

Valentine Nenajdenko *Editor*

Fluorine in Heterocyclic Chemistry Volume 1

5-Membered Heterocycles and
Macrocycles

 Springer

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Preface

Why Fluorine in Heterocyclic Chemistry?

Organofluorine chemistry is almost as old as organic chemistry. First organofluorine compound synthesized ever was a very simple compound. In 1835, Dumas prepared fluoromethane by the reaction of potassium fluoride with dimethyl sulfate. Therefore, organofluorine chemistry is only 7 years younger than organic chemistry, which started its history from urea synthesis by Wöler in 1828. For more than one century the development of organofluorine chemistry has been not very active. Maybe the most important impulse was done by weapon chemists mainly in USA, USSR and UK before and after the Second World War. After that new fluorinated reagents appeared to intensify the development in the field of fluorinated organic compounds. As a result this part of organic chemistry started its enormous growth.

Another milestone in this field was the synthesis of 5-fluorouracil by Heidelberger in 1957. It was demonstrated that 5-fluorouracil works as antineoplastic agent being antimetabolite of natural uracil. It was the first fluorinated synthetic drug. Nowadays fluorine substitution is a commonly used tool in medicinal chemistry and agrochemistry. The presence of fluorine can result in substantial functional changes in the biological as well as physicochemical properties of organic compounds. Incorporation of fluorine into drug molecules can greatly affect their physicochemical properties, such as bond strength, lipophilicity, bioavailability, conformation, electrostatic potential, dipole moment, pKa etc. as well as pharmacokinetic properties, such as tissue distribution, rate of metabolism and pharmacological properties, such as pharmacodynamics and toxicology.

The main part of modern marketed drugs are heterocyclic compounds of various types. Fluorinated heterocycles are becoming increasingly important in many areas including the pharmaceutical industry, materials science and agriculture. To reflect the importance of this topic, two excellent books (Petrov V.A. (ed.) *Fluorinated Heterocyclic Compounds: Synthesis, Chemistry, and Applications*. 2009, Wiley; and Gakh A., Kirk K.L. (eds.) *Fluorinated Heterocycles*. 2009, ACS) and a number of nice reviews have been published recently.

The present work combines comprehensive information on the chemistry of the fluorinated heterocycles of interest to synthetic organic chemists in general, and particularly for those colleagues working in the fields of heterocyclic-compound chemistry, materials chemistry, medicinal chemistry, and fluorine chemistry. All information is presented and classified clearly to be effective source for broad auditory of chemists. The main feature of this book is classification based on the type of heterocycle. I believe that separate presentation of each type of heterocycles makes clear reading, operation and search through this book to be helpful for readers. I hope that this book will be also interesting for scientists working in the field of inorganic and coordination chemistry as well as materials science.

It is a great honor and pleasure for me to be the editor of this book. I would like to thank all the contributors for their excellent chapters. These outstanding scientists are known experts in this field. Thank you very much for your efforts and your time! This book is a result of worldwide cooperation of contributors from many countries. I would like also to thank all my collaborators at Springer for help to realize this project.

I wish to dedicate this book to my wife Svetlana and our daughters Liza and Zhenya. Their support is really invaluable for me.

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Tactical Applications of Fluorine in Drug Design and Development

Nicholas A. Meanwell, Kyle J. Eastman, and Eric P. Gillis

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Abstract The increasing utilization of fluorine in drug design parallels advances in understanding the physicochemical attributes of this element and an enhanced appreciation of how these unique properties can be exploited to address the numerous challenges encountered in pharmaceutical candidate optimization. Judicious placement of fluorine in a candidate compound can markedly affect potency, increase metabolic stability and enhance membrane permeability. The powerful electron-withdrawing nature of fluorine serves to modulate the pK_a of proximal functionality, particularly basic amines, and can be an important tool for controlling physical properties. Fluorine also exerts a conformation bias that is significant and can be utilized strategically. The ^{18}F isotope is of particular importance in positron

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emitting tomography (PET), an imaging technique of increasing importance for assessing drug-target engagement in both preclinical and clinical settings. This chapter provides a synopsis of some of the prominent and emerging applications of fluorine in the design and optimization of biologically active molecules.

Keywords *Gauche* interaction • Fluorine and basicity • Fluorine and conformation • Fluorine and hydrogen-bonding • Fluorine and membrane permeability • Fluorine and metabolic stability • Positron emitting tomography imaging

1 Introduction

Fluorine is a remarkable and unique atom capable of imparting a myriad of advantageous properties to small molecules, particularly in the context of medicinal chemistry. Over the last five decades the knowledge and understanding of this almost “magical” substituent has been enhanced substantially. Ever improving technologies for the installation of fluorine into novel small molecules facilitate attempts to utilize fluorine to address numerous challenges encountered in drug design: conformational control; modulating pK_a ; improving metabolic stability, solubility, permeability and potency; or tracking the distribution of a compound *in vivo* using positron emission tomography (PET) imaging. Recently, fluorine has found utility in fragment-based drug design by taking advantage of the ^{19}F NMR signal to both identify fragments that bind to targeted sites and to probe the presence of fluorophilic environments in proteins [1–3]. The applications of fluorine in medicinal chemistry continue to increase and its strategic deployment is considerably less empirical than it once was. However, there remains much to be understood regarding this privileged atom and its ability to aid in the fine tuning of pharmacodynamic (PD) and pharmacokinetic (PK) properties.

Fluorine is the most abundant halogen in the earth’s crust (and ranks 13th in abundance of all elements), but this has not translated into a proportional prevalence among naturally occurring organic compounds. There are only a handful of natural products known to contain fluorine, attributed to the fact that fluorine is found naturally in insoluble forms that are not readily available [4].

For example, seawater concentrations of fluoride have been measured at 1.3 ppm compared to ubiquitous chloride concentrations which are 1,900 ppm. Another factor contributing to the dearth of fluorine in organic molecules is the extremely high heat of hydration of fluoride [5]. Fluoride is heavily hydrated in water rendering it weakly nucleophilic and thus limiting its role in direct displacement chemistry. The high heat of hydration of fluoride relative to other halides is principally responsible for the inordinately high energy needed to generate F^+ from aqueous F^- [6]. This key difference from other halides precludes incorporation of fluorine into natural products *via* the haloperoxidase reaction that is a common pathway for the incorporation of chlorine, bromine and iodine [7, 8].

Despite the low concentrations of fluorine available on land and in the sea, some marine and terrestrial organisms can accumulate significant quantities of inorganic fluorine. However, the presence of organo-bound fluorine has only been identified in a

handful of tropical and sub-tropical terrestrial plants and in only two microorganisms. A great deal of effort has gone into the elucidation of the biosynthesis of fluorine-containing natural products [8–11]. The most prominent example is the synthesis of highly toxic fluoroacetic acid by the bacterium *Streptomyces cattleya* from *S*-adenosyl-L-methionine and fluoride mediated by the enzyme 5'-fluoro-5'-deoxy adenosine synthetase [9–11]. However, to date there is no evidence to support the *de novo* synthesis of the C-F bond in the animal or insect kingdoms [4]. Indeed, caterpillars of the moth *Sindus albimaculatus* acquire trifluoroacetate from their host plant, *Dichapetalum cymosum*, in concentrations that render them toxic to predators [12]. It is interesting that despite the scarcity of fluorine-containing compounds found in the natural world, fluorine plays a prominent and ever increasing role in contemporary drug design.

One of the earliest synthetic fluorinated drugs is 5-fluorouracil, an antimetabolite synthesized for the first time in 1957 (Fig. 1) [13]. Since that discovery, the

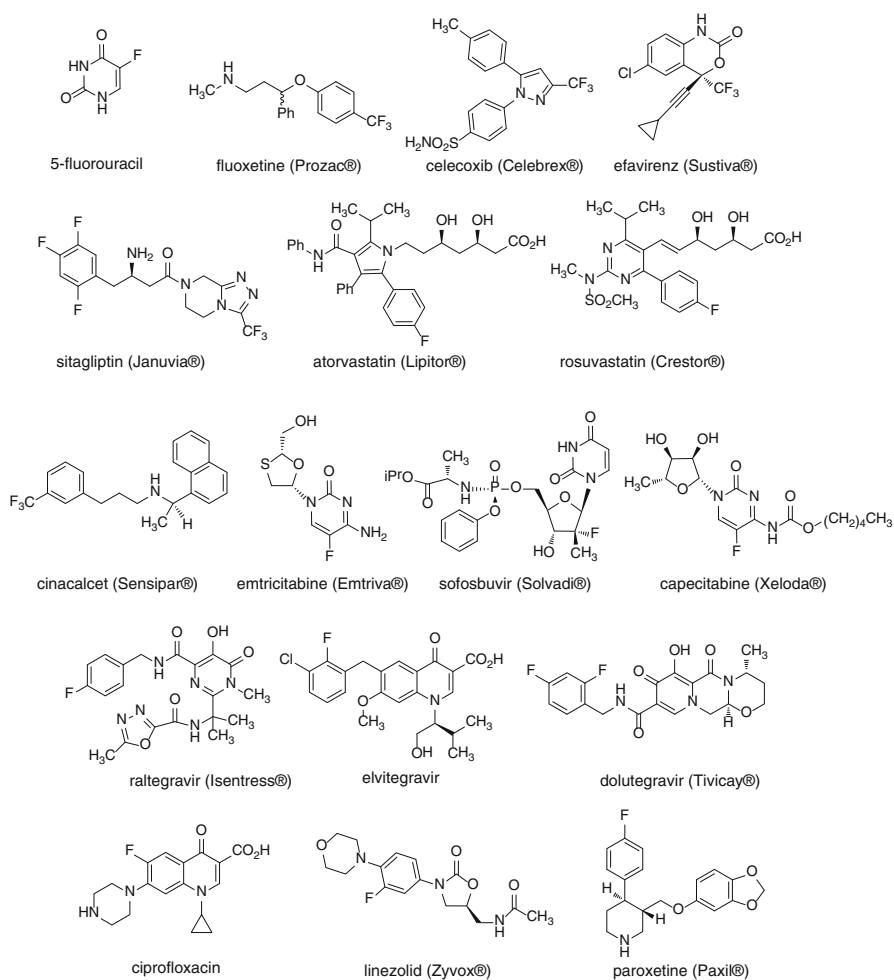


Fig. 1 (a, b) Examples of fluorine-containing drugs

deployment of fluorine in small molecule drug candidates has grown, as have the technologies to install this atom. Today, 20–25 % of marketed drugs contain fluorine, including blockbusters such as fluoxetine (Prozac®, depression), celecoxib (Celebrex®, arthritis), efavirenz (Sustiva®, human immunodeficiency virus (HIV)), sitagliptin (Januvia®, diabetes), atorvastatin (Lipitor®, dyslipidemia), rosuvastatin (Crestor®, dyslipidemia), cinacalcet (Sensipar®, hyperparathyroidism) and the nucleosides emtricitabine (Emtriva®, HIV). Other prominent fluorinated drugs include sofosbuvir (Solvadi®), capecitabine (Xeloda®, breast and colorectal cancer), the HIV integrase inhibitors raltegravir (Isentress®, HIV), elvitegravir (HIV) and dolutegravir (Tivicay®), ciprofloxacin, the prototypical fluoroquinolone antibiotic, linezolid (Zyvox®, antibiotic) and paroxetine (Paxil®, antidepressant). The objective of this chapter is to provide an overview of the impactful nature of fluorine on drug discovery as it is currently understood.

2 Fluorine and Conformation in Drug Design

The high electronegativity of fluorine is responsible for the strong polarization of the C-F bond, manifested as the highest measured dipole in organic molecules at 1.85 D for CH₃F. This phenomenon can strongly influence the interaction of C-F with a range of proximal functionality [14–22].

Depending on the nature of the functionality, these effects can be of sufficient magnitude to significantly affect conformational preferences, and can be exploited in the design of both drugs and organocatalysts [21, 22]. The basis for these intramolecular effects include dipole-dipole interactions, attractive electrostatic effects, repulsive effects between F and another electronegative atom, p-orbital repulsion, and a hyperconjugative effect in which the C-H bond of an adjacent atom interacts with the low lying σ^* orbital of the C-F bond [21–23]. An understanding of the interactive relationship between F and a range of organic functional groups has been developed using density functional theory (DFT) calculations that provide some instruction on potential utility and applications [23]. Table 1 captures the predicted energy of an individual interaction and offers a possible explanation for the preferred conformation based on the underlying physical chemistry [23]. Whilst several of these specific structural elements are of limited interest in drug design and the inherent energy of some interactions are too low to be of significance in the absence of additional reinforcing effects, the underlying physical organic chemistry principles offer considerable insight into the role that fluorine plays in influencing conformation. The most prominent functionality for which the energy of interaction with fluorine is such that the effect might be gainfully exploited in drug design are the amine, alcohol and amide moieties [21, 22].

Table 1 Calculated energy differences between the *gauche* and *anti* conformers of substituted fluoroethanes

R	Δ energy <i>gauche-anti</i> (kcal mol ⁻¹) B3LYP	Δ energy <i>gauche-anti</i> (kcal mol ⁻¹) M05-2X	Preferred conformer	Difference in dipole between the <i>gauche</i> and <i>anti</i> conformers (D)	Interaction underlying the predicted effect
-NH ₃ ⁺	-6.65	-7.37	Strongly <i>gauche</i>	NA	Electrostatic F δ^- and NH ₃ ⁺ δ^+
-NO ₂	-1.22	-1.12	Strongly <i>gauche</i>	4.42	Anti-parallel δ^- -FC-H and N δ^+ -O δ^- ; F δ^- and N
-NCHO	-1.00	-1.12	Strongly <i>gauche</i>	4.53	Electrostatic C-F δ^- and N-H δ^+
-F	-0.82	-0.66	Strongly <i>gauche</i>	3.02	σ C(F)-H to σ^* C-F
-N ₃	-0.76	-1.21	Strongly <i>gauche</i>	3.42	Electrostatic C-F δ^- and central N δ^+
-N=C=O	-0.74	-1.06	Strongly <i>gauche</i>	3.97	Electrostatic C-F δ^- and C=O C δ^+
-CH=NH	-0.25	-0.65	Strongly <i>gauche</i>	3.62	
-CH ₃	-0.18	-0.35	Weakly <i>gauche</i>	2.11	
-CH=CH ₂	-0.01	-0.17	Weakly <i>gauche</i>	1.95	
-C \equiv N	0.64	-0.64	Strongly <i>anti</i>	4.68	p orbital repulsion
-CHO	0.84	-1.20	Strongly <i>anti</i>	3.82	p orbital repulsion and anti-parallel dipole: C=O δ^- ... δ^+ HCF δ^-
-C \equiv CH	0.98	-1.03	Strongly <i>anti</i>	2.18	p orbital repulsion

2.1 Fluorine-Fluorine Interactions

The conformation of fluoroalkane derivatives is of considerable contemporary interest. The influence of fluorine on the conformation of vicinally substituted compounds is based on a stabilizing *gauche* interaction that relies upon hyperconjugation between a C-H bond and the low lying σ^* orbital of the C-F bond. The energy of this interaction is estimated to be 0.8 kcal mol⁻¹, modest but

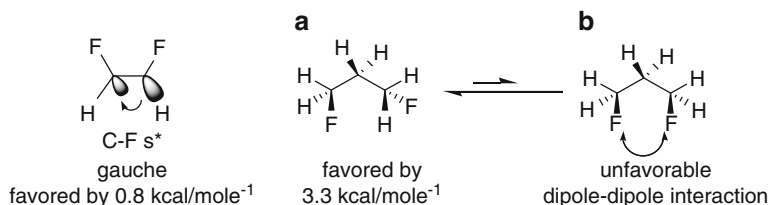


Fig. 2 (a) Conformation of 1,2-difluoroalkane, (b) conformational preference of 1,3-difluoropropane

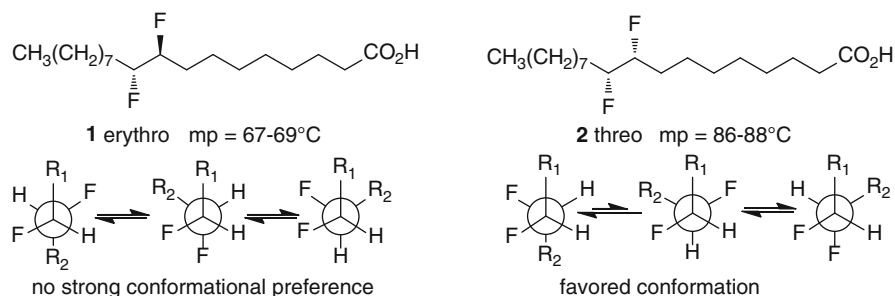


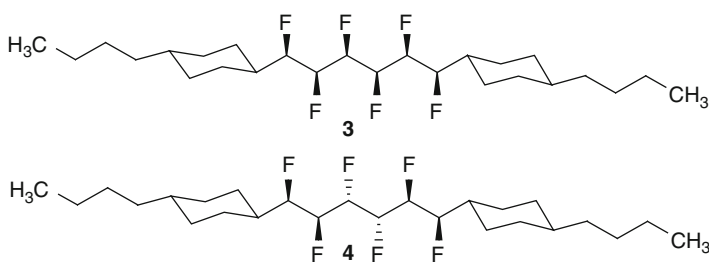
Fig. 3 *erythro*- and *threo*-9,10-difluorostearic acid **1** and **2** and Newman projections capturing their preferred conformations

nevertheless sufficient to exert an influence on conformation [21, 24] (Fig. 2a). In addition, there is a destabilizing repulsion between fluorine atoms in a 1,3-relationship that is of higher energy and which minimizes unfavorable dipole-dipole interactions [21, 24, 25]. The preferred conformation of 1,3-difluoropropane shown in Fig. 2b is estimated to be $3.3 \text{ kcal/mol}^{-1}$ more stable than the alternative [21, 24, 25].

An interesting example of the effect of the preference for a *gauche* arrangement of vicinal fluorine atoms on physical properties is provided by the two diastereomers of 9,10-difluorostearic acid, **1** (*erythro*) and **2** (*threo*), which were carefully synthesized in a fashion that ensured stereochemical integrity (Fig. 3) [24, 26]. These molecules differ only by the stereogenicity of the fluorine atom at C-10 yet their melting points differ by $20 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, with the *erythro* isomer **1** melting at $67\text{--}69 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ while for *threo* isomer **2**, the melting point is $86\text{--}88 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$. The *threo* isomer **2** was anticipated to be the more stable isomer, with the fully extended form favored by the conformational preference exerted by the *gauche* interaction between the two F atoms, a conformation similar to that adopted by the native fatty acid. Langmuir isotherm measurements confirmed the similarity between **2** and stearic acid whilst the *erythro* isomer **1** displayed significant disorder, consistent with the lower melting point [24, 26]. In the Newman projections about the C9-C10 bond of **1**, the stabilizing effect of the *gauche*-disposed F atoms is offset by unfavorable

interactions between the two carbon chains such that none of the conformations are preferred although all are accessible.

Derivatives in which the vicinal difluoromethylene motif is extended to include 3, 4, 5 and 6 fluorine atoms have been examined to determine conformational preferences [24]. The most sophisticated study focused on the hexafluoromethylene motif, carefully assembled in the diastereomers **3** and **4**, that extended earlier studies on tetra- and pentafluoro alkanes [24, 27]. The conformation of these compounds, both in the solid state and in solution, indicates that in order to avoid unfavorable 1,3-dipolar interactions between F atoms, **3** adopts a helical topography that simultaneously allows the vicinal fluorine atoms to adopt the preferred *gauche* arrangement. The same effect favors an extended *anti* conformation for **4** that presents no unfavorable 1,3-dipolar interactions and facilitates 3 out of 5 possible *gauche* arrangements of the vicinal fluorine atoms [24, 27].



2.2 Fluorine-Amide Interactions

The conformation of α -fluoro-substituted amides is dominated by dipole-dipole interactions between the C-F and C=O bonds, with additional support from a productive electrostatic interaction between the fluorine atom and the amide NH if the molecule is configured appropriately [20, 28–33]. The synthesis and analysis of the enantiomers of α -fluoro capsaicin (**6**) as vanilloid receptor agonists is illustrative of the potential to take advantage of this kind of effect in drug design. *Ab initio* calculations of the rotational energy profile of 2-fluoro-*N*-methylpropanamide indicated that the *trans* conformer was the most stable with a 6 kcal mol⁻¹ advantage over the *gauche* conformer which was 2 kcal mol⁻¹ more stable than the *cis* conformer (Fig. 4) [28, 29, 33]. The stability of the *trans* conformation is attributed to a favorable alignment of the C-F and C=O bond dipoles supported by a productive electrostatic interaction between the F and amide H atoms. In the case of **6**, the (*R*) and (*S*)-enantiomers would be expected to adopt conformations that stereo-differentiated the side chain projection vectors, potentially providing insight into the bound conformation of the natural **5** [33].

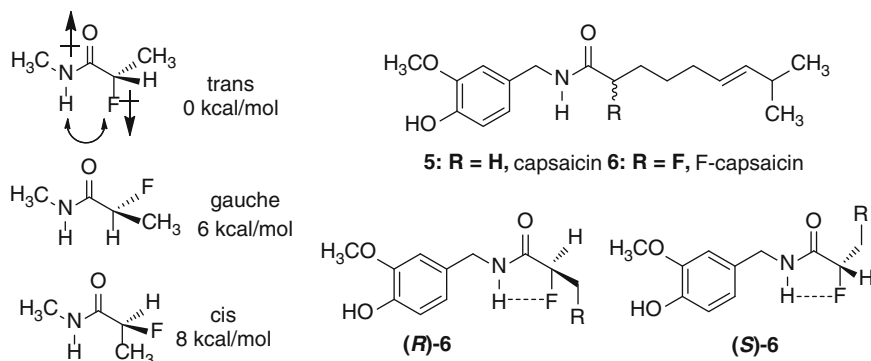
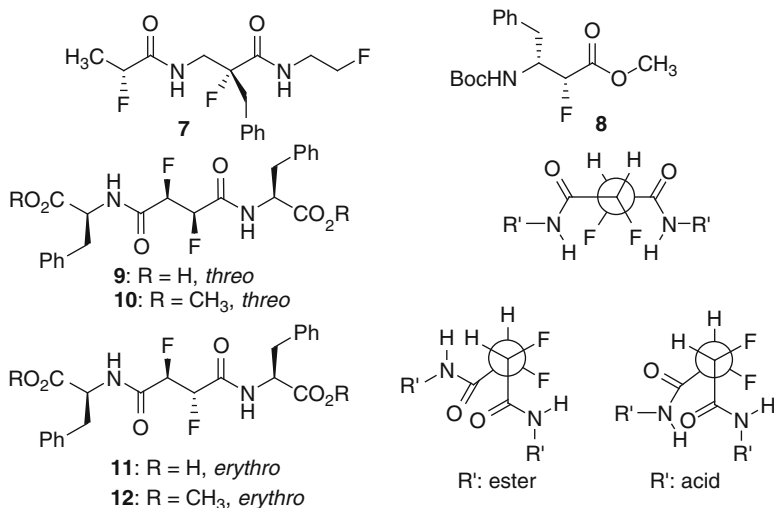


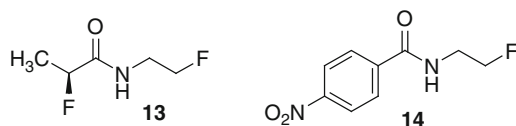
Fig. 4 *Ab initio* energies of conformers of *N*-methyl-2-fluoropropanamide. Potential conformation of (*R*) and (*S*)- α -fluoro capsaicin (**6**) at the TRPV1 receptor explored by these molecules

However, both the (*R*) and (*S*)-enantiomers of **6** performed similarly as TRPV1 receptor agonists, leading to the conclusion that the conformation captured by **5** in Fig. 4 in which the alkyl side chains project in vectors parallel to each other and in the plane defined by the amide moiety represents that of the natural product rather than that in which the alkyl chains project orthogonally to the plane of the amide, as depicted in (*R*)-**6** and (*S*)-**6** in Fig. 4 [33].

A study examining the effect of fluorination on the conformational preferences of β -peptide derivatives installed the fluorine atom α - to the amide carbonyl, a topology that simultaneously placed the F β - to the amine moiety. This structural arrangement allowed an analysis of the roles of the dipole-dipole effect between F and C=O and the *gauche* interaction between vicinally-deployed F and amide moieties [34]. X-ray crystallographic structures of the synthesized compounds revealed that the C-F and C=O bonds aligned in an *anti*-periplanar conformation to satisfy the dipole interactions whilst the F and amide moieties adopted the anticipated *gauche* arrangement [34, 35]. In the representative compound **7**, the torsion angle associated with the fluoropropionamide moiety in the solid state was -172.46° whilst that for the other α -fluoroamide was -179.7° . For the internal F-CH₂-CH₂-NHCO element, a torsion angle of -73.7° satisfied a *gauche* arrangement; however, in this particular example the F atom of the terminal NH-CH₂-CH₂-F moiety was disordered, interpreted as an effect of packing forces overcoming a *gauche* preference calculated to be $1.8 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ [34, 35]. In the ester **8**, the torsion angle between the F atom and the ester C=O moiety was 154.5° , reflecting a reduced preference that is based on the weaker dipole associated with an ester that manifests as a calculated stabilization energy for the *anti*-periplanar form of $4.5 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$, which compares to $7.5 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ for an α -fluoro amide and $2.2 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ for an α -fluoro ketone [20, 28, 29, 35, 36].



The difluoro succinamide esters **9** (*threo*) and **11** (*erythro*) and the corresponding acids **10** (*threo*) and **12** (*erythro*) were prepared and the solid state structures determined which revealed conformational differences that were reflected in the preservation of a vicinal F-F *gauche* interaction in all 4 molecules [31, 32]. In the case of **11**, one of the fluorine-carbonyl pairs adopted a higher energy conformation that sacrificed the dipole-preferred *anti*-periplanar arrangement whilst in **9**, **10**, and **12** all arrangements between F and the C=O moieties were in, or very close, to the preferred *anti*-periplanar topography [31, 32]. NMR studies that analyzed $^3J_{\text{HF}}$ and $^3J_{\text{HH}}$ coupling constants revealed that these conformations were also prevalent in solution, underscoring the influence of the F-*gauche* effect.



The preference for a *gauche* relationship between fluorine and the N-CO moiety observed in **7** and **8** is of broader significance as a conformational tool. In the solid state, the conformation of 2-fluoro-*N*-(2-fluoroethyl)-propionamide (**13**) reflects a *gauche* relationship between the fluorine and NH-CO moieties, torsion angle = -69.9° , whilst the F atom α - to the amide carbonyl is aligned in a fashion consistent with the preferred dipole interactions in which the two are *anti*-periplanar, torsion angle = 2° [29]. A similar phenomenon is observed with **14** [35].

A particularly striking example of the *gauche* effect in β -fluoroamides is provided by the two 4-F proline diastereomers **15** and **16**. Here the fluorine atom exerts a significant influence on the conformational mobility of this unique amino acid, providing insight into the stabilizing influences of 4-hydroxyproline (**17**, Hyp), prevalent in the natural protein collagen [22]. Collagen is comprised of repeat units of Xaa-Yaa-Gly in which Xaa and Yaa are frequently proline or 4-(*R*)-Hyp. The polypeptide associates into a tightly-wound triple helix fibril, the thermal stability of which is enhanced by the presence of the hydroxyl substituent [37–42]. Although this phenomenon was initially attributed to the H-bonding properties of the hydroxyl moiety, a triple helix assembled from (Pro-4-(*R*)-F-Pro-Gly)₁₀ exhibits a CD spectrum identical to (Pro-Hyp-Gly)₁₀ or (Pro-Pro-Gly)₁₀ with all spectral data consistent with triple helix formation [37]. These observations support the conclusion that the stabilizing effect of Hyp (**17**) is based on an inductive effect rather than H-bonding. Following this observation, additional studies have evaluated the consequence of substituting the Xaa and Yaa positions with **15** and **16** rather than proline and Hyp (**17**), with the results leading to a deeper understanding of collagen conformation [38–43]. Proline has an inherent preference for the C γ -endo conformation, calculated as 0.41 kcal mol⁻¹, which favors this conformer by 2:1 at room temperature (Fig. 5) [44]. The introduction of a 4-(*S*)-F substituent (**16**) augments this preference, increasing the stability to a difference of 0.61 kcal mol⁻¹, stabilized by the *gauche* effect between the F and amide moieties that facilitates a conformation in which the F atom adopts an axial disposition (Fig. 5) [43, 44]. This effect is manifested in the single crystal X-ray of Boc-4-(*S*)-fluoroproline [43]. However, in 4-(*R*)-fluoroproline (**15**) the C γ -exo conformation is favored by 0.85 kcal mol⁻¹, stabilized by the *gauche* effect between the F and amide moieties that also disposes the F atom axially [44]. This phenomenon is mimicked by Hyp (**17**) where the C γ -exo conformer is calculated to be 0.48 kcal mol⁻¹ more stable than the C γ -endo conformer [45]. These insights provide an explanation for the structural similarity of (Pro-4-(*R*)-F-Pro-Gly)₁₀, (Pro-Hyp-Gly)₁₀ and (Pro-Pro-Gly)₁₀. Additionally, in **15**–**17** the *E*_{trans} isomer of the peptide bond is calculated to be more stable than the *E*_{cis} isomer regardless of the ring pucker, with the energy differences providing a stability hierarchy of 4-(*R*)-Pro > Pro > 4-(*S*)-Pro (Fig. 5) [38, 44]. The preference for an *E*_{trans} geometry has been attributed to this conformation allowing a favorable n- π^* interaction between the O atom of the C=O moiety bound to the ring N atom and the C=O carbon of the exocyclic amide, as depicted in Fig. 5 [38, 46–48].

Molecular modeling studies have suggested that when proline is in the Xaa position of a (Pro-Pro-Gly)₁₀ helical strand, it adopts a C γ -endo pucker but when in the Yaa position a C γ -exo conformation is preferred, consistent with the observations noted above that (Pro-4-(*R*)-F-Pro-Gly)₁₀, (Pro-Hyp-Gly)₁₀ and (Pro-Pro-Gly)₁₀ form stable helical complexes [39, 49]. When a substituted proline is installed at the Xaa position, the conformational preference for the C γ -endo conformation would suggest that 4-(*S*)-F-Pro would function to form a collagen-like helix structure but the 4-(*R*)-F-Pro diastereomer would not based on their conformational bias [39, 43]. This has been observed experimentally with both

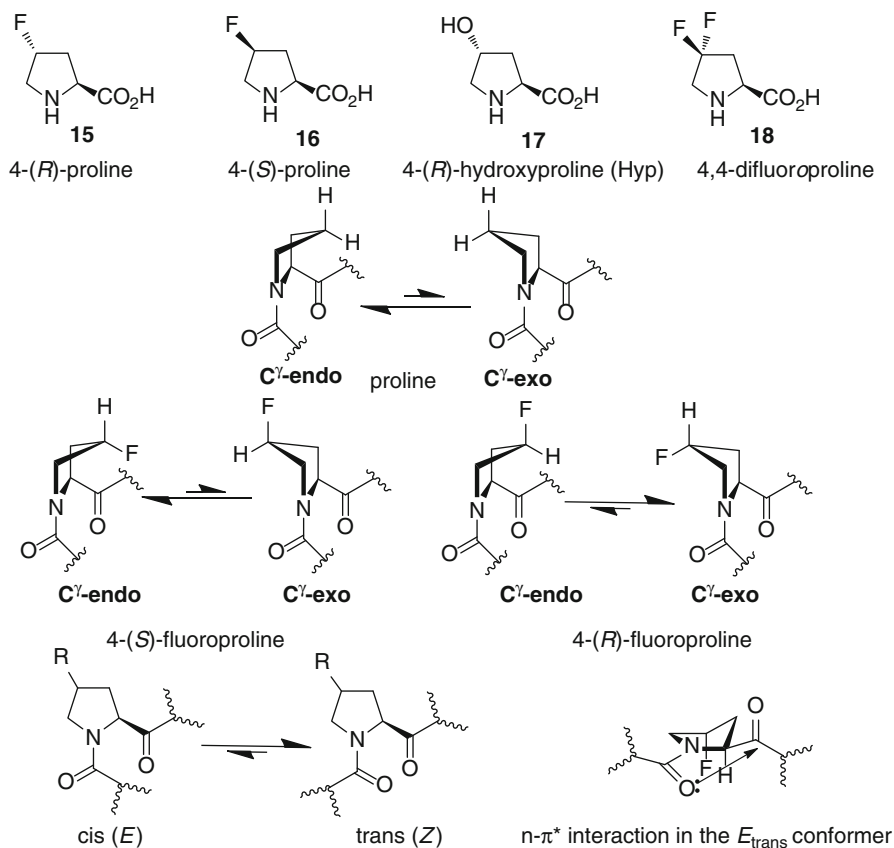
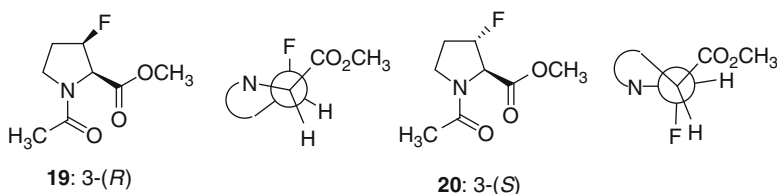


Fig. 5 Conformational preferences for proline, 4-(*S*)- and 4-(*R*)-fluoroproline. Preferred equilibrium for *cis-trans* amide isomerism in proline derivatives and stabilization of the *trans* isomer by a n to π^* interaction

(4-(*S*)-F-Pro-Pro-Gly)₁₀ and 4-(*S*)-F-Pro-Pro-Gly)₇, forming stable triple helices while (4-(*R*)-F-Pro-Pro-Gly)₁₀ and (4-(*R*)-F-Pro-Pro-Gly)₇ do not [39, 43]. Similarly, 4,4-difluoroproline (**18**), which offers no conformational bias, does not substitute effectively for Hyp (**17**) to form stable triple helices in collagen-related peptides [42].

Incorporation of fluorine at the 3-position of proline also introduces a conformational bias, a phenomenon initially explored with the diastereomeric esters **19** and **20** [50]. These molecules crystallized with the *trans* configuration between the amide and ester moieties, as depicted in **19** and **20**, but the conformation of the proline rings differed, each stabilized by a *gauche* interaction between the F and amide moieties that deployed the halogen in an axial orientation. In **19**, the pyrrolidine ring adopted the C^γ -exo conformation, which contrasts with **20** where the C^γ -endo

arrangement prevailed [50]. The stereoelectronic effects of the 3-F-prolines **19** and **20** are complementary to those of the 4-F isomers **15** and **16**. Thus, an *anti* orientation of the fluorine atom with respect to the ester moiety results in the C γ -endo conformation for **20** but a C γ -exo for **15** with the opposite effect for the *syn* epimers [50]. The C γ -endo conformation of **20** was found to be present in solution as assessed by the coupling constant between the α - and β -protons in the ^1H NMR spectrum. This coupling constant was ≤ 1 Hz and the calculated thermodynamic parameters suggested that this would be populated to the extent of 97 %. In contrast, the C γ -exo conformation of **19** was predicted to amount to 69 % of the population, attributed to repulsion between the F atom and adjacent ester moiety as a consequence of unfavorable steric and electronic interactions [41, 50]. The conformational preferences of **19** and **20** were preserved when these proline derivatives were incorporated into short peptide sequences [41, 50, 51].



2.3 Fluorine-Amine Interactions

Protonated β -amino fluoroalkanes show a strong preference to adopt a *gauche* conformation based on a favorable electrostatic interaction between the ammonium moiety and the electronegative F atom, the energetics of which are estimated to be 5.8 kcal/mol [20, 23, 52]. In the unprotonated form, 2-fluoroethylamine experiences only a weakly stabilizing intramolecular interaction between the NH_2 and F that has been viewed as a bridging H-bond estimated at ~ 1 kcal mol $^{-1}$ in favor of the *gauche* conformation, although the precise nature of fluorine-hydrogen interactions is controversial (*vide infra*).

In cyclic amines, such as the protonated form of 3-fluoro-*N*-methyl-piperidine (**21**), these interactions provide significant conformational bias [53–55]. In **21**, the ring F atom strongly prefers an axial disposition despite experiencing steric compression, with the calculated conformer populations provided in Fig. 6 [55]. As the global minimum, conformer A dominates to the extent of 95–96 %, stabilized by an electrostatic interaction between the F and NH^+ moieties, whilst conformer D contributes 4–5 % at equilibrium with the unfavorable diaxial interactions compensated by a productive electrostatic effect.

Trans-4-fluoro-*L*-proline (**15**) and its *cis*- isomer **16** both adopt a defined conformation in aqueous solution in which the favored conformations project the F atom in an axial orientation that is *gauche* with respect to the amino moiety [56].

