23})$, which we had shown was capable of effecting the single-electron reduction process in the intramolecular alkene hydroaminoalkylation (Figure 3B). Single-electron reduction of int-Ia affords α-amino radical int-IIa, which would engage the acrylate 3a via Giese addition²⁹ to form radical int-IIIa. As demonstrated in our original work (Figure 3A), int-IIIa would be expected to undergo rapid 1,5-HAT, translocating the radical from the acrylate framework to form benzylic α -amino radical int-IVa. At this point, we envisioned that the oxidized form of the photocatalyst, [Ir(dMeppy)₃]⁺ would take part in single-electron transfer from the benzylic α -amino radical, returning the photocatalyst to its ground state form and concurrently oxidizing int-IVa to the new ketiminium species int-Va. This step is distinct from our previous work, wherein a benzylic α -amino radical is reduced to the amine product, and formulates an important feature of this new design: starting material-derived ketimine 6a is processed through to product aldimine 4a, which represents a photocatalytic imine redoxrelay process that renders the transformation redox neutral and obviates the need for any terminal reducing agents.

Guided by this design plan, our studies began with a series of reactions reaction involving irradiation (with a 40 W blue Kessil lamp) of a dichloromethane solution of imine **6a** (formed in situ by mixing benzylamine **1a**, ketone **2a** and 4 Å molecular sieves in advance of irradiation) and tert-butyl acrylate 3a in the presence of 1mol% of Ir(dMeppy)₃ and a small range of acid additives (Table 1A, entries 1-3), according to our mechanistic hypothesis. The benzaldiminederived α-trialkyl-ATA 4a was obtained in all cases alongside amine 1a and ketone 2a, however, the highest assay yield was observed in a reaction with no acid additive (Table 1A, entry 4). While this result was surprising, given our mechanistic hypothesis requiring imine protonation, we proceeded to further optimize the conditions. The facile hydrolysis of the benzaldimine motif in product 4a, coupled with isolation issues, lead us consider the use of alternative benzylamines that would deliver a more stable product. We reasoned that use of benzhydrylamine 1b as the amine component would afford more stable benzophenone imine products (4b). Accordingly, we found that more consistent assay yields were obtained when using amine 1b and the products were readily isolable after chromatographic purification (Table 1A, entry 5). Assessment of other photocatalysts confirmed our hypothesis that more reducing systems delivered a more efficient process, although it should be noted that the use of slightly less reducing (but commercially available) iridium complex $Ir(ppy)_3$ is also effective, delivering **4b** in a slightly lower but comparable yield (Table 1, entry 6). A control reaction in the absence of photocatalyst gave no product (Table 1A, entry 7; see SI for full details regarding control studies). Finally, we were pleased to find that pre-condensation to form the imine was not essential and a multicomponent reaction combining amine 1b, ketone 2a, alkene 3a, photocatalyst and molecular sieves at the start of the process proceeded at no detriment to the yield of 4b, substantially increasing the efficiency of the process (Table 1B).



Table 1. (A) Selected optimization for stepwise, one-pot alkene hydroaminoalkyltion to α -trialkyl-ATAs. Yields were determined by ¹H NMR using 1,1,2,2-tetrachloroethane as an internal standard. **(B)** Optimized reaction conditions for direct multicomponent transformation. Yield is quoted for isolated product.

