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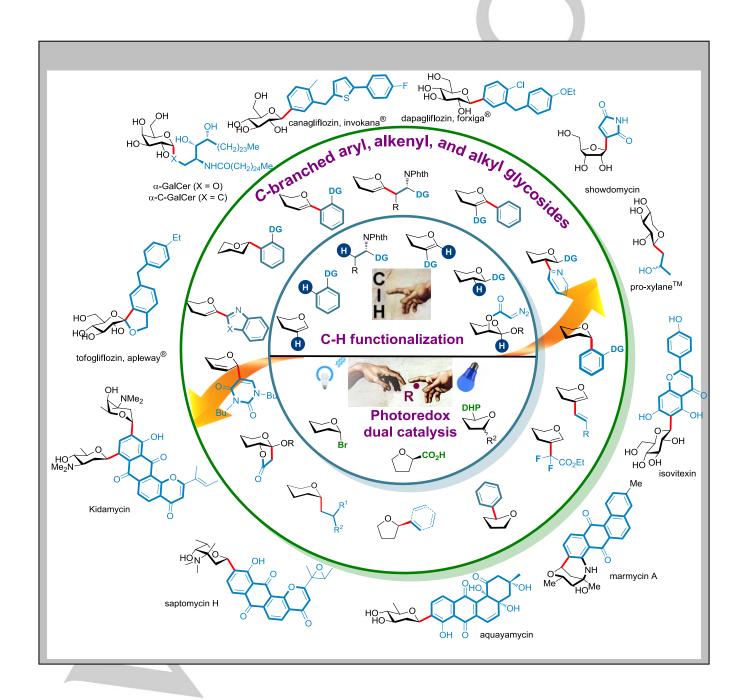
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Emerging organometallic methods for the synthesis of *C*-branched (hetero)aryl, alkenyl and alkyl glycosides: C–H functionalization and dual photoredox approaches

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Abstract: Transition-metal catalyzed C–H functionalization and photoredox-nickel dual catalysis have emerged as innovative and powerful avenues for the synthesis of C-branched glycosides. These two concepts have been recently established and provide efficient and mild methods for accessing a series of valuable complex C-branched glycosides of great interest. Herein, we highlight recent developments in the synthesis of C-branched aryl/alkenyl/alkyl glycosides through these two approaches.

1. Introduction

Vitexin was the first known C-glycoside extracted at the turn of the 20th century by Perkin (Figure 1), ¹ from a New Zealand tree, Vitex littoralis. This discovery followed a request of an Auckland resident for an expertise on the commercial value of a yellow substance as a dye contained in this wood. Nevertheless, the full determination of its structure was established only in 1964 by Horowitz and Gentili, 2 although Perkin had already guessed ³ that this stable compound consisted of a sugar residue linked in an abnormal way to apigenin. This stability results from the presence of an unnatural C-C bond between the carbohydrate and its aglycone, the very definition of a C-branched glycoside, making them less sensitive to acidic or enzymatic hydrolysis than the usual C-O and C-N glycosidic bonds. Since the discovery of vitexin, other Cglycosides have been extracted from the living world, as illustrated by the few examples reported in Figure 1. Isovitexin, an isomer of vitexin, differs from the vitexin by the position where the sugar is linked to the apigenin aglycone. Both were found to possess various biological effects including anti-cancer, anti-oxidant, anti-inflammatory, anti-nociceptive, anti-AD (AD, Alzheimer's disease), anti-hypertensive, anti-spasmodic, antihypoxia/ischemia injury, anti-depressant-like actions and antiviral activities.4 In the same vein, orientin and isoorientin, which incorporate an extra hydroxyl group, were also the subject of diverse pharmacological studies.⁵ Apart from these flavonoids, C-glycosides are also found in the angucycline family, antibiotics of microbial origin, whose aquayamycin is one of the members.⁶ The latter was found to inhibit tyrosine hydroxylase and is active against Gram-positive bacteria, Ehrlich ascites carcinoma, and Yoshida rat sarcoma cells but showed no particular effect on a wide range of human tumor cells. Pyrazomycin, also called pyrazofurin, found in Streptomyces candidus, is a pyrazolelinked C-furanoside, which is a potent inhibitor of orotidine 5'monophosphate decarboxylase and which possesses broadspectrum antiviral and antitumor activities. 8 Showdomycin, whose gene cluster for its biosynthesis was recently discovered, 9 is an other example of a natural C-furanoside bearing a maleimide moiety. Gilvocarcin V, the main product of Streptomyces griseoflavus Gö 3592, showed strong anti-tumor activities in comparison with its analogs gilvocarcins E and M lacking the aglycone vinyl group. ¹⁰ The antibiotic granaticin, first isolated in 1957¹¹ from the culture of Streptomyces olivaceus, is a rare example of fused C-aryl glycoside incorporating two C-C bonds between the sugar and its aglycon. Surprisingly, despite

its originality, it has only been the subject of one racemic and one enantioselective syntheses to date. ¹² Papulacandin D is the simplest member of a series of naturally occurring anti-fungal agents, displaying a benzannulated spiroketal unit. ¹³

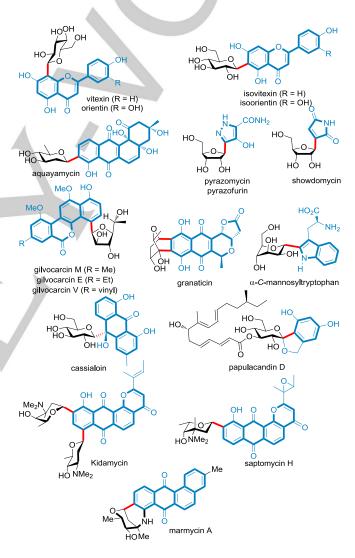


Figure 1. Selected examples of natural products including a C-glycoside unit.

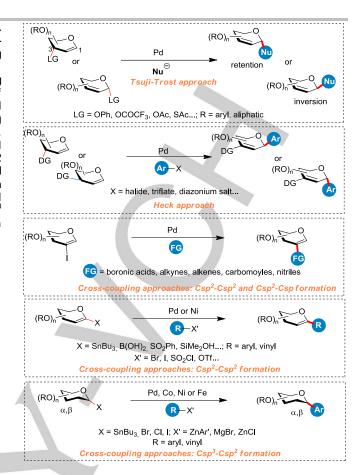
 α -C-Mannosyltryptophan, based on an indole motif, observed in Ribonuclease 2 from human urine, is the first example of a C-glycosyl amino acid found in proteins. ¹⁴ Eventually, cassialoin, like showdomycin, is a rare example of a C-glycoside linked to a C-glycoside C-glycosides C

operate via similar mechanism than doxorobucin as DNA intercalants. In addition, it was reported recently that these *C*-glycosides may act through other original mechanisms including direct genome targeting. ^{16a}

The existence of many natural *C*-glycosides possessing various biological properties has stimulated the interest of medicinal chemists, which led to the development of several commercial synthetic *C*-glycoside drugs (Figure 2) bearing mainly anti-diabetic properties. Among them, empagliflozin, dapagliflozin, canagliflozin, ipragliflozin, ertugliflozin and tofogliflozin have been approved for the treatment of type 2 diabetes mellitus recently. ¹⁷ Empagliflozin, dapagliflozin and canagliflozin were also found to possess cardio-renal benefits in adults with type 2 diabetes mellitus who either have established cardiovascular disease or multiple cardiovascular risk factors. ¹⁸ Tofogliflozin displays a benzannulated spiroketal unit found in natural papulacandin D.

Figure 2. Selected examples of synthetic *C*-glycosides with noticeable biological activities.

Pro-xylane TM is a rare example of C-alkylglycoside, synthesized from renewable feedstock, which is used in skin anti-aging applications in cosmetic. The Synthetic α -galactosylceramide (α -GalCer also named KRN7000) has shown interesting anti-cancer activities among others. The corresponding C-glycoside (α -C-GalCer) was shown to remain active in a mouse malaria model for a longer period of time than its O-glycosyl counterpart, one reasonable explanation being the highest stability of the former toward degradation by endogenous α -galactosidases. α -C-GalCer was also found to be 100 times more effective than α -GalCer against B16 melanoma cells in C57BL/6 mice. However, none of these compounds were developed as drugs up to date.



Scheme 1. Previous organometallic catalyzed methods for the synthesis of *C*-qlycosides.

Owing to the interesting pharmacological properties of numerous C-glycosides, their synthesis 21,22 and the synthesis of their analogues are a field of intense studies. Besides organic synthetic methods, the development of organometallic catalyzed processes under sub-stoichiometric conditions has emerged in the eighties. The Tsuji-Trost approach, firstly reported in 1985,²³ allowed a stereospecific access to Csp3- or Csp2-glycosides (Scheme 1) where the outcome of the reaction is controlled by the nature of the nucleophile: stabilized nucleophiles favor the formation of products with retention of configuration whereas non-stabilized nucleophiles led to an inversion of configuration. Nevertheless, loss of stereoselectivity may be observed via an inversion of configuration of the π -allyl intermediate. Due to the electron-rich vinyl ether motif, the process is totally regioselective, the attack of the nucleophile proceeds at the C1 position of the π -allyl glucal and needs the presence of a good leaving group. ²⁴, ²⁵ Heck ²⁶ or Heck type ²⁷ reactions were also applied to *C*-aryl-glycosides syntheses. ²⁸ The reaction is fully regioselective at the C1 position and stereospecific, an antichirality transfer from the initial stereocenter C3 of the reactant governing the anomeric configuration in the products.²⁹ Recently, 2,3-pseudoglycal building blocks were also used for the synthesis of C2-aryl glycosides through transfer chirality approach. $^{\rm 30}$ Stille, Suzuki-Miyaura, Hiyama, Denmark and Negishi cross-couplings were useful tools to deliver vinyl- or aryl- Csp²-glycosides since the seminal work of Friesen and Sturino. ³¹ These methods were both successfully applied to glycal- or glycoside-type substrates ^{32,33,34,35,36,37,38} (Scheme 1) in mild conditions. In the former case, a major disadvantage lies in the preparation of C1 functionalized glycals which generally require the use of a strong base excess, not compatible with a wide range of functional groups. In an inverted strategy, 2iodoglycals were widely used as electrophilic partners for the synthesis of 2-*C*-branched glycosides (Scheme 1). Various Pdcatalyzed reactions such as Suzuki-Miyaura, ³⁹ Heck, ⁴⁰ Sonogashira, ⁴¹ and carbonylative cross couplings ⁴² have been applied successfully in this context.