Fig. 6 Conformational preference of **21** in its protonated form

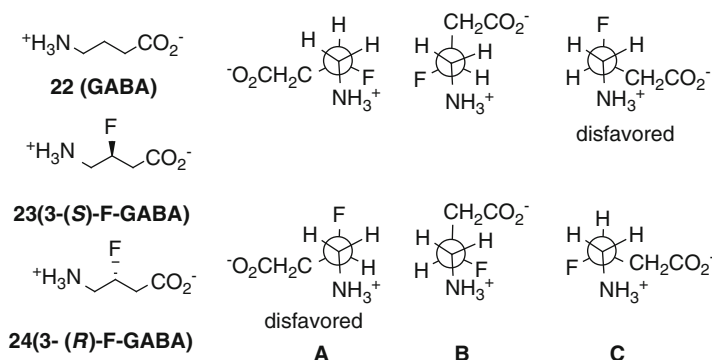
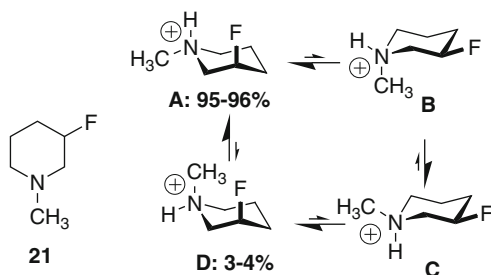


Fig. 7 GABA (**22**), the enantiomeric fluorinated derivatives **23** and **24** and their preferred conformations

The two fluorinated enantiomers **23** and **24** of the neurotransmitter γ -aminobutyric acid (GABA, **22**) represent an interesting example where the preferred *gauche* disposition between a protonated amine and a fluorine atom was used to glean insight into aspects of biologically-relevant conformations (Fig. 7) [57, 58]. The introduction of fluorine to GABA (**22**) reduces the basicity and increases the acidity of the natural amino acid in a fashion that preserves the zwitterionic nature at neutral pH. In solution, an extended conformation was observed for all molecules based on NMR analysis, stabilized in the case of **23** and **24** by the *gauche* interaction between the F and NH_3^+ moieties [57]. The range of conformations for each enantiomer are captured in Fig. 7 which also notes those that would be disfavored based on the absence of a *gauche* effect [57]. Both **23** and **24** were found to activate the cloned human GABA_A receptor with similar potency but were markedly less potent than GABA (**22**) itself [57, 58].

This observation suggested that the bound form of the neurotransmitter was the extended form accessible to both **23** and **24** in a fashion that preserves the *gauche* relationship between F and NH_3^+ , represented by conformation B in Fig. 7 [57, 58]. However, GABA aminotransferase caused elimination of HF from the (*R*)-isomer

24 with 20-fold higher efficiency than for the (*S*)-isomer **23**. This suggested that the conformation recognized by the enzyme placed the NH_3^+ and CH_2CO_2^- moieties in a *gauche* arrangement that would be destabilized, consistent with conformation C being preferred [57, 58] (Fig. 7). This conformation was also deduced to be that preferably recognized by the GABA_C receptor [59]. Both **23** and **24** were found to act as agonists rather than antagonists at $\rho 1$ and $\rho 2$ GABA_C receptors, with the (*R*)-isomer **24** the more potent but still ten-fold weaker than GABA (**22**), whilst the (*S*)-isomer **23** was 20-fold weaker than the natural ligand, attributed to weaker electrostatic interactions as a consequence of the reduced basicity. These observations suggested that GABA (**22**) adopted a folded binding orientation represented by conformation C at the GABA_C receptor [59].

An analogous strategy was adopted to probe the bound conformation of *N*-methyl-D-aspartate (**26**), an agonist of the neurotransmitter glutamic acid (**25**), at recombinant GluN2A and GluN2B receptors expressed in *Xenopus laevis* oocytes (Fig. 8) [60]. (2*S*,3*S*)-3F-NMDA (**27**) was prepared in an enantiospecific fashion whilst (2*S*,3*R*)-3F-NMDA (**28**) was obtained along with the (2*R*,3*S*)- stereoisomer after separation of diastereomeric α -methylbenzylamine precursors. Analysis of ^1H - and ^{19}F NMR spectra indicated distinct chemical shifts and coupling constants for the individual compounds that were consistent with (2*S*,3*S*)-3F-NMDA (**27**) in solution adopting conformation A, shown in Fig. 8, whilst (2*S*,3*R*)-3F-NMDA (**28**) avoided conformer C and was concluded based on DFT calculations to prefer conformer B, the conformer observed in the single crystal X-ray structure. In the biological assays, (2*S*,3*S*)-3F-NMDA (**27**) evoked currents in oocytes expressing either GluN2A or GluN2B receptors, although the responses were less than that observed with NMDA (**26**), whilst (2*S*,3*R*)-3F-NMDA (**28**) and its enantiomer were essentially inactive [60]. These results suggested that only (2*S*,3*S*)-3F-NMDA (**27**) was able to adopt a conformation similar to that of bound NMDA (**26**), designated as A in Fig. 8. This result is consistent with X-ray crystallographic data of NMDA (**26**) bound to the GluN2D receptor which is highly homologous to the GluN2A and GluN2B receptors.

The effect of a fluorine atom β - to a protonated amine on conformational preference and its potential impact on biological recognition has further been documented in 8-membered rings and in fluorinated pyrrolidine elements incorporated to replace the peripheral pyrrolidines of G-quadruplex binding ligands based on an acridine scaffold [61, 62].

2.4 Fluorine-Hydroxyl and Fluorine-Alkoxy Interactions

The *gauche* conformation of β -fluoroethanol derivatives has been estimated to be favored by ~ 2 kcal mol $^{-1}$ when the F and OH moieties can engage in an intramolecular H-bonding-like interaction [52, 63, 64]. In the absence of this interaction, the preference for the *gauche* relationship is essentially absent, with an energy

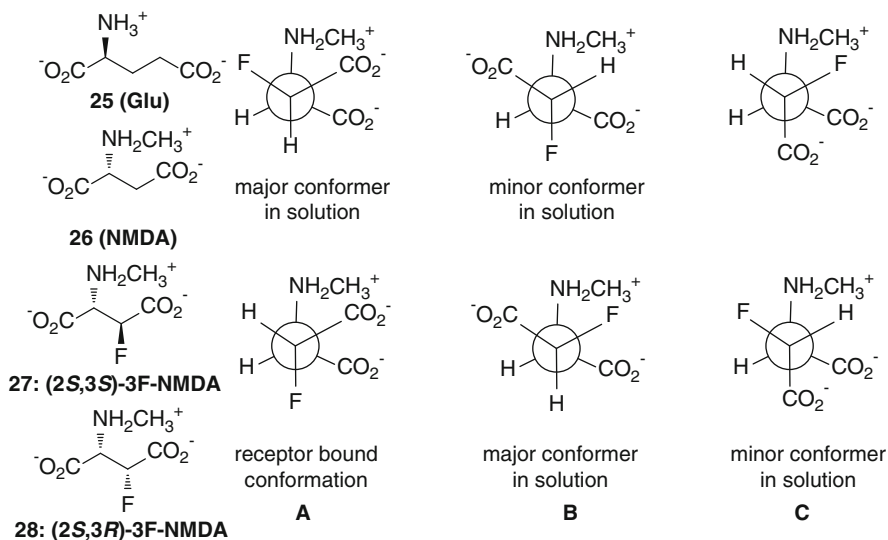
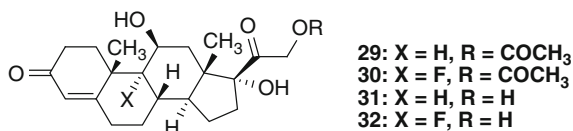
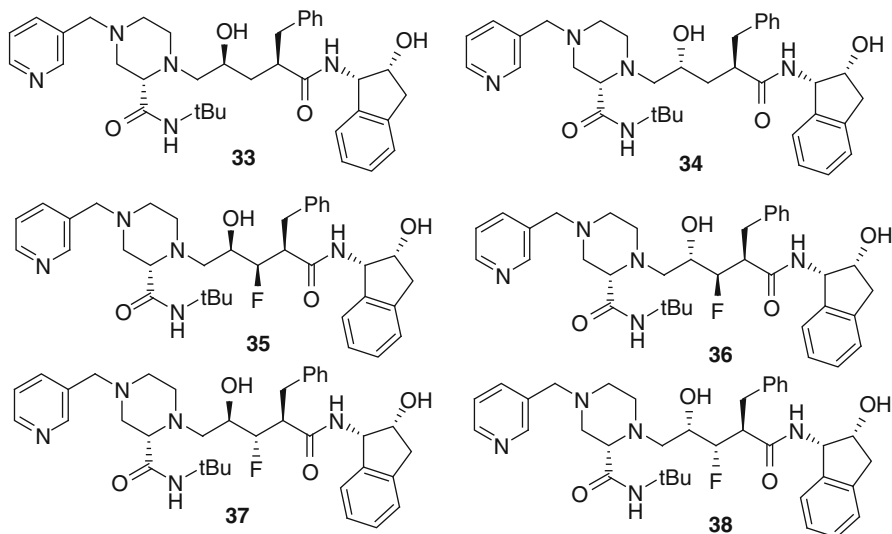


Fig. 8 Structures of glutamic acid (**25**) NMDA (**26**), the enantiomeric fluorinated derivatives **27** and **28** and their preferred conformations

estimated at only 0.1–0.2 kcal mol⁻¹. However, protonation of the alcohol significantly enhances the stability of the *gauche* conformer, estimated at ~7 kcal mol⁻¹ and attributed to a combination of both a stereoelectronic effect and an intramolecular HO-F interaction [52, 63, 64]. Several drug design studies have attempted to exploit the effects of deploying F and OH moieties in a vicinal arrangement that either take advantage of the *gauche* conformational preference or the effect of F on the H-bonding potential of the hydroxyl. An early example explored the effect of replacing the C-9 α -H atom of hydrocortisone acetate (**29**) with F to afford **30**, which demonstrated ten-fold greater glucocorticoid activity in restoring liver glycogen deposition in the adrenalectomized rat and four- to nine-fold higher activity at increasing the survival time of adrenalectomized dogs with a concomitant reduction in sodium retention [65, 66]. Fludrocortisone (**32**) is an anti-inflammatory agent that improved on the therapeutic index of the progenitor hydrocortisone (**31**) and was the first marketed fluorinated pharmaceutical product [67]. The origin of the improved biological properties of fluorinated steroids remains enigmatic and may be a function of the combination of several effects that includes the increased acidity of the 11 β -hydroxyl moiety, a distortion of the A ring due to non-bonded interactions between the F atom and proximal axial substituents and reduced metabolism *in vivo* [14, 68–70].



The judicious introduction of a fluorine atom into the HIV-1 protease inhibitor indinavir (**33**) and epi-indinavir (**34**) provided an opportunity to assess the effect of F-OH interactions on biological properties related to conformational disposition [71]. The four fluorinated derivatives **35–38** were prepared with the anticipation of complex effects due to the F atom which was expected to affect the acidity of the OH and influence the population of conformers in addition to affecting steric interactions and solvation. The K_i data for the inhibition of HIV-1 protease are summarized in Table 2 and reveal interesting profiles.

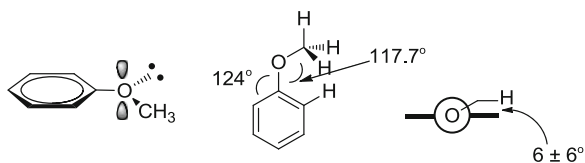


The syn, syn fluorinated derivative **35** fully retained the activity of the parent drug **33** while the anti,anti isomer **37** was an order of magnitude weaker. For the epi-indinavir derivatives **36** and **38**, the syn,anti analogue **38** improved potency by eight-fold over **34** whilst the anti,syn diastereomer exhibited a 36-fold weaker K_i [71]. An analysis of the ^1H - ^1H and ^1H - ^{19}F coupling constants indicated that the syn,syn (**35**) and syn,anti (**38**) diastereomers adopted the fully extended conformation that characterizes indinavir (**33**) when bound to HIV-1 protease, attributed to

Table 2 K_i data of **33–38** for the inhibition of HIV-1 protease

Compound	K_i (nM)	Log P	Compound	K_i (nM)	Log P
33	1.9	3.03	36	5,900	3.31
34	160	3.02	37	27	3.01
35	2.0	3.23	38	20	3.12

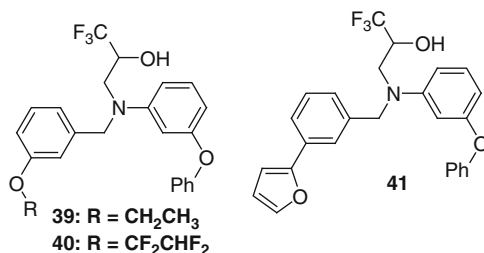
Fig. 9 Conformation of arylmethyl ethers



the preference of F and OH to adopt a gauche relationship. In contrast, the other 2 diastereomers **36** and **37** populated additional conformers to a significant extent, providing an explanation for the observed reductions in potency. The lipophilicity of each of the diastereomers was determined from the measured 1-octanol/water partition coefficient and all were marginally increased compared to indinavir (**33**), with the exception of the anti,anti analogue **37**.

Fluorination also impinges on the conformation of ethers, most prominently in anisoles [15, 72–74]. Arylmethyl ethers without *ortho* substituents adopt a conformation in which the methoxy moiety is close to coplanar with the aryl ring, a consequence of rehybridization of the substituent that maximizes electronic overlap of the oxygen atom with the π system and overcomes the inherent allylic 1,3-strain, with bond angles summarized in Fig. 9 [75–79]. In contrast, the trifluoromethoxy substituent is typically orthogonal to the plane of the benzene ring, favored by 0.5 kcal mol⁻¹, inverting the calculated 3 kcal mol⁻¹ preference for planarity observed with anisole [15, 80]. Difluoroalkoxyaryl moieties behave similarly, indicating that these structural elements should not be considered as simple isosteres of alkoxy substituents but as moieties capable of exploring a broader range of conformational space [15, 74].

The aryethyl ether **39** is an inhibitor of cholesterol ester transfer protein, IC₅₀=1.6 μ M, but the fluorinated homologue **40** is eight-fold more potent, IC₅₀=0.2 μ M, attributed to a combination of steric effects and drug-protein interactions that are more favorable in **40** [73].



Ab initio calculations indicated that while the ethoxy moiety preferred a conformation coplanar with the aryl ring, the fluorinated ether projected in a vector that was more perpendicular. Interestingly, a 2-furyl substituent provided the optimal OCF₂CHF₂ mimetic, IC₅₀=0.48 μ M, attributed to the preferred conformation of the furan ring also being orthogonal to the plane of the phenyl moiety [73].

3 Modulation of pK_a with Fluorine

Fluorine is the most electronegative element (Pauling electronegativity of 3.98) [84]. Due to the significant electron-withdrawing influence that fluorine exerts inductively through σ -bonds, fluorine substituents typically lower the pK_a of neighboring functionality (although exceptions exist [81]): protic groups become more acidic as measured by a decrease in the pK_a of the functional group itself, and basic groups become less basic as measured by a decrease in the pK_a of the conjugate acid. The ionization state of basic and acidic functionality not only affects potency and the absorption, distribution, metabolism, and excretion (ADME) properties of a molecule, but may also play a role in reducing the potential for a compound to exhibit toxicity [82]. Specifically, molecules incorporating basic nitrogen atoms are known to be more promiscuous and may show increased potential for cardiovascular toxicity *via* promoting interference with the hERG potassium ion channel and may increase the occurrence of phospholipidosis [83–86]. The significant influence of fluorine on the pK_a of adjacent functionality, in combination with other desirable properties including a small steric volume (similar in volume to oxygen) and high metabolic stability of the C-F bond, provides a powerful tool by which to modulate pK_a during drug candidate optimization [14].

3.1 pK_a Trends with Fluorine Substitution

An understanding of the correlation between fluorine substitution and pK_a enables a rational approach to drug candidate optimization. For acyclic aliphatic amines, the observed pK_a often represents the contribution of a conformational average of substituents and, as a consequence, the decrease in pK_a due to fluorine substitution is generally additive [87]. As shown in Fig. 10, the shift in pK_a of aliphatic amines due to fluorine substitution can be accurately predicted based on this additive property. The significance of the effect decreases with increased σ -transmission distance: each fluorine substituent at the β -carbon reduces the pK_a by 1.7 units, at the γ -carbon by 0.7, and at the δ -carbon by 0.3. As a point of reference for the calculation, the pK_a of alkyl amines can be generally approximated as primary amine = 10.7; secondary amine = 11.1; and tertiary amine = 10.9 [87, 88]. The chain length of the alkyl groups does not generally shift the pK_a of the amine; however, *N*-methyl substitution is an exception (Fig. 11) [87].

For unstrained cyclic amines in saturated systems the change in pK_a upon substitution can be approximated by summing the contribution of both σ -transmission pathways [87, 88]. Figure 12 demonstrates the application of this approach towards a series of substituted piperidines. For example, in 3-fluoropiperidine there are two σ -transmission pathways from the fluorine atom to the nitrogen atom: “path

n	Prediction ΔpK_a	Experimental pK_a			
		y=0	y=1	y=2	y=3
1	-1.7	10.7	9.0	7.3	5.7
2	-0.7		9.9		8.7
3	-0.3	10.7			9.7
4	-0.1				

Fig. 10 For aliphatic amines, the change in pK_a due to fluorine substitution is generally additive in nature [88]

 10.7	 11.1	 10.9	 8.0	 11.3	 11.3
 10.7	 10.9	 10.2	 11.1	 11.1	
 10.6	 10.9	 10.5	 7.9	 10.3	 10.1
		 9.8			

Fig. 11 pK_a values of acyclic and cyclic alkyl amines [88, 89]

predicted	σ -path 1	$\gamma = -0.7$	$\delta = -0.3$	$\gamma = -1.4$	$\delta = -0.6$	
	σ -path 2	$\gamma = -0.7$	$\beta = -1.7$	$\gamma = -1.4$	$\beta = -3.4$	
	ΔpK_a	-1.4	-2.0	-2.8	-4.0	
observed	pK_a	11.1	9.4	9.3	8.5	7.4
	ΔpK_a		-1.7	-1.8	-2.6	-3.7

Fig. 12 Predicted and observed pK_a of fluoro-substituted piperidines [88]

1''=F-C-C-C-C-NH and "path 2"=F-C-C-NH. The pK_a of 3-fluoropiperidine can therefore be predicted using the values of the linear system provided in Fig. 10: $pK_a = 11.1$ (piperidine) $- 0.3$ ("path 1") $- 1.7$ ("path 2") $= 9.1$. This predicted value is in close agreement with the experimental pK_a of 9.3.

Fig. 13 Dipole minimization of the N⁺-H and C-F bond leads to stabilization of the protonated amine

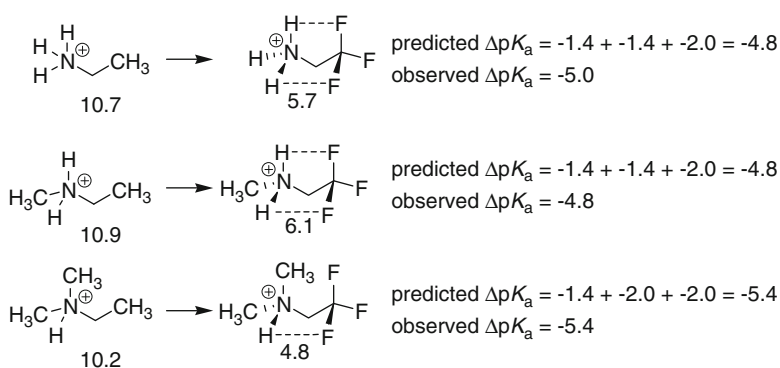
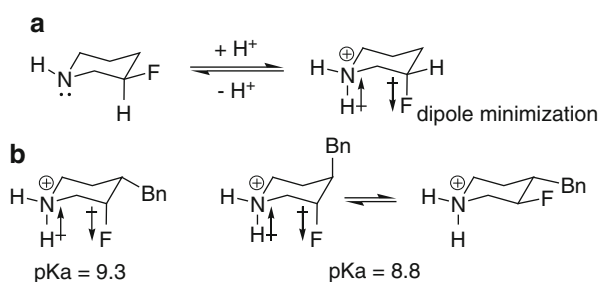


Fig. 14 The *syn*- β -fluoro effect can be used to refine pK_a predictions for amines containing β -fluoro substitution [88]

That the observed pK_a of 3-fluoropiperidine is slightly less acidic than predicted may be explained by stabilization of the ammonium species *via* dipole minimization, as depicted in Fig. 13a [88]. In fact, NMR studies with 3-fluoropiperidine have revealed that the 3-fluoro substituent inverts from a completely equatorial orientation to a completely axial orientation upon protonation of the amine [53]. Similarly, the fluoro substituent of *cis*-3-fluoro-4-benzylpiperidine adopts a completely axial orientation in the protonated species leading to stabilization and a pK_a of 9.3 (Fig. 13b). Upon protonation of *trans*-3-fluoro-4-benzylpiperidine, the 3-fluoro substituent occupies both the axial and equatorial orientation equally, leading to reduced stabilization and a pK_a of 8.8 [88].

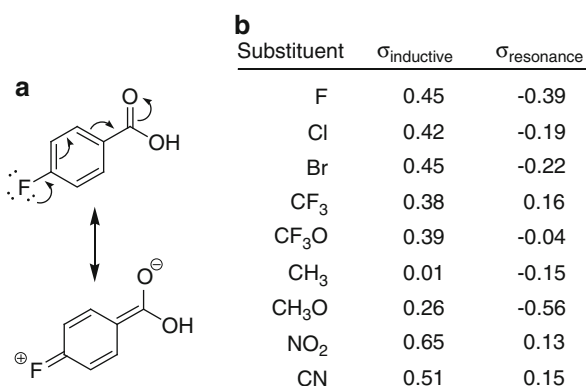
The stabilization of ammonium species *via syn*- β -fluoro substituents appears to be a general phenomenon. The ΔpK_a shift due to β -fluoro substitution can be refined to accommodate for this influence: $\Delta\text{pK}_a = -1.4$ for a full 1,3-*syn* CF⁻NH⁺ interaction and $\Delta\text{pK}_a = -2.0$ in the complete absence of a 1,3-*syn* CF⁻NH⁺ interaction [88]. This refinement enables the accurate prediction of pK_a values for primary, secondary and tertiary amines with β -fluoro substituents (Fig. 14).

Table 3 Experimental pK_a measurements from a series of methanesulfonamides demonstrate an additive change in pK_a upon fluorine substitution [90]

n	R=H	R=Ph	R=3-C ₆ H ₄ COPh
0	10.8	8.85	8.19 ^a
1	9.32 ^a	7.57 ^a	6.77 ^a
2	8.06 ^a	6.19 ^a	5.44 ^a
3	6.33	4.45	3.70 ^a

^aaqueous pK_a values were calculated from experimental measurements obtained with solvent = 67% DMF-H₂O

Fig. 15 (a) Fluorine is inductively electron-withdrawing but is electron-donating through resonance. (b) The discrete inductive contribution and resonance contribution to Hammett's σ_{para} constants [14]

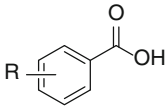
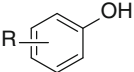


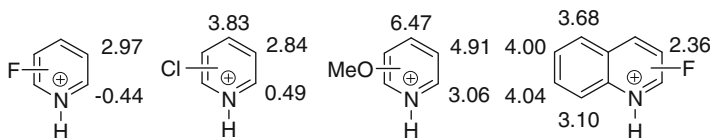
Additionally, the *syn*- β -fluoro effect may, in part, account for the difficulty in predicting the pK_a of imperfectly staggered heterocycles such as fluoro-substituted pyrrolidines [88].

Fluorine substitution of methanesulfonamides also leads to an additive decrease in the pK_a of the NH proton. As shown in Table 3, the decrease in pK_a is approximately 1.47 units per fluorine substituent and is independent of the R-group bound to nitrogen [90]. The linearity observed in this trend is postulated to be due to the small steric changes associated with replacing hydrogen by fluorine and the fact that fluorine substitution is somewhat remote (two atoms away from the acidic site) [90]. In the case of fluoroacetic acids, the decrease in pK_a due to fluorine substitution is not additive: the pK_a of acetic acid=4.76; fluoroacetic acid=2.59; difluoroacetic acid=1.33; and trifluoroacetic acid=0.50 [91].

Although fluorine exerts a strong electron-withdrawing influence through σ -bonds, fluorine is electron-donating through resonance (Fig. 15a). Due to the excellent 2p orbital overlap between fluorine and carbon, this influence can be quite strong and the significance of this effect is not matched by the other halogens (Fig. 15b) [14, 92]. Due to these opposing forces, the effect of fluorine on pK_a in

Table 4 pK_a values of benzoic acids and phenols [91, 94]

Substituent						
	pK_a^{ortho}	pK_a^{meta}	pK_a^{para}	pK_a^{ortho}	pK_a^{meta}	pK_a^{para}
H	4.02	4.02	4.02	9.99	9.99	9.99
F	3.27	3.87	4.14	8.73	9.29	9.89
Cl	2.88	3.83	3.99	8.55	9.10	9.43
Br	2.85	3.81	3.99	8.45	9.03	9.34
F ₃ C	4.0	3.6	3.6	8.3	9.0	8.7
H ₃ C	3.90	4.27	4.36	10.3	10.0	10.3
H ₃ CO	4.09	4.08	4.49	9.99	9.65	10.2
NO ₂	2.18	3.46	3.44	7.22	8.35	7.15

**Fig. 16** pK_a values of mono-substituted fluoro pyridines and quinolines (pK_a pyridine=5.17; pK_a quinoline=4.85). pK_a values of analogous chloro and methoxy pyridines are provided for comparison [17]

aromatic systems is strongly dependent on the through-resonance relationship of the fluorine substituent and the functional group of interest. Fluorine acts as an electron-withdrawing group in positions *ortho*- or *meta*- to functionality. Fluorine in a *para*-relationship to a functional group behaves as a neutral substituent because the through-resonance electron-donating character of fluorine essentially cancels out its inductive electron-withdrawing influence [92]. As shown in Table 4, this trend is observed with benzoic acids and phenols, archetypal systems of cross-conjugated and directly-bound functionality, respectively. Similarly, the changes in pK_a of aniline ($pK_a=4.62$) upon fluorine substitution is: 2-fluoroaniline= -1.40 , 3-fluoroaniline= -1.04 and 4-fluoroaniline= $+0.03$ [17]. Basic heterocycles such as pyridine also follow this trend (Fig. 16). Although the aqueous pK_a of 4-fluoropyridine has not been reported, gas phase measurements indicate that 4-fluoro substitution leads to a small decrease in the pK_a in the gas phase and a predicted aqueous pK_a similar to that of pyridine [93]. It should be noted that the CF₃ group is electron-withdrawing both inductively and through-resonance, and thus always reduces the pK_a of adjacent functionality [93, 94].

4 The Effect of Fluorine Atoms on Drug Potency

Appropriate modulation of pK_a , conformational preference, hydrophobic interaction, hydrogen bonding, lipophilicity, solubility or a combination of these properties exerted by the deployment of fluorine atoms can improve potency/binding affinity and sometimes even selectivity of drug molecules. This phenomenon is manifested in many examples taken from a wide range of areas of medicinal chemistry.

In keeping with the theme from the previous section, the influence of fluorine on the pK_a of basic functionality was systematically studied in the context of optimizing the pharmaceutical properties of a thrombin inhibitor [95]. All permutations of single and double fluorine substitution of the amidinium-bearing arene were synthesized and the pK_a of the amino group of the tricyclic skeleton (pK_{a1}) and the pK_a of the amidinium residue (pK_{a2}) were experimentally determined (Fig. 17). The change in pK_a upon introduction of fluorine followed the expected trends, with the exception of double fluorine substitution *meta*- to the amidinium group, compound **45**. In this case, the pK_a unexpectedly increased to 4.21 from 4.10 measured for the mono-fluoro analog **44** and insight into this phenomenon was sought through DFT calculations (RB3LYP, 6-31G**). For the mono-fluorinated arene, the *exo*-conformer, which minimizes allylic-1,3-like strain between the nitrogen lone pair and fluorine, is calculated to be 3.4 kcal mol⁻¹ more stable than the *endo*-conformer (Fig. 18a). In the difluorinated arene, unfavorable allylic strain is unavoidable, as illustrated in Fig. 18b. Upon protonation, both the mono- and di-fluorinated arenes adopt conformations in which there is a favorable C-F...H-N⁺ interaction. However, because this favorable interaction is present in both analogs, the increased basicity of the difluoro analog is best explained by the differences observed in the unprotonated state,

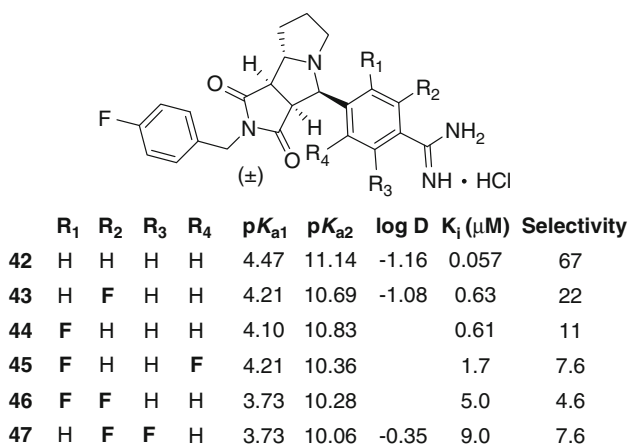


Fig. 17 Properties of a series of thrombin inhibitors: the pK_a of the amino group of the tricyclic skeleton (pK_{a1}), the pK_a of the amidinium residue (pK_{a2}), log D, binding affinity (K_i), and selectivity for thrombin compared to trypsin as a function of fluorine substitution [95]

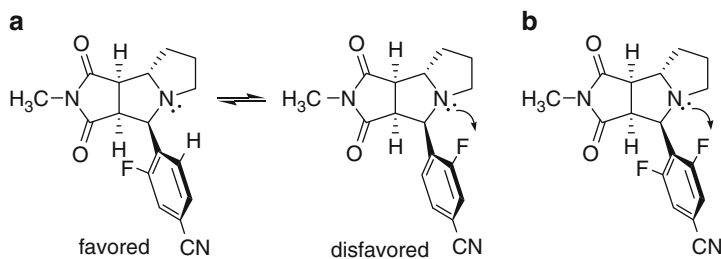
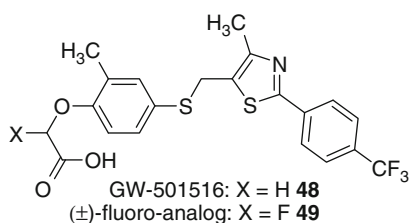


Fig. 18 (a) Allylic 1,3-like strain between the fluorine and the nitrogen lone pair disfavors the *endo*-conformation of the mono-fluorinated arene. (b) For the di-fluorinated arene, proximation of the nitrogen and fluorine atoms is unavoidable

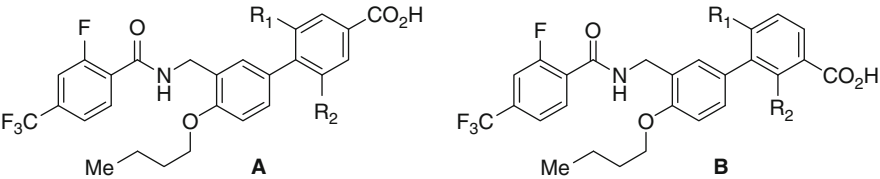


Compound	EC ₅₀ (nM)	PPAR α EC ₅₀ (nM)	PPAR γ EC ₅₀ (nM)	PPAR δ EC ₅₀ (nM)
48	0.03	>1000	912	2.9
49	3.7	560	>1000	55

Fig. 19 Activation of oleic acid oxidation (EC₅₀) and agonism of individual PPAR subtypes by acids **48** and **49** [97]

i.e., the electrostatic interaction between the C-F dipole and the nitrogen lone pair [91]. In all cases the decrease in pK_a corresponded to a decrease in binding affinity (K_i). Although the change in binding affinity is likely complex in origin, linear free energy relationships correlating pK_a and binding free enthalpies ($-\Delta G$) calculated for inhibition of thrombin and trypsin demonstrated a relationship between affinity and pK_a . Specifically, this analysis found that inhibition of thrombin is 2.5 times more sensitive to the pK_a of the amidine functionality than is inhibition of trypsin, providing a possible means towards increasing thrombin selectivity [95].

Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptors α , δ and γ (PPAR α , PPAR δ and PPAR γ) are implicated in regulating transcription of genes responsible for lipid and carbohydrate metabolism [96]. A series of fluorine-substituted analogs of the PPAR δ modulator GW-501516 (**48**) was synthesized and studied based on the hypothesis that fluorine substitution at the α -carbon (**49**) would reduce the pK_a of the adjacent carboxylic acid moiety and lead to stronger binding affinity (Fig. 19) [97]. In practice, the fluoro-substituted analog **49** was a less potent activator of oleic acid oxidation than the progenitor GW-501516 (**48**). However, when the affinity of



Parent	R ₁	R ₂	solubility (mg/mL) ^a	calculated dihedral angle (deg)	PPAR δ EC ₅₀ (nM)
A	H	H	0.375	43.5	170
A	Me	H	0.985	52.5	11
A	F	H	3.22	36.9	53
B	H	H	1.35	36.9	29
B	Me	H	9.95	57.5	1.6
B	F	F	10.4	46.2	5.7

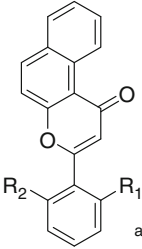
^aSolubility in equal volumes of EtOH and aq. 1/15 M phosphate buffer (pH 7.4)

Fig. 20 The solubility, calculated dihedral angle, and EC₅₀ values for a series of PPAR δ agonists [98]

each compound towards the PPAR subtypes was assayed, it was found that the fluoro-analog demonstrated a modestly positive effect on PPAR α activation, essentially behaving as a modest dual PPAR α/δ agonist. Computational modeling predicted that both enantiomers of the fluoro-analog bound similarly, and that the dual agonism is due to interactions remote from the fluorine atom.

Judicious fluorine substitution can provide a means of improving the solubility of drug molecules. The solubility of several classes of pharmaceutical compounds can be improved by disrupting molecular planarity and, in turn, potentially reduce crystal packing density [98]. Although this argument explains, in part, the observed improvements in solubility, fluorine substitution leading to increased solubility is explained “not only by disrupting molecular planarity but also *via* other mechanism(s)” [98]. In these cases, the trends observed in Fig. 20 can be understood as a manifestation of the inductively withdrawing/resonance-donating electronic effects of fluorine that underlie its influence on pK_a. For example, fluorine substitution *ortho* and *meta* to a carboxylic acids leads to an increase in acidity which can consequently increase solubility. Fluorine is a strong through-resonance donor (*vide supra*) which can impart partial π -bond character to biphenyl systems, leading to a decrease in dihedral angle, but this effect is reduced if there is a strong resonance-accepting group such as a carboxylic acid *ortho* or *para* to a fluorine atom.

This through-resonance effect of a fluorine atom is also manifested in the properties observed with the series of fluorine-substituted aryl hydrocarbon receptor (AhR) agonists depicted in Fig. 21 [98]. The decrease in dihedral angle is most dramatic for the mono-fluoro analog **51** where solubility is increased. Both of these changes are likely due to an increase in polarization resulting from strong through-resonance communication between the fluorine substituent and the ketone

	R ₁	R ₂	solubility (mg/mL) ^a	calculated dihedral angle (deg)	EROD EC ₅₀ (μM) ^b	
	50	H	H	84.6	17.8	1.4
	51	F	H	153	9.1	0.33
	52	F	F	248	40.5	0.20
	53	H	Me	262	37.9	>10
	54	Me	Me	1270	70.0	>10

^aSolubility in equal volumes of EtOH and aq. 1/15M phosphate buffer (pH 7.4).
^b7-ethoxyresorufin *O*-deethylase (EROD) activity in MCF-7 breast cancer cells.

Fig. 21 The solubility, calculated dihedral angle, and EC₅₀ values for a series of AhR agonists [98]

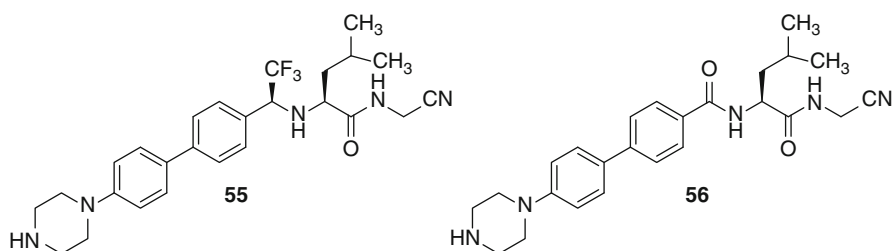


Fig. 22 Cathepsin K inhibitors

functionality. In the case of the difluoro derivative **52**, both the dihedral angle and solubility are similar to the mono-methyl substituted compound **53**, suggesting that disrupting planarity may be the underlying influence. Fortuitously, fluorine substitution also led to an increase in potency as well as solubility.