With optimal conditions in hand, the scope of the alkene hydroaminoalkylation protocol to form α -trialkyl-ATAs was investigated (Figure 5). The scope in the ketone component was first investigated and we were pleased to observe that a functionally and structurally rich suite of cyclic ketones were successful substrates in the reaction (Figure 5A). Five to seven membered ring ketones were competent substrates in the reaction, although compared to cyclohexanone the reaction of cyclopentanone and cycloheptanone gave lower yields of product (4c-e). A range of functionalized 6-membered ring ketones, incorporating O, S and N-heteroatoms gave access to versatile α -trialkyl-ATA scaffolds in good yields (4b, 4f-j). Compared to the lower yielding cyclopentanone example, the corresponding 3-pyrrolidinone gave satisfactory yields of the 5-membered ring heterocyclic amine product (4k). Conversely, the product (41) of the reaction using the corresponding N-Cbz azetidinone was obtained in a low yield, which we conjecture results from more challenging condensation and tautomerization processes in the strained heterocycle. Acyclic ketones were also good substrates, although it was found that pre-condensation with the less bulky benzylamine **1a** gave superior results and allowed for a broader scope in this subclass of substrates (Figure 5B). Furthermore, we also found that cleavage of the aldimine motif to the primary amine led to the more straightforward isolation of these products (5m-x) in higher yields. Accordingly, following this modified protocol revealed that a selection of linear and α -branched ketones bearing a variety of functionality could be converted to the α -trialkyl-ATA products; a ketone containing a distal ester group cyclized on isolation to the corresponding lactam (5v). Whilst reactions with acetone and 3-pentanone gave good assay yields of product (5m and 5w), isolation proved challenging. It is thought that this is due to partial spontaneous lactamization of the free amine onto the tert-butyl ester of the acrylate framework, which had not been observed in other substrates. Notably, no intramolecular addition was observed onto the internal alkene in the case when 6-methylhept-5-en-2-one was employed to form **5u**, even in the absence of *tert*-butyl acrylate. The sterically encumbered tropinone scaffold also worked well under these conditions and provided **5x** as a single diastereomer. Tri-substituted ketones were found to be poor substrates in the transformation. We attribute this to a combination of three factors; condensation hampered by steric hindrance, a challenging giese addition forging vicinal quaternary centres and 1,3-allylic strain limiting enamine formation (*vide infra*).

Next the scope of the α-trialkyl-ATA synthesis protocol was explored with respect to the alkene component (Figure 6); a wide range of alkenes delivered α -trialkyl-ATAs with good yields. The classical Giese addition electron-deficient alkene acceptors, phenyl vinyl sulfone, methyl vinyl ketone and even di-substituted cyclopentenone and benzyl methacrylate could be employed to give the desired products (Figure 6A, 7a,b,e,f) in excellent yields. Vinyl pinacol borane gave access to the borylated product in good yield (7d), providing a useful handle for further diversification.³⁰ Electron-deficient alkynes were also found to be competent coupling partners, giving access to the trans- alkene product exclusively (7c). The discovery that the use of benzhydrylamine as the amine component led to superior yields in the hydroaminoalkylation reaction further strengthened our plan to exhibit a broad scope with respect to the alkene; 1,5-HAT of the radical formed following addition of the α amino radical to the alkene would, if benzhydrylamine was used, lead to the formation of the highly stabilized open shell species that we reasoned would provide an increased thermodynamic driving force for the forward reaction in preference to β-scission or further additions to an alkene. We were pleased to observed that when styrene was tested under this new reaction regime, a good yield of the phenethyl-substituted α -trialkyl-ATA was obtained (Figure 6B, **7g**). In contrast, the same reaction using benzylamine delivered approximately 15% yield of product accompanied by an intractable mixture of oligomerization products. By extending irradiation time and increasing the number of equivalents of acceptor from 1.5 to 3 equivalents, the use of benzhydrylamine 1b led to a range of styrenes being successfully engaged as coupling partners (7h-m). A clear electronic trend was observed in the yields of these reactions, with electron rich styrenes giving lower yields and electron deficient styrenes leading to higher yields. Furthermore, 2-, 3- and 4-vinyl pyridines were employed in modest to good yields (7n-r), without the need for external acceptor activation.31

While the benzyl/benzhydryl amine component of the reaction originated as a design feature to drive a more challenging Giese-addition with a broad range of alkenes, we wondered if we could exploit variation of this reaction component to incorporate an additional dimension of modularity into the reaction products. As such, we evaluated a selection of benzylamines in the reaction with 4-oxotetrahydropyran (**2a**) and *tert*-butylacrylate (**3a**) (Figure 6C). To enable facile isolation of the reaction products with the benzylamine moiety intact, the aldimine products were reduced to the corresponding secondary amine by treatment with sodium borohydride in methanol. The process was tolerant towards a range of substituents as well as amenable to the use of heteroaromatic benzylamines and gave their corresponding secondary amines in synthetically useful yields (**8af**).