These last few years, organometallic catalysis evolved toward C–H functionalization ^{43,44,45} and dual photoredox ^{46,47} processes with the concern of limiting as much as possible number of steps in a synthetic route. In view of these different advantages, this review will deal with the synthetic successes of these two approaches.

Juba Ghouilem received his M.Sc. in *BioOrganic Chemistry* at Lille University in 2018, France. The same year, he joined the CosMIT team at Paris Saclay University as a Ph.D student under the supervision of Dr. Samir Messaoudi. His ANR research project "SelFSuCHi" is focused on the synthesis of C-aryl glycosides through C(sp³)–H functionalization.



Morgane de Robichon was born in Maisons-Laffitte (78 - France) in 1995. She obtained a Master degree in Molecular and Macromolecular Chemistry at CY Cergy-Paris University. She is currently a second year PhD student at the School of CY Cergy-Paris University under the supervision of Dr. Jacques Uziel and Dr. Angélique Ferry. She studied carbonylative metallo-catalyzed cross-coupling reactions on iodoglycals and is currently working on metallo-catalyzed



directed C-H functionalisation of glycoside substrates.

Franck Le Bideau graduated with a Ph.D in 1995 at the Université Pierre et Marie Curie (Paris, France), under the supervision of Professor Max Malacria, working on palladium-catalyzed rearrangement of silicon substituted vinyloxiranes. In 1996, he joined the group of Professor Léon Ghosez in Belgium at Université Catholique de Louvain (Louvain-la-Neuve) as a post-doctoral researcher and worked on [2+2] cycloaddition reactions. In 1997, he



joined the CNRS as a researcher at the Ecole Nationale Supérieure de Chimie de Paris (France) where his research mainly focused on the synthesis of organometallic species of potential biological interest. In 2011, he moved to the Université Paris Sud (Châtenay-Malabry, France) where he is currently working on organocatalysis and subsequent total synthesis of natural products.

Angélique Ferry was born in Mulhouse (France) in 1987. She obtained her Master degree in 2010. She then started her PhD on the synthesis of phostone and hydroxylamine-type glycomimetics (Prof. Crich, Dr. Guinchard, ICSN) and received, in 2014, the Dina Surdin PhD Award of the French Chemical Society. Then, she joined Prof. Glorius team (Germany) to work on heterogeneous C-H functionalization and on N-heterocyclic



carbenes-stabilized metallic nanoparticles. In 2015, she became associate professor at the CY Cergy-Paris University, where she develops metal-catalyzed functionalization on glycosides. She received, in 2018, the "women and science" award of the CY Cergy-Paris University and a "Young Researchers" ANR funding as project coordinator. In 2020, she obtained the Marc Julia Award of the French Chemical Society and the GFG Award of the French Group of Glycosciences.

Samir Messaoudi completed his PhD in 2004 at Blaise Pascal University, Clermont Ferrand, France. After two years as postdoctoral fellow, he joined the group of "Therapeutic Chemistry" in 2007 as a junior CNRS-researcher at BioCIS UMR 8076, university of Paris Saclay. In 2017, he was promoted as Director of Research DR-CNRS. His main research concern deals with glycochemistry (functionalization of carbohydrates under transition-metal catalysis), as well as with the preparation of



molecules and molecular scaffolds of biological and therapeutic interest.

2. New emerging methods

2.1. C-H functionalization methodologies

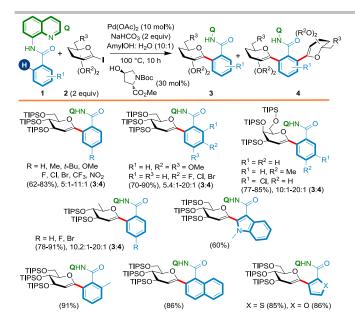
2.1.1. Where the sugar is the electrophilic partner

2.1.1.1. Directed C-H functionalization of aromatic and aliphatic substrates

One of the established strategies for the synthesis of C-branched glycosides through C-H functionalization is based on the use of aryl or alkyl substrates bearing a designed directing group (DG). In this case, the link between the sugar and the aglycone was performed via a C-H functionalization using sugar halides as electrophilic partners.

2.1.1.1.1. Csp²-H functionalization

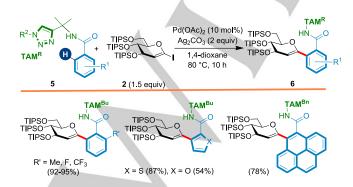
In 2016, Ye *et al.* published⁴⁸ the synthesis of aryl-C- Δ ^{1,2} glycosides from 1-iodoglycals **2** based on a palladium-catalyzed C–H activation of benzamides **1** (Scheme 2) directed by an *ortho N*-quinolyl (*N*-Q) motif, leading to mono- and di-arylated products **3** and **4**.



Scheme 2. Pd(II) catalyzed synthesis of aryl-C- $\Delta^{1,2}$ glycosides according to Ye *et al.*.

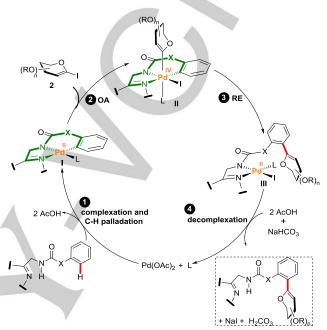
A thorough screening of the reaction conditions allowed a reversal in the proportion of the two possible products in favor of the monoglycosylated adduct 3. Thus, the use of NaHCO₃ as an inorganic base. t-amylOH/H2O (10:1) as a solvent mixture and a L-proline derivative as an external ligand led preferentially to the formation of a wide array of monoglycosylated products 3, bearing electron-donor or electron-withdrawing groups in different positions of the aryl moieties in yields ranging from 60 to 91%. However, when the second ortho position is not substituted, up to 16% of di-arylated compounds 4 were observed despite the use of two equivalents of expensive glycals 2 for one equivalent of the aryls 1. Removal of the DG was accomplished using two equivalents of the expensive Schwartz's reagent (bis(cyclopentadienyl)-zirconium(IV) chloride hydride) followed by transformation in situ of the unstable resulting aldehydes into alkenes or alcohols in good yields (68-70%)

Recently, Ackermann *et al.* reported⁴⁹ on the same type of transformation involving a *N*-triazolyldimethylmethyl (*N*-TAM) DG (**5**, Scheme 3). Milder reaction conditions (80°C) were used to afford, without the need of an additional ligand, monoglycosylated derivatives **6** in excellent yields (78-95%), except in the case of the furan adduct (54%).



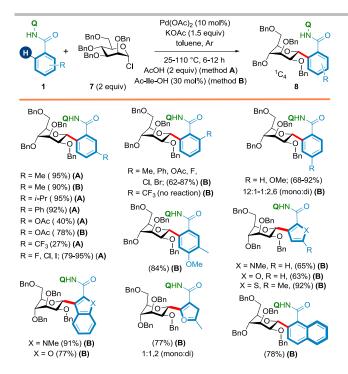
Scheme 3. Pd(II) catalyzed synthesis of aryl-C- $\Delta^{1,2}$ glycosides according to Ackermann *et al.*.

A reasonable catalytic cycle (Scheme 4) starts with the complexation and the C-H palladation of the benzamide, delivering the Pd(II) palladacycle I. Oxidative addition of the latter in the C-I bond of the glucal then leads to Pd(IV) intermediate II, which undergoes a reductive elimination to release the aryl-C- $\Delta^{1,2}$ glycoside moiety in the Pd(II) complex III. The strong electron donor effect of the N,N-bidentate N-Q ligand in I facilitates the oxidative addition step. Eventually, decomplexation in the presence of AcOH and a base regenerates Pd(OAc) $_2$ concomitantly with the formation of the product of the reaction.

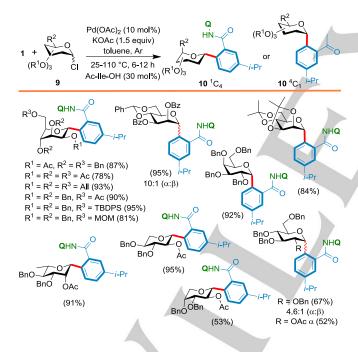


Scheme 4. A possible mechanism for the Pd(II) catalyzed synthesis of aryl- $C^{1,2}$ glycosides (X = no atom) according to Ye and Ackermann reports. Except for the oxidative addition step, this mechanism is also reasonable for the synthesis of *C*-aryl pyranosides (X = no atom, CH₂ or O) relatively to Chen's work (*vide infra*).

In 2019, Chen *et al.* disclosed 50 the synthesis of *C*-aryl glycosides (Scheme 5) in reaction conditions close to Ye's work, using KOAc as base and toluene as the solvent. Despite excellent results (90-95% yield, except in one case (R = OAc, 40%)) obtained with the inexpensive co-ligand , the more expensive *N*-acetyl protected isoleucine (Ac-IIe-OH) was used in most cases. The exact role of this co-ligand is not clear, but appears to be essential to obtain excellent yields (90%) at low temperatures (up to 45° C).