An example of fluorine substitution in the context of the cysteine protease cathepsin K highlights not only the advantageous impact of fluorine on potency but also the isosteric relationship between a trifluoroethylamine moiety and an amide [99]. The replacement of amide bonds with isosteric functionality has been extensively explored within the field of medicinal chemistry and there are many well-established isosteres of the amide moiety. However, there are only a few isosteres that conserve the hydrogen-bond donating properties of the amide. Reduction of an amide to the corresponding amine not only removes a hydrogen-bond acceptor but also introduces a basic amine, typically providing poor mimetic properties. Addressing this deficiency, the strategic introduction of a trifluoromethyl moiety led to reduced basicity whilst preserving the near 120° backbone angle and conferring isopolarity with the carbonyl moiety, as illustrated by **55** in Fig. 22 [99, 100]. In addition to providing an acceptable isostere for the bis-amide **56**, trifluoroethylamine **55** also exhibited improved potency and selectivity compared to **56**. The trifluoroethylamine derivative **55** was the most potent compound identified, demonstrating an IC₅₀ of less than 0.005 nM toward inhibition of cathepsin K. Modeling

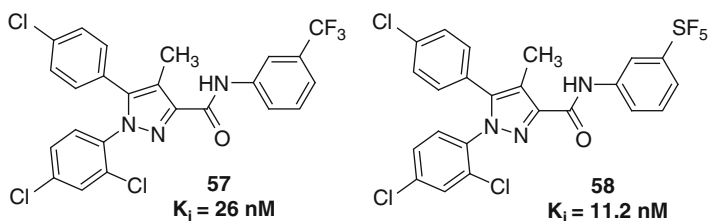


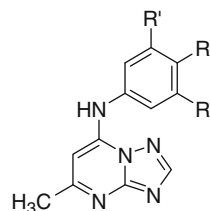
Fig. 23 Cannabinoid CB₁ receptor ligands

and SAR were used to rationalize the stark difference in potency between **55** and **56** [99]. Specifically, in **55** the sp² nature of the amide leads to an interaction with the adjacent aromatic ring which enforces a suboptimal geometry for both the aromatic ring and for the hydrogen-bonding interaction to the protease. In the case of **55**, the newly introduced sp³ center allows for a perpendicular arrangement of the aromatic ring thus stabilizing it in what is presumed to be the active conformation while simultaneously allowing for a more optimal hydrogen bond interaction with a residue in the active site. In addition to improved potency and selectivity with **55**, the metabolic stability was also increased significantly: **55** demonstrated no susceptibility toward hydrolysis, a significant liability observed with dipeptide compounds.

The SF₅ substituent has not been extensively exploited in drug design despite that this group has been referred to as a “super trifluoromethyl group” due to the fact that these two functionalities share many features (although this designation is probably imprecise) [101–104]. The shared features between SF₅ and CF₃ include high electronegativity, good thermal and chemical stability and high lipophilicity, with the SF₅ group exhibiting each of these features to a greater extent than the CF₃ group. Both of these substituents are xenobiotic and have remarkable stability under physiological conditions, lending to their usefulness in drug discovery. While there is some consensus on CF₃ being similar in size (van der Waals volume) to the ethyl group, comparative comments on the relative size of an SF₅ moiety are more speculative [16]. However, it has been suggested that the volume of the SF₅ group is slightly less than that of a *tert*-butyl group but larger than the CF₃ group [102]. In addition to differences in size, the geometries of these two groups are quite different. The SF₅ group displays a pyramid of electron density whereas the CF₃ group is associated with a cone shape of electron density [103]. The subtle differences in properties between these two groups provides opportunity for deployment of the SF₅ group in a fashion that allows optimization of many of the PK and PD properties discussed in this chapter, including potency. An interesting example where an SF₅ moiety provided an advantageous impact on potency is in the context of cannabinoid CB₁ receptor ligands [104]. In two different pyrazole series illustrated by the prototype *meta*-CF₃-aniline **57** and its SF₅ analogue **58** (Fig. 23), the SF₅ compounds consistently exhibited a lower K_i for the CB₁ receptor than the CF₃-analogs. The increased potency was attributed to a potential “better fit” of the SF₅ group in a pocket of the CB₁ receptor relative to the CF₃ group, indicating that in this setting the two groups are not biologically equivalent.

Table 5 SAR associated with a series of *Pf*DHODH inhibitors

	R	R'	IC ₅₀ (uM)	
			<i>Pf</i> DHODH	<i>Pb</i> DHODH
59	SF ₅	H	0.13	0.38
60	CF ₃	H	0.28	0.28
61	CF ₃	F	0.19	0.11



Another example where SF₅ and CF₃ substitution has been examined in a matched pairs-type of analysis was disclosed in the context of a *P. falciparum* dihydroorotate dehydrogenase (*Pf*DHODH) inhibitor program [105]. The C-4 SF₅ analogue **59** (Table 5) provided a two- to three-fold potency improvement over the CF₃ analogue **60** as an inhibitor of *Pf*DHODH. It was suggested that the enhanced potency may be due to the increased hydrophobicity of the SF₅ substituent. In addition to increased potency, the SF₅ analogue **59** exhibited good metabolic stability, promising PK parameters *in vivo* and no apparent liabilities. The 3,5-di-F-analog **61** also provided an interesting illustration of the effect of fluorine substitution. This compound compared well with **60** in many respects but showed significantly improved efficacy *in vivo*. These data illustrate again that the SF₅ group can be a suitable substitute for CF₃ with advantage in an optimization effort.

5 Effects of Fluorine on Metabolic Stability

Metabolic stability is a perpetual concern in drug discovery and there are many factors that govern the metabolism of a given compound. Perturbation of properties such as lipophilicity, polarity, sterics, and conformation can often reduce metabolic liabilities. When modifying a compound, changes must be carefully balanced such that the solution to one problem does not introduce another. One strategy to solving a metabolic stability issue is to identify the metabolic “soft spot”, i.e. the site of oxidation, and then block that site with a substituent resistant to metabolism. One way to accomplish this is to replace a labile/susceptible carbon-bound hydrogen with a fluorine atom. This type of substitution infrequently impairs drug-target interactions and is a strategy that has been employed successfully in many contexts [106–110].

One notable example is the discovery of ezetimibe (**63**) (Fig. 24), a marketed β-lactam derivative that lowers systemic cholesterol levels by blocking intestinal absorption of cholesterol [108, 109]. A key experiment led to the identification of active metabolites of the prototype compound **62** after dosing to rats [108], which in turn led to the discovery that metabolites were more efficiently localized to the putative site of action of the drug than **62** itself. Additional studies elucidated the

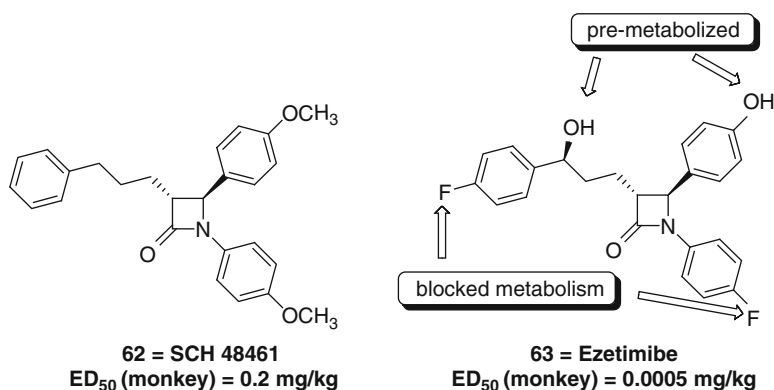


Fig. 24 The structure of ezetimibe (**63**) and its progenitor **62**

structure of several metabolites, some of which offered advantageous localization to the intestine while others did not [111]. Armed with this knowledge, a second generation compound was designed in which sites of detrimental metabolism were blocked via strategic incorporation of substituents. The result was ezetimibe (**63**), a compound which contains hydroxyl functionality crucial to activity and selectivity, as well as fluorine atoms in two key locations which serve to blocked detrimental metabolic pathways without adversely affecting cholesterol absorption inhibitory activity significantly.

The metabolism of heterocycles which leads to reduced potency, poor PK properties or bioactivation into chemically reactive species is a particular concern in drug design, and strategies to mitigate these pathways have been reviewed and summarized [112]. As demonstrated by the discovery of ezetimibe (**63**), if the site of metabolism is known or even presumed, a useful and common strategy is to simply block that position with a fluorine atom. In a thorough effort towards improving metabolic stability in a series of piperidine-based 11β -hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase type I (11β -HSD1) inhibitors, it was discovered that introducing fluorine or polar substituents led to an increase in metabolic stability [113]. It can be reasoned that polar groups lowered the lipophilicity and $\log D$, likely contributing to the increase in metabolic stability. Moreover, in a modification that presumably blocked a metabolic soft spot present in **64** (Fig. 25), installation of a *para*-fluoro substituent (**65**) had a positive effect on metabolic stability in mouse liver microsomes (MLM); a MLM $T_{1/2}$ of >30 min was demonstrated which compared favorably with the unsubstituted piperidine analogue **64**, which exhibited a $T_{1/2}$ of just 6 min.

As suggested above, high lipophilicity can have an adverse impact on metabolic stability. In an effort to improve the metabolic stability of the lead histamine 3 receptor (H_3R) inverse agonist **66** (Fig. 26), ring contraction of the azepine ring coupled with the introduction of fluorine substitution was explored [114]. While there was some confidence that this strategy would lead to increased metabolic

compound	X	MLM $t_{1/2}$ (min)
64		6
65		> 30

Fig. 25 Mouse liver microsome (MLM) half-life data for piperidine-based 11 β -hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase type I (11 β -HSD1) inhibitors

	66	67	68	69
clearance RLM = (μ L/min/mg)	55	17	9	12

Fig. 26 Rat liver microsome (RLM) clearance values for several histamine 3 receptor (H_3R) inverse agonists

stability, there was concern that the structural changes would adversely affect solubility. In the event, the smaller ring size associated with piperidines **67** and **68** resulted in more stable molecules with rat liver microsome (RLM) clearance values of 17 and 9 μ L/min/mg, respectively, as compared to an RLM clearance of 55 μ L/min/mg for **66**. However, the structural changes were accompanied by some adverse affects, with **68** inhibiting the hERG channel by 73 % at a concentration of 10 μ M. Attention was thus shifted toward the morpholine analogue **69** which had reasonable metabolic stability and did not share the hERG liability.

While these examples demonstrate the beneficial effect of blocking metabolism by taking advantage of the inherent strength of a carbon-fluorine bond, in extreme cases this property may be disadvantageous. An example of such a situation was observed in the discovery of SC-58635 (**70**), a cyclooxygenase 2 (COX 2) inhibitor known generically as celecoxib (Fig. 27). The early lead molecule **71** possessed a 4-fluorophenyl moiety that rendered the molecule extremely metabolically stable *in vivo*, represented by the greater than 220 h half life measured in rats [115]. Interestingly, a similar high level of metabolic stability was observed with the chloro analog **72** which had a measured half life of 117 h in rats. In an effort to bring this value into a more acceptable range, the introduction of functionality with greater

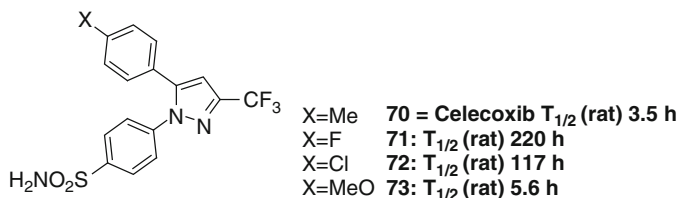


Fig. 27 Rat *in vivo* half life data for celecoxib and related analogues

susceptibility to metabolism was examined. As such, the methoxy analog **73** and the methyl derivative **70** were prepared with both compounds exhibiting a shorter half life in the rat: 5.6 and 3.5 h, respectively.

There are several interesting cases where the introduction of a fluorine atom does not prevent metabolic oxidation at the site of deployment [15]. A specific example is observed in phenyl rings that incorporate a nitrogen substituent *para* to the fluorine atom. In this arrangement, P450-catalyzed oxidation can facilitate fluorine rearrangement to the adjacent carbon atom resulting in a hydroxyl moiety being installed on the carbon atom vacated by the fluorine [116–118].

6 The Effect of Fluorine Substitution on Membrane Permeability

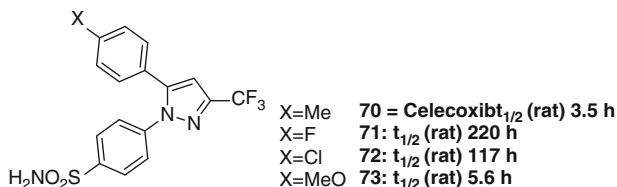
Absorption of an orally administered drug is governed primarily by one of two processes: passive transport, or active transport which requires energy that is typically supplied by ATP. The majority of drugs permeate membranes passively, the ease of which depends on the properties of both the membrane and the diffusing molecule. Membranes are a highly organized, anisotropic system with sufficient fluidity to allow translational and rotational movements of the constituent lipid and protein molecules; the packing density of the constituent elements influences binding to and permeation of drugs [119–121]. Lipophilicity and the cross sectional area of a drug are the two most influential properties governing membrane binding [121]. While the ability of fluorine to influence permeability may diminish with the size of a molecule, it is well suited for use in modulating lipophilicity in the context of small molecule drug discovery.

Lipophilicity is often expressed as $\log P$, the logarithm of the partition coefficient of a compound between octanol and water. A distribution coefficient ($\log D$) is also used to quantify lipophilicity in the event that charge states need to be taken into consideration. A $\log D$ value is the logarithm of the coefficient of the distribution of a molecule between water and octanol at a particular pH, typically 7.4 because of physiological relevance. Based on an analysis of the physical properties of orally bioavailable drugs, the optimal $\log P$ for an orally administered drug is between 1 and 5 [122].

It is a misconception to assume that fluorination of a molecule always increases lipophilicity. Monofluorination or trifluorination of saturated alkyl groups often

Table 6 log *P* (octanol-H₂O) measurements for fluoroalkanes and fluoroalcohols

Fluoroalkane	log <i>P</i>	Fluoroalcohol	log <i>P</i>	Fluoroalcohol	log <i>P</i>
CH ₃ CH ₃	1.81	CH ₃ CH ₂ OH	-0.32	CF ₃ (CH ₂) ₃ OH	0.90
CH ₃ CHF ₂	0.75	CF ₃ CH ₂ OH	0.36	CF ₃ (CF ₂) ₂ CH ₂ OH	1.94
CH ₃ (CH ₂) ₃ CH ₃	3.11	CH ₃ (CH ₂) ₂ OH	0.34	CH ₃ (CH ₂) ₄ OH	1.19
CH ₃ (CH ₂) ₃ CH ₂ F	2.33	CF ₃ (CH ₂) ₂ OH	0.39	CF ₃ (CH ₂) ₄ OH	1.15
		CH ₃ (CH ₂) ₃ OH	0.88		

Fig. 28 *In vivo* efficacy and log *P* of leukotriene receptor antagonists

decreases lipophilicity due to the relatively polar character of the monfluoro- and trifluoro-methyl alkanes which possess highly polar C-F and C-CF₃ bonds. The same is true for difluorination when fluorine is introduced at the terminal carbon atom of an alkane (Table 6) [123]. In contrast to the data shown in Table 6, lipophilicity is typically increased upon aromatic fluorination, perfluorination, and fluorination adjacent to atoms with π -bonds, with the notable exception of some α -fluorinated carbonyl compounds [123]. Presumably, in these cases the lipophilicity is increased due to the excellent overlap between the F-C 2p orbitals which results in significant resonance electron-donation from fluorine to carbon that offsets the inductive electron-withdrawing influence of fluorine.

The situation becomes far less predictable when a heteroatom is proximal to the site of fluorine substitution. As indicated in Table 6, fluorination has little effect on lipophilicity when the site of fluorination is less than 3C-C bonds away, at least in the case in the case of terminal trifluoromethylated alcohols [123].

The impact of fluorine substitution on lipophilicity (as measured by log *P*) has been studied in the context of leukotriene (LT) receptor antagonists [124]. Leukotrienes are signalling molecules responsible for triggering constriction of smooth muscle, and the overproduction of leukotrienes is implicated in contributing to asthma in humans. The development of LT receptor antagonists is one approach towards moderating the bronchoconstrictive properties of leukotrienes. For a series of indole carboxamide-based LT antagonists represented by **74** (Fig. 28), an increase in lipophilicity *via* the careful installation of a trifluoromethyl group led to an increase in efficacy and oral availability. Extending the length of the alkyl chain of the indole amide led to increased lipophilicity but was also associated with a loss in affinity for the LT receptor. Fluorine substitution increased lipophilicity and, in comparison to non-fluorinated analogs, increased *in vivo* potency ten-fold. In a head-to-head comparison, the fluorinated analogs consistently exhibited greater lipophilicity than the non-fluorinated analog as measured by log *P* (Fig. 28).

	R	R'	Caco-2 permeability
75	CH ₃	H	1.20 × 10 ⁻⁶ cm/s
76	CH ₃	F	3.14 × 10 ⁻⁶ cm/s
77	CF ₃	H	3.38 × 10 ⁻⁶ cm/s
78	CF ₃	F	4.86 × 10 ⁻⁶ cm/s

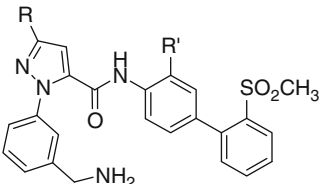


Fig. 29 Caco-2 permeability for a series of pyrazole-based factor Xa inhibitors

	R	R'	IKKβ IC ₅₀	Log <i>D</i>	PAMPA <i>P_e</i>
79	H	H	55 nM	1.8	0.84 × 10 ⁻⁶ cm/s
80	F	H	64 nM	1.8	19 × 10 ⁻⁶ cm/s
81	F	F	27 nM	3.1	> 50 × 10 ⁻⁶ cm/s

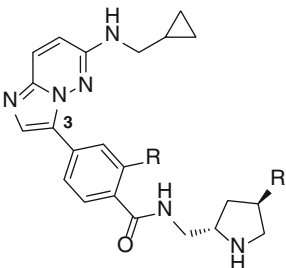


Fig. 30 *In vitro* potency, log *D* and permeability of a series of imidazo[1,2-*b*]pyridazine-based IKKβ inhibitors

The influence of fluorine substitution on permeability, as measured across a Caco-2 bilayer, has been studied in a series of factor Xa (fXa) inhibitors [125, 126]. It was observed during the optimization of the series of pyrazole-based fXa inhibitors **75–78** shown in Fig. 29 that the substitution of the aromatic ring with fluorine afforded a greater than two-fold increase in Caco-2 permeability (**75** vs. **76**). Similarly, the exhaustive introduction of fluoro to the methyl substituent bound to the aromatic ring (CH₃ to CF₃) resulted in a similar improvement in Caco-2 permeability (**77** vs **75**). Further, when both the aromatic ring and the methyl substituent were substituted with fluorine (**78**) the Caco-2 measured permeability increased to 4.86 × 10⁻⁶ cm/s, a >four-fold improvement over that non-fluoro analog **75**. Furthermore, the increased permeability of **78** was complemented by the best *in vivo* potency within the series and **78** also exhibited a high selectivity ratio for fXa versus thrombin (1,000-fold) and fXa versus trypsin (300-fold).

The advantageous impact of fluorine on permeability has been explored in the discovery of a family of imidazo[1,2-*b*]pyridazine-based IKKβ inhibitors where it was assumed that the central benzamide played a key role in pharmacokinetic properties [127]. As shown in Fig. 30, modifications to the benzamide region (C-3) of the imidazo[1,2-*b*]pyridazine had a dramatic affect on permeability: the measured PAMPA values for **79** and **80** were 0.84 × 10⁻⁶ cm/s and 19 × 10⁻⁶ cm/s, respectively [128]. Although **79** and **80** differ by only a single F-for-H substitution, the observed improvement in permeability is presumed to arise from a combination of factors. These factors include the enhancement of hydrophobicity and the formation of a weak interaction between the fluorine atom and the NH moiety, possibly a dipolar interaction.

While the inhibitory activity and $\log D$ of **79** and **80** remained essentially identical, the installation of a second fluorine on the pyrrolidine moiety (**81**) resulted in an increase in both the measured $\log D$ and PAMPA values. In the case of **81**, the added lipophilicity coupled with the small difference in size between H and F also afforded a two-fold increase in potency compared to **79** and **80**.

6.1 Inter- and Intra-molecular H-Bonding of Fluorine

Numerous X-ray crystallographic structures of fluorine-containing compounds demonstrate close inter- and intra-molecular C-F...H contacts and the strong hydrogen-bonding capacity of hydrofluoric acid has long been recognized [30, 129–132]. The intriguing possibility that optimization of C-F...H contacts might lead to an increase in the potency of pharmaceutical agents has, in part, contributed to a significant interest in determining the capacity of fluorine to act as a hydrogen-bond acceptor. Even though the nature of this interaction remains a topic of considerable debate, it is recognized that the C-F...H interaction is much weaker than that of O...H hydrogen-bonding, and that interpretation of possible C-F...H interactions requires care and attention to multiple factors [20, 129, 133–138].

Due to the strong electronegativity of fluorine, the three lone pairs of electrons are tightly held, resulting in fluorine being a poorly polarizable atom [16, 20]. However, the substantial ionic nature of the C-F bond gives rise to a large dipole moment (μ). For example, in fluoromethane the dipole moment is 1.85 D while in difluoromethane it is 1.97 D [20]. In systems such as 3-fluoropiperidinium, dipole minimization rather than C-F...H bonding has been suggested to best explain the observed conformational bias [55]. The C-F...H interaction is variously described as a hydrogen-bonding or a dipolar interaction. The distinction is that a hydrogen-bonding interaction has a covalent component which is anisotropic, while a dipolar interaction is entirely electrostatic and not dependent on directionality. A recent analysis of C-F...H contacts documented in the Cambridge Structural Database (CSD) supports the absence of an anisotropic component in the C-F...H interaction. Specifically, in a survey of 100 compounds with C-F...H bond distances between 1.85 Å and 2.35 Å, the C-F...H bond angle was found to vary significantly between 95° and 165°, while demonstrating no dependence on F...H distance [30]. The absence of a directional dependence of C-F...H interactions is in agreement with an earlier analysis of the Protein Data Bank (PDB) [129]. The C-F...H interaction is therefore best described as a dipolar interaction.

The presence of inter- and intra-molecular C-F...H contacts is mostly supported by crystallographic data. Often a F...H distance shorter than the sum of the F and H van der Waals radii (~ 2.65 Å) is used as evidence for a C-F...H interaction [129]. A review of the PDB in 2004 using this distance criterion as well as directional constraints found that “...there is an 18% chance that a generic PDB entry with a co-crystallized fluorine-containing ligand presents a hydrogen-bond occurring at the fluorine” and that “10% of the overall amount of fluorine atoms from the PDB

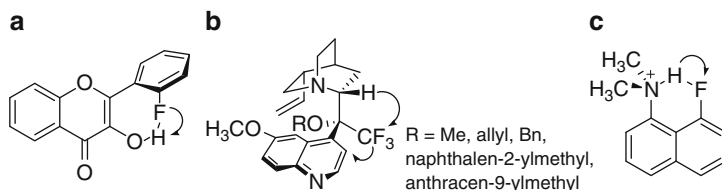


Fig. 31 C-F...H interaction in (a) 2'-fluoroflavonol; (b) O-alkyl 9-dehydro-9-trifluoromethyl-9-epiquinidines; (c) 8-fluoro-*N,N*-dimethylnaphthalen-1-amine

are involved in hydrogen bonding contacts” [129]. The mean F...H distances calculated for aliphatic, aromatic, and geminal fluorines (CF_2H , CF_3) are 2.113 Å, 2.698 Å, and 2.350 Å, respectively. When standard deviation values are considered, the differences between the three types of C-F bond are not statistically significant. Instead, a calculated mean F...H distance of 2.313 Å is more appropriate [129]. As a comparison, almost all H...O and H...N contacts observed crystallographically are less than 2.2 Å in length [138]. It is therefore suggested that a bond distance much shorter than 2.65 Å is often needed for a productive F...H interaction, and that this distance criterion is not a reliable indicator of F...H interactions [137].

Many studies have attempted to provide non-crystallographic evidence for a C-F...H interaction. For example, the magnitude of a $^1\text{H}J_{\text{F,H(O)}}$ NMR coupling constant has been used as evidence for a C-F...H interaction in 2'-fluoroflavonol (Fig. 31a) [139]. However, this analysis targets a minor conformer of 2'-fluoroflavonol and relies upon several assumptions regarding electronics. The same authors report that the $^1\text{H}J_{\text{F,H(O)}}$ coupling constants found for 2-fluorophenol and 4-bromo-2-fluorophenol arise from overlap of the electronic clouds surrounding both coupling nuclei (owing to their spatial proximity) rather than from transmission through a hydrogen bond [140].

In another study, the nature of intramolecular C-F...H-C bonding was interrogated using O-alkyl 9-dehydro-9-trifluoromethyl-9-epiquinidines as model systems (Fig. 31b) [134]. These compounds demonstrate many phenomena consistent with C-F...H-C bonding: X-ray crystal structures contain close F...H contacts, as low as 2.19 Å when R=Me; ^{19}F NMR spectra contain three distinct resonances with first order $^2J_{\text{F-F}}$ coupling indicating that the rotation of the CF_3 group is greatly restricted; and noticeable deshielding is observed in ^1H NMR for the proton most proximal to the CF_3 group. A combination of crystallographic and NMR observations with Eyring analysis and extensive computational analysis were used to probe the nature of this C-F...H-C interaction [134]. Despite the strong appearance of a C-F...H-C bonding interaction, it was concluded that steric crowding is responsible for the short F...H distances and restricted rotation; even the strongest C-F...H-C bonding interactions in the system contribute minimally to the ground state geometry or hinder rotation [134].

In contrast to C-F...H-C bonding, the C-F...H-N $^+\text{R}_3$ interaction is considered one of the strongest C-F...H bonding interactions. As a tool to further study the C-F...H-N $^+\text{R}_3$ interaction, 8-fluoro-*N,N*-dimethylnaphthalen-1-amine, the fluoro analog of 1,8-bis(dimethylamino)naphthalene (“Proton Sponge”), was prepared and studied (Fig. 31c) [133]. The basicity of this compound is slightly greater (<1 pK $_a$

unit) than that of the parent compound *N,N*-dimethylnaphthalen-1-amine. Crystal structures of the protonated molecule with either a TfO⁻ or B(C₆F₅)₄⁻ counterion indicate an intramolecular C-F...H-N⁺R₃ bonding interaction, with F...H distances of 2.131 Å and 2.027 Å, respectively. In both cases, hydrogen-bonding is observed between the proton and the counterion with significance equal to that of the C-F...H-N⁺R₃ contact. Unlike Proton Sponge, the H-N⁺R₃ proton is observed crystallographically to lie outside of the naphthalene plane, with deviations from planarity of 39.5° and 29.5° for TfO⁻ and B(C₆F₅)₄⁻ counter ions, respectively. Observation in ¹⁹F NMR of a large *J*_{F,H} coupling constant is cited as further support of the C-F...H-N⁺R₃ bonding interaction. Interestingly, the *J*_{F,H} coupling observed with a B(C₆F₅)₄⁻ counterion is suppressed if TfO⁻ or Cl⁻ are instead used as the counterion, or if the solvent for the B(C₆F₅)₄⁻ counterion is switched from CH₂Cl₂ to acetonitrile. Taken together, the evidence points towards the existence of a weak C-F...H-N⁺R₃ interaction which, in terms of significance, is of approximately equal in magnitude to that of the TfO⁻...H interaction.

The large number of C-F...H contacts observed in crystallographic databases may mislead into an overly optimistic assessment of the importance of this interaction. Care must be taken in attributing the interaction to C-F...H bonding rather than to other conformational or intramolecular influences. Where the strongest isolated C-F...H interaction, C-F...H-N⁺R₃, is in fact relatively weak, less significant C-F...H interactions become negligible. However, even weak interactions can play a supporting role in drug-target interactions and, as the prevalence of C-F...H contacts observed crystallographically suggests, the significance of the C-F...H interaction may be amplified in specific environments such as within the cavity of a protein. That the potency of a compound can be increased *via* fluorine substitution is clear, but the contributing factors are likely complex in origin.

7 Fluorine in Positron Emitting Tomography (PET) Imaging

PET imaging has emerged as a useful *in vivo* imaging technique that is non-invasive in nature and is useful in both a pre-clinical and clinical setting. Positrons are antimatter to electrons and encounters between the two particles lead to annihilation and the release of energy in the form of two photons of light. These photons are of high energy (511 keV), travel in opposing directions, and are readily detected simultaneously by PET cameras surrounding the subject [141, 142]. Of particular utility, the coupling of a PET camera with a computed tomography (CT) scanner allows both anatomy and metabolism data to be combined into a unique image [141, 142]. Molecules containing PET atoms are proving to be useful for probing biochemical aspects of disease *in vivo* and drug target engagement [141–146]. The utility of the ¹⁸F isotope in PET imaging relies upon its 110 min decay half life, the longest of all of the short-lived positron-emitting radionuclides with applicability in small molecule imaging (Table 7), and the facility with which drug molecules will accommodate fluorine as a substitute for a hydrogen atom whilst preserving fundamental

Table 7 Half lives for decay and products of the most commonly used radionuclides in PET imaging

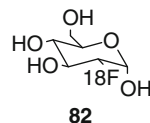
Radionuclide	T _{1/2} (min)	Product
¹¹ C	20.4	¹¹ B
¹³ N	9.97	¹³ C
¹⁵ O	2.04	¹⁵ N
¹⁸ F	110	¹⁸ O

biological properties [141–146]. However, this aspect of biochemistry must be determined by careful experimentation, particularly in the context of allosteric modulators where structure-activity relationships can be subtle and small structural changes can invert pharmacological properties [147–150]. In addition, the energy of the positron emitted by ¹⁸F is such that it travels only short distances before the annihilation event, effectively localizing the signal within a specific tissue. The utility of ¹⁸F in PET imaging is further amplified by the frequency with which fluorine atoms are being incorporated into contemporary drug candidates and marketed drugs as medicinal chemists seek to take advantage of the unique and sometimes enigmatic properties that can be conferred by this atom [15–19, 67]. Recent estimates suggest that 20 % of the drugs in the current pharmacopeia and 9 of the 30 best selling small molecule drugs (*vide supra*) in 2009 contain fluorine, providing an opportunity to introduce the ¹⁸F isotope in a fashion that would be expected to exert no demonstrable effect on the biological profile of a prototype molecule [17, 67].

Against this backdrop, ¹⁸F derivatives have emerged as important tools in biomedical imaging, with broad application essentially limited only by the methodology to introduce this isotope into molecules in a convenient fashion at the very last stages of compound synthesis and under mild conditions that preserve molecular integrity [151–158]. Production of ¹⁸F requires a cyclotron in which, most commonly, ¹⁸O-enriched water is bombarded with accelerated protons to produce [¹⁸F] fluoride ions ([¹⁸F]F⁻) which are trapped on an ion exchange resin for the purpose of separation and released by using a carbonate or bicarbonate solution containing the appropriate metal counter ion. However, fluoride ion is poorly nucleophilic but quite basic, a problem solved by elution with a solution of 2,2,2-cryptand and K₂CO₃ in CH₃CN which, after drying, provides a complex of [(crypt-222)K]⁺[¹⁸F]⁻ in which chelation of the potassium ion increases fluoride reactivity [141]. The highly electrophilic [¹⁸F]-fluorine gas ([¹⁸F]F₂) can also be prepared in a cyclotron by bombarding natural neon with high energy deuterons or, preferably, ¹⁸O₂ with protons to provide alternative reactivity pathways with which to introduce ¹⁸F.

2-[¹⁸F]-Fluoro-2-deoxy-D-glucose ([¹⁸F]-FDG, **82**) has found widespread application for assessing the metabolic status of heart, lungs and brain and, particularly, for imaging tumor cells, which accumulate the molecule based on their high metabolic demands (Fig. 32) [159]. [¹⁸F]-FDG (**82**) is recognized as glucose and taken up by cells *via* the glucose transporter and phosphorylated by hexokinase to [¹⁸F]-FDG-6-phosphate, which cannot be metabolized further due to the presence of the 2-fluorine substituent [142, 143]. This maximizes the value of [¹⁸F]-FDG (**82**) as a PET agent by localizing the molecule and preventing its metabolic conversion into a myriad of degradation products. Moreover, decomposition of [¹⁸F]-FDG (**82**)

Fig. 32 2- ^{18}F -Fluoro-2-deoxy-D-glucose (^{18}F -FDG)



ultimately affords 2- ^{18}O glucose, a heavy atom analogue that is innocuously metabolized by normal pathways. ^{18}F -FDG (**82**) is used to diagnose a range of cancers including lung and intestinal cancer, lymphomas and melanomas and metastatic tumors but is not without its limitations as a diagnostic tool since its utility is dependent on tumor location and homogeneity [142].

The radiolabeling of ligands for specific receptors, transporters or enzymes with ^{18}F provides reagents of particular value for the development and assessment of central nervous system (CNS) function *in vivo* in a non-invasive fashion that has both preclinical and clinical utility [142]. In addition to providing insights into brain metabolism and neurotransmission, ^{18}F -labeled ligands can be used to provide evidence of brain distribution and target engagement by an exploratory drug candidate for which a homologue incorporating a positron emitting element has been identified. However, the development of PET ligands to label specific receptors in the brain is not always straightforward and success depends on several factors including the intrinsic affinity of a ligand for the protein target of interest, specific radioactivity of the probe molecule, susceptibility to metabolic degradation that leads to loss of the radiolabel, blood-brain barrier permeability of the compound which can be a function of P-glycoprotein-mediated efflux, and the extent of non-specific binding to tissues which can lead to poor signal contrast [143, 144]. The latter is often a function of molecules that are highly lipophilic and which are attracted with facility to fatty acid elements in cell membranes, providing high background signals that are manifested as noise. For optimal brain penetration, a $\log P$ value of between 1.5 and 3 is generally considered to be optimal although $\log D$ measurements that take into account the charge at the physiological pH of 7.4 are considered to be the more relevant index of lipophilicity [143]. However, there are exceptions to these guidelines and the development of ^{18}F -labeled PET ligands remains an experimental science.

Many useful PET ligands that demonstrate specificity for target receptors, transporters or enzymes have been developed, and these ligands have proven useful as probes for imaging receptor occupancy, monitoring changes in target density, and measuring *in vivo* drug distribution and kinetics after local administration, particularly to the CNS and the lung (Fig. 33) [144, 160–163]. A prominent example is ^{18}F -fluoro-L-DOPA (**83**), the first agent developed to image the dopamine system. **83** is used as a metabolic tracer to characterize neuroendocrine tumors which take up ^{18}F -FDG (**82**) only poorly and to monitor dopamine distribution and metabolism in the brain where it is converted to ^{18}F -fluorodopamine (**84**) and additional metabolites useful in the study of Parkinson's disease [144, 164–167]. ^{18}F -2- β -carbomethoxy-3- β -(4-chlorophenyl)-8-(2-fluoroethyl)-nortropine (^{18}F -FECNT) (**85**) is an analogue of cocaine used to assess the density of presynaptic dopamine transporters whilst ^{18}F -fallypride (**86**) is a useful ligand for labeling the dopamine D2 receptor [144, 168–170].