Figure 5. Scope of the photocatalytic α -tertiary amine synthesis in the ketone component. (A) Cyclic ketones. (B) Acyclic ketones. ^aReaction using 3 Å MS. ^b Assay yield of aldimine product by ¹H NMR, taken with reference to 1,1,2,2-tetrachloroethane as an internal standard. ^c Reaction with 20 mol% TFA added.

To demonstrate the utility of the photocatalytic α-trialkyl-ATA synthesis, we targeted the preparation of a selection of molecules relevant to the treatment of disease (Figure 7). Fingolimod (Gilenya, 9) is an important multiple sclerosis treatment and the figurehead of a broad class of S1P receptor modulators bearing the α -trialkyl-ATA motif,³² and has also been identified as a potential new lead for heart failure therapeutics.^{2d} The new intermolecular alkene hydroaminoalkylation procedure enables disconnection of fingolimod back to the commercial starting materials benzhydrylamine (1b), ketone 2x and 4-octylstyrene (3r). Treatment of these reagents with the standard photocatalytic reaction conditions for 48 h, followed by an acidic aqueous workup delivered fingolimod in 17% yield (Figure 7A). Although the yield of this transformation is modest, it is notable for its practical simplicity and amenability towards the synthesis of analogues of fingolimod which, through our new procedure, are directly accessible in a single synthetic step.

It was also recognized that the use of orthogonally functionalized (hetero)aromatic alkene acceptors could deliver N-primary α - trialkyl-ATAs primed for cyclization via C-N bond formation, enabling rapid access to a class of N-aryl α-trialkyl-spiroheterocyclic-ATAs, which are under-represented as scaffolds in pharmaceutical candidates, most likely due to a lack of tractable methods for their synthesis. In this regard, a range of heterocyclic ketones were successfully employed in the alkene hydroaminoalkylation reaction with benzhydrylamine and either 2-bromostyrene (3s) or 2-fluoro-3-vinylpyridine (**3t**) to give α -trialkyl-ATAs **10a-e** (Figure 7B). Cyclization of α-trialkyl-ATAs **10a-b** (derived from 2-bromostyrene) was accomplished using a palladium-mediated intramolecular Buchwald-Hartwig C-N bond formation, affording 1,2,3,4-tetrahydroquinolines (THQ's) **11a-b** displaying the α -trialkyl-ATA motif embedded within its framework. The generic THQ-pharmacophore is well established in a variety of contexts in medicinal chemistry, however, those displaying an α -trialkyl-ATA motif are scarce and so expedient access to new derivatives is desirable.³³



Figure 6. (A) Scope of reaction in electron deficient acceptors. Reactions for 18 h unless stated. **(B)** Scope of reaction with styrenes. (3 equivalents of alkene used, reactions for 48 h) **(C)** Scope of reaction in benzylamine component. ⁴For optimal conversion the ketone and amine were stirred at 80 °C for 3 h before being subjected to the photocatalysis conditions. ^bReaction for 24 h.

Similarly, cyclization of α -trialkyl-ATAs **10c-e** by exploiting C-N bond-forming S_NAr ring closure onto the pendant 2-fluoropyridine motif is able to generate a new heterospirocyclic framework; stirring amines 10c-e at 120 °C in DMF in the presence of Hünig's base afforded 1,2,3,4-tetrahydronaphthyridines (THN's) 11c-e in satisfactory yields. Although less thoroughly explored, the THN motif has also found application in medicinal chemistry, in particular as an arginine mimetic.³⁴ THN's **11c-e** are low molecular weight, polarstructures, with three-dimensionality imparted by the α -tertiary amine motif, and orthogonal amine functionalities available for fragment growing, placing them in highly attractive but unexplored leadlike chemical space.³⁵ Notably, the THN motif contains similar polar functionality to classical kinase hinge-binding small molecules, such as 7-deazapurines, while offering tunable substituents (via the α -trialkyl-ATA motif) which project towards the hydrophobic pocket of interest in these proteins.³⁶ In addition to the medicinal value of our products, Schiff bases have been utilized as ligands for many transition metals, with the resultant complexes having broad scoping applications due to their promising catalytic, biological and chemotherapeutic activities.³⁷ We suggest that the α -tertiary imine products generated by our transformation could serve as interesting scaffolds for future ligand design, with the redox neutral process enabling rapid access to a range of structurally diverse and sterically hindered imines challenging to access via classical methods.