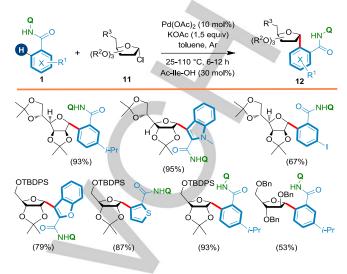
Scheme 5. Pd(II) catalyzed synthesis of *C*-aryl pyranosides varying the aryl moiety. All compounds have an α configuration and adopt a 1C_4 conformation. Di-arylation products are observed only when mentioned.



Scheme 6. Pd(II) catalyzed synthesis of C-aryl pyranosides varying the sugar and the aryl moieties.

A wide range of products was synthesized in good to excellent yields (62-95%) varying the nature of the benzamide 1 (Scheme 5 and 6) or the nature of the pyranose/furanose (Scheme 6 and 7). The presence of a strong electron withdrawing group (CF_3) on the aryl ring of 1 led to a low 27% yield of the desired product. A moderate yield (53%) was also obtained in the case of L-xylose with no particular explanation. Heteroarenes such as furans, pyrroles, thiophenes and indoles were used successfully in this reaction. Formation of di-arylated

substrates was prevented by steric hindrance found in 1,3-substituted benzamides. Functional groups such as *tert*-butyldiphenylsilyl (TBDPS), methoxymethyl (MOM), acetate, 4,6-benzylidene, isopropylidene and allyl were tolerated.



Scheme 7. Pd(II) catalyzed synthesis of C-aryl furanosides varying the sugar and the aryl moieties.

This reaction was also applied to more complex substrates such as tri- and tetra-saccharides and to the mannosylation of repaglinide, an antidiabetic drug. Removal of the NHQ DG was studied on a few examples, using Schwartz's reagent or saponification conditions.

A few other DG were tested in the C-H activating process (Scheme 8) showing that the presence of a bidentate moiety as well as a non-substituted *N*-amide atom were essential, leading to the coupled products in moderate to excellent yields (57-93%).

 $\begin{tabular}{lll} Scheme 8. & Other DG tested in the Pd(II) catalyzed synthesis of C-aryl pyranosides. \end{tabular}$

The nature of the different amidoquinolyl-type DG were also studied as shown in Figure 3.In the case of aryl acetamide $(X = CH_2 \text{ in scheme 4})$ and phenol derivatives (X = O in scheme 4). The corresponding aryl and heteroaryl substrates were obtained in moderate to excellent yields (42-95%).

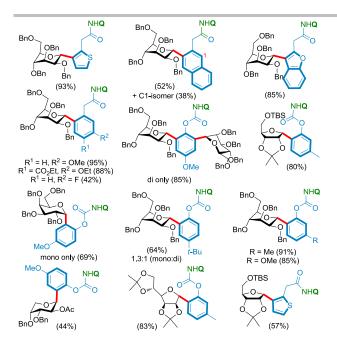
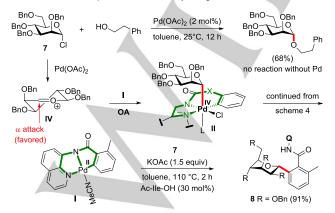


Figure 3. Pd(II) catalyzed synthesis of *C*-aryl pyranosides and furanosides bearing an amidoquinolyl-DG. Reaction conditions are the same as reported in Scheme 5 using Ac-Ile-OH (30%) as the additional ligand.

Removal of the DG and recovery of the phenolic group was quantitatively realized on one derivative in the presence of ethylamine in methanol at room temperature, opening the route to further modification of such compounds.

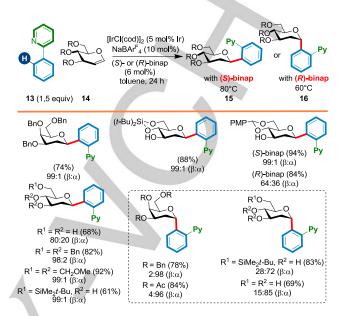
Using methyl iodide (MeI) as electrophilic partner in the presence of 1 (Scheme 5, R = 3-methyl) under the standard reaction conditions, resulted in an absence of reactivity, suggesting that a more reactive species than starting glycosides 7 could be involved in the process. Moreover, the stereoretention in favor of the α configuration observed in most cases, as well as the exclusive formation of this α product starting from a 2:1 α/β mixture of glycosyl chloride led the authors to propose the existence of an oxocarbenium ion IV (Scheme 9) prior to oxidative addition. Such an intermediate, which could be formed from 7 in the presence of Pd(OAc)2, which acts as a Lewis acid, would be preferentially attacked through its less hindered side, explaining the large observed α selectivity. This suggestion was also supported by the example involving 2-phenylethanol and mannose (Scheme 9).

Complex I includes a 5,5- or 5,6- bicyclic structure (in green in scheme 4 and 9; 5,5: X = no atom, 5,6: $X = CH_2$ or O) incorporating the metal, which could explain a C-H activation in favor of the *ortho* position of the aryl ring.



Scheme 9. Mechanism of the Pd(II) catalyzed synthesis of C-aryl pyranosides and furanosides: modification of the general catalytic cycle proposed in scheme 7.

To demonstrate its role in the catalytic cycle, Palladacycle I (Scheme 9) was prepared by reacting $Pd(OAc)_2$ with 2-methylbenzamide in acetonitrile and submitted to standard conditions in the presence of **7** to furnish the *C*-aryl glycoside **8** in excellent yield (91%) Kinetic isotope effect experiments showed that the formation of I is not the rate-limiting step.

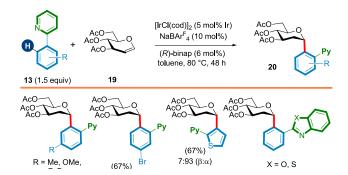


Scheme 10. Ir(I) catalyzed hydroarylation of glycals via C-H functionnalisation: influence of the absolute configuration of the additional ligand binap on the diastereoselectivity of the reaction.

Iridium complexes were also used in hydroarylation of glycals via a C-H functionalization process as recently reported by Nishimura et al. (Scheme 10).51 Thus, compounds 13 and 14 were reacted in the presence of [IrCl(cod)]₂ (5 mol% Ir), NaBAr^F₄ (10 mol%) and (S)-binap (6 mol%) to afford mostly, after 24 hours in toluene, the β adducts **15.** By the same way, (*R*)-binap led to the α adducts 16. The high β -selectivity was observed at higher temperature (80°C) than the α-selectivity, and several Caryl glycosides 15 and 16 were obtained in good to excellent yields (61-92%) and excellent diastereoselectivities (up to 98% de) except in four cases (28%-70% de) from diversely protected or non-protected glycals 14. This method shortens the access to the desired products, when compared to Pd(II) catalyzed coupling (vide supra), since glucals 14 are precursors of the corresponding halogenated compounds 2 (Scheme 2). Moreover, it allows an access to both α and β configurations starting from the same precursor, just by changing the configuration of the additional catalytic ligand ((S)- or (R)-binap) and no di-arylated products were observed.

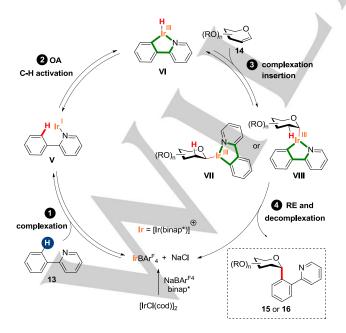
Scheme 11. Ir(I) catalyzed hydroarylation of glycal **17** in the presence of (S)-binap, varying the nature of the aryl: access to compounds **18**, predominantly under their β configuration.

The present catalytic system was applied to β - and α -selective hydroarylation of several aromatic compounds with glycal **17** (Scheme 11) and **19** (Scheme 12), in moderate to excellent yields (53-97%) and with excellent diastereoselectivities for the former (98% de) while the latter gave lower values (87-98% de)



Scheme 12. Ir(I) catalyzed hydroarylation of glycal **19** in the presence of (R)-binap, varying the nature of the aryl: access to compounds **20**, predominantly under their α configuration.

Other aromatic compounds, such as acetophenone, acetophenone *O*-methyl oxime, and *N*-(4-methophenyl)-1-phenylethen-1-imine, previously used in other Ir-catalyzed *ortho*-C-H alkylations, were inactive in this coupling reaction. Based on previous studies by the same team, 52 a plausible mechanism for this transformation is depicted in scheme 13. The Ir(I) complex ([Ir(binap)]†[BArF4]*), generated by reaction of [IrCl(cod)]2 and NaBArF4 in the presence of the appropriate binap ligand, is transformed into **V** *via* complexation of the aryl **13**. The favored *ortho* C-H functionalization of 2-phenylpyridine moiety then affords the aryl(hydrido)iridium(III) **VI**.

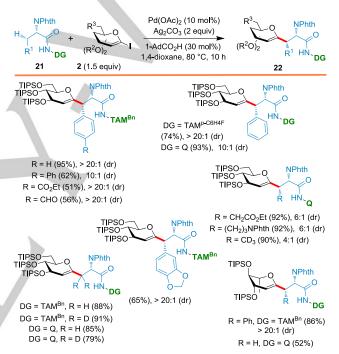


Scheme 13. A reasonable mechanism for the Ir(I) catalyzed hydroarylation of glycals.