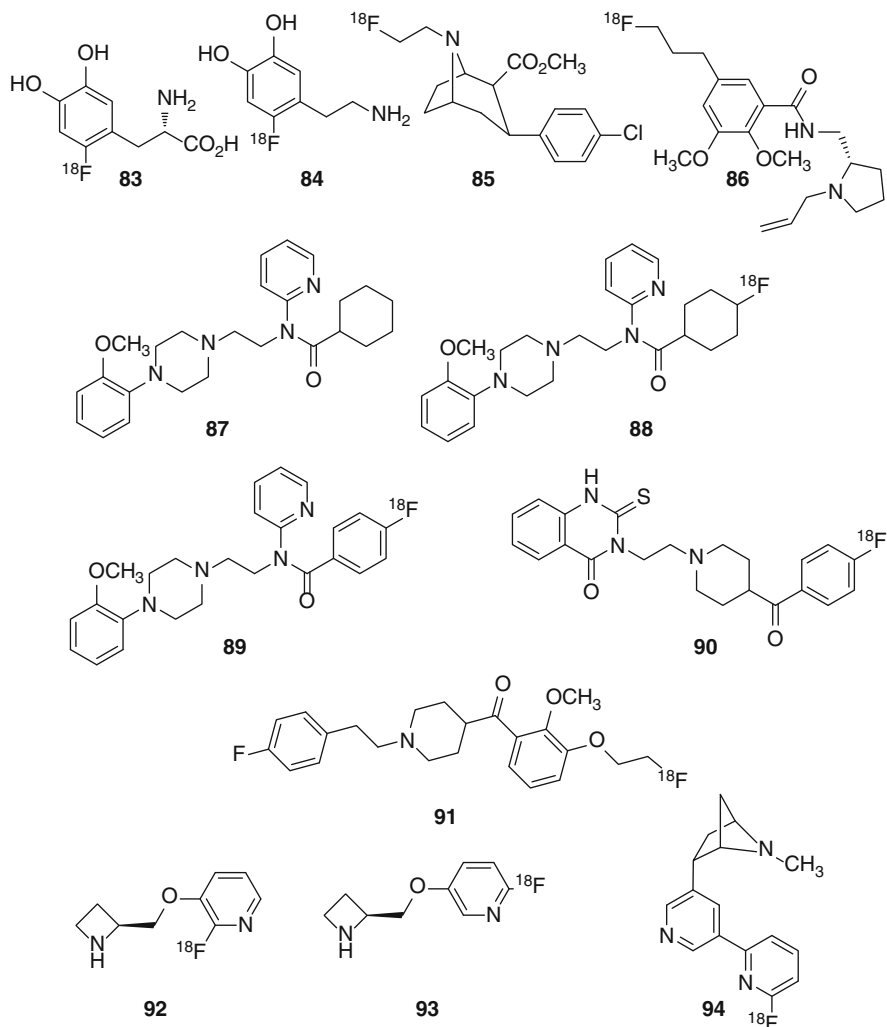


Fig. 33 PET ligands that have been used to target receptors, transporters or enzymes

WAY-100635 (**87**) was originally described as a potent and selective $5\text{HT}_{1\text{A}}$ receptor antagonist, $K_i=2.2$ nM, prompting the development of labeled forms used to illuminate the pharmacology of these receptors *in vivo* [144, 171]. A ^{11}C label was readily introduced at the carbonyl carbon for PET imaging since the absence of fluorine in the molecule prevented simple replacement, necessitating the development and profiling of the analogues **88** and **89** in order to take advantage of the properties of ^{18}F [172]. However, more recent studies have revealed that **87** binds to dopamine $D_{4.2}$ receptors with a $K_i=16.4$ nM where it acts as a full agonist, providing caution on the use of **87** and its analogues in imaging [171].

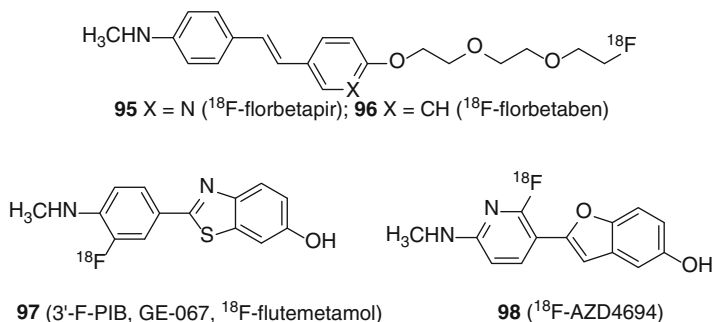


Fig. 34 PET tracers for the detection of A β amyloid plaques

^{18}F -Altanserin (**90**) is used to label 5HT $_2\text{A}$ receptors while MA-1 (**91**) offers enhanced receptor selectivity and lipophilicity [144, 173, 174]. 2-[^{18}F]-F-A85380 (**92**) and 6-[^{18}F]-F-A85380 (**93**) have been developed as useful PET ligands for labeling the nicotinic acetylcholine receptor but take several hours to reach steady state concentration in the brain and exhibit low binding potentials ($B_{\text{max}}/K_{\text{d}}$), prompting the development of **94** as a $\alpha 2\beta 4$ antagonist, $K_{\text{i}} = 240$ pM, with improved brain kinetics [144, 175].

The ^{18}F -labelled styrylpyridine derivative florbetapir (**95**) was approved by the FDA on April 6th, 2012 for use as a PET ligand that labels A β amyloid plaques in the brain (Fig. 34) [176, 177]. ^{18}F -Florbetapir (**95**) derives from a series of stilbene derivatives that labeled amyloid plaques but were too lipophilic to be practically useful since they afforded high levels of non-specific binding in healthy brain [178–187]. The replacement of one of the phenyl rings with a pyridine heterocycle coupled with the introduction of a short polyethylene glycol moiety terminating with fluorine substitution provided **95**, a molecule with improved physical properties that bound to amyloid A β aggregates from post-mortem Alzheimer's disease brain tissue with a K_{d} of 3.72 nM and a B_{max} of 8,811 fmol/mg protein [185]. Licensing of ^{18}F -florbetapir (**95**) was based on the results of a Phase 3 clinical trial conducted in 29 patients dying of Alzheimer's disease in which the amyloid A β plaque levels estimated by the tracer were compared with post-mortem samples, an analysis that revealed excellent concordance [187]. Three additional amyloid plaque labeling agents in clinical trials are ^{18}F -florbetaben (**96**), a close analogue of ^{18}F -florbetapir (**95**), ^{18}F -flutemetamol (**97**) and ^{18}F -AZD4694 (**98**) [188–196].

The introduction of ^{18}F into potential PET ligands requires synthetic methodology that allows late stage installation of the radiolabel under conditions that are compatible with inherent and potentially labile functionality [141–145, 197]. The most common method of introducing ^{18}F into an alkyl chain relies upon ^{18}F fluoride displacement of a leaving group, typically a sulfonate, with cryptands used to sequester the counter ion and enhance the reactivity of the weakly nucleophilic anion [141–145, 197]. However, preparative procedures for a number of prosthetic moieties that incorporate alkyl fluorides have been developed that offer some advantage should this element be a part of the candidate molecule [144]. The application

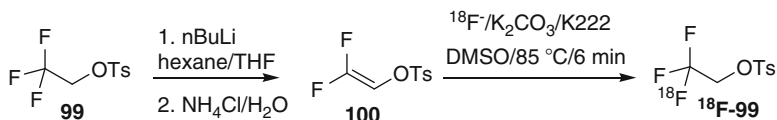


Fig. 35 Preparation of a ^{18}F -fluoroethyl reagent

of microwave heating techniques has markedly facilitated some of these procedures, improving both yields and speed of synthesis. The ^{18}F -fluoroethyl moiety is quite prominent in ^{18}F PET ligands, with the label readily introduced by treating the corresponding tosylate or trifluoromethyl sulfonate derivative with ^{18}F -fluoride [141–145, 168, 169, 197]. ^{18}F -Labeled 2,2,2-trifluoroethyl 4-methylbenzenesulfonate (^{18}F -**99**) is a prosthetic group that offers a useful approach to prepare potential PET ligands and is accessible from the unlabeled material which is sequentially subjected to $n\text{BuLi}$ -mediated elimination of HF to afford the divinyl fluoride **100** which adds ^{18}F quickly and efficiently under mild and carefully optimized conditions (Fig. 35) [198]. ^{18}F -**99** was prepared with good specific radioactivity and readily alkylated 4-cyanophenol, diphenylmethanethiol, 4-chlorobenzoic acid and dibenzylamine rapidly under mild conditions mediated by Cs_2CO_3 as the base in DMF as solvent [198].

Aryl fluorides are a much more common structural motif, ubiquitously explored in lead optimization campaigns where a phenyl ring is part of the pharmacophore. Whilst these moieties offer the potential to prepare an ^{18}F -labeled analogue of a highly optimized ligand, the introduction of fluorine to these rings late in a synthetic scheme can present a considerable challenge and both nucleophilic and electrophilic processes have been developed [141–145, 197].

Aryl or heteroaryl ring fluorination can be accomplished using $^{18}\text{F}^-$ to displace a range of leaving groups, including F, Cl, Br, and I in addition to NO_2 , NMe_3^+ and ArI^+ , a reaction facilitated by the presence of an electron withdrawing moiety on the ring [151–158, 197, 199]. Electrophilic aromatic fluorination processes are more difficult and have typically relied upon the use of $^{18}\text{F}_2$ gas, which is highly reactive and must be used under controlled conditions, with regiochemistry influenced by using trialkyl tin or mercury substituents to direct incorporation [197]. A promising new approach to electrophilic fluorination that exhibits greater compatibility with the kind of functionality found in drug molecules takes advantage of palladium catalysis with the palladium fluoride complex **102** prepared efficiently from **101** by exposure to fluoride for 5 min (Fig. 36) [200]. The palladium fluoride complex **102** functions as an electrophilic fluorinating agent and reacts with Pd-aryl complexes to afford aryl fluorides in good yield when heated in acetone at $85\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ for 10 min [200]. In a representative example, Pd complex **105** afforded the aryl fluoride **106** in 72 % yield under these conditions. Practical considerations relating this chemistry to ^{18}F labeling applications include the stability of the Pd complexes **101** and **102**, with the former stable at room temperature and to brief air exposure, whilst the palladium fluoride complex **102** is stable at $100\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ for 24 h and in 10 % aqueous CH_3CN for

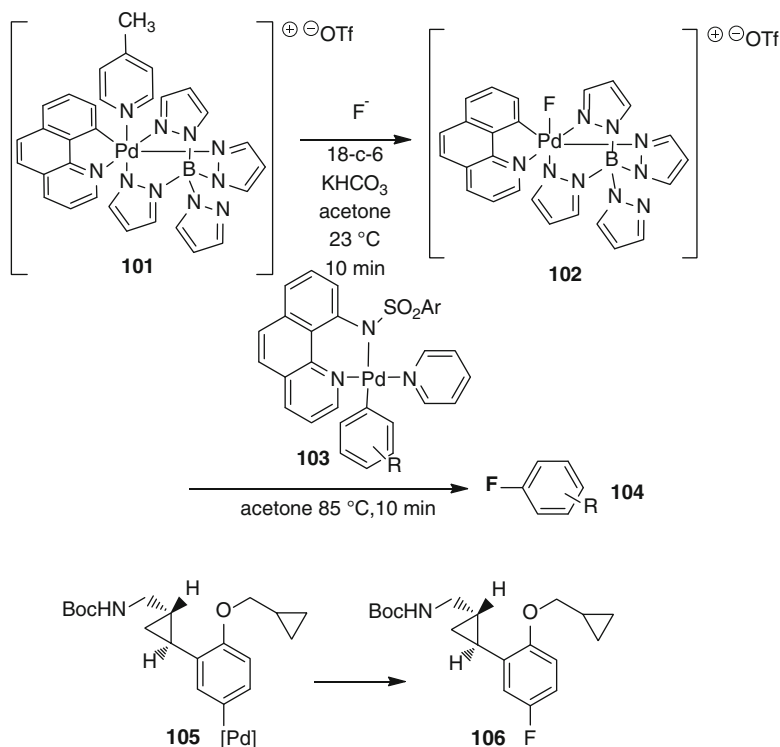


Fig. 36 ^{18}F -Pd complex **102** serves as a useful source of electrophilic ^{18}F

3 h at 23°C . However, stoichiometric quantities of the catalyst **102** are required and care must be taken to purify the organic products to remove residual Pd. Complex **101** was shown to react with solutions of ^{18}F -prepared under conventional conditions to afford ^{18}F -labelled **102** which provided ^{18}F -labelled **106** in an average 18 % radiochemical yield in two steps from $^{18}\text{F}^-$ [200].

A particularly interesting fluorination process that relies upon fluoride ion as the source and is radical-based in nature takes advantage of the manganese porphyrin catalyst $\text{Mn}(\text{TMP})\text{Cl}$ (**107**) to promote an oxidative fluorination that is applicable to aliphatic C-H moieties, potentially offering wide substrate versatility (Fig. 37) [201]. The experimental protocol exposes substrate to three equivalents of AgF , 6–8 equivalents of iodosylbenzene, 0.3 equivalents of tetrabutylammonium fluoride trihydrate and 6–8 mole % of catalyst **107** in mixture of CH_3CN and CH_2Cl_2 at 50°C under an inert atmosphere. The active catalyst in this process is believed to be *trans*-difluoro $\text{Mn}^{\text{IV}}(\text{TMP})$ (**108**) which transfers a fluorine atom to a carbon radical generated by a Mn^{V} oxo species produced by iodosylbenzene oxidation, as depicted in the catalytic cycle shown in Fig. 37. The procedure provides products in modest yields, typically just below 50 %, and with generally poor stereoselectivity at sites that are electronically unactivated. Nevertheless, the procedure is compatible

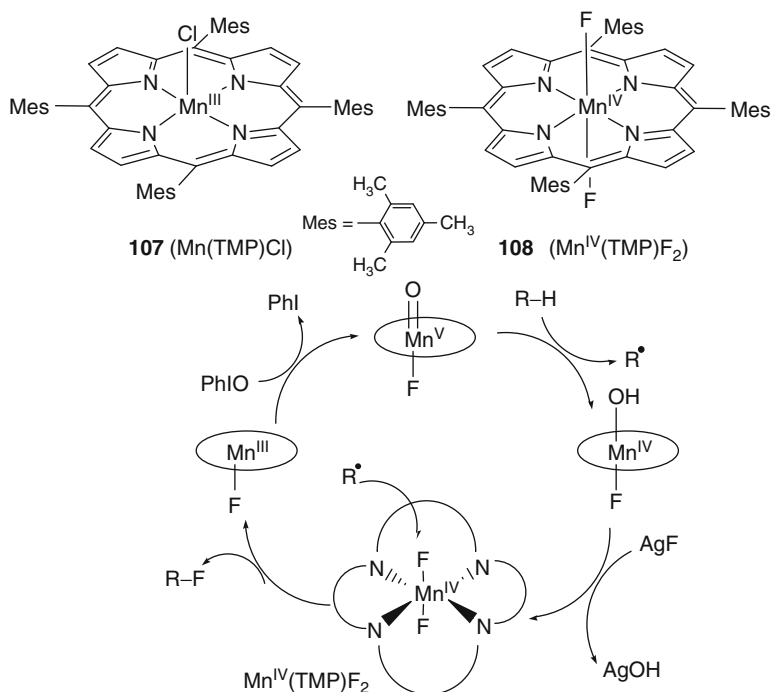


Fig. 37 Catalytic cycle for the fluorination of aliphatic substrates initiated by the manganese porphyrin derivative **107**

with a wide range of functional groups and provides access to compounds that would otherwise require significant synthetic manipulation to access by a *de novo* approach.

8 Conclusion

Fluorine is a unique atom that has found widespread application in drug design to address problems associated with controlling conformation, enhancing potency, interfering with metabolism, increasing membrane permeability and modulating the pK_a of proximal functionality. Although the physical chemistry underlying many of these effects is reasonably well understood, there remains much to learn about the influence of fluorine on drug properties and how fluorine can be exploited to full advantage. With continuing advances in the development of mild and efficient methods to introduce fluorine into organic molecules, it can be anticipated that applications of this remarkable element in drug discovery and development will grow in both sophistication and understanding. The promise of new and deeper insights into the properties and utility of fluorine should provide additional creative stimulus for improved synthetic methods, broadening and enhancing productive applications.

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Chemistry of Fluorinated Pyrroles

Valentine Nenajdenko, Vasilii M. Muzalevskiy, and Olga V. Serdyuk

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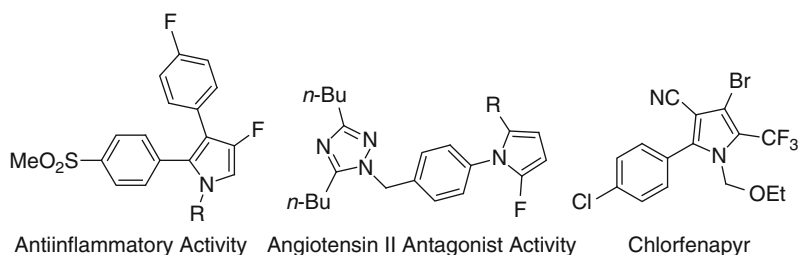
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Abstract Synthetic approaches towards pyrroles, bearing fluorine atoms and trifluoromethyl group, are overviewed in this chapter. Literature data are surveyed accordingly to reaction type used to obtain the fluorinated pyrrole moiety. Properties as well as some applications of fluorinated are also reviewed.

Keywords Pyrroles • Fluorine • Trifluoromethyl group • Synthesis • Fluorinated heterocycles

1 Introduction

Pyrroles constitute the core of a large number of alkaloids and many other physiologically active compounds, which make them strongly attractive as synthetic targets for further investigation. Fluoropyrrole derivatives are important anti-inflammatory agents [1], stable GnRH receptor antagonists [2], inhibitors of HCV NS5B polymerase [3], Angiotensin II receptor antagonists used in therapy for treating hypertension [4]. Fluorinated pyrrole derivative chlorfenapyr, discovered in 1988, was commercialized in 1995 as a broad-spectrum insecticide [5].



This chapter summarizes the major synthetic pathways towards fluoro- and trifluoromethylpyrroles. Biological properties and applications of these compounds are also included. The chapter is organized according to the reaction type used to gain the target fluorinated pyrrole.

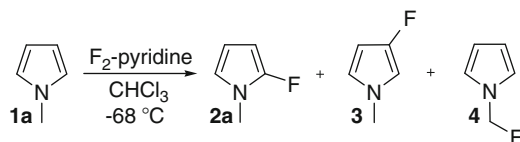
2 Synthesis of Fluorinated Pyrroles

2.1 Fluorination/Trifluoromethylation Methods

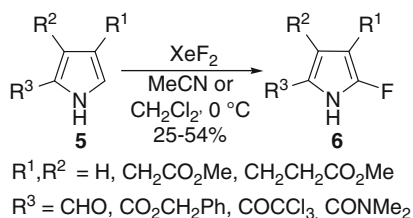
2.1.1 Electrophilic Fluorination

Direct fluorination of pyrrole ring was examined in several works to give a simple pathway to fluoropyrroles. However, high reactivity of pyrrole ring towards electrophiles, resulting in their easy polymerization, leads to fluoropyrroles obtained in low or moderate yields, which is a disadvantage of this approach. Except the

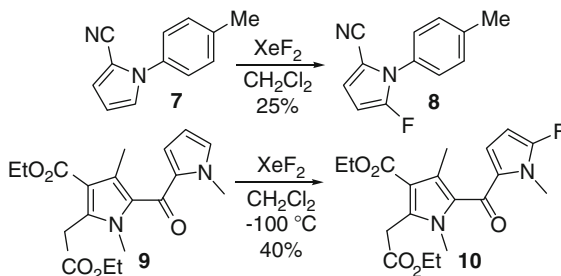
fluorination with elemental fluorine, this method provides regioselectively 2-fluoropyrroles. Thus, treatment of N-methylpyrrole **1a** with F₂ under carefully controlled conditions in CHCl₃ afforded both 2- and 3-fluoropyrroles **2,3** together with fluoromethylpyrrole **4** (the yields are not given) [6].



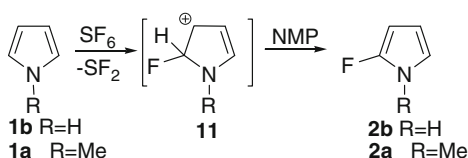
Direct fluorination of pyrroles **5** without NH-protection can be performed with substrates bearing electron-withdrawing substituents, using xenon difluoride. The transformation gives substituted 2-fluoropyrroles **6** in moderate yields [7].



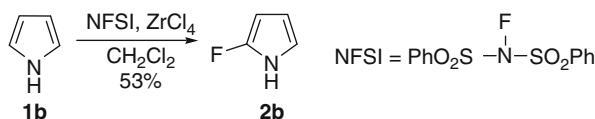
Fluorination of N-substituted pyrroles **7,9** with xenon difluoride was also performed to give substituted products at α-position **8,10** in moderate yields [8].



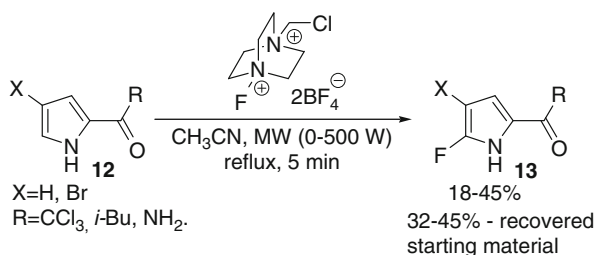
The first synthesis of 2-fluoropyrrole **2b** and N-methylated analogue **2a** was performed in gas phase by electron ionization of SF₆. SF₃⁺ species are formed under these conditions providing approach to generate a gentle and effective electrophilic monofluorinating reagent for five-membered heterocyclic compounds [9].



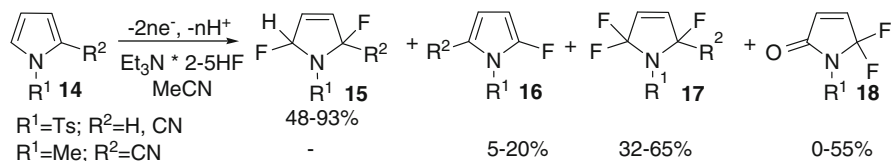
A more convenient method of fluorination is based on the Lewis acid catalyzed reaction with N-fluorobenzenesulfonimide (NFSI). The reaction is catalyzed by $ZrCl_4$ and gives 2-fluoropyrrole **2b** in 53 % yield. The use of a large amount of catalyst can increase the yield of the product; but the amount of unknown by-products also increases [10].



Fluorination of a series of 2-acylpyrroles **12** was also performed using Selectfluor. Treatment of mono- and nonbrominated 2-acylpyrroles **12** with Selectfluor in MeCN under microwave irradiation leads to fluorination of the pyrrole ring at the 5-position. The corresponding fluoropyrroles **13** were isolated in moderate yields. However noticeable amounts of starting materials were also isolated, making real yields much higher [11]. Fluoropyrroles thus obtained were used for the synthesis of fluoroanalogue of hymenidin (see Sect. 3 of this chapter).

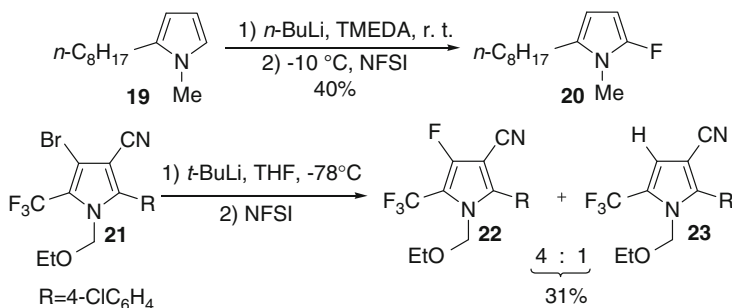


Direct anodic fluorination of 1,2-disubstituted pyrroles **14** gives 5-fluoropyrroles **16** and/or fluorinated adducts **15**, **17**, pyrrolin-2-ones **18**. The transformation is performed with platinum plate electrode in acetonitrile containing supporting fluoride salts $\text{Et}_3\text{N-nHF}$ [12]. The structure of product depends on supporting fluoride salts.

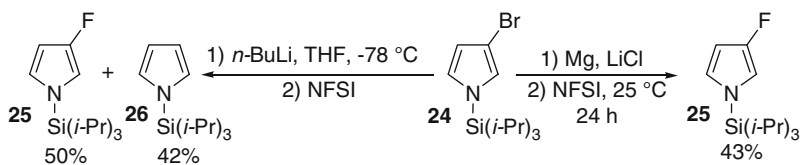


It is known, that convenient approach to fluorinated five-membered heterocycles, including pyrroles, is based on the metallation-fluorination reactions [13]. Thus, 100 % regioselective lithiation of the starting N-methylpyrrole **19** followed by a treatment of the corresponding organolithium derivative with NFSI gives 2-fluoro-5-*n*-octyl-N-methylpyrrole **20** in 40 % yield [13]. Similarly, starting from

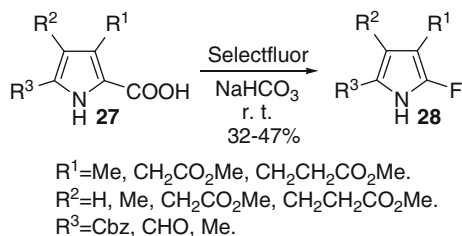
bromopyrrole **21**, highly substituted fluoropyrrole **22** was prepared with admixture of pyrrole **23** [14].



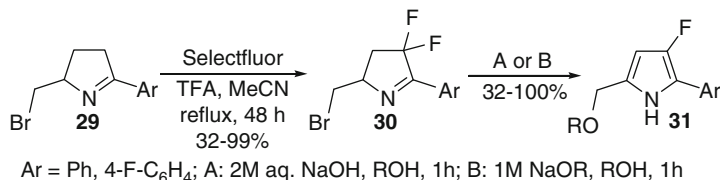
Reaction of NFSI with lithiopyrrole derivative obtained by Br-Li exchange from 3-bromopyrrole **24** afforded the desired 3-fluoro-1-(triisopropylsilyl)pyrrole **25** in 50 % yield and 1-(triisopropylsilyl)pyrrole **26** as a major by-product [14, 15]. The conversion of Grignard reagents into the corresponding fluorinated products using a Br-Mg exchange and a subsequent fluorination procedure with NFSI represents convenient modification of this method providing the fluoropyrrole **25** in 43 % yield [16].



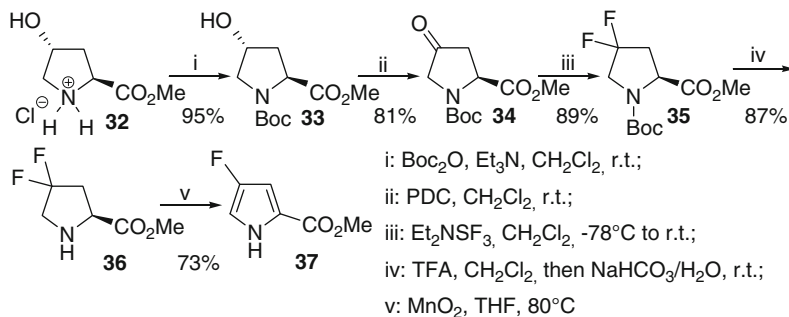
All methods above described are based on the direct fluorination of heterocycle or lithiation followed by fluorination via formal substitution of hydrogen. However, various pyrrole derivatives such as carboxylic acids and halopyrroles can be also used as starting compounds for electrophilic fluorination-decarboxylation. Thus, reaction of α -pyrrolecarboxylic acids **27**, in which the ring is highly substituted by electron-withdrawing or electron-donating groups, with Selectfluor gives the corresponding α -fluoropyrroles **28** in 32–47 % yields [17].



Another possibility for the synthesis of fluorinated pyrroles is the use of their nonaromatic precursors. Thus, 3,3-difluoro-1-pyrrolines **30** were prepared via electrophilic fluorination of the corresponding 1-pyrrolines **29** by Selectfluor. Reaction of the difluoropyrrolines **30** with sodium alkoxides yielded fluorinated 5-(alkoxymethyl) pyrroles **31** in good yields [18].



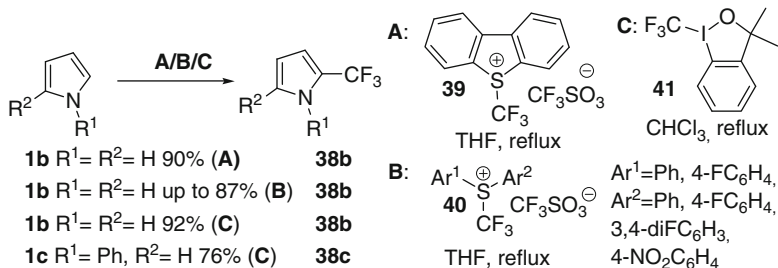
Effective pathway towards 3-fluoropyrrole **37** was elaborated on the base of easily available methyl *trans*-4-hydroxy-L-prolinate **32**. After Boc-protection of this compound followed by oxidation with PDC, ketone obtained **34**, was converted into difluoride **35** by the reaction with DAST. N-Boc deprotection of **35** with trifluoroacetic acid afforded, after basic treatment, free base **36** which was aromatized by activated manganese dioxide into methyl 4-fluoro-1H-pyrrole-2-carboxylate **37** [15, 19].



2.1.2 Electrophilic Trifluoromethylation

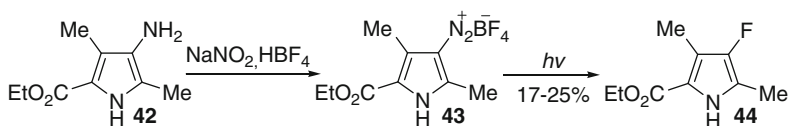
Electrophilic aromatic substitution is also a general method towards trifluoromethylated pyrroles. Umemoto et al. investigated a variety of sulfonium, telluronium, selenonium and oxonium salts as sources of the trifluoromethyl cation. Thus, the sulfonium salt **39** was applied for pyrrole trifluoromethylation. The 2-CF₃-pyrrole **38b** was obtained regioselectively in 90 % yield [20]. Several other sulfonium salts **40** were also used for pyrrole trifluoromethylation [21]. Highest yields were obtained with the most electrophilic salts bearing electron-withdrawing groups in the benzene rings. Perfect regioselectivity was also achieved then hypervalent iodine reagent **41** was used for electrophilic trifluoromethylation of pyrroles [22].

High yields of the target pyrroles and simplicity of experimental technique are significant advantages of electrophilic trifluoromethylation.

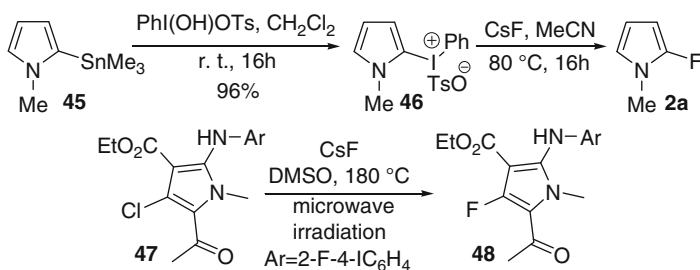


2.1.3 Nucleophilic Fluorination

In contrast to fluorination using electrophiles, nucleophilic fluorination is much rarely presented in the literature. A photochemical modification of the Schiemann reaction has been used for the preparation of 3-fluoropyrroles. Thus, treatment of aminopyrrole derivative **42** with NaNO₂ in fluoroboric acid afforded the diazonium tetrafluoroborate **43**. Irradiation of this compound with a high pressure mercury lamp gave 3-fluoropyrrole **44** in 17–25 % yield [23].

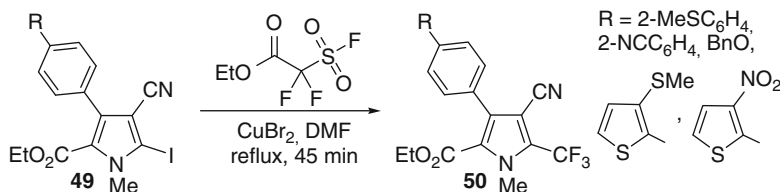


2-Fluoropyrrole **2a** was obtained in good yield through the intermediate iodonium salt **46**, starting from stannane **45** [24]. The reaction represents an example of nucleophilic substitution in iodonium salts by fluoride ion. Similarly, chlorine atom in pyrrole **47** activated by electron-withdrawing CO₂Et and acyl groups was substituted by fluoride in DMSO under microwave irradiation to give fluoropyrrole **48** [25]. The yields of products obtained were not reported.

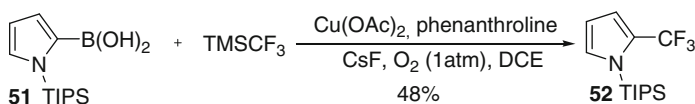


2.1.4 Nucleophilic Trifluoromethylation

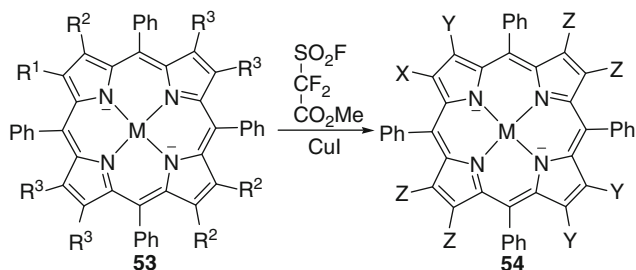
2-Trifluoromethyl pyrroles can be also synthesized by nucleophilic trifluoromethylation. In few works the *ipso*-substitution of iodide in compounds **49** by the trifluoromethyl group was reported using a mixture of $\text{FSO}_2\text{CF}_2\text{CO}_2\text{Et}$ and CuBr_2 as the source of the unstable intermediate trifluoromethyl anion [26]. No yields of compounds **50** were given.



Copper-mediated oxidative cross-coupling of 2-pyrrolylboronic acid **51** with TMSCF_3 provided another selective approach to 2-trifluoromethylpyrrole. Reaction proceeds in mild conditions to give *N*-TIPS-2-trifluoromethylpyrrole **52** in 48 % yield [27].



Various trifluoromethylated metalloporphyrins **54** were prepared in high yields by the reaction of brominated metalloporphyrins **53** (copper and nickel complexes) with stoichiometric amounts of $\text{FSO}_2\text{CF}_2\text{COOMe}/\text{CuI}$ in the presence of catalytic amounts of a palladium catalyst [28]. Similarly, the $(\text{CF}_3)_2\text{Cd}-\text{CF}_3\text{CdBr}-\text{CuBr}$ system was used as a source of trifluoromethyl anion in the synthesis of some porphyrin derivatives [29].



$\text{R}^1 = \text{Br}, \text{R}^2 = \text{R}^3 = \text{Y} = \text{Z} = \text{H}, \text{X} = \text{CF}_3$ $\text{M} = \text{Cu}^{2+}$ 65%; $\text{M} = \text{Ni}^{2+}$ 70%
 $\text{R}^1 = \text{R}^2 = \text{Br}, \text{R}^3 = \text{Z} = \text{H}, \text{X} = \text{Y} = \text{CF}_3$ $\text{M} = \text{Cu}^{2+}$ 95%; $\text{M} = \text{Ni}^{2+}$ 95%
 $\text{R}^1 = \text{R}^2 = \text{R}^3 = \text{Br}, \text{X} = \text{Y} = \text{Z} = \text{CF}_3$ $\text{M} = \text{Cu}^{2+}$ 85%; $\text{M} = \text{Ni}^{2+}$ 90%

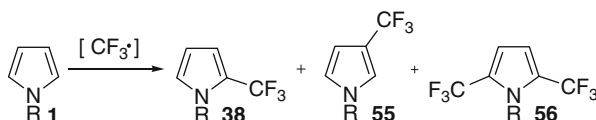
Table 1 Synthesis of regioisomeric trifluoromethylpyrroles

Entry	Educt 1	R	CF ₃ source	CF ₃	Yield 38 (%)	Yield 55 or 56 , (%)	References
2	1a	Me	CF ₃ I	CF ₃	36	7 (56)	[31]
1	1b	H	CF ₃ I	CF ₃	33	–	[31]
3	1d	Bn	CF ₃ I	CF ₃	71	–	[32]
4	1e	<i>p</i> -Tol	CF ₃ I	CF ₃	91	–	[32]
5	1b	H	CF ₂ I ₂	CF ₃	42	2 (55)	[33]
6	1a	Me	CF ₂ I ₂	CF ₃	46	3 (55)	[33]
7	1b	H	(CF ₃ CO ₂) ₂	CF ₃	72	–	[34]
8	1b	H	70	CF ₃	51	–	[35]
9	1b	H	Te(CF ₃) ₂	CF ₃	(25:	1(38b) ^a	[36]
13	1a	Me	CF ₃ Br	CF ₃	52 ^b	–	[37]
10	1b	H	CF ₃ Br	CF ₃	15 ^b	–	[37]
11	1b	H	CF ₃ Br	CF ₃	47 ^c	–	[37]
12	1b	H	CF ₃ Br	CF ₃	65 ^d	8 (55)	[38]

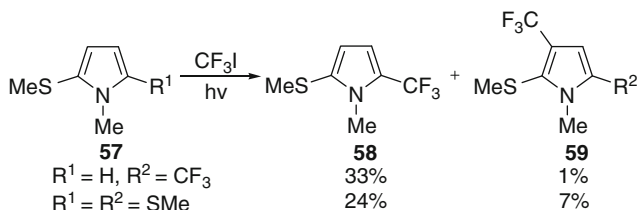
^aYield not givenReducing systems: ^bZn/SO₂, ^cNa₂S₂O₄, ^dHCO₂Na/SO₂

2.1.5 Radical Trifluoromethylation

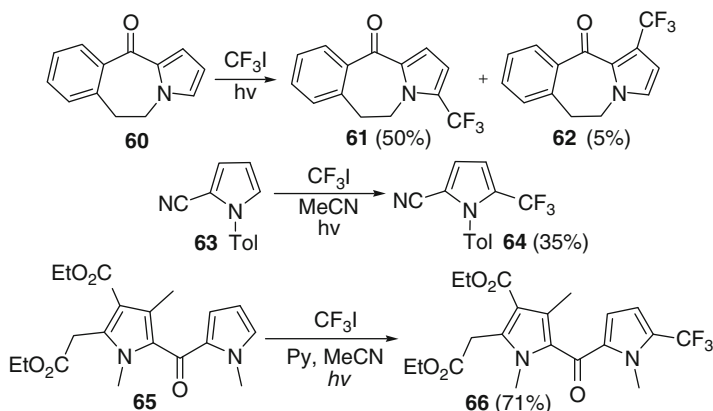
The direct trifluoromethylation of the pyrrole ring is a widely used approach to synthesize trifluoromethylated products [30]. The *N*-methylpyrrole **1a** reacted regioselectively with CF₃Br in acetonitrile under UV irradiation (Hg lamp) giving the 2-CF₃-pyrrole **38a** in 6 % yield. Under similar conditions, the reactions of pyrroles **1a,1b** with CF₃I in acetonitrile [31] resulted in higher yields. Trifluoromethylation of **1b** proceeded regioselectively in 2-position to give **38b** in 33 % yield, while **38a** was isolated in 36 % yield [31] (Table 1, entries 1 and 2). However, excess of CF₃I (2.5 equiv.) was needed to complete the conversion of **1a**. This resulted in the admixture of the bis-trifluoromethylation product **56a** (7 %). In contrast, *N*-benzyl- and *N*-(*p*-tolyl)substituted pyrroles **1d** and **1e** afforded the corresponding derivatives **38d** and **38e** in 71 % and 91 % yields, respectively [32] (Table 1, entries 3 and 4).