To probe the likely pathway of this photocatalytic alkene hydroaminoalkylation protocol, a series of preliminary mechanistic experiments were carried out. The standard reaction was performed with ketone **2a**, alkene **3a** and α -deuterobenzhydrylamine (d_1 -**1b**) as the amine component. The corresponding imine product d_1 -4a was obtained with essentially quantitative deuterium incorporation at the position next to the ester functionality, strongly supporting the operation of a 1,5-HAT step (Figure 8A). To probe to the intermediacy of an α -amino radical, imine **13** was prepared via the condensation of 3-butenylamine 12 and ketone 2a and submitted to the standard reaction conditions (Figure 8B); heterospirocycle 14 was formed in moderate yield, which presumably arises from intramolecular 5-*exo*-trig ring closure of an α -amino radical intermediate onto the pendant alkene, followed by a HAT process to the resulting primary exocyclic radical.²³ It was presumed that the hydrogen atom required for this final HAT step originates from either imine 13 or excess ketone 2a. Therefore, we tested a reaction in the presence of 1,4cyclohexadiene (1,4-CHD) as an exogenous HAT source, which showed a significant increase in the assay yield of 14.



Figure 7. Applications of photocatalytic α -trialkyl-ATA synthesis. **(A)** One-step synthesis of fingolimod. **(B)** Synthesis of cyclic N-(hetero)aryl- α -trialkyl-ATA scaffolds, which are under-represented in medicinal chemistry.

Next, the role of the photocatalyst was investigated. Stern-Volmer quenching studies performed,³⁸ independently, on solutions of benzhydryl amine 1b, ketone 2a, alkene 3a, 'starting' imine 6b and 'product' imine **4b** in the presence of Ir(dMeppy)₃ revealed that imine **6b**, whose structure was confirmed by X-ray diffraction of a single crystal (Figure 8C), is an effective quencher of the excited state of Ir(dMeppy)₃ (Figure 8D).³⁹ While product imine **4b** is a more effective quencher, this process is presumably reversible and is evidently unproductive on account of the fact that no derivatives of 4b were observed over the course of our studies. When considering that the reduction potentials of all-alkyl imines, such as **6b**, have been reported to be lower than -3.0 V vs. SCE in MeCN²¹ its quenching of the excited state photocatalyst was surprising considering that the redox potential $(E_{1/2} [Ir(IV)/Ir(III^*)])$ of $[Ir(dMeppy)_3]^*$ is -1.86 V vs. SCE in CH₂Cl₂.²³ Our mechanistic hypothesis exploited a protonation event that would convert imine **6a** to the iminium int-Ia (Figure 4), which would have a substantially more accessible reduction potential (reduction potential for related iminium int-Ib computed to be -1.2 V).^{20a,28} The results of the Stern-Volmer quenching study, however, raised the question of the source of this proton, given our optimization experiments had shown that the reaction performed more effectively in the absence of either strong or weak Brønsted acid additives (Table 1, entries 1-4). It was deemed possible that the 4 Å molecular sieves that were present in the reaction could act either as a Lewis acid or a source of protons resulting from their interaction with water. However, when the imine was isolated (by Dean-Stark condensation and without contact with 4 Å molecular sieves, followed by crystallization) and subjected to the reaction in the absence of 4 Å molecular sieves, the reaction still produced 80% of **4b** (Figure 8E, entry 2).