Alkene insertion of glycal 14 into Ir-H bond affords preferentially VII or VIII according to the absolute configuration of the chosen (S)- or (R)-binap. Intermediate VII eventually delivers the β -aryl glycoside 15 (VIII led respectively to α -aryl glycoside 16) through an irreversible reductive elimination, whose rate might determine the observed diastereoselectivity. An alternative pathway was proposed in which the alkene insertion occurs through the irreversible carbometalation of the aryl(hydrido)iridium complex to glycal to form an alkyliridium intermediate.

2.1.1.1.2. Csp³-H functionalization

Csp³–H functionalization is far less common in the synthesis of C-glycosides.



Scheme 14. Pd(II) catalyzed Csp³-H activation process according to Ackermann *et al.*

Ackermann *et al.* recently reported⁴⁹ the pallado-catalyzed C–H activation of α -phthalimide substituted amides **21** and subsequent coupling with iodoglycals **2**, which delivered products **22** in moderate to excellent yields and good diastereoselectivities (Scheme 14). TAM^R and Q assisting groups gave similar results and rhamnose derived glycals were found effective in the process.

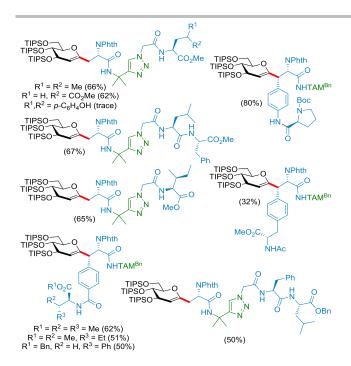


Figure 4. Synthesis of small peptides following Ackermann's methodology.

Based on a DFT study, a mechanistic pathway was proposed but no explanation was furnished about 1-adamantane carboxyl acid additive (AdCO₂H), which is used in *sub*-stoichiometric amount (30 mol%) in the reaction. As previously mentioned (Scheme 4), the catalytic cycle should imply a favored 5,5-bicyclic structure around the metal, and a Pd(II)-Pd(IV)-Pd(II) pathway.

Figure 5. Synthesis of BODIPY labeled glycoamides and other bio-ligands following Ackermann's methodology.

This methodology was applied with success to the synthesis of small peptides as illustrated in figure 4, replacing Pd(OAc)₂ by Pd(TFA)₂ on a longer reaction time (16 h).

Only traces of unprotected peptide Phth-Ala-Tzl-Tyr-OMe were obtained while the reaction allowed the access to other congested glycopeptides.

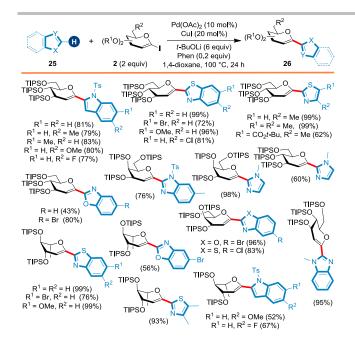
Other biomolecules and BODIPY labeled glycoamides were also synthesized following this methodology in moderate to excellent yields (Figure 5).

Scheme 15. Pd(II) catalyzed Csp³-H activation process according to Liu *et al.*.

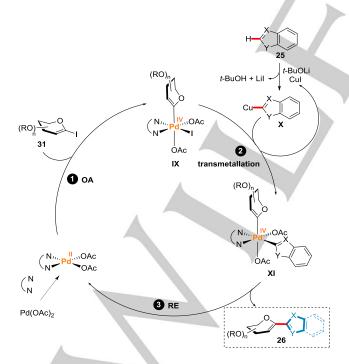
Concomitantly to Ackermann's report, Liu *et al.* published⁵³ a similar protocol (Scheme 15) to synthesize close compounds **24**, replacing AdCO₂H by trifluoroacetic acid (TFA) in good yields (63-83%) and moderate to excellent diastereoselectivities (3:1 to >20:1 (*dr*)). Both teams showed through deuterium kinetic studies that the Csp³-H bond cleavage was not the rate-limiting step of the catalytic cycle and the mechanism depicted in scheme 4 seems to be reasonable in that case too.

2.1.1.2. Non-directed C-H functionalization of (hetero)aromatics substrates

In 2017, Ye *et al.* described⁵⁴ an access to five-membered nitrogen-containing heteroaryl *C*-glycosides based on a Pd(II)/Cu(I) co-catalyzed methodology (Scheme 16). Heteroaryl-C- $\Delta^{1.2}$ -glycosides, incorporating indole, thiazole, benzothiazole, imidazole, benzimidazole, and benzoxazole moieties as aglycones were obtained in 43–99% yields starting from 1-iodoglycals in the presence of *t*-BuOLi (4 equiv.) and 1,10-phenanthroline (0.2 equiv.) in 24 hours at 100°C in 1,4-dioxane.



The tosyl-protecting group on the indole ring was chosen to decrease the nucleophilicity of its C3 position owing to its electron withdrawing ability. The reaction is effective with electron-withdrawing and donating groups except in the case of an indole ring bearing a nitro substituent. 1-iodoglycals derived from *D*-galactose and *L*-rhamnose were successfully coupled in these conditions. The main limitation of the method is the use of 6 equivalents of *t*-BuOLi, which is not compatible with base sensitive compounds.

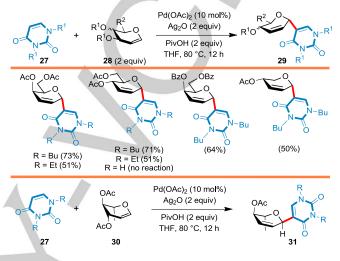


Scheme 17. A reasonable mechanism for the synthesis of *N*-heteroaryl *C*-glycosides following Ye's methodology.

The most reasonable catalytic cycle for this transformation depicted in scheme 17 begins with the complexation of the 1,10-

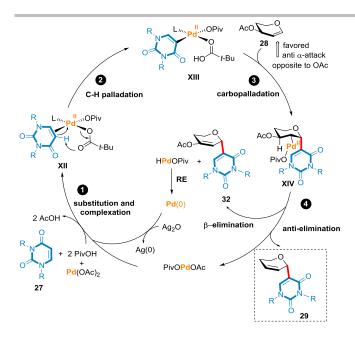
phenanthroline to Pd(OAc)₂ follows by oxidative addition of the latter in the C-I bond of the 1-iodoglucal **2** delivering the Pd(IV) intermediate **IX**. Copper assisted deprotonation of the *N*-heteroaryl reactant by *t*-BuOLi and subsequent lithium-copper exchange then furnishes the organo-copper species **X** whose transmetalation with **IX** provides the Pd(IV) species **XI**. Desired products **26** are finally obtained by reductive elimination of **XI** with concomitant regeneration of Pd(II). 1,10-Phenanthroline could favor the oxidative step through Pd(II) electronic enrichment.

A second example of a C-glycoside synthesis via a non-directed C–H activation was reported in 2017 by Rasool and Mukherjee (Scheme 18).⁵⁵



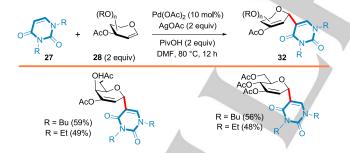
Scheme 18. Synthesis of uracil C-glycosides following Mukherjee's methodology.

Several uracil-substituted pseudo glycals were synthesized reacting compounds **27** and pyranoid glycals **28** catalyzed by $Pd(OAc)_2$ in the presence of Ag_2O and PivOH (2 equiv.) in moderate to good yields. Unprotected uracil failed to react due to poor solubility and uracil bearing longer protective alkyl chains gave better yields. Contrary to $C3-\beta$ -substituted glycals, which delivered the corresponding $C1-\alpha$ -products, glycal **30** derived from rhamnose was converted into the $C1-\beta$ -pseudo glycal **31**, thus showing that the stereoselectivity of the process is governed by the orientation of the C3 substituent in the starting material, possibly explained by the mechanism depicted in scheme 19 (*vide infra*).



Scheme 19. A reasonable mechanism for Mukherjee's methodology

The first step of the process is the substitution of an -OAc ligand by an -OPiv and complexation of the uracil to the resulting Pd(II) species **XII**. C-H palladation next occurs to generate the intermediate **XIII** which undergoes a regioselective syn addition by the less hindered (in anti of the C3-OAc group) α -side of the glycal double bond to form **XIV**. The desired product **29** is then generated by anti-elimination of palladium(II) acetate delivering PivOPdOAc. Compound **32**, arising from β -hydride elimination from **XIV** with concomitant formation of HPdOPiv, was also observed as a minor product. In this pathway, reductive elimination of HPdOPiv leads to Pd(0), justifying the use of an oxidant (Ag₂O) in order to regenerate the starting Pd(II) species.



Scheme 20. Synthesis of products 32 \emph{via} β -hydride elimination following Mukherjee's methodology.

A screening of the reaction conditions allowed the exclusive formation of products **32** in moderate yields (Scheme 20) using AgOAc in polar DMF solvent.

2.1.2. Where the sugar is the C-H activated partner

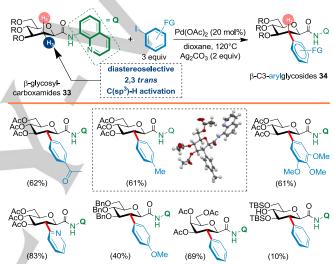
2.1.2.1. Directed C-H functionalization of sugar substrates

2.1.2.1.1. Csp3-H functionalization

One another approach for the synthesis of C-glycosides is based on directed C-H functionalization of a C-H sugar bond

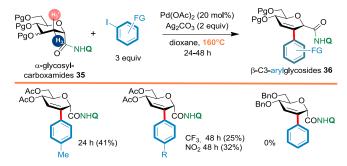
where the DG was placed on the sugar core. The C-H functionalization process in this case may occur in a convergent way with aryl halides. The main advantage of this approach compared to the previous one is the commercial availability of one of the reaction partners (aryl halides)..