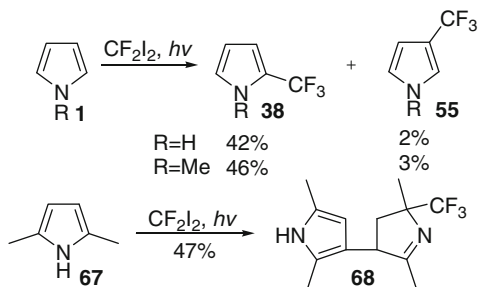
Similarly, in case of the methylthio derivatives **57** maximal yields of **58** were obtained using 2.5 equiv. of CF₃I. However, full consumption of starting material was not achieved and formation of side products **59** was observed [31].



Several other photochemical trifluoromethylations by CF_3I were reported. The regioisomeric substitution products **61** and **62** were formed [32] from the tricyclic pyrrole **60**, whereas regioselective α -trifluoromethylation was observed for pyrroles **63** and **65** to give 2- CF_3 -pyrroles **64** [4] and **66** [8] in moderate and good yields.

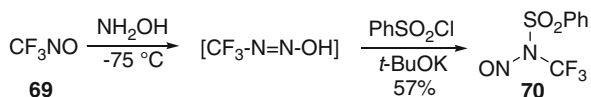


Surprisingly, the reaction of CF_2I_2 with pyrrole (**1b**) and *N*-methylpyrrole (**1a**) gave the trifluoromethylated products **38b** and **38a** in moderate yields under UV irradiation in DMF (Table 1, entries 5 and 6) [33]. In contrast the related reaction with 2,5-dimethylpyrrole **67** gave the trifluoromethylated dimer **68** instead of the desired 2,5-dimethyl-3-trifluoromethylpyrrole.

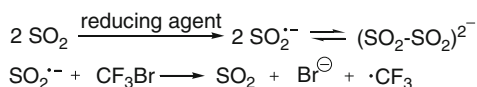


Bis(perfluoroalkanoyl)peroxides were also applied for radical trifluoromethylation of pyrrole **2b** [34]. Performing the reaction in freon 113 at -30°C was found to be optimal for all peroxides. In this way 2- CF_3 -pyrrole **38b** was regioselectively synthesized in 72 % yield (Table 1, entry 7). Lower yields were obtained both at higher temperature and in diethyl ether as a solvent.

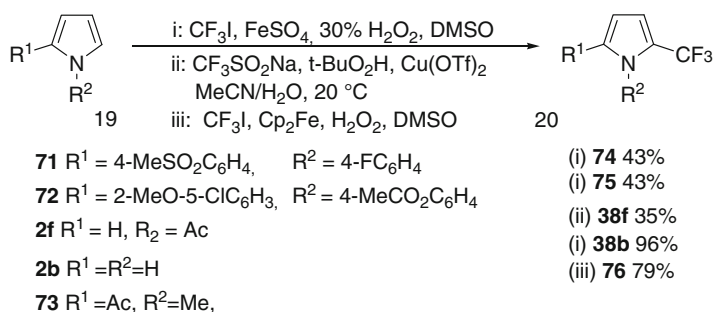
The *N*-nitrososulfonamide **70** was shown to be a convenient reagent for radical trifluoromethylation. UV irradiation of **1b** with **70** in the presence of diacetyl as a sensitizer led to **38b** in 51 % yield (Table 1, entry 8). Distinct advantage of this method is easy handling of the solid **70** instead of gaseous CF₃I or of the quite unstable bis(perfluoro-alkanoyl)peroxides. **70** is assessable from trifluoronitrosomethane **69** in a one-pot procedure [35]. Te(CF₃)₂ was also used as a trifluoromethyl radical source for trifluoromethylation. The reaction proceeded under UV irradiation and led to a 25:1 mixture of pyrroles **1b** and **2b** (Table 1, entry 9) [36].



Besides UV irradiation, different reductive systems (Zn/SO₂ couple or Na₂S₂O₄) can be used for the initiation of trifluoromethyl radical formation [37]. Using these systems, compound **38b** was synthesized in low or moderate yields (Table 1, entries 10 and 11). **38a** was prepared analogously (entry 13). Initiation by HCO₂Na/SO₂ improved the yield of **38b** up to 65 %, but the admixture of 8 % of the regioisomer **55b** was found (entry 12) [38].



Trifluoromethylation of pyrroles under oxidative conditions was also reported. Thus, the DMSO-CF₃I-FeSO₄-H₂O₂ and DMSO-CF₃I-Cp₂Fe-H₂O₂ systems were applied to prepare the 2-CF₃-pyrroles **71** [39], **72** [40], **2b**, **73** [41] regioselectively in good to high yields. Similarly, using the combination CF₃SO₂Na/*t*-BuOOH/Cu(OTf)₂ in acetonitrile/water, the 2-trifluoromethyl-*N*-acylpyrrole **38f** was prepared in 35 % yield [42].

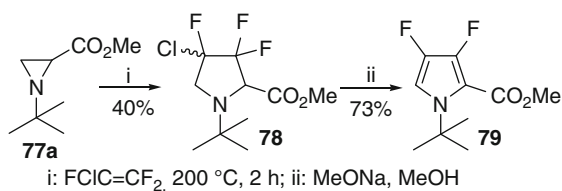


Direct fluorination/trifluoromethylation are very synthetically attractive approaches to prepare fluorinated pyrroles due to it is not necessary to construct the heterocyclic core. Especially this methods are convenient for the synthesis of fluoropyrroles. In contrast, synthesis of trifluoropyrroles is restricted by lower regioselectivity, moderate yields and the application of gaseous CF₃I or quite unstable (bis(trifluoroacetyl)peroxides).

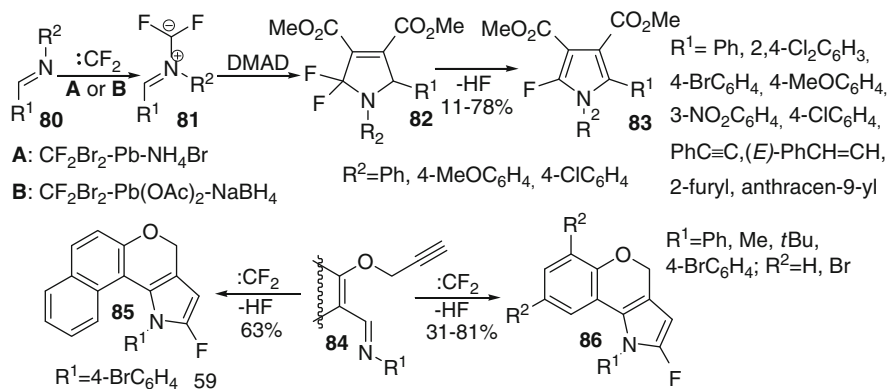
2.2 Heterocyclizations Leading to Fluorinated Pyrroles

2.2.1 Synthesis of Fluoropyrroles by [3+2] Cycloaddition Reactions

Application of cycloaddition reactions is one of the most prominent strategies in synthesis of cyclic systems. 1,3-Dipolar cycloaddition of azomethine ylides to unsaturated compounds gives rise to a number of pyrrole syntheses. For example, azomethine ylide, generating by the thermal ring-opening of 2-carbomethoxy-*t*-butyl-aziridine **77a**, reacts with chlorotrifluoroethene to give a mixture of diastereoisomeric chlorofluoropyrrolidines **78**. Treatment of those with sodium methoxide resulted in formation of 3,4-difluoropyrrole derivative **79** in high yield [43].

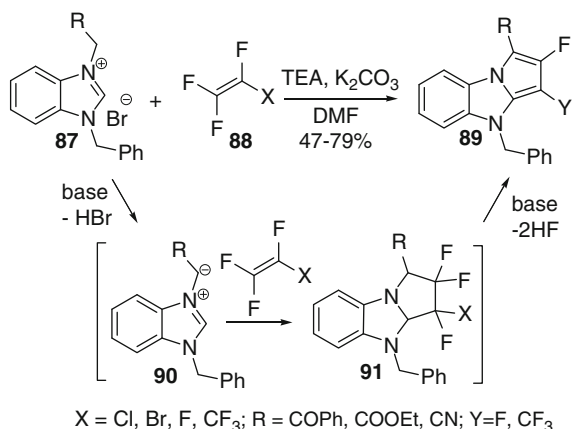


Imines **80** react with difluorocarbene in the presence of dimethyl acetylenedicarboxylate (DMAD) producing 2-fluoropyrroles **83** in 11–78 % yields. This domino process was assumed to occur via difluorocarbene attack on the nitrogen lone pair resulting in formation of azomethine ylides **81**, 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition of the latter one to DMAD, and dehydrofluorination of pyrrolines **82** thus formed [44]. Difluorocarbene can be generated by reduction of dibromodifluoromethane with lead powder in the presence of tetrabutylammonium bromide (Method A) or using active lead obtained by reduction of aqueous lead acetate with sodium borohydride (Method B). This reaction can be also performed as intramolecular version to form substituted 2-fluoropyrroles **85**, **86** [45].



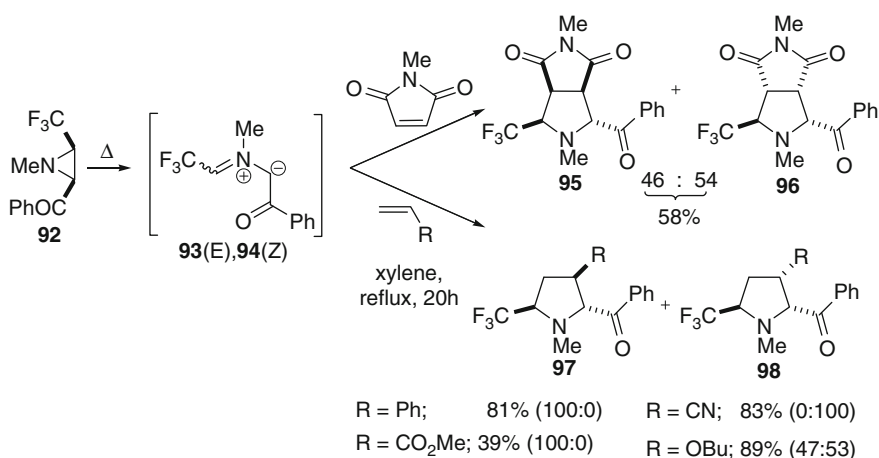
Benzimidazolium N-ylides **90**, generated in situ from bromides **87**, react with fluoroalkenes **88** in DMF in the presence of K_2CO_3 and Et_3N , to give fluorinated H-pyrrolo[1,2-a]benzimidazoles **89**. The mechanism of the reaction includes

1,3-dipolar [3+2] cycloaddition with formation of pyrrolines **91**, followed by base induced elimination-aromatization [46].



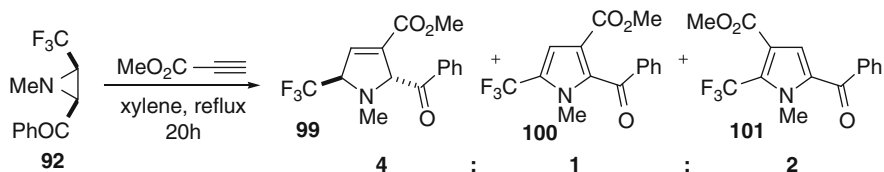
2.2.2 Synthesis of Trifluoropyrroles by [3+2] Cycloaddition Reactions

Azomethine ylides were also used as dipoles for the preparation of CF₃-pyrroles by 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition. The ylides **93** and **94** prepared *in situ* from aziridine **92** in refluxing xylene, with excess of *N*-methyl-maleimide gave a 1:1 mixture of the diastereomeric pyrrolidines **95** and **96**. The reactions of **92** with monosubstituted ethenes (styrene, methyl acrylate, acrylonitrile) proceeded regio- and stereoselectively giving only one of the possible isomers. In contrast, the electron-rich vinyl butyl ether led to both possible stereoisomers **97** and **98** in almost 1:1 ratio [47].

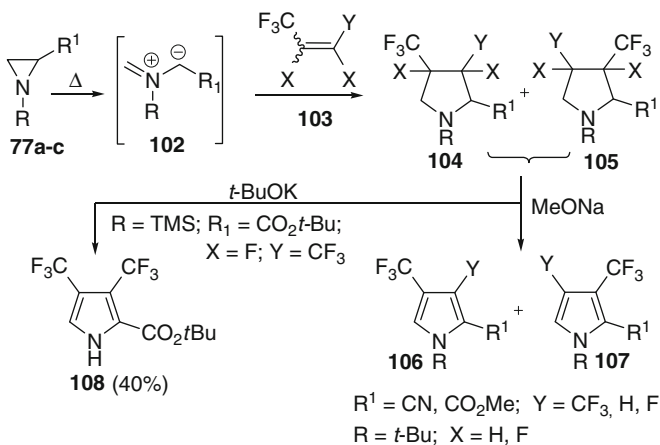


The reaction of **92** with methylpropiolate was not regioselective and led to a 4:1:2 mixture of the pyrroline **99** and the isomeric pyrroles **100** and **101**. The pyrroline **99**

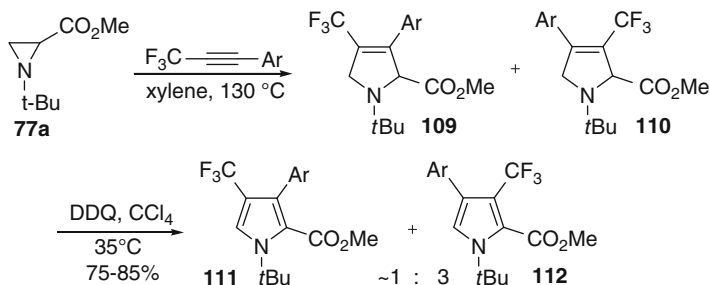
was shown to be an intermediate, which on refluxing in xylene was aromatized into **100**. The regioisomeric pyrroline leading to **101** was not isolated [47].



The addition of azomethine ylides **102** formed by heating of the aziridines **77a,b** ($\text{R} = t\text{-Bu}$) to the trifluoromethylated alkenes **103** led to mixtures of the diastereomeric pyrrolidines **104** and **105**. Subsequent elimination of HF by treatment with sodium methoxide in methanol gave predominantly the pyrrole **106** and minor amount of the regioisomer **107** [43]. 3,4-Bis(trifluoromethyl)pyrrole **108** with a free nitrogen atom was obtained using *N*-trimethylsilyl aziridine **77c** [48].

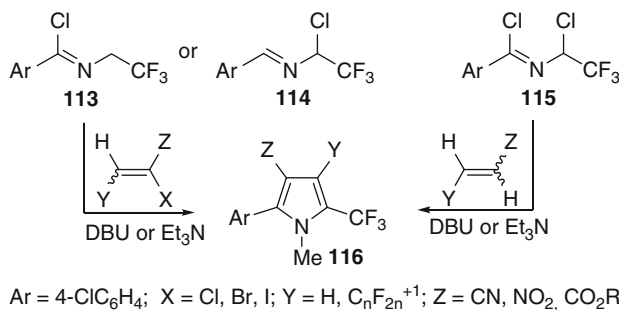


The reaction of azomethine ylide formed from the aziridine **77a** with trifluoromethylaryl acetylenes gave a mixture of dihydropyrroles **109** and **110**, which formed a 1:3 mixture of pyrroles **111** and **112** by oxidation with DDQ [49].

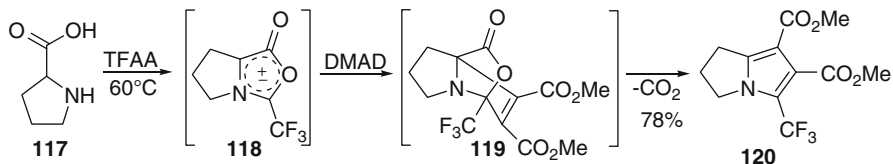


This methodology was further developed using imidoylchlorides **113** as precursors of azomethine ylides [50], which were generated by treatment with bases.

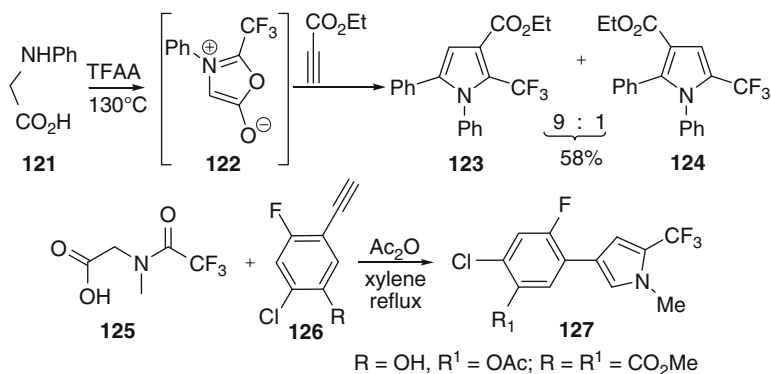
Application of the isomeric chloroimines **113** led to the same pyrroles **116** [51]. The generation of ylides was also possible from dichloroimines **115**, that allowed to involve alkenes without any vinylic halogen atoms. The yields were not given [52].



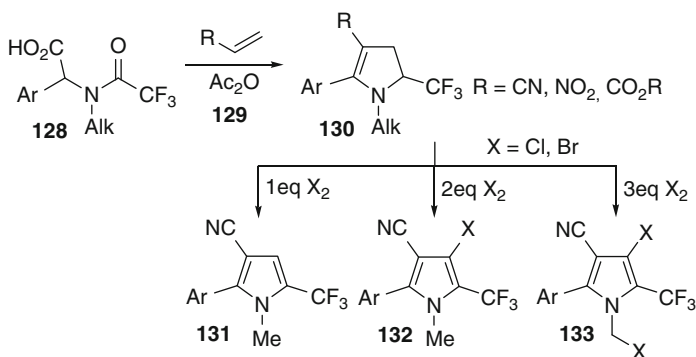
The 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition of acetylenes and alkenes with oxazolones is widely used for the construction of the pyrrole ring. The presence of a CF_3 -group in the 1,3-dipolar component opens a pathway to 2- CF_3 -pyrroles, while the application of trifluoromethylated dipolarophiles provides 3- CF_3 -pyrroles. For example, the dimethyl pyrroledicarboxylate **120** was synthesized in 78 % yield by the reaction of the CF_3 -containing oxazolone **118**, prepared from proline **117** and trifluoroacetic anhydride (TFAA), with dimethyl acetylene dicarboxylate (DMAD) [53].



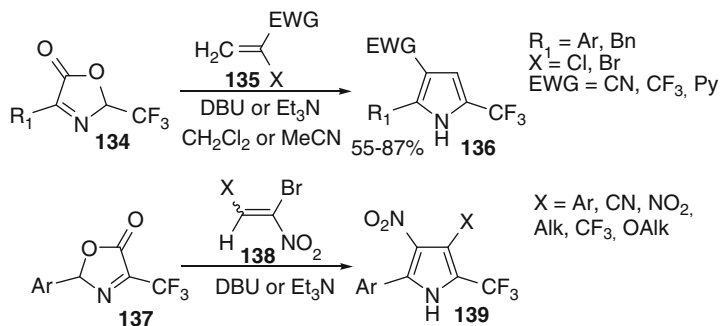
Derivatives of other amino acids were also used for the preparation of pyrroles [54]. Accordingly, the reaction of the unstable **122**, generated in situ from *N*-phenylglycine **121**, with ethyl propiolate gave an inseparable 9:1 mixture of **123** and **124** in 58 % yield. Similarly, the pyrroles **127** were synthesized from trifluoroacetylated sarcosine **125** and the acetylenes **126** [55].



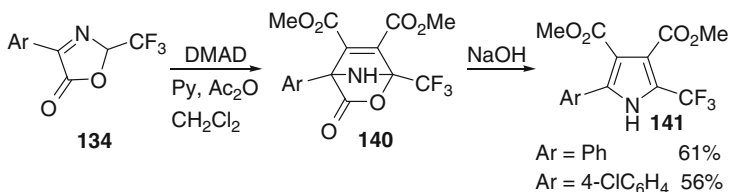
If electron deficient terminal alkenes **129** as dipolarophiles were treated with appropriately protected arylglycine derivatives **128**, the dihydropyrroles **130** were formed as cycloadducts [56]. However, aromatization was easily possible by treatment with oxidants such as bromine or chlorine. Depending on the amount of halogen, pyrroles **131**, monohalopyrroles **132** or dihalopyrroles **133** can be synthesized. Using that strategy, compound **131** (Ar=4-ClC₆H₄, X=Br) was prepared starting from the corresponding **128** in three steps in 30 % overall yield. This compound is a useful starting material to synthesize the broad-spectrum insecticide chlorfenapyr and analogues [57].



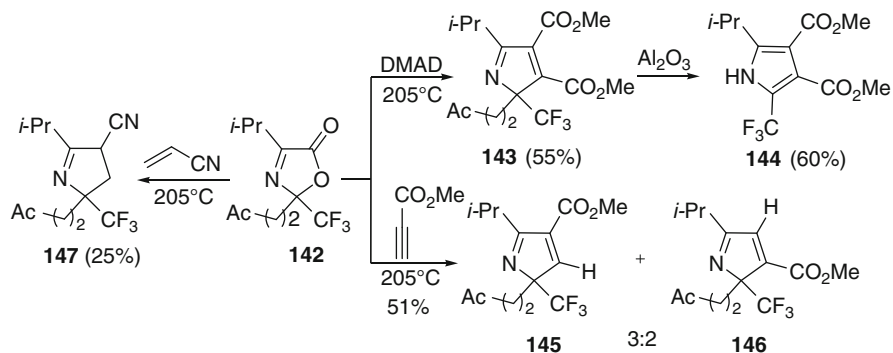
The reaction of oxazolones **134** with electron-deficient alkenes **135** in the presence of a base (DBU or Et₃N) gave the pyrroles **136** in good yields [58]. These base promoted cyclocondensations involve a tandem Michael addition of oxazolones **134** to electron-deficient alkenes **135** followed by intramolecular cyclization and decarboxylation. This method opened up a convenient pathway to synthesize 2-trifluoromethylpyrroles containing electron-withdrawing groups in 4-position. When the reactions were performed in MeCN and Et₃N at reflux, yields rose up to 86–94 % in case of the 4-chlorophenyl substituent [59]. Instead of the alkenes their saturated bromo precursors were also successfully applied [60]. The synthetic scope of this reaction was significantly expanded using reactions of oxazolones **137** with nitroalkenes **138**. The 2-CF₃-pyrroles **139** bearing numerous combinations of aryl, alkyl, alkoxy, nitro and cyano groups can be prepared by this method [61].



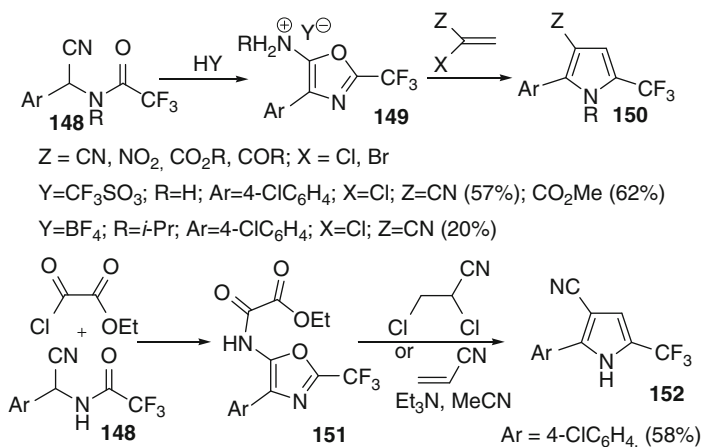
The reaction of oxazolones **134** with DMAD led to adducts **140**, which were transformed into pyrroles **141** after decarboxylation [58].



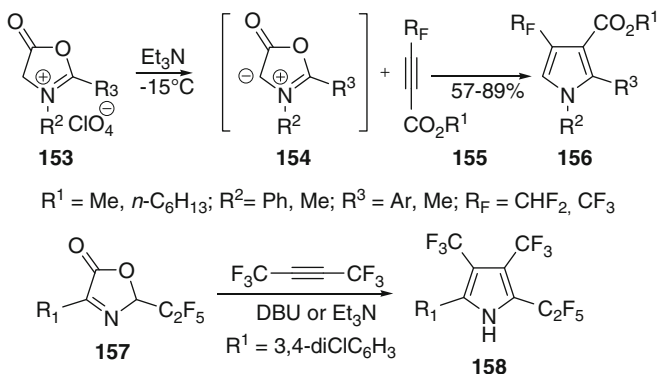
The reaction of the oxazolone **142** (bearing two substituents at C-2 atom) with DMAD led to the nonaromatic pyrrole **143**, which after passing through a column with active Al_2O_3 gave the pyrrole **144** by elimination of methyl vinyl ketone with aromatization. Treatment of **142** with methyl propargylate produced a 3:2 mixture of the regioisomers **145** and **146**, while the reaction with acrylonitrile led to the pyrrole **147** in 25% yield [62].



Besides alkyl and aryl oxazolones and their salts, also 5-aminooxazoles **149** [63] as well as the amides of aminooxazoles **151** [64] were used to synthesize trifluoromethylated pyrroles by cycloaddition. This is not surprising taking into account that the aminooxazoles **149** and amides **151** are formal tautomers of the oxazolone imines. Accordingly, a number of CF₃-pyrroles **150** and **152** bearing electron-withdrawing groups at the 4-position have been prepared by this method.

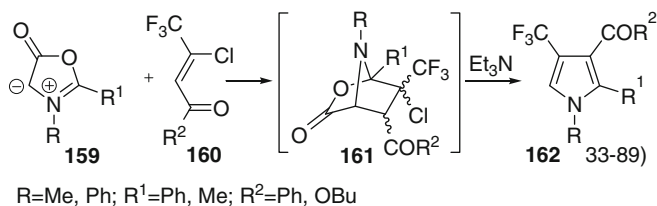


Mesoionic oxazolones **154**, prepared from **153**, allowed the synthesis of 3-CF₃-pyrroles. Thus, their reactions with fluorinated derivatives of ethyl propiolate **155** led to the alkyl pyrrole-3-carboxylates **156** [65]. Similarly, the reaction of compound **157** with hexafluorobut-2-yne gave the pyrrole **158** [66].

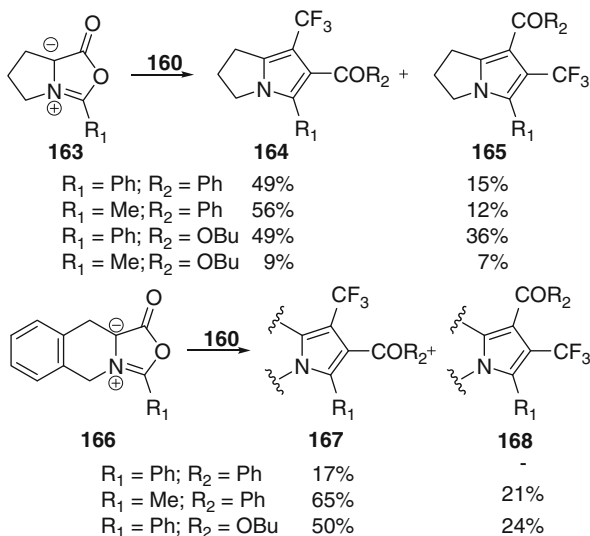


The reaction of the oxazolones **159** with the trifluoromethylated chloroalkenones **160** proceeded regioselectively via the intermediate bicyclic pyrrolidines **161**,

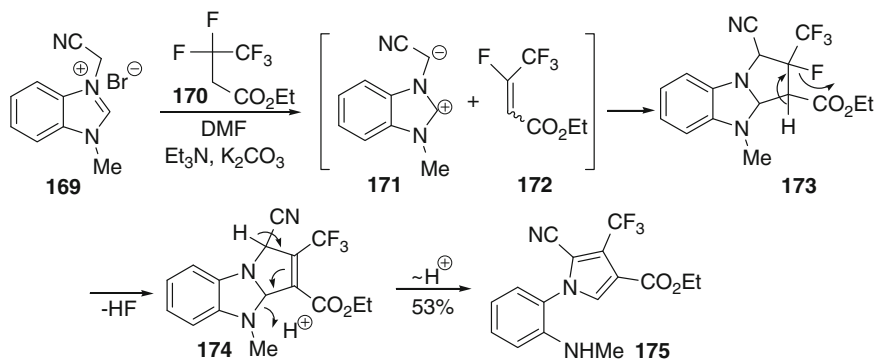
which in the presence of triethylamine eliminated HCl and CO₂, forming the pyrroles **162** in moderate to high yields [67].



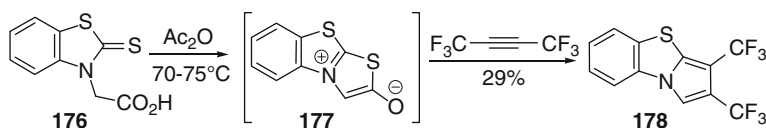
Starting from the analogous fused-ring oxazolones **163** and **166** derived from cyclic amino acids, the reaction with the ketone **160** (R²=Ph, OBU) afforded mixtures of the regioisomeric dihydropyrrolizines **164** and **165** and the dihydropyrrolo[1,2-b]isoquinolines **167** and **168**, respectively, in high overall yields [67]. In all cases the isomers **164** and **167** dominate in the mixtures.



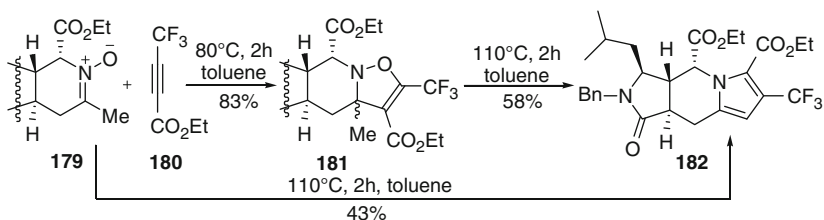
An interesting approach to *N*-[2-(alkylamino)aryl]-3-trifluoromethylpyrroles **175** was elaborated by Zhang et al. [68]. The benzimidazolium salt **169** gave the pyrrole **175** in 53 % yield by treatment with ethyl 3,3,4,4,4-pentafluorobutyrate **169**. Initially the ylide **171** and the activated alkene **172** are formed, which subsequent 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition forms **173**. Elimination of HF continues the reaction to give the intermediate **174**, which by proton migration and ring opening leads to the final pyrrole **175** [68].



Another mesoionic system used as dipolarophile was a cyclic system of anhydro-2-hydroxythiazolo[1,3-b]benzothiazol hydroxide **177**. This compound was prepared *in situ* from thionobenzothiazole **176** by reaction with acetic anhydride. The subsequent reaction with hexafluorobut-2-yne led to the tricyclic 3,4-bis(trifluoromethyl) pyrrole **178** [69].

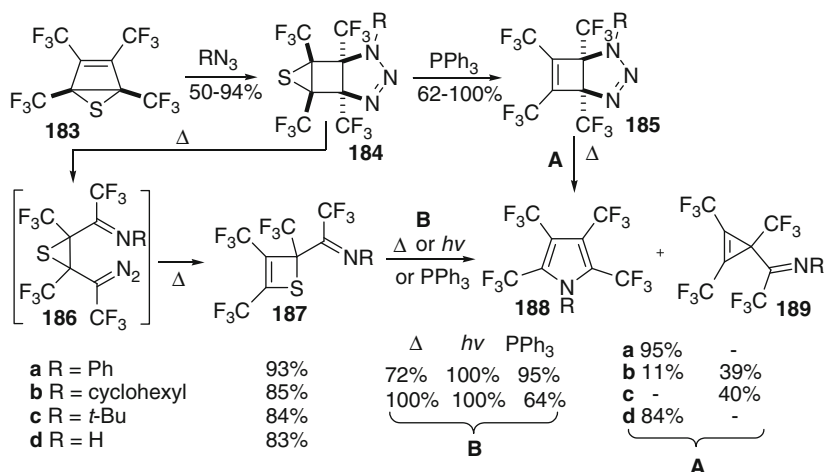


An elegant approach to the “alkaloid-like” heterocycle **182** with a pyrrole moiety was developed using the nitron **179** in a [3+2]-cycloaddition with ethyl 4,4,4-trifluorobut-2-ynoate (**180**) to give first the 3-methyl-2,3-dihydroisoxazole **181** at 80 °C in toluene. Refluxing in toluene converted **181** to the 3-trifluoromethylpyrrole **182** through a sequence of ring-opening and ring-closure steps with an azomethine-type ylide as a key intermediate. This reaction can also be performed in one step without isolation of **181** [70].

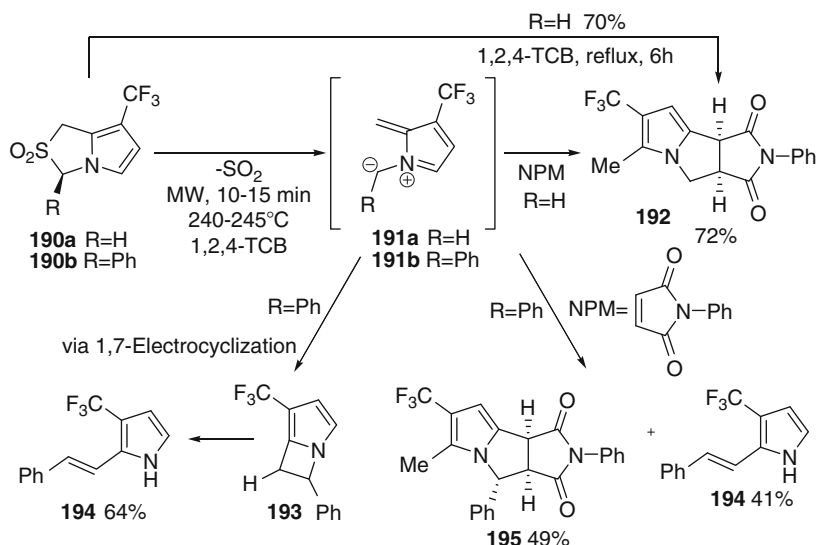


A number of approaches to tetrakis(trifluoromethyl)-pyrroles was developed using tetrakis(trifluoro-methyl)-Dewar-thiophene (**183**) [71]. The 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition with azides led to the tricyclic thiiranes **184**. Subsequent desulfurization by treatment with PPh_3 afforded the cyclobutenes **185** in good to quantitative yields. The result of thermolysis of **185** was strongly depended on the substituent on the amine nitrogen. Pyrroles **188** were formed in high yields (cases **a** and **d**), while only cyclopropene **189**, or a mixture of **188** and **189** (cases **b** and **c**) were isolated. Pyrrole **188a** was also synthesized by the reaction of **183** with aniline in 19 % yield [72].

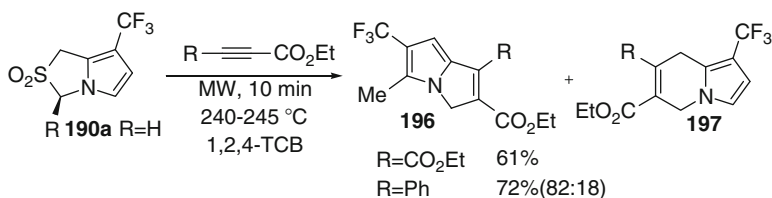
An alternative approach to the pyrroles **188** is based on thermolysis of compounds **184** [71]. The thietimines **187** were formed in high yields via the thiirane **186**, which was isolated and characterized in case of the phenyl compound **186a**. The conversion of the thietimines **187** into the pyrroles **188a** and **188b** was performed by thermolysis, photolysis or by treatment with triphenyl phosphine.