This led us to consider where else in the reaction mechanism a proton could be generated, even in catalytic or trace quantities. On closer examination of the ¹H NMR spectrum (in CD₂Cl₂) of starting imine 6b, we noticed that there was approximately 4% of the enamine tautomer present in the solution. Single-electron oxidation of enamines has frequently been reported in a variety of photocatalytic transformations;⁴⁰ moreover, enamines have been reported to have oxidation potentials as low as +0.32 V (vs SCE in MeCN),⁴¹ which should be accessible to $[Ir(dMeppy)_3]^*$ (calculated $E_{1/2}$ $[Ir(III^*)/Ir(II)] = +0.33$ V vs. SCE in MeCN⁴¹). Therefore, we deemed it possible that the observed low concentration of enamine 15 may be responsible for reductively quenching the excited state of the photocatalyst (Figure 9). As a result, enamine 15 would be converted into its corresponding radical cation (int-VIb), which will dramatically decrease the pK_a of the N-H bond.⁴³ If imine 6b is protonated by the enamine radical cation int-VIb, then the single-electron reduction would be feasible with either $[Ir(dMeppy)_3]^-$ (resulting from the reductive quenching step; calculated $E_{1/2}$ [Ir(III)/Ir(II)] = -1.96 V vs. SCE in MeCN⁴²) or [Ir(dMeppy)₃]*.^{28,44} Therefore, our current mechanistic hypothesis involves initiation by single-electron oxidation of the enamine 15 (by the excited state of the photocatalyst $[Ir(dMeppy)_3]^*$), to its radical cation int-VIb, the now-acidic N-H bond of which permits protonation of imine 6b to form ketiminium int-Ib. Int-Ib can now be reduced by $[Ir(dMeppy)_3]^-$ (formed from enamine oxidation) to the α -amino radical int-IIb and also reforms the ground state Ir(III) photocatalyst. Giese addition between the alkene 3a and α -amino radical int-IIb and subsequent 1,5-HAT generates the diphenyl-substituted α -amino-radical int-IVb.



Figure 8. Mechanistic investigations. ^{*a*} Reaction with isolated imine **6b** (see **C**)

This radical can then be oxidized by $[Ir(dMeppy)_3]^*$, not just closing the photocatalytic cycle by regenerating the reducing species $[Ir(dMeppy)_3]^-$ but also forming product-like ketiminium ion **int-Vb**, which undergoes proton transfer with the starting imine **6b** to render the process catalytic in proton and complete the redox-relay transformation. Unfortunately, test reactions to probe this pathway were inconclusive. For example, while a reaction using 2-adamantanone–chosen as it cannot form its corresponding enamine– worked, it only generated a small amount of α -trialkyl-ATA product (Figure 8E, entry 3). At this point, we cannot rule out other pathways and a discussion of alternative mechanistic possibilities, such as energy transfer, are provided in the supporting information. Further studies into this complex mechanism are ongoing and will reported in due course.

CONCLUSION

In summary we have designed a flexible, multicomponent strategy for the synthesis of α -trialkyl- α -tertiary amines from readily available precursors. This protocol allows for the rapid preparation of a wide variety of functionally and structurally diverse α -trialkyl- α -tertiary amines, thus offering immediate access to a motif that is otherwise challenging to assemble in such a modular fashion.⁷ In addition to an extensive substrate scope in each component, the utility of the process has been further demonstrated through the straightforward synthesis of a range of N-aryl spiroheterocyclic α-trialkyl-α-tertiary amine scaffolds that are underexplored and offers access to new pharmaceutically-relevant chemical space. The mechanism of the process involves an imine redox-relay pathway that ensures a redox neutral transformation. Key to the success of the process, we believe, is an initiation step involving single-electron oxidation of an enamine intermediate to a (NH)-enamine radical cation, through which imine protonation and hence activation takes place and enables reduction of the resulting ketiminium ion to the α -amino radical. Overall, we believe that the flexibility and simplicity of the newly developed protocol will make this procedure of interest to chemists in both industrial and academic environments, and in particular to practitioners of medical chemistry where this transformation provides access to a class of underexplored amine scaffolds.45

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at: All experimental procedures, extended mechanistic discussion and compound characterization (including 1H & 13C NMR spectra, IR, HRMS and X-ray data) are available in the document (PDF)

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Author Contributions

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Notes

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Figure 9. Revised mechanistic hypothesis

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- (45) We became aware that Professor Cresswell at the University of Bath was engaged in related studies towards photocatalytic amine synthesis. We are grateful to the Cresswell group for kindly agreeing to submit their results concurrently with our own studies, and thank them for their generosity and collegiality.

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photocatalytic alkene hydroaminoalkylation to $\alpha\text{-trialkyl-}\alpha\text{-tertiary}$ amines					
MI NH2			Ir(III) pho	tocataly	st Ar
1° amines	ketones	alkenes			α -trialkyl- α -tertiary amines
readily available building blocks					versatile products
modular, broa	d scope	via α -amin	o radical	•	imine redox-relay