In this context, Messaoudi and co-workers⁵⁶ reported for the first time the use of this approach to the diastereoselective Csp^3 –H arylation of glycosides. As a proof of concept, the authors designed at first the β -amidosugar substrate **33** bearing a 8-aminoquinoline DG and showed that the use of $Pd(OAc)_2$ (20 mol%) and Ag_2CO_3 (2 equiv.) in dioxane at 120 °C led to the C3-aryl-glycosides **34** in good to excellent yields (Scheme 21). Interestingly, the authors reported that the Csp^3 –H arylation occurs in an exclusive 2,3-trans diastereoselectivity, which contrasts with the reported cis one in the case of unsubstituted cyclic substrates. ⁵⁷ Different functional groups on the (hetero)aromatic ring are tolerated such as methoxy, nitro, methyl ester, ketone, cyano, fluoride and chloride. Although the acetyl and benzyl protecting groups were used successfully in this study, silyl groups led to low yield (\sim 10%).



Scheme 21. Pd(II)-catalyzed diastereoselective 2,3-*trans* Csp^3 -H arylation of β-amidoglycosides **33** according to Messaoudi *et al.*

The authors examined the influence of the anomeric configuration in this C–H activation process, and showed that α -amidoglycosides **35** (Scheme 22) necessitates higher reaction temperature (up to 160°C) to observe the arylation process. In this case, C-aryl pseudoglucals **36** arising from Csp³–H arylation followed by AcOH elimination were obtained in moderate yields ranging from 23% to 41%. Corresponding benzylated glycoside failed to yield an arylated product.



Scheme 22. Pd(II)-catalyzed arylation of α -amidoglycosides 35 according to Messaoudi's procedure.

In the aim to get further insights into this exclusive equatorial Csp³-H activation, the authors performed DFT calculations. They thus showed that the lowest transition state found corresponds to a *trans*-CMD with a +13.1 kcal.mol¹ activation barrier (Figure 6), where the C4 acetate is equatorial, yielding the *trans* palladacycle min-tri- β 2a with a release of 6.9 kcal/mol of free energy. To achieve the *cis* palladacycle, the conformational shape of a pyranose switches from the 4 C¹ conformation to 1 C4 one in which the C4 acetate substituent occupies an axial position by demanding higher value of the free energy of activation of +15.7 kcal.mol¹1.

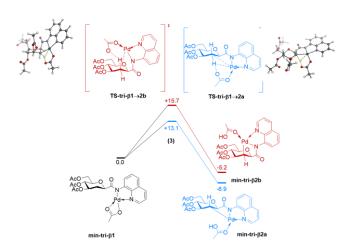
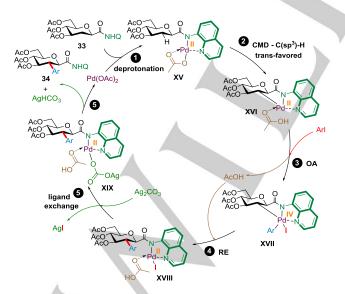


Figure 6. Free energy profiles of the cis and trans CMDs.

Based on these calculations, the authors proposed the mechanism depicted in scheme 23. Initial deprotonation of the quinolyl amide leads to the formation of complex XV, which undergoes C–H metalation through a concerted metalation deprotonation (CMD) mechanism, to give σ -organopalladium complex XVI. Oxidative addition of the aryl iodide generates palladium(IV) complex XVII followed by C–C bond formation by reductive elimination to XVIII.



Scheme 23. Proposed Mechanism for *trans*-arylation reaction reported by Messaoudi *et al.*

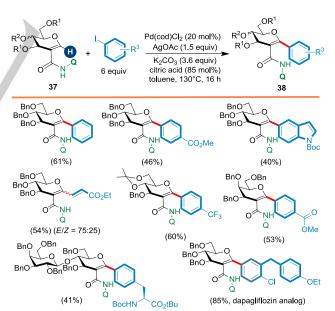
After ligand exchange, the arylated product $\bf 34$ is formed and the active palladium species $\bf XV$ is regenerated.

One important point to solve in this approach is the ability to remove the DG at the end of the process. The authors demonstrated in their study that the aminoquinoline DG could be removed from the final C3-aryl-glycoside under Maulide's conditions (oxidative cleavage with O₃ followed by ammoniac aminolysis) to deliver the free amide C3-aryl-glycoside.⁵⁸

2.1.2.1.2. Csp²-H functionalization

By using the same approach, Ferry and co-workers ⁵⁹ reported recently a novel route to *C*-aryl/alkenyl-glycosides **38** through a directed palladium-catalyzed Csp²–H functionalisation of *C2*-amido glycals **37** onto the anomeric position (Scheme 24). The 8-aminoquinoline DG was used to successfully introduce diverse (hetero)aryl and alkenyl groups at the C1 position of various protected glycals. The reaction conditions involve the use of Pd(cod)Cl₂ (20 mol%) as the catalyst, 6 equivalents of the aryl-iodide in the presence of a mixture of K₂CO₃ (3.6 equiv.), AgOAc (1.5 equiv.) and citric acid (0.85 equiv.) in toluene at 130 °C. The exact role of citric acid is not clear but it probably intervenes in the CMD step of the catalytic cycle.

Different functional groups on the aromatic ring are tolerated such as methoxy, trifluoromethyl, nitro, methyl ester, cyano and chloride with moderate to good yields (38 to 78%). Moreover, this methodology tolerates N-Boc-indole and protected iodo phenylalanine. Interestingly, alkenylation also occurred under these conditions when activated alkene iodide was used. In addition, the synthesis of a disaccharide amino acid could be performed between the D-lactal and the phenylalanine iodide (41%). This method was applied successfully to the synthesis of an analogue of the dapagliflozin drug (FORXIGAs), commercialized to treat type 2 diabetes. In benzyl-protecting groups, the isopropylidene-protecting group is tolerated in this process, however, ester-type protecting groups on glycal such as -OAc inhibit completely the reactivity due a possible "disarming-like effect".



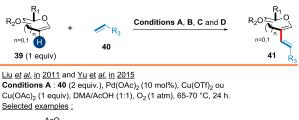
Scheme 24. Pd(II)- catalyzed arylation of glycal **37** reported by Ferry et al.

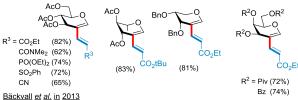
2.1.2.2. Non-directed C–H functionalization of sugar substrates

2.1.2.2.1. Csp²-H functionalization

Metal-catalyzed C-H functionalization processes are well-known methods for the construction of C-C bonds on glycal type

substrates. Besides, without any DG, the addition of electrophilic partners occurs exclusively at the nucleophilic position 2 of the glycal. The first example of this type of reactivity was reported by Liu *et al.* in 2011 and deals with the coupling of glycals with substituted alkenes. 60 The best conditions require the use of catalytic quantities of Pd(OAc)₂, the presence of Cu(OTf)₂, in a mixture of solvents (DMA/AcOH = 1:1) under an atmosphere of O₂ (Scheme 25, **A**). They thus described 18 examples in moderate to good yields (43-87%).



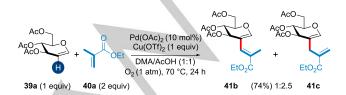


Conditions B: **40** (2 equiv.), Pd(OAc)₂ (2.5-5 mol%), BQ (5-10 mo%), Fe(pc) (1-2.5 mol%), O₂ (balloon), AcOH/DMA (1:1), 70 °C, 24 h.

Mukherjee et al. in 2018
Conditions C : 40 (1.2 equiv.), Pd(OAc)₂ (0.1 equiv),
Cu(OAc)₂.H₂O (3 equiv), Pyridine (2 equiv), Dioxane, 80 °C, 24 h.
Conditions D : 40 (1.2 equiv.), Pd(OAc)₂ (0.1 equiv), AgOAc (2.5 equiv), DMF/DMSO (20:1), 80 °C, 20 h.

Scheme 25. Pd(II) catalyzed C2-vinyl glycosides according to Liu et al...

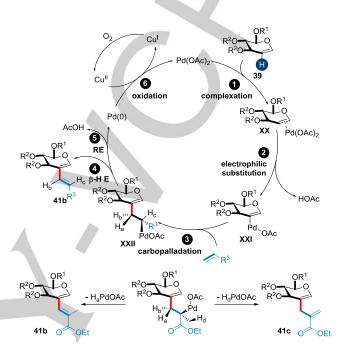
Furthermore, they investigated the use of a disubstituted alkene (ethyl methacrylate), which gave a mixture of compounds **41b** and **41c** with a ratio of 1:2.5 in 74% total yield (Scheme 26). A plausible mechanism was proposed for this reaction (Scheme 27): the Pd complex **XXI** is formed after steps 1 and 2 through complexation and subsequent electrophilic substitution on the glycal at the C2 position.



Scheme 26. Liu et al. C-H functionalization with a disubstituted alkene.

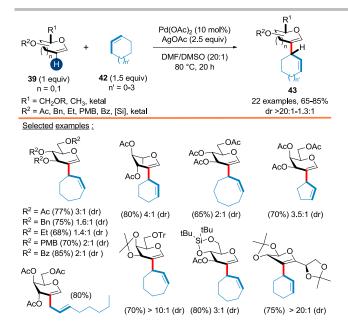
A carbopalladation of the acrylate occurs delivering the more stable conformation XXII with the two bulky groups

situated in *anti* (Scheme 27, step 3). The formation of the *anti*-product justifies the observation of the *E* configuration for all the synthesized compounds. Then the final compound **3** is formed *via* a β -hydride elimination during the step 4. Finally, the Pd(0) complex obtained through reductive elimination (step 5) is oxidized by Cu(II) to regenerate the active Pd(II) catalyst species (Scheme 27, step 6). Concerning products **41b** and **41c**, the conformation is explained regarding the β -hydride elimination step, which could occur on the two possible carbons in β of the Pd.