Generated by thermally induced SO_2 extrusion from dioxothiazoles **190** (for the synthesis of **190** see Sect. 2.2.7) under microwave irradiation, azafulvenium methides **191** reacts with dipolarophiles to give CF_3 -pyrroles **192–195**. Thus, reaction of **191a** with *N*-phenylmaleimide (NPM) leads to polycyclic CF_3 -pyrrole derivative **192** in high yield. Phenyl substituted azafulvenium methide **191b** reacts with NPM to give pyrrole **195** and admixture of 2-styrylpyrrole **194**, which is formed via competitive 1,7-electrocyclization process and can be obtained exclusively by decomposition of **190b** in the absence of NPM [73].



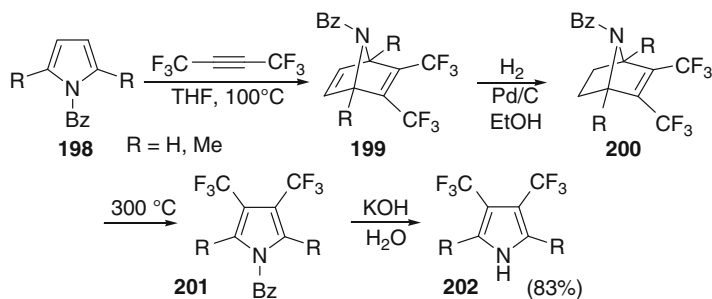
Addition of azafulvenium methides to the triple bond was also realized. Thus, reaction with DMAD afforded bicyclic CF_3 -pyrrole **196** in 61 % yield. In case of unsymmetrical ethyl 3-phenylpropiolate the reaction gives a mixture of 1,3- and 1,7-cycloadducts **196** and **197**, respectively, in 72 % overall yield with a ratio of 82:18 [73].



[3 + 2] Cycloaddition reactions open an access to both 2- and 3-trifluoromethylated pyrroles with wide range of additional substituents in pyrrole ring, therefore the method is very useful and general for synthesis of fluorinated pyrroles.

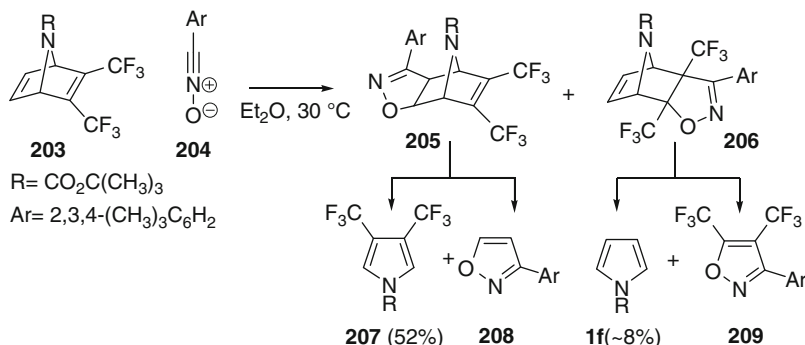
2.2.3 Synthesis of Trifluoromethyl Pyrroles by [4 + 2] Cycloaddition: Cycloreversion Reactions

The sequence of Diels-Alder reactions of nonfluorinated pyrroles with hexafluorobut-2-yne followed by retro Diels-Alder reactions (extrusion of acetylene) was also used for trifluoromethylpyrrole synthesis. However, the 7-azanorbomadiene system was found to be quite thermostable [74], which undergoes cycloreversion only at very high temperature resulting in low yields of trifluoromethylated pyrroles. Hence, additional steps were necessary. For instance, the reduction of the bicyclo[2.2.1] hepta-2,5-diene **199** (formed from **198** and hexafluorobut-2-yne) to **200**, followed by a cycloreversion, afforded the 3,4-bis(trifluoromethyl)pyrrole **201**. Subsequent basic hydrolysis gave the target pyrrole **202**. All reactions proceeded almost quantitatively to give **202** in 83 % overall yield [75].

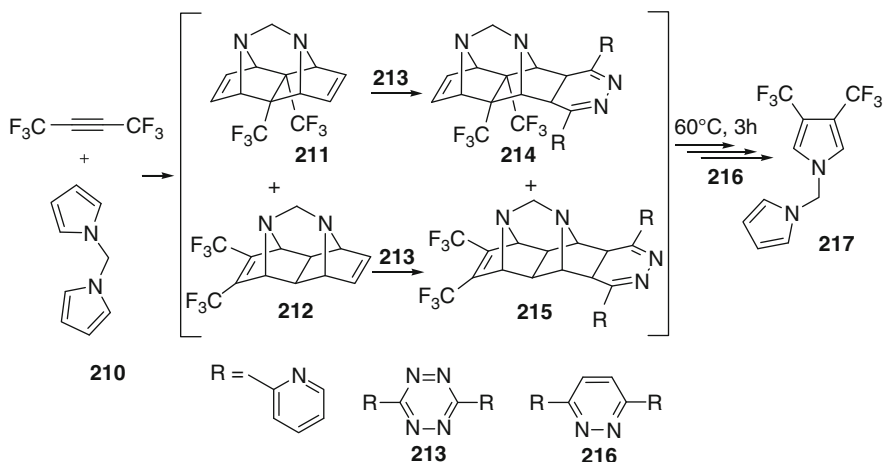


Another variation to facilitate the cycloreversion of trifluoromethylated 7-azabicyclo[2.2.1]heptadienes is their transformation to polycyclic isoxazolines by 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition with nitrile oxides followed by elimination of isoxazole.

Accordingly, the reaction of **203** with benzonitrile oxide (**204**) led to the isoxazolines **205** and **206**. Subsequent retro Diels-Alder reaction of **205** afforded the desired pyrrole **207** in 52 % yield by elimination of the isoxazole **208**. The isomeric isoxazoline **206** gave the pyrrole **1f** in very low yield [48].



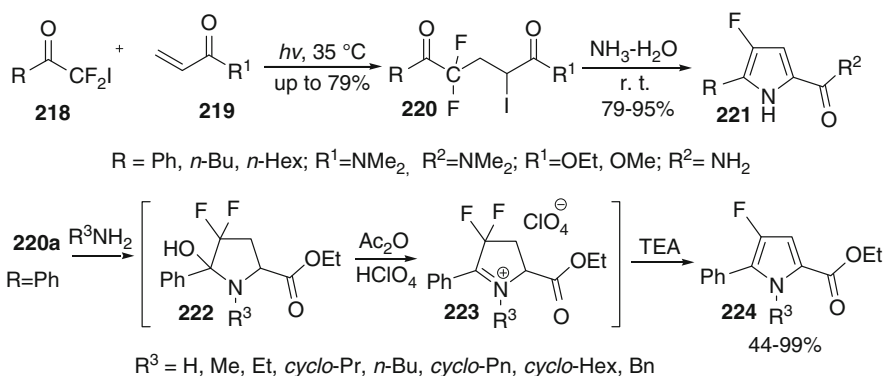
An analogous pathway was used for the synthesis of the pyrrole **217** [76]. The “double” Diels-Alder adducts **211** and **212** of dipyrrolomethane (**210**) were treated with the electron-deficient diene 3,6-di(2-pyridyl)-1,2,4,5-tetrazine (**213**) to give the cycloadducts **214** and **215**. The decay of these compounds proceeded with extrusion of 3,6-di(2-pyridyl)-1,2-pyridazine (**216**) and gave the pyrrole **217**. No yield was given.



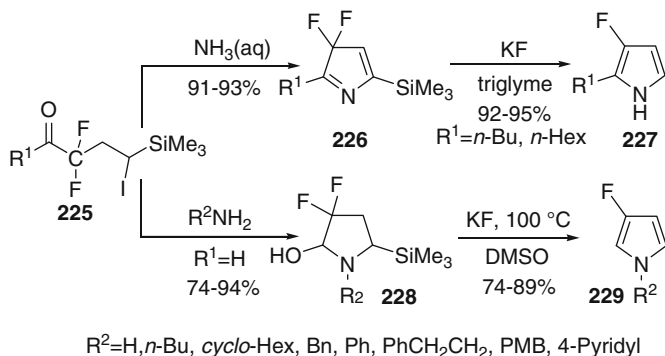
2.2.4 Synthesis Based on Carbonyl Compounds

The use of carbonyl function is classic approach in heterocyclic synthesis. In case of fluorinated pyrroles this approach was frequently used. Convenient method for synthesis of pyrroles **221** is based on the reaction of fluorinated δ -keto acid esters or amides **220** with ammonia. In case of methyl and ethyl esters amidolysis was

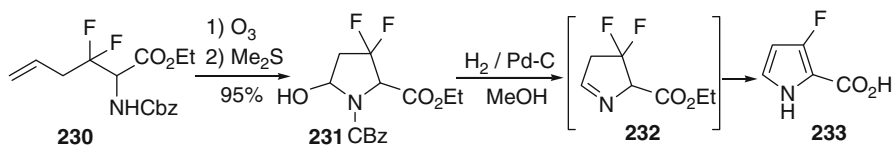
observed to give the corresponding amides [77]. Starting dicarbonyl compounds **220** are easily available through the radical addition of CF₂I-ketones **218** to alkyl acrylates **219** [78]. Similarly, the reaction of ethyl-4,4-difluoro-2-iodo-5-oxo-5-phenylpentanoate **220a** with primary amines in a one-pot scheme produces a series of β-fluoropyrrole derivatives **224** at ambient temperature. The mechanism is presented below [79]. It includes nucleophilic substitution of I- with amine followed by heterocyclization and aromatization as key steps.



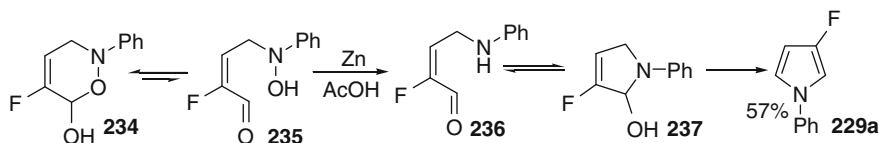
Using α,α-difluoro-γ-iodo-γ-iodotrimethylsilyl ketones or aldehyde **225** as starting compounds, 3,3-difluoro-5-trimethylsilyl-1-pyrrolines **226**, **228** were obtained in high yields. Further treatment of them with potassium fluoride gave 4,5-unsubstituted 3-fluoropyrroles **227**, **229** in yields up to 95 % [80].



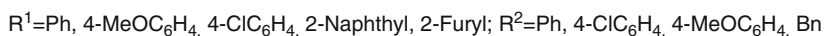
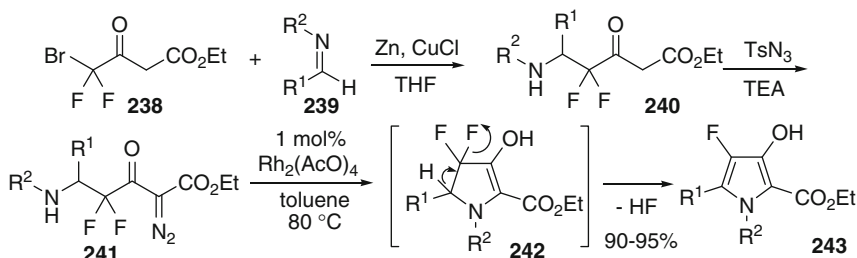
Neutral ozonolysis of compound **230** afforded the cyclic hemiaminal **231** in 95 % yield. Catalytic hydrogenation of **231** in the absence of the acid led to the formation of the pyrrole derivative **233** as a major product [81].



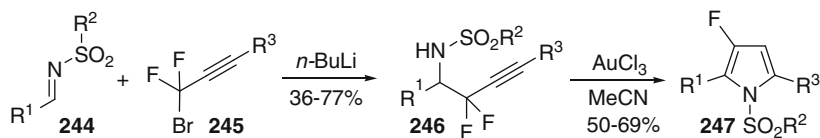
3-Fluoro-1-phenylpyrrole **229a** was effectively prepared starting from compound **234**. Cyclic hemiacetal **234**, existing in equilibrium with its open form **235**, was reduced into amine **237**, which transformed easily into pyrrole **229a** via acid catalyzed cyclization and dehydration [82].



A convenient method for the synthesis of polyfunctionalized 3-fluoropyrroles **243** by $\text{Rh}_2(\text{OAc})_4$ -catalyzed intramolecular N-H insertion reaction of difluorinated diazo compounds **241** was reported [83]. The starting compounds can be synthesized by Zn-CuCl-promoted Reformatsky-imine addition reaction of 4-bromo-4,4-difluoroacetoacetate **238** with aldimines **239**. Subsequent diazotransfer reaction and $\text{Rh}_2(\text{OAc})_4$ -catalyzed intramolecular N-H insertion allow the preparation of 3-fluoropyrroles **243** in almost quantitative yield.

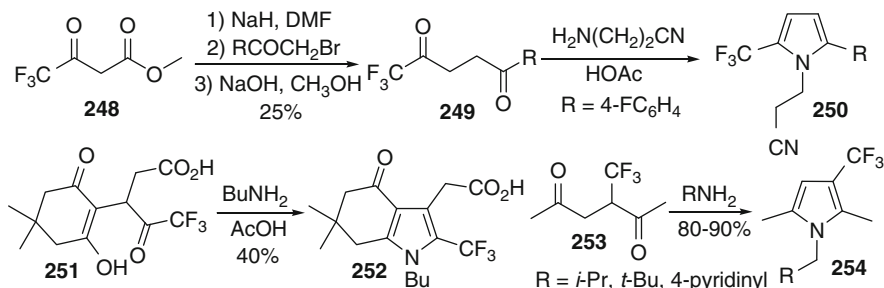


A valuable method for the synthesis of 2-aryl-3-fluoropyrroles **247** is based on a gold-catalyzed cyclization and dehydrofluorination of gem-difluorohomopropargylamines **246**. Difluorinated homopropargylamines **246** can be prepared by the addition of gem-difluoropropargyllithium reagents to arylated *N*-tosylimines **244** [84].

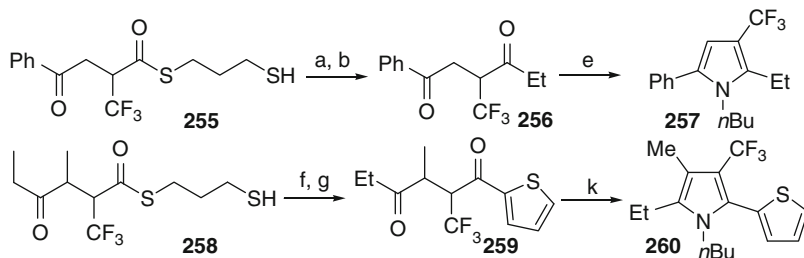


The Paal-Knorr reaction was used for the synthesis of the pyrrole **250** from methyl 4,4,4-trifluoroacetoacetate (**248**) in two steps [85]. Alkylation of **248** with 4-fluorophenacyl bromide gave the 1,4-diketone **249** in 25 % yield after decarboxylation. Its cyclization with 2-cyanoethylamine in acetic acid provided **250**,

which was used without purification in next step. Similarly, the 1,4-diketones **251** and **253** gave the pyrrole derivatives **252** [86] and a series of N-substituted pyrroles **254**, respectively [87].

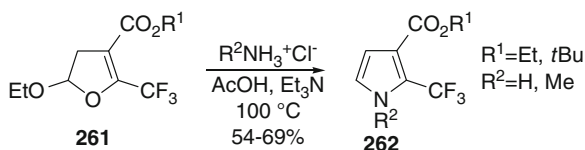


Thiol esters **255** and **258** have proved to be versatile precursors of 3-trifluoromethylpyrroles. Methylation of the mercapto groups of **255** and **258**, followed by subsequent cross-coupling reactions of the resulting thiol esters with organozinc reagents yielded 2-trifluoromethyl-1,4-diketones **256** and **259**, respectively. Classic Paal–Knorr condensation of **256** and **259** afforded highly substituted 3-trifluoromethyl five-membered heteroaromatics **257** and **260** in high yields [88].

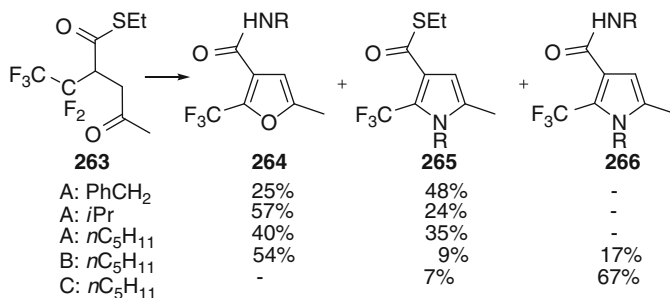


- a) MeI (2 equiv), *i*Pr₂EtN (2 equiv), acetone, 25°C, 8h, 80%;
 b) [PdCl₂(PPh₃)₂] (10 mol%), EtZnI (2 equiv), toluene, reflux, 12h, 65%;
 e) *n*BuNH₂ (2 equiv), Ti(O*i*Pr)₄ (1.5 equiv), toluene, reflux, 10h, 81%;
 f) MeI (2 equiv), *i*Pr₂EtN (2 equiv), acetone, 25°C, 8h, 78%;
 g) [PdCl₂-(dppf)] (10 mol%), (2-thienyl)ZnI·LiCl (5.6 equiv), toluene, 0°C, 1h, 87%, d.r.=3:2;
 k) *n*BuNH₂ (4 equiv), Ti(O*i*Pr)₄ (3 equiv), toluene, 25°C, 4h, 83%.
 dppf=1,1'-bis(diphenylphosphanyl)ferrocene

A versatile approach to 2-CF₃-pyrroles was elaborated using dihydrofurans as masked 1,4-dicarbonyl compounds. Condensation of the dihydrofurans **261** with primary amine hydrochlorides gave the corresponding N-substituted pyrroles **262** in good yields [89].

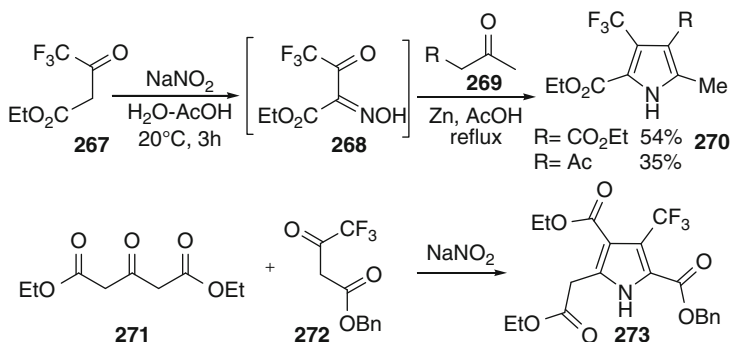


The reactions of the diketone **263** with a number of rather basic amines ($\text{p}K_{\text{a}} \sim 9\text{--}10$) under different conditions gave mixtures of the furans **264** and the pyrroles **265** and **266** [90]. The reactions with two equivalents of primary amines in ether afforded mixtures of products **264** and **265** (method A). Large excess of pentylamine (8 eq.) increased the yield of furan **264c** and produced the pyrrole **265c** and **266c** as minor products. Without solvent the furan **264c** was not formed and the pyrrole **266c** became the major product. Maintaining the furan **264** in excess amine without solvent at r.t. resulted in its conversion into the corresponding pyrrole **266** in 67 % yield.

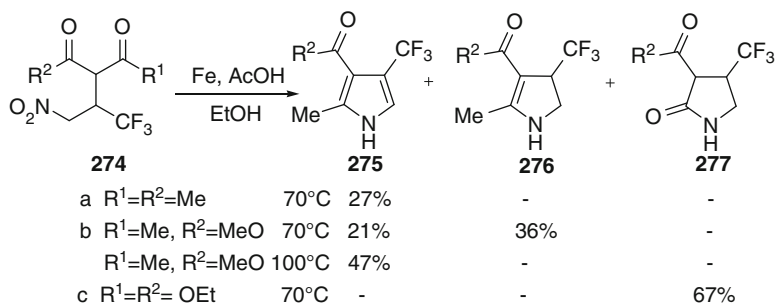


A: 2 eq RNH₂, Et₂O, r.t.; B: 8 eq RNH₂, Et₂O, r.t.; C: 8 eq RNH₂, r.t.

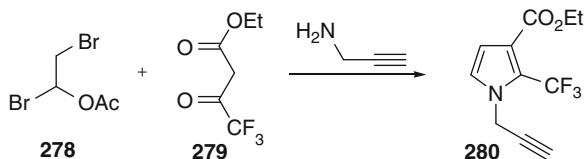
The Knorr pyrrole synthesis was also employed for the synthesis of 3-trifluoropyrroles [91]. Treatment of ethyl trifluoroacetoacetate **267** with sodium nitrite in acetic acid led to the oxime **268**. Refluxing with zinc dust and addition of 1,3-dicarbonyl compounds **269** afforded the 3-trifluoromethylpyrroles **270** in moderate yields. Using more acidic trifluoroacetic acid allowed to lower the reaction temperature to 70 °C [92]. Using a similar approach, the tricarboxylic acid ester **273** was prepared starting from the acetone dicarboxylic acid ester **271** and the fluorinated keto ester **272** [93].



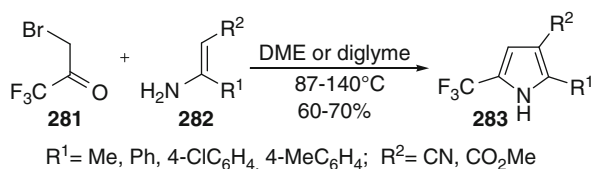
The γ -nitro ketones **274** were also used as precursors in pyrrole synthesis. The reduction of the nitro compounds **274** by iron depending on the conditions and the substrate can give pyrroles **275a,b**, dihydropyrroles **276b** or pyrrolidinones **277c**. It was also found that the di-hydropyrrole **276b** can be transformed into pyrrole **275b** in 25 % yield at reflux in nitrobenzene [94].



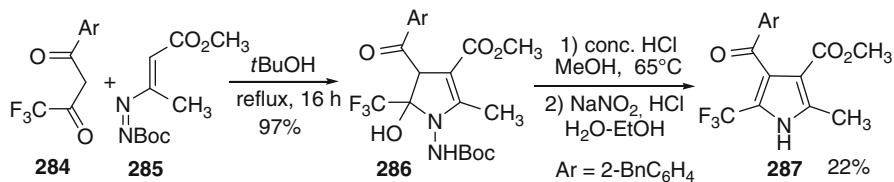
The classic Hantzsch pyrrole synthesis is based on the reaction of ketones bearing electron-withdrawing group in α -position with α -haloketones or aldehydes in the presence of amine or ammonia. For example, the condensation of the masked bromoacetaldehyde **278** with ethyl 4,4,4-trifluoroacetoacetate (**279**) and propargyl amine gave the pyrrole **280** [95]. The yield of pyrrole **280** was not given.



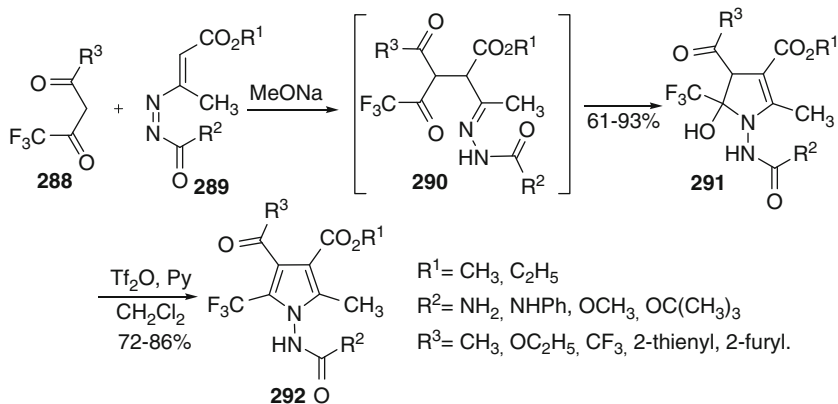
In contrast, the reaction of α -halotrifluoromethyl ketones due to the high electrophilicity of these ketones led to furans [96]. However, in order to synthesize pyrroles, the reaction of such α -haloketones has to be carried out with previously prepared enamines. So, based on reactions of the bromoketone **281** with enamines **282**, a series of 2-CF₃-pyrroles **283** was obtained in good yields [96].



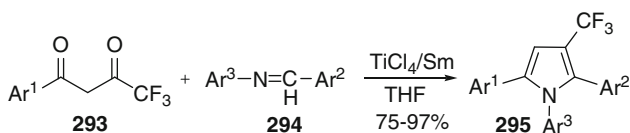
The aim of the following work [97] was the synthesis of the trifluoromethyl analogue **287** of FPL 64176, which is a calcium channel activator. Key step of the synthesis was the reaction of diketone **284** with the azoalkene **285** in refluxing *tert*-butanol. The reaction gave the hydroxypyrroline **286** in quantitative yield. Subsequent treatment with hydrochloric acid followed by reaction with NaNO₂ converted the hydroxypyrroline **286** into the target pyrrole **287**.



The reaction of the 1,3-diketones **288** with the azoalkenes **289** led regioselectively to the dihydropyrroles **291** in high yields via the intermediates **290** [98]. The compounds **291** are stable and can be isolated in pure form, but they lost easily water by treatment with triflic anhydride to form the pyrroles **292** [99].

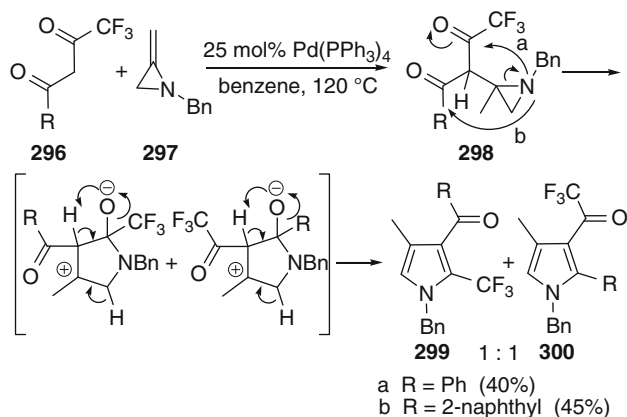


A novel coupling cyclization reaction of 1,3-diketones with imines was applied for the synthesis of polyaryl substituted 3-trifluoromethylpyrroles. The reaction was promoted by a low-valent titanium reagent and afforded the pyrroles **295** in high to quantitative yields. A number of 1,3-diketones **293** and imines **294** provided a variety of pyrroles **295**, bearing different combinations of electron-donating, as well as electron-withdrawing substituents in aromatic rings [100].

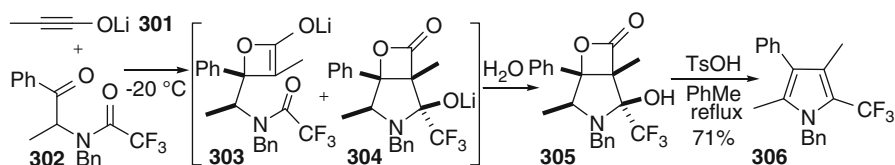


$$\begin{array}{c}
 \text{Ar}^1 = \text{Ph}, \text{2-thienyl}; \text{Ar}^2, \text{Ar}^3 = \text{4-MeOC}_6\text{H}_4, \text{4-BrC}_6\text{H}_4, \text{4-ClC}_6\text{H}_4, \\
 \text{3,4-diMeOC}_6\text{H}_3, \text{4-ClC}_6\text{H}_4, \text{4-FC}_6\text{H}_4, \text{3-Cl-4-MeOC}_6\text{H}_3, \text{4-MeC}_6\text{H}_4
 \end{array}$$

The Pd(0)-catalyzed reaction of the unsymmetrical 1,3-diketones **296a** and **296b** with *N*-benzylmethylenediazolidine **297** produced the corresponding 2-trifluoromethylpyrroles **299a** or **299b** in moderate yields as 1:1 mixture with trifluoroacetylpyrroles **300a** or **300b** via the intermediate aziridine **298**, which rearrange on pathway **a** or **b** to pyrroline cations to give the products **298** and **300** [101].

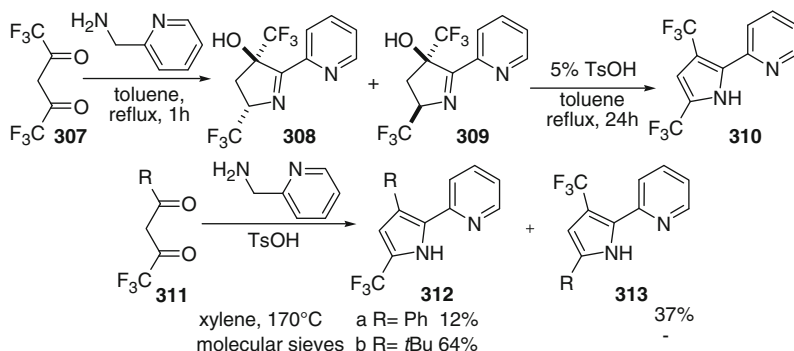


An efficient synthetic method for the preparation of polysubstituted furans, thiophenes and pyrroles using ynoles was developed by Shindo et al. [102]. The cycloaddition of ynoles **301** to amidoketone **302** gave the oxetene **303**, which formed the bicyclic β -lactone **304** by cyclization. Aqueous workup afforded **305**, which was converted to the final 2-trifluoromethylpyrrole **306** in 71 % yield by dehydration with TsOH. The ynoles **301** were prepared *in situ* by treatment of ethyl 2,2-dibromopropanoate with *t*-BuLi at -78°C .

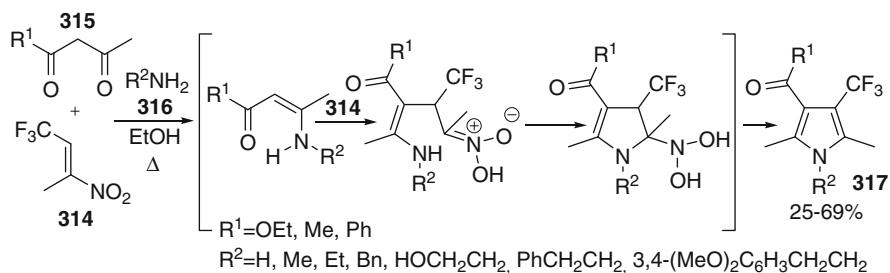


Furthermore, bistrifluoroacetylmethane (**307**) at heating with 2-picolyamine gave a mixture of the diastereomeric dihydropyrroles **308** and **309** in high overall yield [103]. The ratio of the diastereomers depends on the acidic catalyst and the reaction time. Complete dehydration of **308** and **309** resulted in the formation of the pyrrole **310** after 24 h at reflux using *p*-toluenesulfonic acid as catalyst. Similarly, the 1,3-diketone **311a** (R=Ph) gave an 1:3 mixture of the pyrroles **312a** and **313a**, while **311b** (R=*t*-Bu) gave **312b** as the sole product [104]. It should be noted, that 2-(aminomethyl)pyridine appears to be the only amine, which participated in such

a transformation. Neither other isomeric (aminomethyl)-pyridines nor benzylamine reacted in this way.

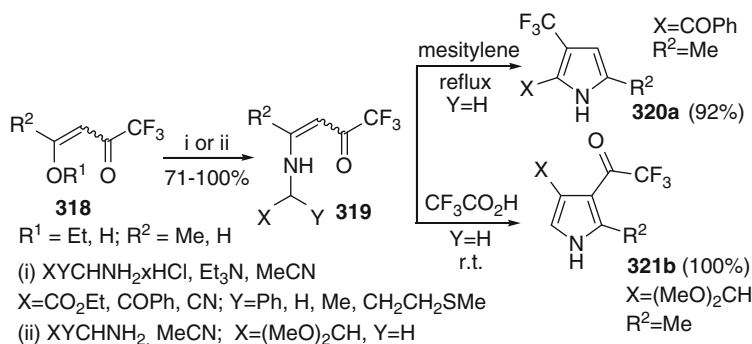


It was shown that the three-component Grob cyclization of (*E*)-1,1,1-trifluoro-3-nitrobut-2-ene **314** with 1,3-dicarbonyls **315** and primary aliphatic amines **316** provides a simple and convenient approach to substituted 4-(trifluoromethyl)pyrroles **317** bearing different electron-withdrawing substituents at the 3-position. Mild conditions and readily available starting materials are distinct advantages of the approach [105].

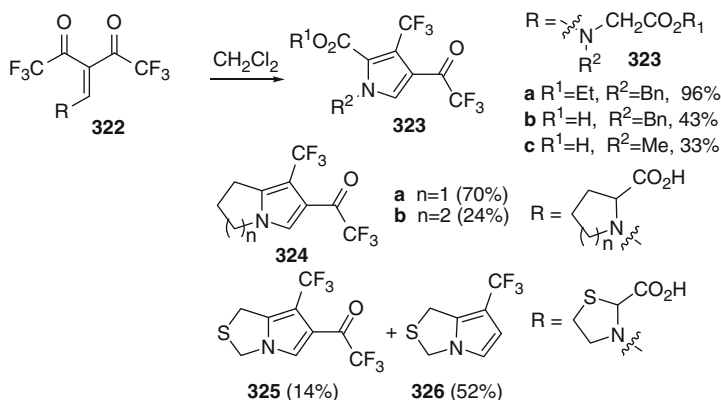


2.2.5 Synthesis Based on α,β -Unsaturated Trifluoromethyl Ketones

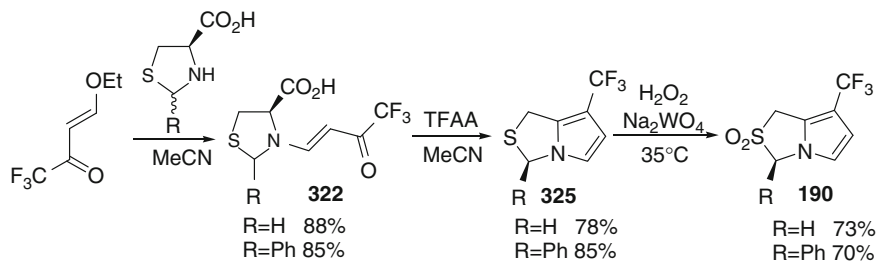
α,β -Unsaturated trifluoromethyl ketones such as **319** were found to be very useful building blocks for the construction of pyrroles [106]. For example, the enaminoketones **319**, which can be prepared in high yields from the enol ethers **318**, gave the 3-trifluoromethylpyrroles **320** or 3-trifluoroacetylpyrroles **321** depending on the reaction conditions [107]. Thus, the cyclization of **319a** afforded the pyrrole **320a** in high yield at reflux in mesitylene, while at standing in trifluoroacetic acid at room temperature the pyrrole **321b** was formed. It should be mentioned, that non-fluorinated analogs of **319** gave 1:1 mixtures of the corresponding pyrroles under these conditions.



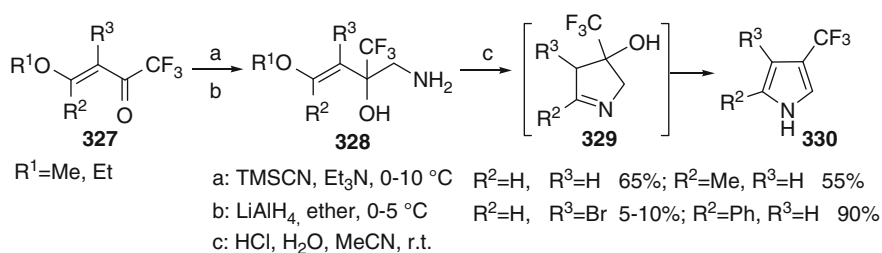
A convenient pathway towards the 3-trifluoromethyl-pyrroles **323** starts from enaminodiketones **322** prepared *in situ* from amino acid derivatives. The derivative of *N*-benzylglycine ethyl ester gave the pyrrole **323a** quantitatively [108]. In the case of *N*-methyl- and *N*-benzylglycine the corresponding pyrroles **209b** and **209c** were obtained in 43 % and 33 % yields. Cyclic amino acid derivatives afforded the bicyclic derivatives **324a** (from proline) and **324b** (from pipercolic acid). In both cases decarboxylation occurred in the aromatization step. Finally, the reaction of a thioproline derivative gave a mixture of pyrroles **325** and **326** [109].