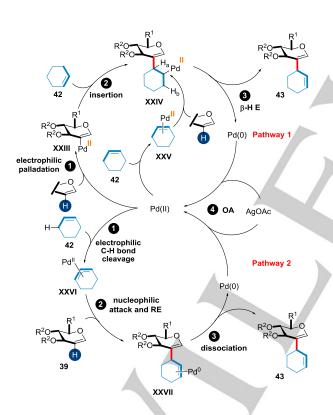


Scheme 27. Liu *et al.* plausible mechanism for C-H functionalisation with alkenes on glycal type substrates.

Inspired by this work, Yu et al. used these C-H functionalization conditions in 2015 in a total synthesis of a monosaccharide, the bradyrhizose. 61 This process was achieved from the tri-O-acetyl-D-glucal in 26 steps with a global yield of 9%. The pallado-catalyzed Csp²-H activation was applied at the first step of this synthesis, which permits to combine glucal with a methyl acrylate moiety (Scheme 25, A). They optimized the previous conditions to increase the yield to 76%. Another example of alkenylation on glycals was reported in 2013 by Bäckvall et al..62 Their conditions were close to those described by Liu et al. but they aimed to develop a biomimetic aerobic oxidative coupling between two Cvinvl-H bonds for the synthesis of conjugated dienes. Indeed, they engaged smaller quantities of Pd(OAc)₂ in combination with iron phthalocyanine and pbenzoquinone in catalytic amounts as electron-transfer mediators, and O2 as an oxidant to regenerate the catalyst in its active form (Scheme 25, B). In this case, they established that the key step is the reoxidation of Pd(0) to Pd(II) by this biomimetic approach. Thereby, five C2-substituted glycals with yield ranging from 43% to 81% were synthetized. Additionally, a scale up was done with the methyl acrylate as the electrophilic partner on the tri-O-acetyl-D-glucal and 2.1g of the corresponding product was obtained in a good 81% yield. Afterward, Mukherjee's group developed in 2016 a C-H allylation reaction between glycals 39 and inactivated cycloalkenes 42 (Scheme 28). 63 Pd(OAc)2 was used as a catalyst and AgOAc as an oxidant in the process. They thus obtained 22 compounds 43 in yields ranging between 65 and 85%. The same group implemented two years after a coupling between glycals and alkenes using the same previous modifications (Scheme 25, **C** and **D**). ⁶⁴ conditions with some



Scheme 28. Mukherjee's group C-H functionalization on glycals with cycloalkenes substrates.



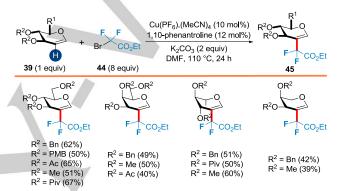
Scheme 29. Mukherjee's group proposed mechanism for C-H functionalization with cycloalkenes on glycal type substrates by two pathways.

They also developed other conditions for the same reaction, giving similar results. In view of the equal efficiency for both conditions, they used principally conditions B for economic reasons, and they could obtain 22 examples in 59 to 91% yield. On top of that, a mechanism was proposed for this coupling implying two pathways (Scheme 29).

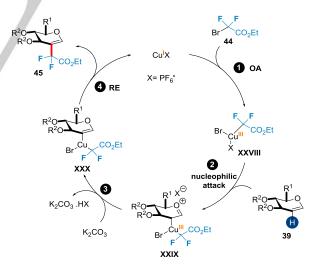
The first one begins with an electrophilic palladation at the C2 position of the glucal to give a vinyl Pd(II) complex XIII, followed by a cycloalkene insertion leading to the species XXIV. Additionally, a Wacker type nucleopalladation reaction could

take place, where the cycloalkene-Pd(II) π -complex XXV formed previously, is attacked by the sugar enol ether which acts as a nucleophile, forming the intermediate XXIV. The latter then undergoes a β -H elimination delivering the desired product 5 and a Pd(0) complex. The second pathway involves the formation of a π -allyl-Pd(II) complex XXVI in the first step, reacting Pd(II) with cycloalkane via an electrophilic allylic C-H bond cleavage. Then, XXVI is attacked by the glycal via its nucleophilic C2 position leading to the formation of species XXVII after reductive elimination which undergoes dissociation of Pd(0) to generates the desired product 43. Eventually, silver acetate is supposed to help the oxidative addition of Pd(0) to Pd(II) in both pathways.

Finally, Pannecoucke *et al.* developed a copper-catalyzed C-H process to introduce fluorinated ester moieties on the C2 position of glycal-type substrates (Scheme 30).⁶⁵ First of all, the optimal conditions were developed on simple 1,2-dihydropyrans and were then extended to glycals. Thanks to the addition of ethyl bromo(difluoro)acetate as electrophilic partner, 13 examples were reported in modest to good yields (39 and 67%).



Scheme 30. Pannecoucke *et al.* C-H functionalization on glycals with fluorinated compounds.



Scheme 31. Pannecoucke *et al.* proposed mechanism for the fluorination of glycals.

Moreover, a mechanism was proposed based on experimental studies (Scheme 31). Firstly, a radical pathway was excluded thanks to the addition of radical inhibitors and radical scavengers on the reaction mixture, which led to the same yields. Secondly, the standard conditions were applied on enol ether, which allowed to show an isomerization of the double

bond and to indicate the presence of an oxonium intermediate. Thereby, this transformation takes place exclusively on the less hindered position, between the two sites of deprotonation available, leading to the formation of the trisubstituted enol ether as the only compound.

According to these results, the following mechanism was proposed. Firstly, an oxidative addition of the Cu(I) into the carbon-halogen bond of 44 occurs resulting in the formation of a highly electrophilic Cu(III) species XXVIII (Scheme 31, step 1). The latter reacts (step 2) with glycal 39 to form an oxonium intermediate XXIX, which is transformed into the enol ether XXX by the base $K_2 CO_3$ (Scheme 31, step 3). Finally, reductive elimination (step 4) regenerates the copper catalyst delivering the desired product 45.

2.1.2.2.2 Csp³-H functionalization

The current literature dealing with non-directed C-H functionalization of a glycosidic ${\rm Csp}^3{\rm -H}$ bond into a C-C bond proceeds with no exception through intramolecular pathways. Most of the examples use a rhodium-catalyzed carbene insertion process. The pioneers in this domain were Kim et al., in 2000, who used this reactivity for the synthesis of C2-branched nucleosides. They developed a diastereoselective regioselective [1,5]-C-H insertion of 2-deoxy-nucleosides bearing a diazoacetate moiety on the hydroxyl in position 3 (compounds 46, Eq1, Scheme 32). 66 In the presence of dirhodium tetraacetate, 46 was transformed into fused butyrolactones 47 in moderate to good yields (58% to 80%) and diastereoselectivities (90 to 96%) in favor of the exo isomer. The preference for this exo isomer is explained by the authors by a potential steric hindrance between proton in position 1 and R during the process. These conditions were successfully applied to a constraint nucleoside presenting a tertiary Csp3-H bond in position 2.

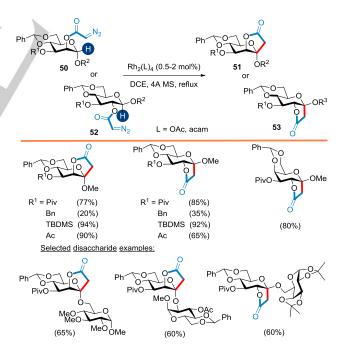
Eq1: Kim et al. 2000 Rh₂(OAc)₄ (1 mol%) DCM. reflux 0 R²O $R^2 = TBDPS$ U. R = OMe (72%) U (75%) OEt (70%) T, R = OMe (70%) B = uracil U (69%) thymine T (64%) OEt (65%) = OMe (71%) cytosine C (58%) adenine A (66%) A. R = OMe (80%) Eq2: Norris et al. 2002 Rh2(OAc)4 DCM 48

Scheme 32. Non-directed Csp³-H functionalization of furanose-type glycosides,

In 2002, Norris *et al.* extended this reactivity to a glycofuranose compound **48** presenting a similar diazo moiety in position 3 (Eq2, Scheme 32). ⁶⁷ The tertiary *C2*-H bond was functionalized to form bicycle **49** in a modest 47% yield. The possible isomer where a six-membered ring would be formed by

functionalization of the activated C1-H, for example, was not observed.

In the 2010s, Lecourt et al. took advantage of this rhodiumcatalyzed carbene insertion reactivity to propose a stereospecific route to both α - and β -ketopyranosides. ⁶⁸ Starting from an O2diazoacetate α-mannopyranose 50, they regioselectively quaternized the anomeric C-H bond via an intramolecular 1,5-C-H insertion process leading to bicyclic compound 51 in modest to excellent yields (Eq1, Scheme 33) depending on the nature of the protecting groups. By the same way, they proposed an access to β -ketopyranosides 53 by the intramolecular cyclization of an O2-diazoacetate β-gluco- or β-galacto-pyranose 52 (Eq 1, Scheme 33). They showed that a low catalyst loading (0.5 to 2 mol%), a highly diluted suspension of the catalyst, a precise amount of freshly activated molecular sieves as well as vigorous stirring and a slow addition of the substrate are essential to obtain the best results without undesired dimerization byproducts. Moreover, the influence of the protecting group at position 3, close to the reactive site, was clearly demonstrated since a sterically-demanded silylated or ester group led in good to excellent yields, whereas products bearing a benzyl group were generated in modest yields due to side reactivities (1,7-C-H insertion into the benzylic position or competitive dimerization). disaccharide-type α - and β -ketopyranosides successfully obtained via this method. The authors could also adapt this protocol on a gram-scale level. Mechanistically, the process is expected to run via the decomposition of the diazo functional group mediated by the rhodium(II) salts, which then delivers a metal carbene intermediate. Further ring-opening functionalization under Lewis-acid conditions of compounds 51 and 53 were finally presented. Very recently, Lecourt et al. applied this methodology to access C-branched glucopyranoses, quaternized in position 5 (Eq 2, Scheme 33). 69 By the same strategy, they placed the diazoacetate functionality on the position 6. They revealed that the choice of the protecting groups of the position 2, 3 and 4 was crucial both to avoid side reactions and to deactivate the non-desired adjacent C-H bonds.



Scheme 33. Lecourt *et al.* non-directed Csp³–H quaternization of glycopyranosides.

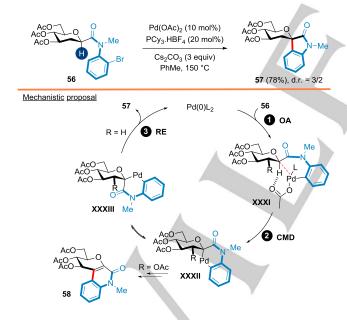
Nevertheless, they observed that the success of this reactivity was dependent on the anomeric configuration. Indeed, whereas a β configuration led to 55 in 70% yield, the α

compound led only to mixtures where low amount of **55** was accompanied to dimers and 1,4-C-H insertion product. They explain this trend by the possibility that anomeric effect in the α compound could deactivate the C5-H bond.

AcO
$$N_2$$
 N_2 N_3 N_4 N_5 N_4 N_5 N_5 N_5 N_6 N_6

Scheme 34. Lecourt *et al.* non-directed Csp³-H quaternization of the position 5 on glycopyranosides.

In 2017, Messaoudi et al. investigated the intramolecular arylation of 2-bromophenyl glycosylcarboxamide substrates (Scheme 35) in the presence of palladium catalysts. 70 In the case of a peracetylated 2-deoxy glucoanalogue 56, they described an intramolecular Pd-catalyzed selective anomeric C-H activation leading to glucosylspirooxindole 57 in very good yield as a mixture of two diastereoisomers α and β (d.r. = 3:2). Acetyl protecting groups appear to be crucial in the success of the process since a perbenzylated- or a protecting group-free analogue failed to furnish the corresponding spirocompound in the same conditions. Supported by DFT calculations, the authors proposed that the process starts by an oxidative addition of Pd(0) into the C-Br bond of the carboxamide moiety, followed by ligand exchange leading to intermediate XXXI (Scheme 35) where the palladium atom is spatially close to the anomeric C-H bond. Via a concerted metalation deprotonation (CMD) mechanism, a palladium C-enolate is then formed (equilibrium between the two diastereoisomers XXXII and XIII).



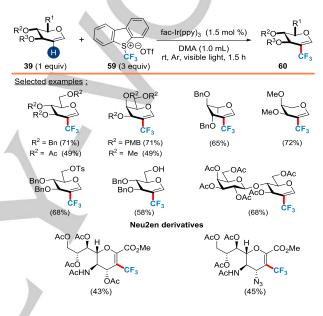
Scheme 35. Messaoudi's intramolecular arylation of 2-deoxyglucosylcarboxamide **56**.

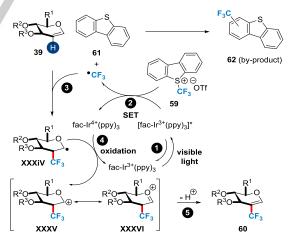
From these species, a reductive elimination process furnishes $\bf 57$ in the case of a 2-deoxy starting substrate (R = H). Indeed, when R = OAc, **XXXII** evolved to glucal $\bf 58$ through a three-step process involving a 1,2 Pd-migration, followed by a reductive elimination, and finally an anti-HOAc elimination (Scheme $\bf 35$).

2.2. Dual photoredox

2.2.1. Csp²-H functionalization

Photoredox catalysis became very attractive these last decades and is described as a mild, efficient and practical transformation. In 2015, a photoredox process was used by Ye et al. for the direct C-H trifluoromethylation of glycals (Scheme 36). This photocatalytic reaction needs the presence of fac-Ir³+(ppy)³ as photocatalyst, Umemoto's reagent (CF³ source) and a visible light source. This trifluoromethylation was applied on a wide range of glycals, with both electron-withdrawing and donating protecting groups, and allows the formation of 17 products in moderate to good yields (49-78%). On top of that, two glycal derived drugs, namely Neu2en derivatives, were synthesized in 43 and 45% yields.





Scheme 37. Ye *et al.* plausible mechanism for C-H functionalization *via* photoredox trifluoromethylation.

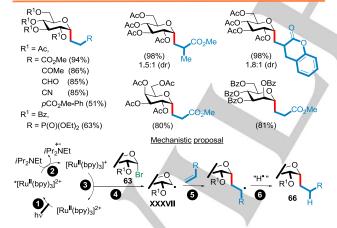
Furthermore, they investigated the reaction mechanism with a series of experiments. In this respect, a possible mechanism illustrated in Scheme 37 was proposed. Firstly, the emission of a photon from the light source, accepted by fac-lr³+(ppy)₃, induces the excited state [fac-lr³+(ppy)₃]*. Then a single electron from latter is transferred to the CF₃ reagent and

generates the electron deficient intermediate $fac-Ir^{4+}(ppy)_3$, CF_3 radical and **61**. A small amount of trifluoromethylated dibenzothiophene **62** was observed, resulting from the freeradical aromatic substitution reaction of dibenzothiophene with the CF_3 radical. The addition of CF_3 radical to the double bond of the glycal leads to the glycal **XXXIV**, which undergoes an oxidation by $fac-Ir^{4+}(ppy)_3$, regenerating $fac-Ir^{3+}(ppy)_3$ in the catalytic cycle, and forming the glycosyl oxocarbenium ion **XXXV**. Finally, the intermediate **XXXV** or **XXXVI** furnishes the desired compound **60** by deprotonation.

2.2.2. Csp³–H functionalization

In the 2010s, Gagné et al. used the well-known capacity to form anomeric radical species from glycosyl bromides 63 to perform intermolecular additions with electron-deficient alkenes mediated by visible light. 72 Indeed, [Ru(bpy)3](BF4) as photocatalyst in combination with visible light led to the formation of C1 sugar radicals which can react with alkenes 64 and furnish exclusively α -C-glycosides 66 in modest to excellent yields (Scheme 38). A key parameter to suppress side reactivities (oligomerization, hydrolysis) was to use Hantzsch as a proton donor in highly dichloromethane solution. *N*,*N*-diisopropylethylamine chosen as the best reductant to effectively run the photocatalyst cycle. Diverse acetate or benzoate protected glucosyl-, mannosyl- or galactosyl-type bromides were successfully used in this process. In terms of alkene partners, several mono- or 1,1-disubstituted compounds were involved but over-conjugate addition was more competitive in the case of highly electron deficient alkenes.

Gram-scale synthesis via flow process with acrolein partner <u>Conditions</u>; Ru(dmb)₃(PF₆)₂ (1 mol%), acrolein (4 equiv), iPr_2 NEt (3 equiv), **65** (2.1 equiv), DCM, hv, rt, 0.12 M, 24 h, 0.1 mL/min, R¹ = Ac, (85%), R¹ = Piv (85%)



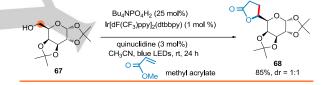
 $\textbf{Scheme 38.} \ \, \textbf{Gagn\'e's photoredox synthesis of C-glycosides}.$

Moreover, this method was scaled up to 1.2 mmol. Several control experiments were performed to understand mechanistic aspects of the reaction. Based on control experiments and EPR measurements, the authors thus proposed the following mechanism: the reaction starts by the irradiation of the photocatalyst which enters in an excited state (*Ru(bpy)₃). This species is then reduced by the amine to generate the reactive strongly reductant ruthenium complex (Ru(bpy)₃⁺) capable to form the *C1* radical in the presence of **63**. Addition of this radical **XXXVII** to the alkene and reduction by Hantzsch ester provide

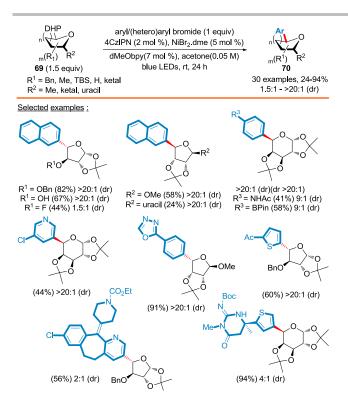
C-glycosides **66** (Scheme 38). Via several experiments, the authors investigated the key parameters of the reaction. The second time, witnessing a possible inefficient photoredox cycle. They demonstrated that, at low concentrations, the reductant (amine) and the catalyst concentration influence the reaction rate, whereas a saturation effect is observed at high concentrations. Moreover, they observed that the presence of water and the use of a hydrophobic catalyst (Ru(dmb)₃) are beneficial to obtain an efficient conversion.

In 2012, Gagné *et al.* developed a continuous flow photoredox equipment which led to an improvement of the TOF value of the process. They observed that a thin diameter of the reaction vessel increases the flux of photons, inducing an increase of the concentration of active catalyst. Their optimized reactor using a 1.6 mm inner diameter tubing and a concentration of 1 mM. By this way, they synthesized two *C*-glycosides on almost 5 g scale using acrolein as alkene partner in 85% yield in the presence of only 1 mol% of ruthenium photocatalyst (Scheme 38). These gram-scale aldehydes were proved to be versatile building blocks for the synthesis of a series of *C*-linked glycoconujugates such as *C*-glycopeptides and *C*-glycolipids.