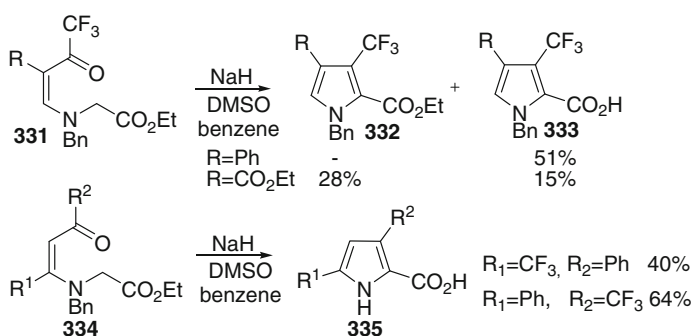
A simple changing of solvent from dichloromethane to acetonitrile allowed to prepare **325** exclusively in higher yield. Compounds **212** were converted into dioxothiazoles **190** by catalytic oxidation and then used as a precursor for generation of azafulvenium methides acting as 1,3-dipols (see Sect. 2.2.3) [73].



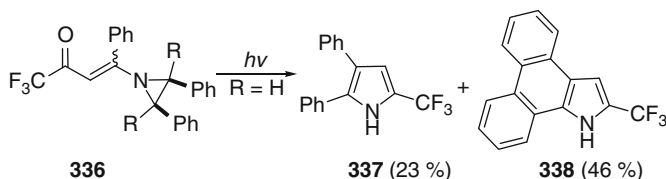
Another example dealing with α,β -unsaturated ketones was reported by Gerus et al. [110]. Ketones **327** were smoothly converted to cyanohydrins by treatment with TMSCN, which on reduction with LiAlH_4 afforded the aminoalcohols **328**. Acid catalyzed intramolecular cyclization gave **329**, which by dehydration gave the pyrroles **330** generally in good yields.



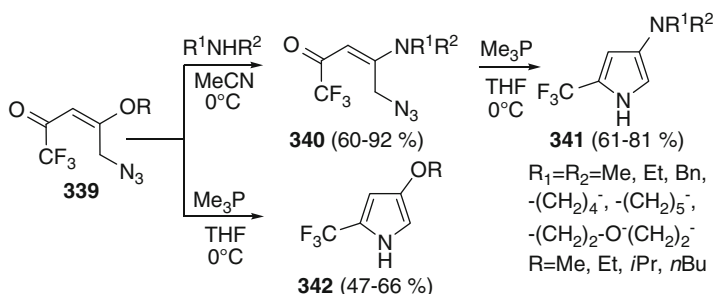
A number of *N*-benzylated 2- and 3-trifluoromethylated pyrroles were prepared using enaminoketones. Accordingly, the treatment of **331** or **334** with NaH-DMSO in benzene led to the corresponding pyrroles **332** and **333** or **335**, respectively, in moderate yields [111].



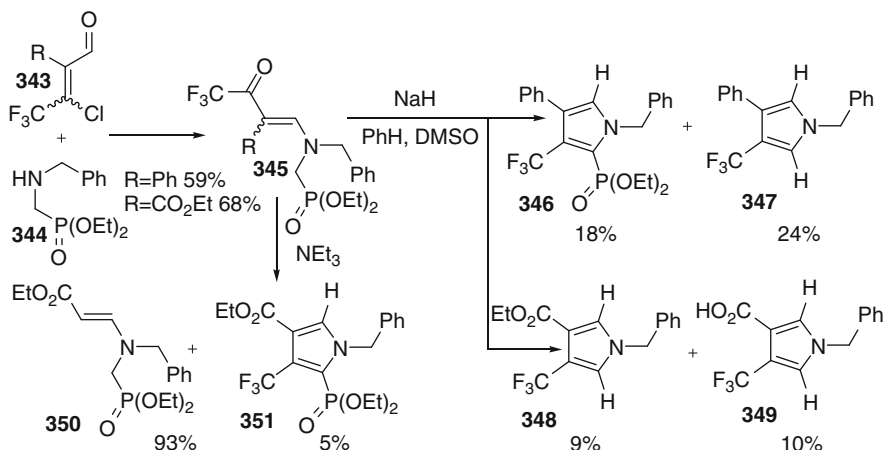
The photolytic rearrangement of aziridine derived enaminoketones **336** was used for the synthesis of a mixture of diphenylpyrrole **337** and dibenzoindole **338** [112].



The 2-trifluoromethylpyrroles **341** and **342** were obtained in high yields starting from **339**. Reaction of the alkoxy azide **339** with a variety of secondary amines formed **340**. Subsequent reduction with trimethylphosphine and cyclizing dehydration gave **341**, while direct reduction of **339** and cyclization led to **342** [113].

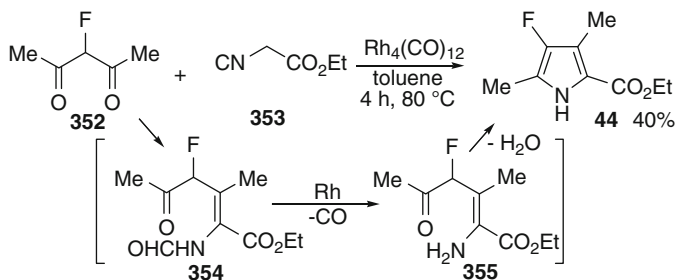


The reaction of ketones **343** with phosphorus analogue of *N*-benzylglycinate **344** allowed to prepare the enaminoketones **345** in good yields. Treatment of **345** with bases led to 3-trifluoromethyl-2-phosphonopyrroles **346** and **351** in low yields via 5-exo-trig cyclization. Formation of nonphosphorylated pyrroles **347** and **349** was also observed making this method less synthetically valuable [114].

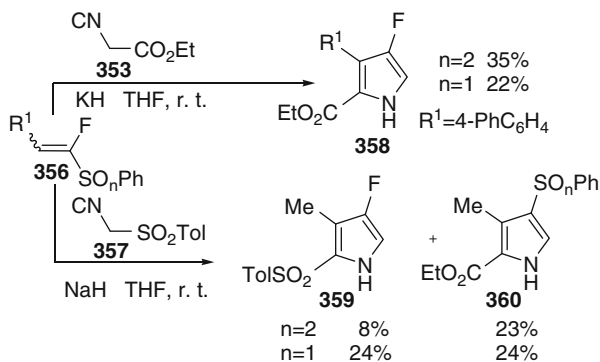


2.2.6 Synthesis Based on Isocyanides

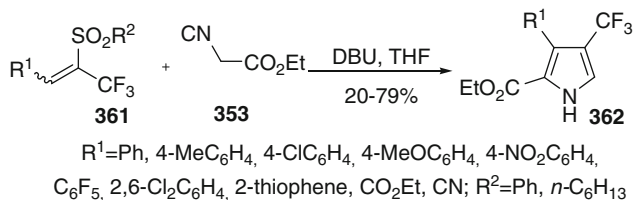
Rhodium catalyzed reactions of ethyl isocynoacetate **353** with 3-fluoroacetylacetone **352** provides a new facile method for the catalytic synthesis of substituted pyrroles. The key step of the reaction is the activation of the C-H bond of isonitrile **353** induced by the α -heteroatom effect. 3-Fluoropyrrole **44** was obtained in 40 % by this method [115]. The mechanism of the transformation includes rhodium promoted decarbonylation of formamide **354** followed by cyclocondensation of intermediate **355** to form the corresponding pyrrole **44**.



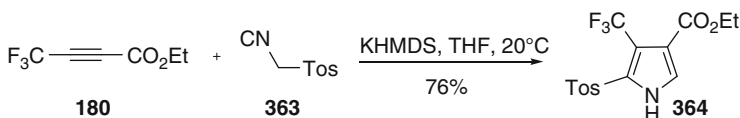
3-Fluoropyrroles **358**, **359** were synthesized using addition of isocyanomethylide anions to α -fluoroalkenyl sulfones and sulfoxides **356**. The addition of isocynoacetate **353** led regioselectively to ethyl 3-fluoropyrroles **358** in moderate yields. In contrast, the addition of tosylmethylisocyanide **357** afforded a mixture of 4-fluoro-3-methyl-2-tosyl-1H-pyrrole **359** with non-fluorinated pyrrole derivative **360** [116].



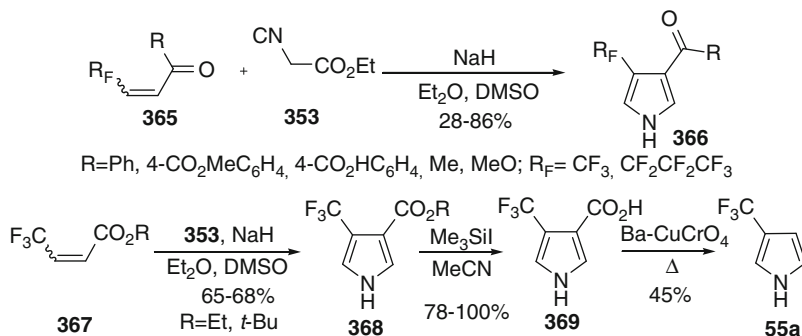
Convenient approach to 3-CF₃-pyrroles is also based on the condensation of electron-deficient alkenes with isocyanomethylide anions. A wide range of pyrroles **362** was synthesized from α -trifluoromethyl(vinyl-sulfones) **361** and ethyl isocynoacetate **353** [117].



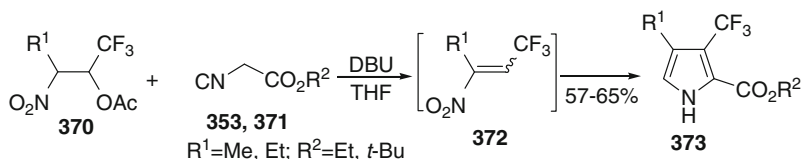
Ethyl 3-trifluoromethylacetylenecarboxylate (**180**) and toluenesulfonylmethyl isocyanide (TOSMIC) **363** provided the 3- CF_3 -pyrrole **364** containing a tosyl group in 2-position [118].



The reaction of perfluoroalkyl substituted α,β -unsaturated ketones **365** or β -trifluoromethylacrylates **367** with ethyl isocyanoacetate **353** gave 3-acylpyrroles **366** [119] or 3-pyrrolylcarboxylates **368** [120] in one step. Subsequent treatment of **368** with trimethylsilyl iodide afforded the acid **369**, which after pyrolysis at copper chromite gave the unsubstituted 3-trifluoromethylpyrrole **55a**.



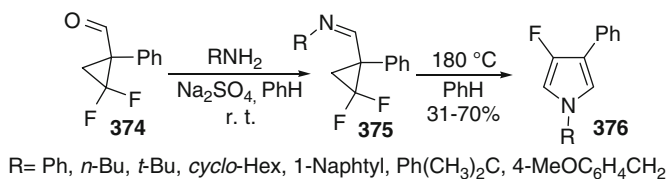
The reaction of trifluoromethyl substituted β -acetoxy- α -nitroalkanes **370** with isocyanoacetates **353, 371** in the presence of DBU gave the 3-trifluoromethylpyrroles **373** in good yields via the nitroalkenes **372** [121]. The yield was increased up to 100 % employing two equivalents of an even stronger non-nucleophilic base [122].



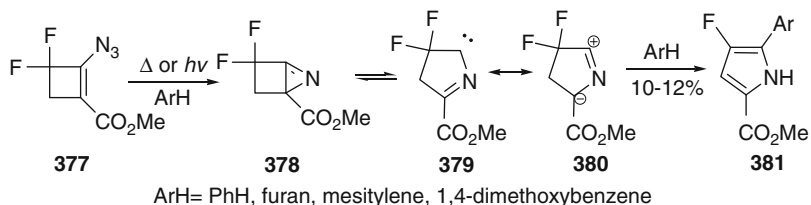
So, application of isocyanides is one of the best methods for synthesis of fluorinated pyrroles due to high yields, simplicity and mild reaction conditions.

2.2.7 Miscellaneous Approaches to Fluoropyrroles

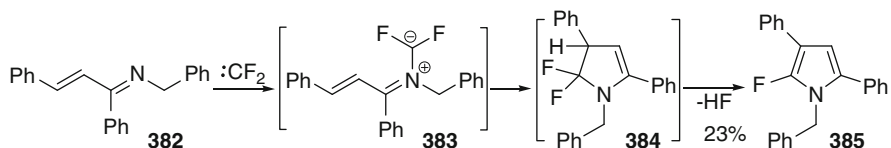
Thermal rearrangement of *N*-alkyl- and *N*-aryl-(2,2-difluoro-1-phenylcyclopropyl) methyleneamines **375** into *N*-substituted 3-fluoropyrroles **376** was reported by Kagabu. The transformation at high temperature gave regioselectively the corresponding 3-fluoropyrroles **376** in moderate to good yields. Using this method both *N*-alkyl- and aryl derivatives of pyrrole can be prepared [123].



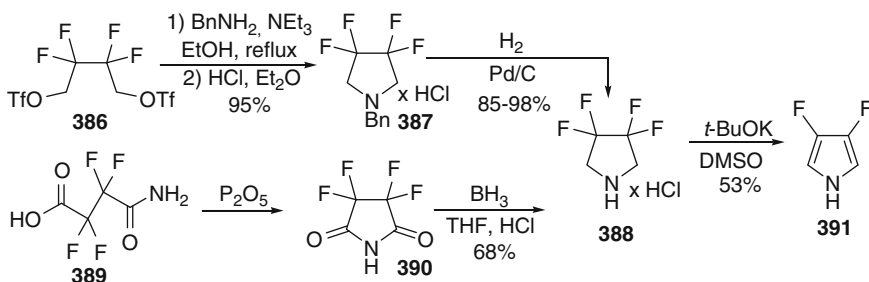
An interesting cyclobutene ring expansion reaction was found by Buhr. Being heated or irradiated by UV light, methyl 2-azido-3,3-difluorocyclobut-1-enecarboxylate **377** extrudes nitrogen to give highly strained azirine **378**, which transforms into azomethine ylide **380** through the carbene **379**. The last step of the transformation is the reaction of ylide **380** with solvents leading to methyl 4-fluoro-5-aryl-1H-pyrrole-2-carboxylates **381** in low yield [124].



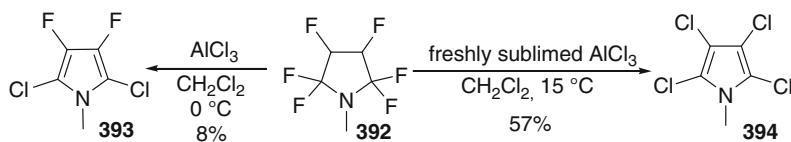
The reaction of azadiene **382** with difluorocarbene gives fluoropyrrole **385** as a major product. Difluorocarbene was generated by reduction of dibromodifluoromethane with active lead in dichloromethane in the presence of tetrabutylammonium bromide under ultrasound irradiation. A possible mechanism includes the formation of difluoroazomethine ylide **383**, 1,5-cyclization of the latter into difluoropyrroline **384**, and subsequent HF elimination [125].



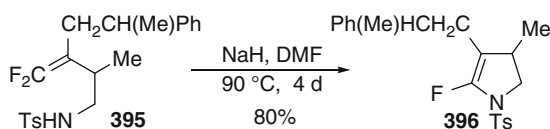
t-BuOK in DMSO was found to be the most efficient basic system for the elimination of HF from **388** to prepare 3,4-difluoropyrrole **391** [43]. Tetrafluoropyrrolidine **388** was prepared starting from **386** or **389**. Thus, **386** was converted into **387** by nucleophilic substitution with benzylamine. Next, **387** was debenzylated by treatment with hydrogen on Pd/C to give **388** [126]. Another pathway to **388** is reduction of tetrafluoromaleimide **390** obtained by cyclization of **389** under P₂O₅ [127].



An interesting transformation was found by Tatlow et al. 1-Methyl-2,5-dichlorodifluoropyrrole **393** was obtained in low yield by treatment of 1-methyl-3H,4H-hexafluoropyrrolidine **392** with “old” aluminium chloride, which was of a normal reagent grade. In contrast, using freshly sublimed aluminium chloride gave 1-methyltetrachloropyrrole **394** in good yield [128].



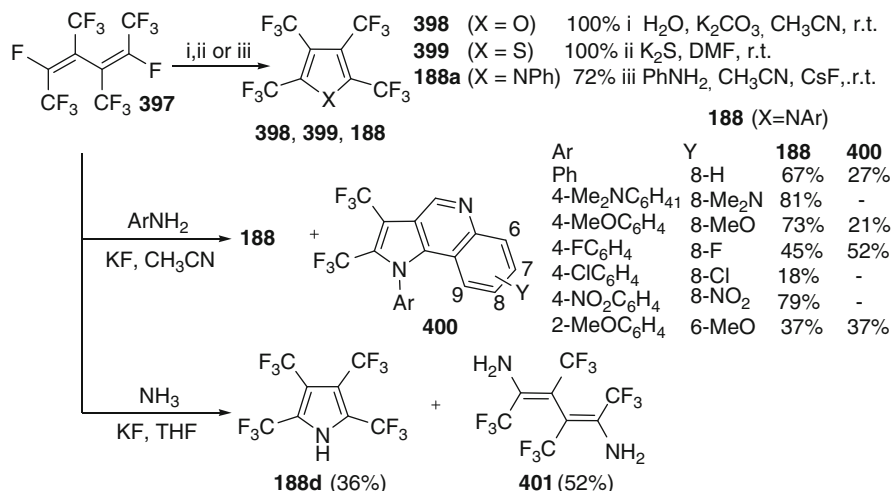
5-Endo-trig cyclizations can be applied for 2-fluoropyrroles synthesis. Thus, treatment of *N*-(3-(difluoromethylene)-2-methyl-5-phenylhexyl)-4-toluenesulfonamide **395** with base provided 5-fluoro-3-methyl-4-(2-phenylpropyl)-1-tosyl-2,3-dihydro-1*H*-pyrrole **396** in 80% yield [129].



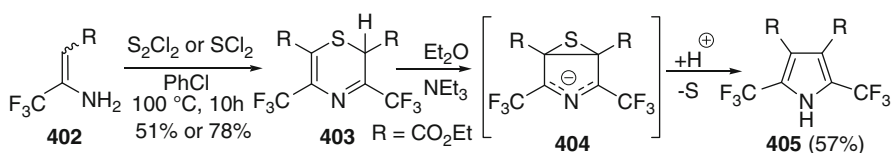
2.2.8 Miscellaneous Approaches to Trifluoromethylpyrroles

The perfluorohexa-2,4-diene **397** was revealed to be a very useful building block for the preparation of tetrasubstituted pyrroles, thiophenes and furans. Thus, the derivatives **398**, **399**, and **188a** were formed at room temperature [130]. Replacement of the

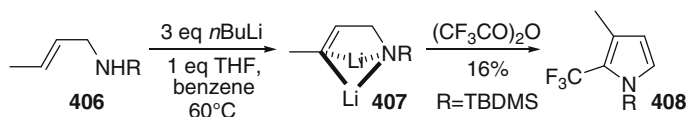
base by potassium fluoride (in the case of anilines) led to the pyrroloquinolines **400** among other reaction products [131]. Surprisingly, the reaction of the diene **397** with ammonia in the presence of potassium fluoride gave the pyrrole **188d** besides open chain the diaminodiene **401** [130].



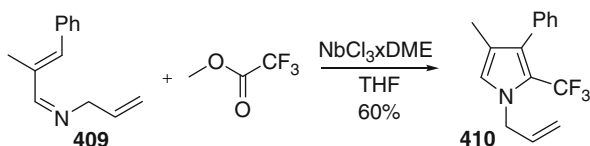
An interesting approach to polysubstituted pyrroles was elaborated based on the enamine **402**, which on heating with S₂Cl₂ or SCl₂ in chlorobenzene led to the thiazine **403** in good yields [132]. Subsequent refluxing of **403** with triethylamine in ether afforded the pyrrole **405** in 57 % yield by sulfur extrusion from the intermediate **404** and acidic workup. Employing one pot technique, the pyrrole **405** was synthesized in 56 % overall yield calculated on the enamine **402**. Other bases (LDA, *s*-BuLi, KH, EtONa) can also be used for conversion of **403** to **405** [133].



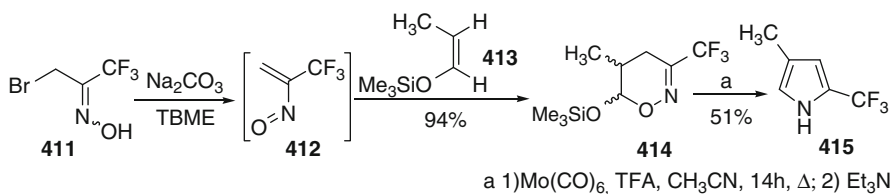
The allylamine **406** was deprotonated with three equiv. of *n*-BuLi using one equivalent of THF as accelerator (benzene, 60 °C) to give the intermediate **407**, which on treatment with trifluoroacetic anhydride led to the pyrrole **408** in 16 % overall yield [134].



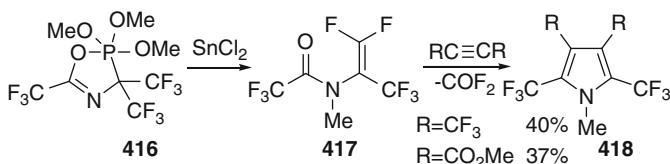
Coupling of the imine **409** with 500 fold excess of methyl trifluoroacetate proceeded smoothly at room temperature in the presence of equimolar amount of the $\text{NbCl}_3 \cdot \text{DME}$ complex, giving the pyrrole **410** in 60 % yield [135].



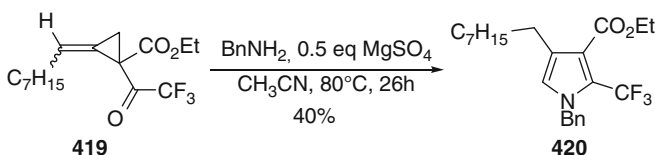
The 1,1,1-trifluoro-2-nitroso-2-propene **412** generated *in situ* by treatment of the α -bromooxime **411** with sodium carbonate, on reaction with the silyl ether **413** gave the 5,6-dihydro-4*H*-1,2-oxazine **414**, which was transformed to the target pyrrole **415** in 51 % yield by treatment with $\text{Mo}(\text{CO})_6$ in acetonitrile in the presence of trifluoroacetic acid [136].



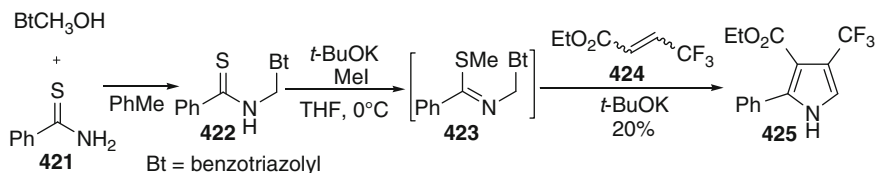
Furthermore, the reaction of the orthophosphonate **416** with SnCl_2 gave the trifluoroacetic enamide **417**, which reacted with acetylenes to afford the 2,5-bistrifluoro-methylpyrroles **418** in moderate yields [137].



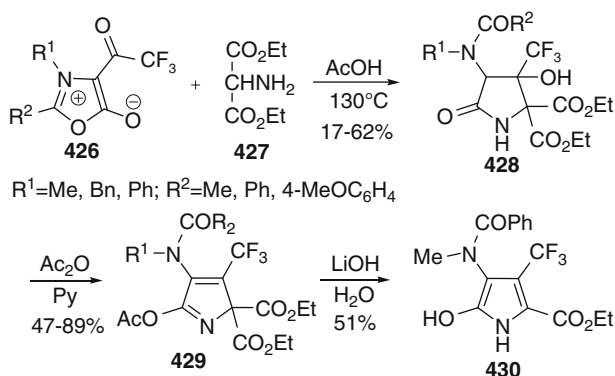
The 2-trifluoromethylpyrrole **420** connected with a long-chain alkyl group in 4-position was obtained in one step in 40 % yield from alkylidenecyclopropyl ketone **419** with excess of benzylamine in the presence of MgSO_4 as an additive [138].



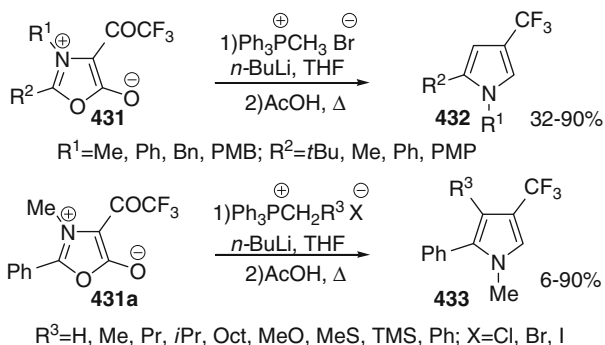
An efficient one-pot pyrrole synthesis was elaborated by Katritzky et al. [139]. The addition of *S*-methylthioimidate **423** to ethyl β -trifluoromethylacrylate **424** was the key step of the reaction leading to **425**. The intermediate **423** was readily prepared from thioamide **421** in two steps via **422**.



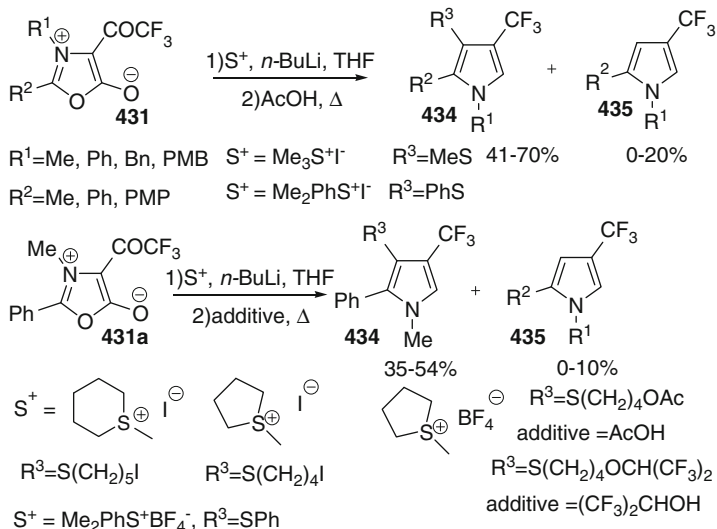
As it was mentioned previously, mesoionic oxazolones were used as dipolarophiles in the synthesis of 2- CF_3 -pyrroles. A tandem addition of 1,2-binucleophiles to oxazolones also led to pyrroles, but bearing the CF_3 -group in 3-position. For instance, the reaction of the oxazolones **426** with aminomalonate **427** gave the pyrrolidine derivative **428**, which formed **429** by reaction with acetic anhydride. Treatment of **429** with lithium hydroxide resulted in a decarboxylation giving the pyrrole **430** [140].



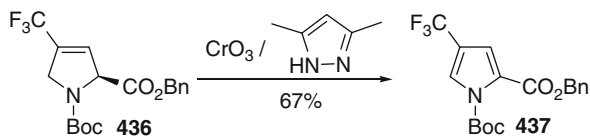
Efficient pathway towards 3- CF_3 -pyrroles was elaborated using condensation of mesoionic 4-trifluoroacetyl-1,3-oxazolium-5-olates **431** with phosphorus ylides. Target pyrroles **432,433** with big variety of substituents were easily obtained in the yields up to 90%. The principal advantage of the method is flexibility in the type of substituents in the pyrrole ring which can be readily achieved by choosing the appropriate *N*-acyl-*N*-alkylglycines (precursors of **431**) as the starting material and also the ylides [141].



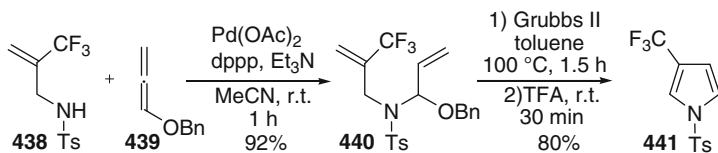
The use of sulfur ylides in the synthesis of trifluoromethylpyrroles from mesoionic 4-trifluoroacetyl-1,3-oxazolium-5-olates **431** is proved to be also valuable. Reactions proceed to give alkyl(aryl)thio-4-trifluoromethylpyrroles **434** in good yields with an admixture of non-sulfur pyrroles **435** in small amounts [142].



Qiu and co-workers failed to oxidize the dihydropyrrole **436** to the α,β -unsaturated lactam with CrO_3 in pyridine. Instead, the oxidation in the presence of dimethylpyrazol provided the 3-trifluoromethyl-pyrrole **437** in good yield [143].

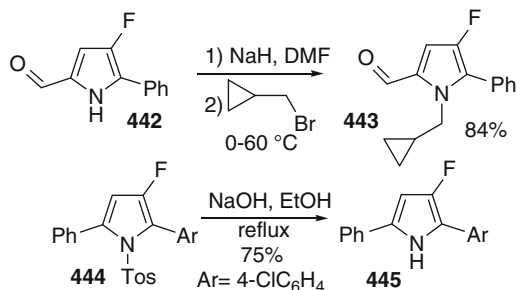


An interesting pathway towards the *N*-tosylated 3-trifluoromethylpyrrole **441** was developed by Rutjes et al. [144]. The palladium catalyzed benzoyloxy-allene **439** to sulfonamide **438** led to the *N,O*-acetal **440** in excellent yield. Subsequent, treatment of **440** with the Grubbs II catalyst followed by acid workup gave the *N*-tosylpyrrole **441** in 80 % yield.

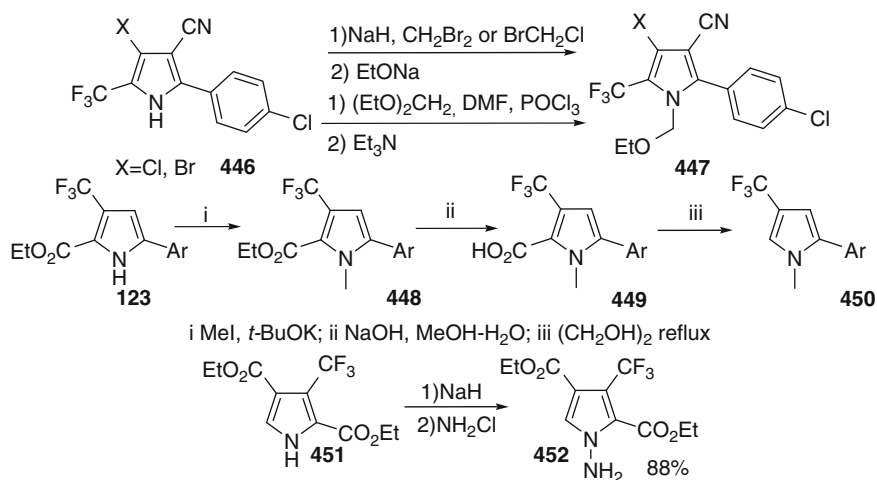


3 Properties and Some Applications of Fluorinated Pyrroles

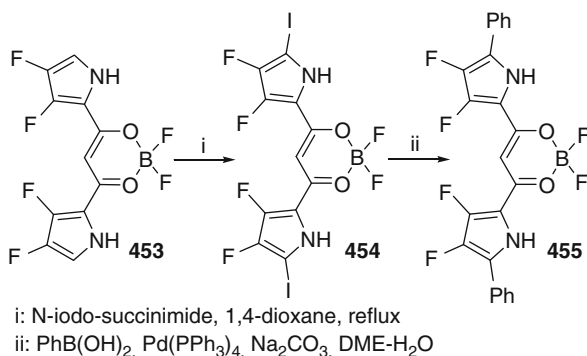
There are not too much examples of fluorinated pyrroles reactivity. Nevertheless one can easily conclude that fluoropyrroles have very similar chemistry in comparison to other pyrroles. Thus, fluorinated pyrrole **442** can be *N*-alkylated by treatment with alkyl bromides [18]. Inverse process is possible for *N*-tosyl derivative **445** under basic workup [84].



Trifluoromethylpyrroles were also alkylated. Alkylation of pyrroles **446** led to N-ethoxymethyl derivatives **447** [145, 146]. Similarly, N-methyl derivative of pyrrolecarboxylic ester **448** was obtained, which was further hydrolyzed and decarboxylated [55]. Reaction of **451** with NH_2Cl afforded N-aminopyrrole **452** in 88 % yield [147].

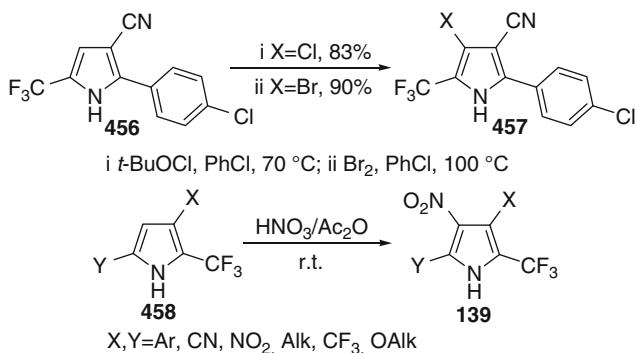


Due to electron-donating properties of pyrrole ring, fluorinated pyrroles react smoothly with electrophiles to give the corresponding functionalized derivatives. Thus, iodination of **453** was carried out under treatment with N-iodo-succinimide in refluxing 1,4-dioxane. Diiododerivative **454** prepared in this way was coupled with phenylboronic acid to give the corresponding polyaromatic compound **455** in 20 % yield under Suzuki reaction conditions [148].

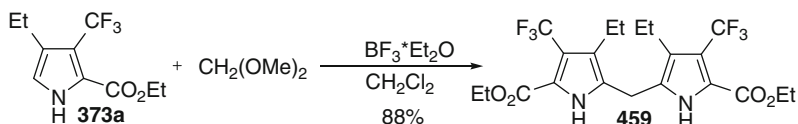


Chlorination and bromination of trifluoromethylpyrroles were carried out by treatment with *t*-BuOCl and Br_2 correspondingly. Deactivating influence of CF_3 - and

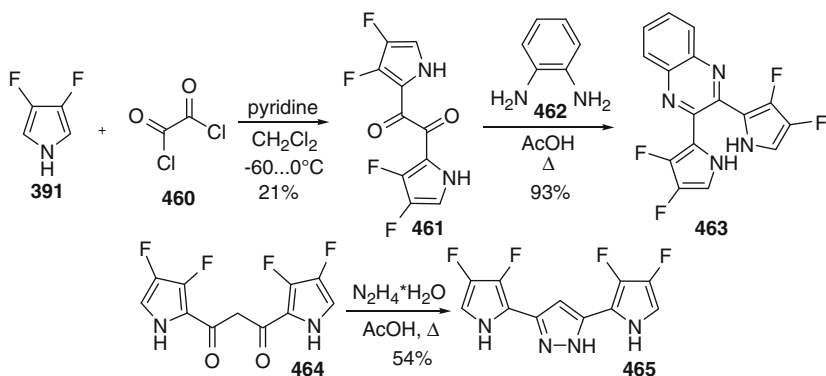
cyano groups explains, why heating was used for halogenation of pyrrole **456** [149]. Nitration of **458** was achieved using acetylnitrate [61].



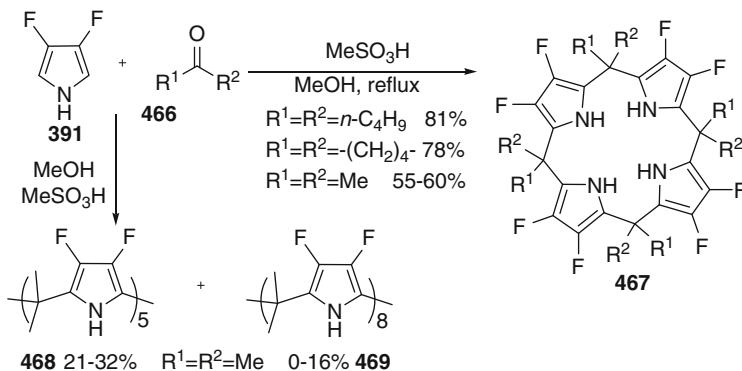
Several efforts were done to perform C-alkylation of pyrrole **373a** by dimethoxy-methane [122]. Then PTSA was used as catalyst, about 10 days are needed for full conversion. Using of $(CH_2O)_n$ in EtOH does not lead to pyrrole **459** at all. Nevertheless, using of $BF_3 \cdot xEt_2O$ in dichloromethane allowed to prepare compound **459** in high yield.



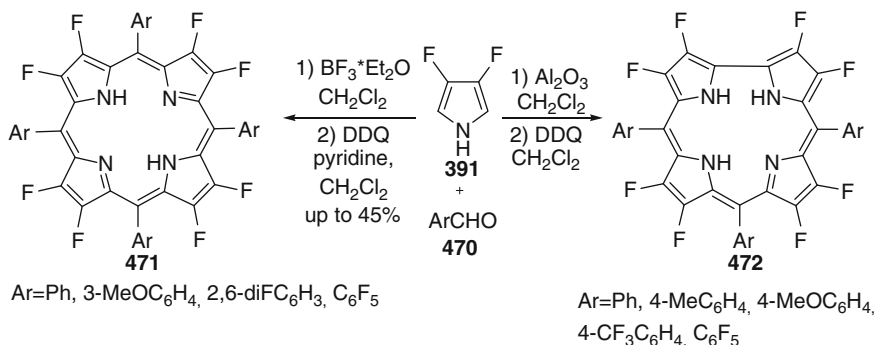
Reaction of 3,4-difluoropyrrole **391** with oxalyl chloride **460** led to the corresponding 1,2-diketone **461**, which was transformed into quinoxaline **463** in high yield by the reaction with 1,2-phenylenediamine **462** [150]. Using reaction of 1,3-diketone **464** with hydrazine, fluorinated dipyrrolylpyrazole **465** was prepared in good yield [151].