MacMillan and coworkers reported in 2015 a photoredox α -alkylation/lactonization of alcohols with methyl acrylate via a hydrogen atom transfer mechanism. ⁷⁵ The study was not focused in the reactivity of glycosides but the authors reported in their scope one example with protected sugar **67**. Under the optimized reaction conditions, the lactone alkyl C-glycoside **68** was isolated in 85% yield and 1:1 diastereoselectivity (Scheme 39).

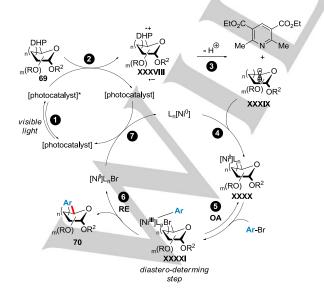


More recently, Dumoulin *et al.* developed a new route for the construction of *C*-aryl/(hetero)arylglycosides *via* a nickel-catalyzed photoredox cross-coupling using aryl/heteroaryl bromides and an organic photocatalyst (Scheme 40). ⁷⁶ They synthesized 30 products **70** in mild conditions in yields ranging between 24 and 94% and diastereoisomeric ratios between 1.5:1 and >20:1.

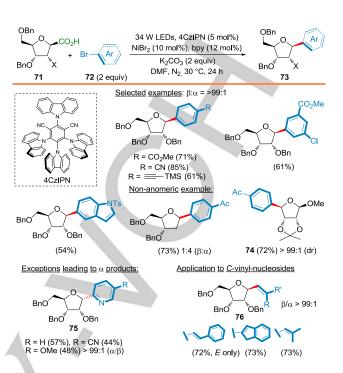


Scheme 40. Dumoulin *et al.* synthesis of *C*-aryl/(hetero)arylglycosides *via* Nickel/Photoredox Dual Catalysis.

They used dihydropyridyl saccharides as radical precursors initiated by the organic photocatalyst in its excited form. Besides, a plausible mechanism was proposed where the photoexcitation of the photocatalyst by blue LEDS initiates the reaction (Scheme 41). Then the resulting radical cation XXXVIII generates by fragmentation an aromatized pyridine derivative and the corresponding radical XXXIX. The active Ni(0) catalyst is complexed to this last species forming a Ni(I)-saccharyl complex XXXX and the aryl bromide is added by oxidative addition yielding the Ni(III) complex XXXXI. Finally, reductive elimination gives both the desired compound 70 but also generates a Ni(I) species which is then reduced to Ni(0) thanks to the reduced form of the photocatalyst allowing in this case generation of both active catalysts.



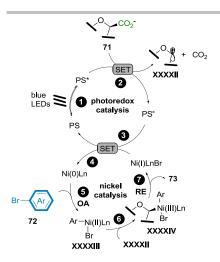
Scheme 41. Dumoulin *et al.* proposed mechanism for synthesis of *C*-aryl/(hetero)arylglycosides *via* Nickel/Photoredox Dual Catalysis.



Scheme 42. Wang and Zhang photoredox/nickel dual catalyzed synthesis of *C*-aryl/vinyl-nucleosides.

Very recently, Wang and Zhang proposed a combination of photoredox and nickel catalysis capable to promote arylation of the anomeric position of ribosyl/deoxyribosyl acids *via* a decarboxylative cross-coupling reaction with aryl/heteroaryl bromides. They developed mild reaction conditions using visible-light irradiation in the presence of an organic photocatalyst (4CzIPN), which led to the synthesis of diverse *C*-aryl/heteroaryl-nucleosides in a highly stereoselective manner in moderate to high yields (Scheme 42).

Their conditions were compatible with both electron-rich electron-poor aryl-heteroaryl bromide partners and benzyl protected starting substrates, but did not tolerate benzoyl protected ribosides. A para-strongly electron-donating group on the bromide decreases the reactivity, as well as a substituent in ortho-position. In term of stereoselectivity, both α and β starting materials led to almost exclusively the β products (>99:1) in high yields, except for β -deoxyribosyl acid which led to low β diastereoselectivity and 2-bromopyridine partners furnished the completely opposite diastereoselectivity α (75, Scheme 41). Moreover, a non-anomeric furanosyl acid was also successfully converted to 74 in the same conditions (Scheme 41). Finally, the authors applied this reactivity to the synthesis of various C-vinyl-nucleosides 76. They could observe the formation of the trans-product exclusively and independently of the conformation of the starting bromide.



Scheme 43. Proposed mechanism for the formation of C-aryl-nucleosides 18.

From a mechanistic point of view, based on control experiments, the authors suggested a photocatalytic cycle starting from the generation of an excited state of the photocatalyst (PS*), which promotes a photo-oxidative decarboxylation reaction of 69, leading to the formation of a key anomeric radical XXXXII. Concomitantly, nickel (0) species, generated by a photoredox process, undergoes an oxidative addition into the bromide partner to form XXXXIII, which reacts with radical XXXXII to furnish intermediate XXXXIV. Finally, reductive elimination process produces product 71 and regenerates the active Ni(0) species and the ground state of the photocatalyst after photoredox reduction (Scheme 43).

3. Conclusion

This review has highlighted the recent progresses achieved on complex sugar substrates using C–H functionalisation and photoredox approaches as two useful methods for the synthesis of C-branched glycosides. These new and sustainable processes have emerged as powerful methodologies, in comparison with former organometallic catalytic routes, offering the advantage of reducing the generation of wastes from the time-consuming preparation of often unstable prefunctionalized substrates. In the span of approximately two years, these processes have become a workhorse for the construction of an array of C–C bonds on the sugar nucleus.

The illustrated methodologies showed the considerable interest that these two emerging tools took in the past years and proved their success for the construction of complex C-branched glycosides. The protocols presented in this review show high efficiency as well as stereo- and regioselectivity, good functional group tolerance and good scalabilities. Future developpement in this field include the development of additional photoredox reactivity involving, for example, more visible-light catalyzed process, electrochemical methodologies, general protocols for C–H activation on tertiary centers, and alkyl-alkyl couplings. The continuation of efforts in these areas will serve to increase further the impact of this rapidly growing field of research and to reach complex glycosides of biological interest.

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Keywords: *C*-glycosides • C–H functionalization • Photoredox dual catalysis • glycals • glycosylation

Lit of abbreviation

N-Q

⁴C₁

de

AD Alzheimer's disease
DNA Deoxyribonucleic acid
α-Gal-Cer α-Galactosylceramide

C57BL/6 mice Common inbred strain of laboratory

mouse

B16 melanoma Murine tumor cell line cells

Nu Nucleophile
Ar Aryl
FG Functional group
DG Directing group
LG Leaving group

 $C-\Delta^{1,2}$ glycosides Glycosides possessing an intracyclic

double bond between the carbon 1 and

2 of the sugar N-quinolyl

TAM Triazolyldimethylmethyl

Schwartz's Bis(cyclopentadienyl)-zirconium(IV)

reagent chloride hydride
OA Oxidative addition
RE Reductive elimination

Chair conformation where carbon 1 is located above the reference plane of the chair, made up by C-2, C-3, C-5 and the ring oxygen and carbon 4 below.

Chair conformation where carbon 4 is located above the reference plane of the chair, made up by C–2, C–3, C–5 and

the ring oxygen and carbon 1 below. Pyridinyl

cod 1,5-Cyclooctadiene
Binap Sodium tetrakis[3,5-

bis(trifluoromethyl)phenyl]borate
Diastereoisomeric excess

Phth Phthalimidyl Ad Adamantyl

DFT Density Functional Theory
BODIPY Boron-dipyrromethene

Ala Alanine
Tzl Triazolyl
Tyr Tyrosine

dr Diastereoisomeric ratio Phen 1,10-Phenanthroline

CMD Concerted metalation deprotonation

 $\begin{array}{lll} \mathsf{BQ} & & p\text{-}\mathsf{Benzoquinone} \\ \mathsf{Pc} & & \mathsf{Phthalocyanine} \\ \mathsf{\beta}\text{-}\mathsf{HE} & & \mathsf{\beta}\text{-}\mathsf{H} \text{ elimination} \\ \mathsf{L} & & \mathsf{Ligand} \\ \mathsf{Cy} & & \mathsf{Cyclohexyl} \\ \mathsf{ppy} & & 2\text{-}\mathsf{Phenylpyridine} \end{array}$

Umemoto's 5-(Trifluoromethyl)dibenzothiophenium

reagent trifluoromethanesulfonate

Neu2en 2,3-Unsaturated *N*-acetylneuraminic acid

SET Single Electron Transfer

Bpy 2,2'-Bipyridine

Hantzsch ester Diethyl 1,4-dihydro-2,6-dimethyl-3,5-

pyridinedicarboxylate 4,4'-dimethyl-2,2'-bipyridine Electron paramagnetic resonance

TOF Turnover Frequency

4CzIPN 1,2,3,5-Tetrakis(carbazol-9-yl)-4,6-

Dmb

EPR

dicyanobenzene LED Light-emitting diode PS Photocatalyst

PS* Excited state of the photocatalyst

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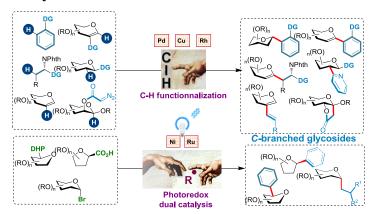
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Entry for the Table of Contents



This review highlight the major progresses on C–H functionalization and dual photoredox catalysis as two powerful approaches for the synthesis of *C*-branched glycosides.

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