The reaction of 3,4-difluoropyrrole **391** with aliphatic ketones **466** afforded fluorinated calix[n]pyrroles. Different fluorinated macrocyclic compounds of this type were prepared using this approach by careful variation of concentration, temperature, and reaction time. Calix[4]pyrrole **467** and calix[5]pyrroles **468** can be prepared as sole products. In contrast, calix[8]pyrrole **469** is always obtained as a mixture with calix[5]pyrrole **468**. Calix[4]pyrroles **467** act as neutral anion receptors and were found to bind anions such as fluoride, chloride, or dihydrogen phosphate with an enhanced affinity compared to their non-fluorinated analogues [150, 152].

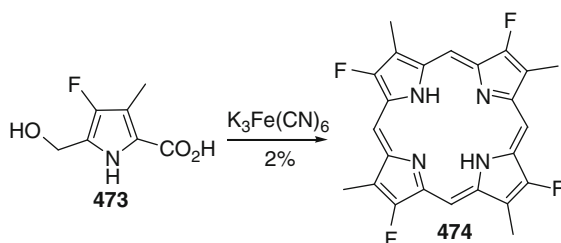


Reaction of 3,4-difluoropyrrole **391** with benzaldehydes **470** followed by oxidation with DDQ led to tetraarylporphyrins **471**. On the base of that reaction sequence a convenient and common pathway towards β -octafluoroporphyrins **471**, bearing meso-tetraaryl substituents, including perfluorinated tetraarylporphyrin was elaborated [153]. In the case of Al_2O_3 catalysis the first step of above mentioned sequence afforded β -octafluorocorroles **472** instead of porphyrins **471** [154].

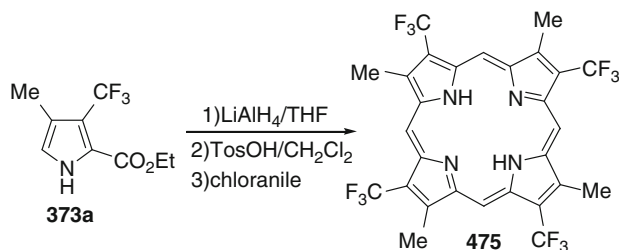


Alternatively fluorinated porphyrin **474** was synthesized by oxidation of 4-fluoropyrrole **473** with $\text{K}_3\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6$. The target tetrafluoroporphyrin **474** was prepared in poor yield, however [23]. It should be noted, that due to the high

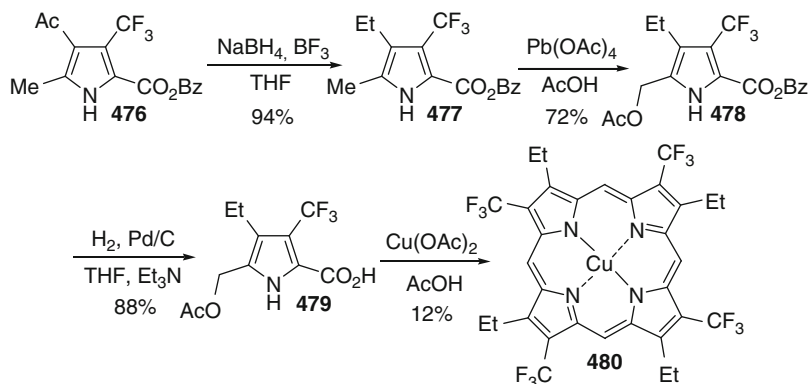
electronegativity of fluorine, fluorinated porphyrins became a valuable tool for the investigation and understanding of the electronic effects in porphyrin structure, opening new horizons for their application.



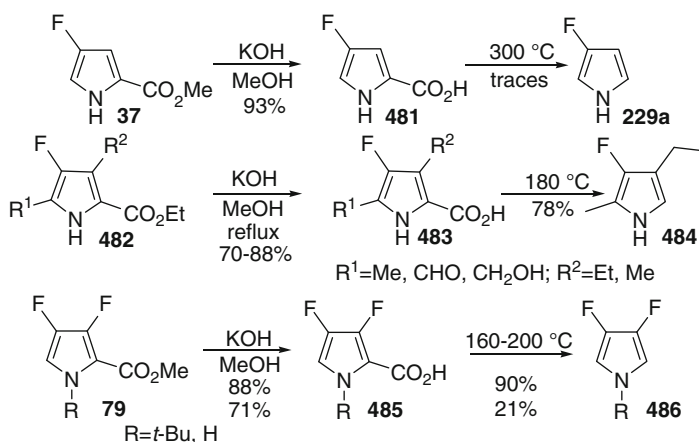
3-Trifluoromethylpyrroles were also used in the fluorinated porphyrins synthesis [121]. Thus, porphyrin **475** was prepared in three steps starting from pyrrole **373a**. At first step reduction of carboxyethyl group was performed. Next, intermolecular alkylation takes place to form CH_2 -bridged precursor of porphyrin under PTSA catalysis. The last step is aromatization under treatment with chloranile.



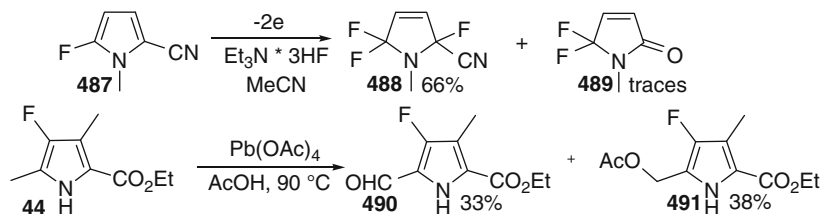
The key step of another porphyrin synthesis is template assembling of the porphyrin core at copper acetate, accompanying with decarboxylation. Starting from pyrrole **476**, porphyrin **480** was prepared in few steps [155, 156].



Other part of fluorinated pyrroles chemistry is connected with chemistry of functional groups transformation attached to fluorinated pyrrole ring. Pyrrole carboxylic acid esters can be easily transformed into acids by alkaline hydrolysis. Pyrrole carboxylic acids undergo decarboxylation at 160–200 °C [23, 157] 3,4-Difluoropyrrole **79** with nitrogen atom, protected with *tert*-butyl group, gave higher yield at decarboxylation step to compare with non-protected one. Unfortunately, only traces of parent 3-fluoropyrrole **229a** were isolated using this method [15]. Nevertheless, this two step transformation represents simple and straightforward approach to fluoropyrroles with unoccupied α -position, which are useful starting materials in synthesis of porphyrins [43].

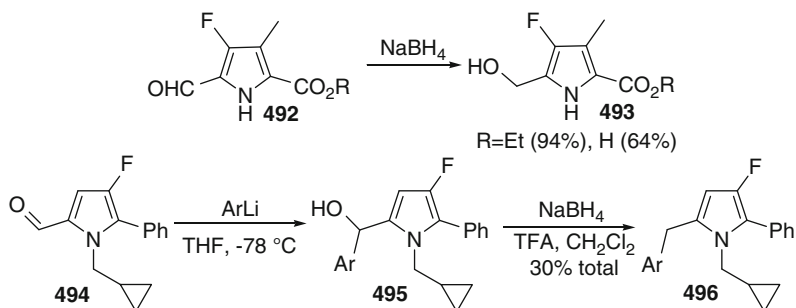


Oxidation and reduction reactions in series of fluorinated pyrroles were also reported. Anodic oxidation of 5-fluoro-1-methyl-1H-pyrrole-2-carbonitrile **487** in acetonitrile in the presence of Et₃N · 3HF complex afforded 2,5,5-trifluoro-1-methyl-2,5-dihydro-1H-pyrrole-2-carbonitrile **488** with traces of 5,5-difluoro-1-methyl-1H-pyrrol-2(5H)-one **489**. α -Methyl group in ethyl 4-fluoro-3,5-dimethyl-1H-pyrrole-2-carboxylate **44** can be selectively oxidized by Pb(OAc)₄ in the presence of β -methyl group. The reaction led to a mixture of aldehyde **490** and acetate of the corresponding alcohol **491** in high total yield [23].

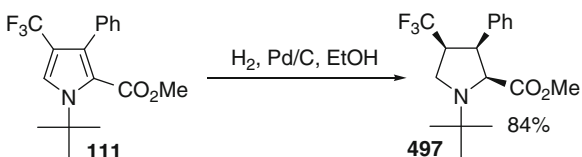


Reduction of 2-formylpyrroles **492** was carried out using NaBH₄ in THF to give alcohols **493** in good to high yields [23]. Such alcohols can be further reduced by

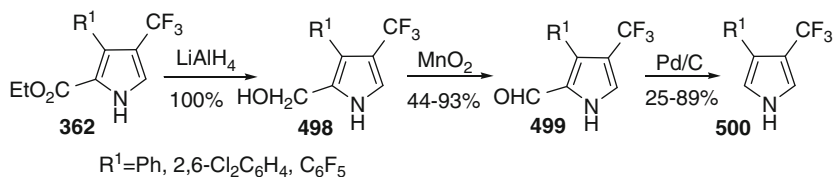
treatment with NaBH_4 in CH_2Cl_2 in the presence of TFA. Thus, alcohol **495** obtained by addition of aryllithium to fluorinated pyrrole carbaldehyde **494**, was converted into pyrrole **496** in 30 % total yield [18].



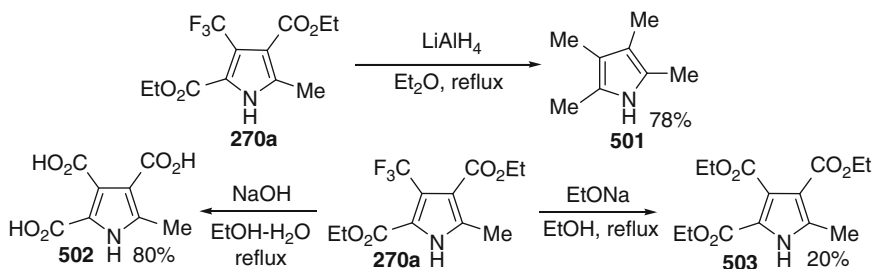
Heterocyclic core of trifluoromethylpyrrole **111** was smoothly reduced by hydrogen under Pd catalysis in EtOH. Pyrrolidine **497** was isolated as the only diastereomer [49].



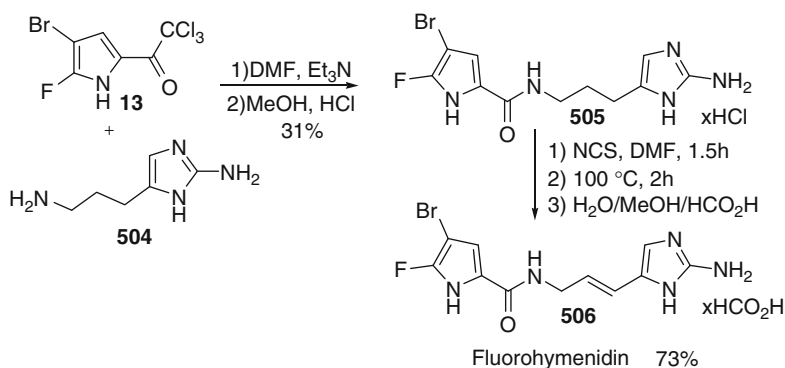
A series of pyrroles **500** with unsubstituted second positions was synthesized using pyrroles **362** as starting materials [158]. Reduction of esters **362** with LiAlH_4 afforded alcohols **498**, which were converted into aldehydes **499** by treatment with activated MnO_2 . Decarbonylation under Pd/C gave target pyrroles **500**.



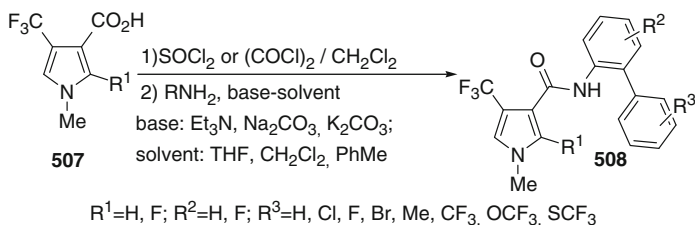
There are few examples of reactions, leading to the loss of fluorine. Thus, treatment of trifluoromethylpyrrole **270a** with excess of LiAlH_4 led to reducing of all functional groups to give tetramethylpyrrole **501** in high yield [91]. Another example is basic hydrolysis of pyrrole **270a** in water-ethanol mixture, which led to pyrroletricarboxylic acid **502**. Similarly, its ester **503** was obtained in the reaction of **270a** with sodium ethoxide.



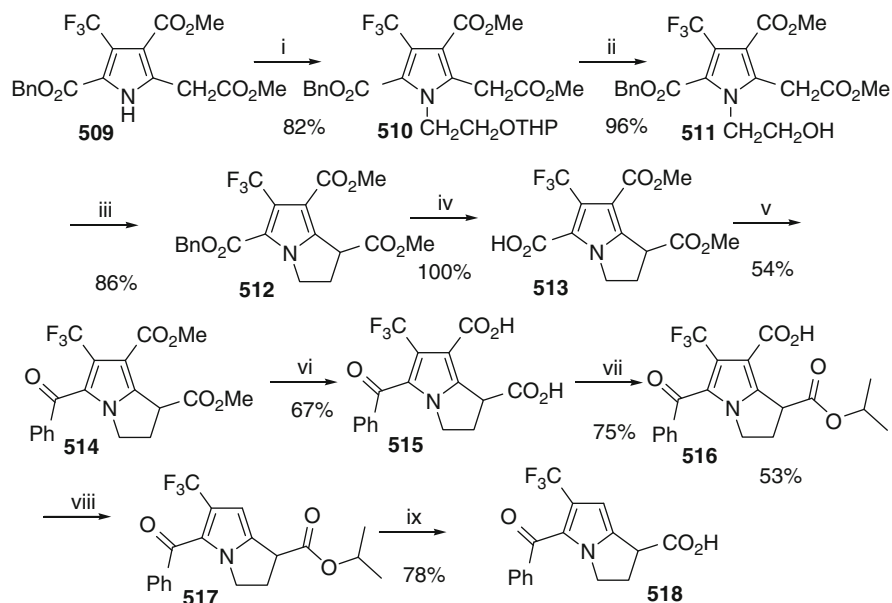
5-Fluorinated trichloromethylketone **13** was used for the synthesis of fluorohymenidin **506**. Hymenidin is bromopyrrole marine alkaloid isolated from the Okinawan marine sponge, and found to be an antagonist of serotonergic receptors [159]. Coupling of diamine **504** with the **13** led to fluorodihydrohymenidin **505**. Next, vinyl double bond was created via electrophilic chlorination of the 2-aminoimidazole moiety, followed by dehydrochlorination. Addition of NCS to **505** in DMF at room temperature selectively formed the corresponding chloroimidazole. Elimination of HCl was induced by heating to 100 °C to give fluorohymenidin formate **506** after reversed phase chromatography (H₂O/MeOH/HCOOH) [11].



Most applications of trifluoromethylpyrroles connected with pesticide candidates synthesis. In some cases, however, compounds having the 3-trifluoromethyl core possess the fungicidal properties as well. For example amides **508** prepared from **507** was found to reveal such activity [160].



Ketorolac is a non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drug, often used as an analgesic. Fluorinated analogue of ketorolac (compound **518**) was synthesized in nine steps in 11 % total yield starting from **509** [161].



- i BrCH₂CH₂OTHP, K₂CO₃, NaI, DMF; ii AcOH-H₂O; iii a) Et₃N, MeSO₂Cl, CH₂Cl₂;
 b) NaH, DMF; iv H₂, 10% Pd/C, AcOEt; v (COCl)₂, PhMe, PhMgBr, Fe(acac)₃;
 vi EtSLi, HMPTA; vii i-PrOH, HCl; viii CuO, quinoline, 215 °C; ix HCO₂H, MeSO₃H

4 Conclusions

Fluorinated pyrroles have been studied intensively in recent years. As a result, a significant number of synthetic approaches to these compounds was elaborated. The most general methods involve direct fluorination/trifluoromethylation of the parent pyrroles, both the [3+2]- and the [4+2]-cycloaddition reactions, the applications of carbonyl compounds as well as TOSMIC and isocyanoacetates. Though variety of methods are already known, the elaboration of novel preparative pathways towards fluorinated pyrrole derivatives is still ongoing, which is due to the manifold of biological activities of this structural motive and the use as precursors for porphyrins synthesis. It is no doubt, that this branch of synthetic organic chemistry will enjoy a much attention, giving rise to sustainable flow of novel convenient pathways to the synthesis of fluorinated pyrroles.

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Chemistry of Fluorinated Indoles

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Abstract The chapter is devoted to the synthesis and application of indoles as well as some their azaanalogues bearing fluorine atoms, trifluoromethyl groups, and perfluorinated aryl fragments.

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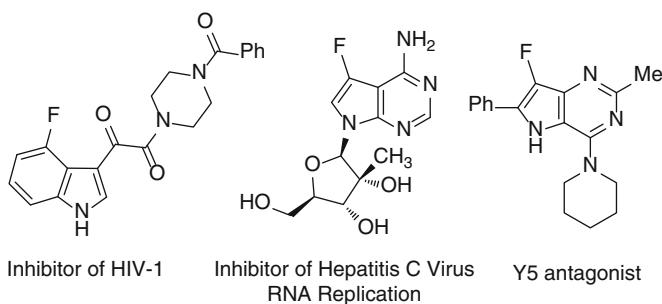
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Keywords Indole • Fluorine • Trifluoromethyl group • Synthesis • Fluorinated heterocycles

1 Introduction

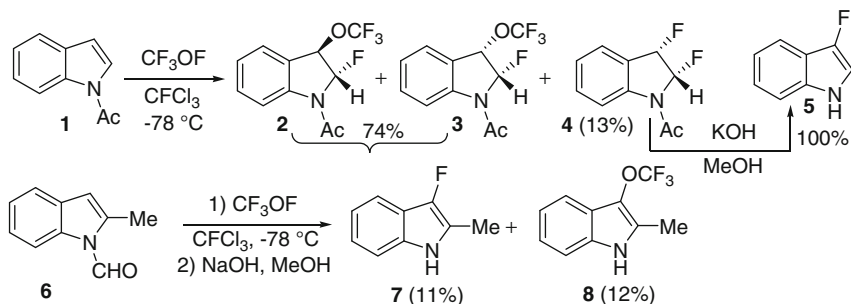
Indoles represent very important subunits of many natural products and pharmacologically active compounds [1]. Fluorinated indole derivatives are inhibitors of HIV-1 [2], CB2 cannabinoid receptor ligands found in the central nervous system [3], and factor Xa preventing thrombus [4]. Some fluorinated azaindoles, for example, fluorinated pyrrolopyrimidines are inhibitors of hepatitis C virus (HCV) RNA replication [5] and Y5 antagonists which are potential antiobesity agents [6]. Herein, we highlighted methods for the synthesis and application of fluoroindoles, trifluoromethylpyrroles and some their azaanalogues.



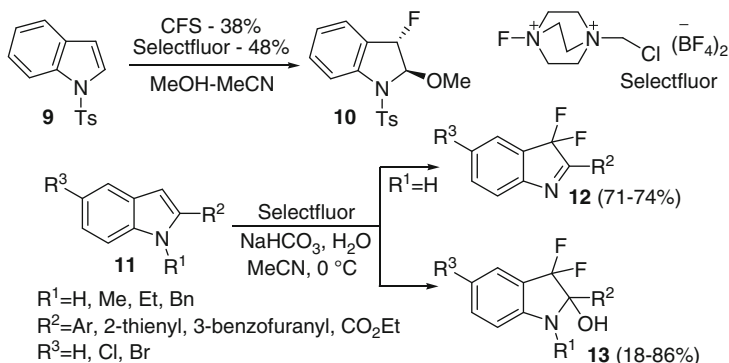
2 Synthesis of Fluoroindoles and Deazapurines

2.1 Functionalization of the Pyrrole Ring

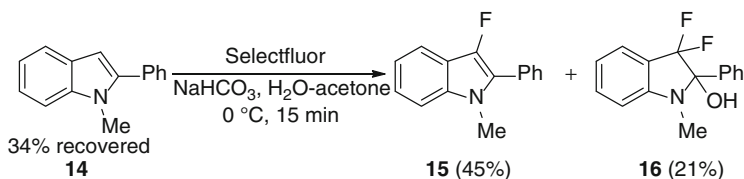
Several reagents were used for the electrophilic fluorination of indole. The first one used for this aim was trifluoromethyl hypofluorite (CF_3OF). Treatment of *N*-acylindole **1** with trifluoromethyl hypofluorite in CF_3Cl at -78°C afforded a mixture of 2-fluoro-3-trifluoromethoxy- and 2,3-difluoroindoline derivatives **2–4** in high combined yield. Subsequent treatment of difluoride **4** with potassium hydroxide in methanol afforded quantitatively 3-fluoroindole **5**. Similarly, starting from 1-formyl-2-methylindole reaction with trifluoromethyl hypofluorite resulted in formation of 2-methyl-3-fluoroindole **7** in low yield in mixture with 2-methyl-3-trifluoromethoxyindole **8** [7].



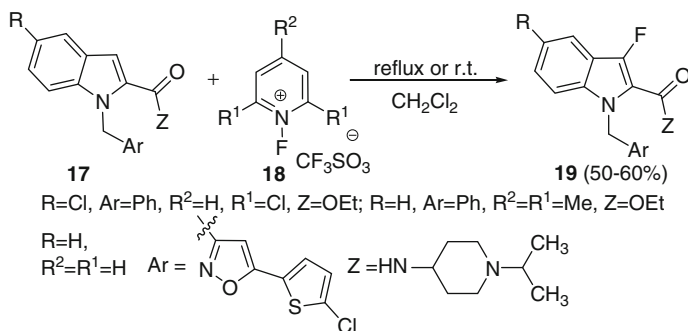
Fluorination of indoles **9** and **11** using cesium fluoroxy sulfate (CsOSO_3F , CFS) or Selectfluor led to the corresponding 3-fluoroindolines, which are the products of conjugate addition of fluorine and methanol or water. Thus, fluorinated methoxyindolines **10**, and 3-*H*-indoles **12** or hydroxyindolines **13** were obtained in methanolic or aqueous acetonitrile respectively [8a, b].



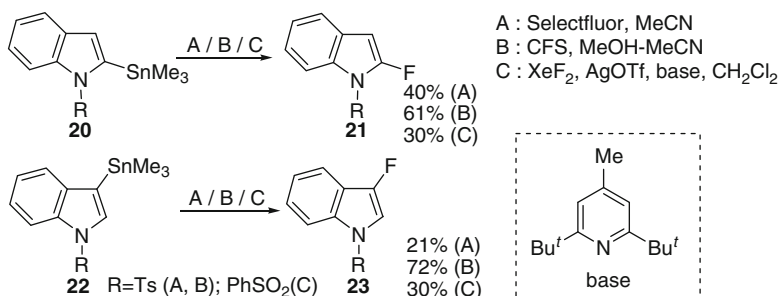
3-Fluoroindole **15** can be also prepared using Selectfluor. When acetonitrile was replaced by acetone and reaction was stopped before the starting *N*-methyl indole **14** was totally consumed, 3-fluoroindole derivative **15** was isolated in 45% yield together with difluorohydroxyindoline derivative **16**. This experiment led to claim that 3-fluoroindole derivative **15** was a reaction intermediate, subsequent fluorination resulted in the formation of difluorindolines **12** and **13** [8b].



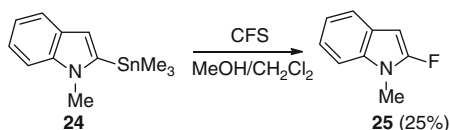
N-Fluoropyridinium triflates **18** are another useful type of fluorinating reagents applied for the preparation of fluorinated indoles. Using these reagents a series of 2-(3-fluoroindolyl)carboxylic acid derivatives **19** was prepared in good yields by treatment of indole-2-carboxylates or carboxamides **17** in dichloromethane [4, 9].



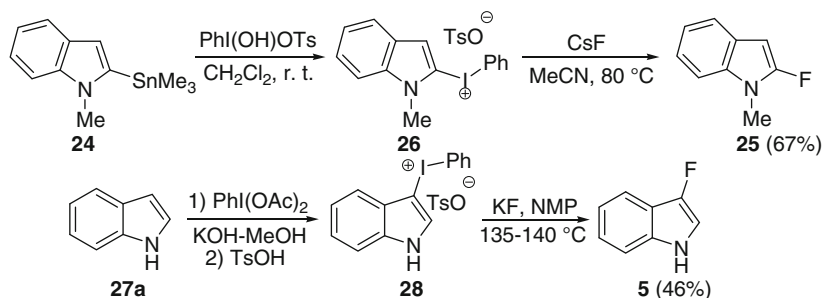
The problem of regioselective installation of fluorine into pyrrole ring of indole was resolved using tin substituted indoles as starting materials. Both 2- and 3-trimethylstannyl-1-(arylsulfonyl)indoles **20** and **22** can be used for fluorination with cesium fluoroxysulfate to afford 2-fluoro and 3-fluoroderivatives in 61 % and 72 % yields correspondingly. Using Selectfluor and xenon difluoride gave fluoroindoles in moderate yields. In addition, reaction of 2-trimethylstannylindole **20** with xenon difluoride afforded admixture of regioisomeric 3-fluoroindole **23** [8, 10].



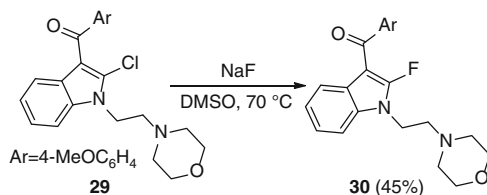
Analogous transformation with cesium fluoroxysulfate in the case of more electron rich 1-methyl-2-(trimethylstannyl)-1*H*-indole **24** leads to 2-fluoro-1-methyl-1*H*-indole **25** in lower yield [8c].



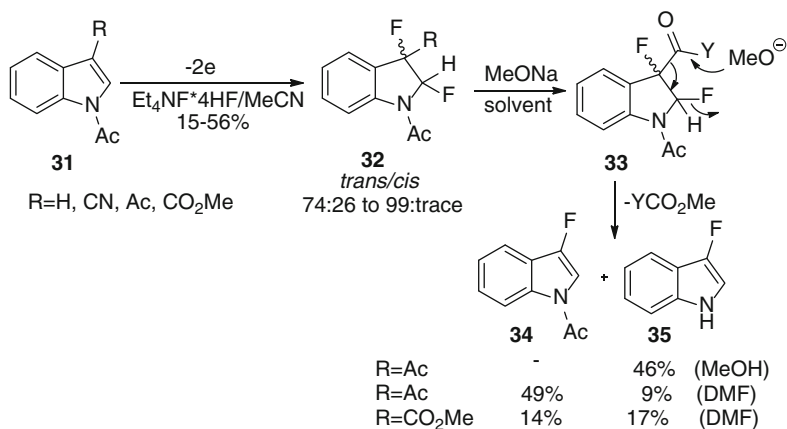
A nucleophilic fluorination approach towards fluoroindoles was also elaborated. Using nucleophilic substitution of phenyliodonium group by fluoride under heating, 2-fluoroindole **25** and 3-fluoroindole **5** were prepared in good yields. The intermediate phenyl(indolyl)iodonium salts **26** and **28** were easily synthesized by treatment of (2-indolyl)trialkylstannane **24** [11] or indole **27a** [12] with the corresponding polyvalent iodine compounds.



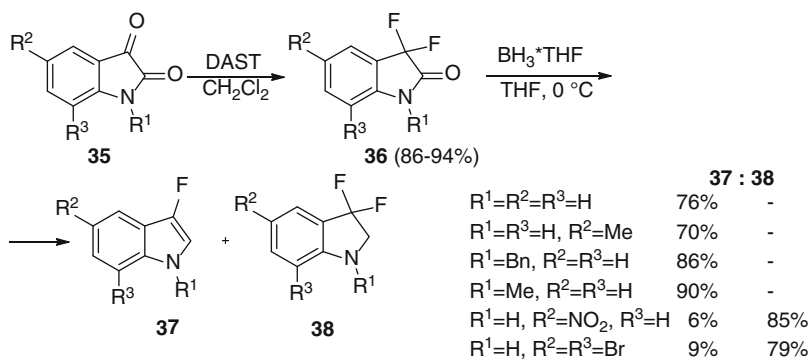
Similarly, 2-fluoroindole **30** derivative was obtained in 45 % yield by nucleophilic substitution of chloride in the 2-chloroindole **29** under heating with sodium fluoride in dimethyl sulfoxide [13]. The nucleophilic substitution proceeds in quite mild conditions for **29** due to the presence of activating nucleophilic substitution keto group in β -position of the indole.



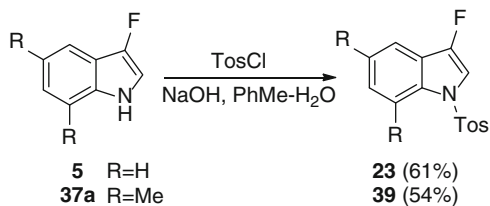
An electrosynthesis of fluorinated indole derivatives was carried out by Fuchigami and co-workers. Anodic fluorination of various *N*-acetyl-3-substituted indole derivatives **31** was performed in acetonitrile to give a mixture of *trans*- and *cis*-2,3-difluoro-2,3-dihydroindoles **32**, which afforded 3-fluoroindoles **35** and **34** after treatment with sodium methoxide [14].



An efficient pathway towards 3-fluorindoles was proposed starting from isatines **35**. Fluorinated 2-indolinones **36** were obtained in high yields by treatment of isatine derivatives **35** with diethylaminosulfur trifluoride in dichloromethane. In case of electron-donating substituents reduction of **36** with tetrahydrofuran-borane complex led smoothly to 3-fluorindoles **37** in high yields.

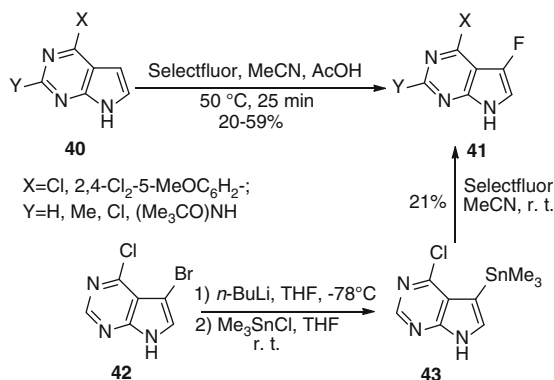


The corresponding difluorindolines **38** were mostly isolated in case of indoles with electron-withdrawing groups. It was mentioned, that 3-fluorindoles **5** and **37a** are quite unstable; the much more stable *N*-tosyl derivatives **23** and **39** can be prepared by treatment of **5** and **37a** with tosyl chloride under basic catalysis [15].

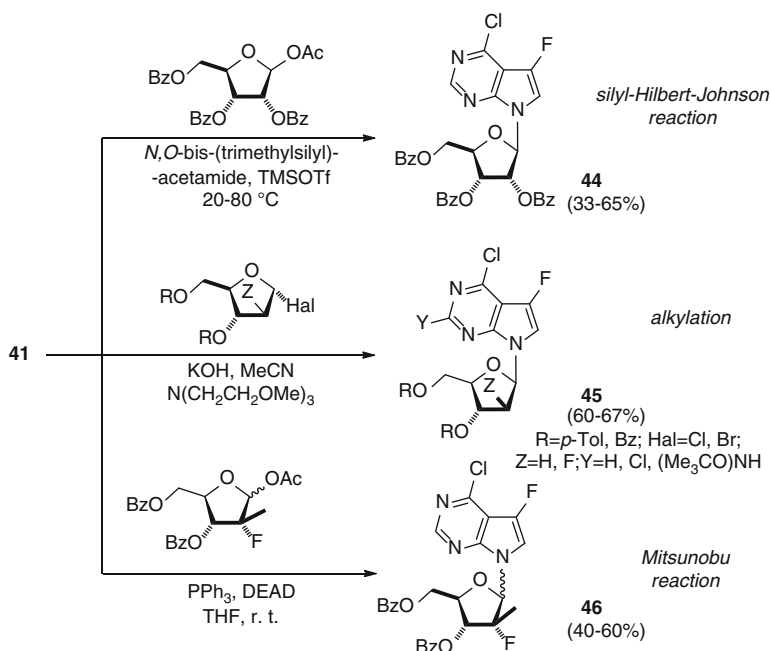


7-Deazapurines (pyrrolo[2,3-*d*]pyrimidines) are shape mimics of the parent purines. Hence, one might expect the corresponding ribonucleosides can replace naturally occurring RNA-constituents as substrates or inhibitors. As a result, further modifications of the pyrrolo[2,3-*d*]pyrimidine moiety may provide novel pharmacologically active compounds against human immunodeficiency virus [16]. A great effort was devoted to investigations of 7-fluorinated 7-deazapurines. The fluorination of various 7*H*-pyrrolo[2,3-*d*]pyrimidines **40** with Selectfluor gave selectively 7-fluorinated 7-deazapurines **41** in moderate yields [17]. Alternatively, 7-fluorinated 7-deazapurines **41** were prepared by lithiation of 5-bromo-4-chloro-1*H*-pyrrolo[2,3-*d*]pyrimidine **42**, followed by subsequent treatment of the resulting intermediate with trimethylstannane chloride to give

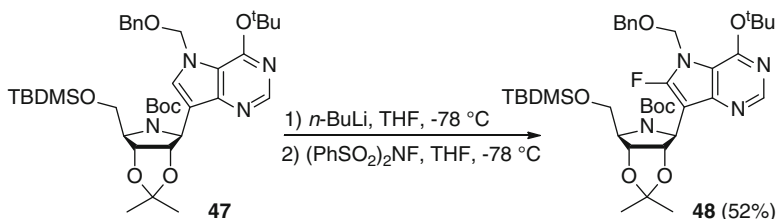
5-trimethylstannane **43**, which affords target 5-fluoroderivative **41** in 21 % yield after the reaction with Selectfluor [5].



The second step of new nucleoside preparation was the modification at the pyrrole nitrogen, using standard techniques of nucleoside synthesis such as the silyl-Hilbert-Johnson (or Vorbrüggen) reaction [17a, c, 18], alkylation under basic conditions [17d, 19] or Mitsunobu reaction [17f, 20]. By means of methods mentioned, a series of nucleosides **44–46** was prepared in moderate to good yields.

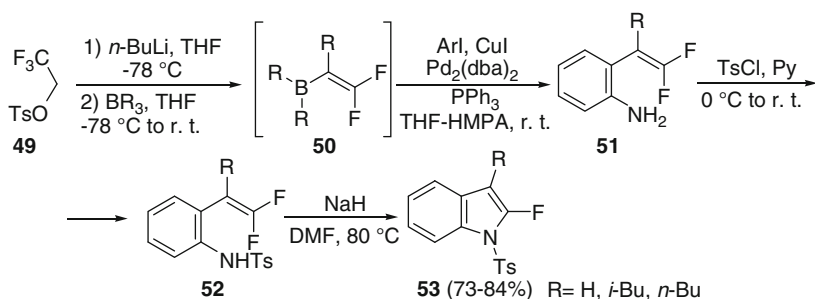


In the case of β -substituted pyrrolo[3,2-*d*]pyrimidines, the fluorine atom can be inserted into the molecule via metallation to α -position to pyrrole ring followed by fluorination. Thus, compound **47** reacted with *n*-butyllithium and *N*-fluorobenzenesulfonimide to produce fluoro derivative **48** in 52 % yield [21].



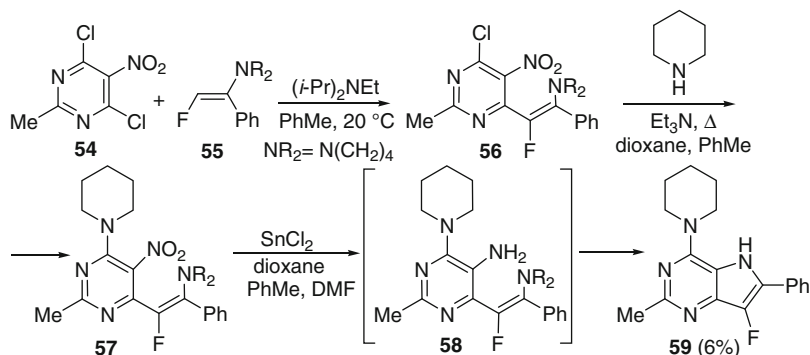
2.2 Heterocyclization

β,β -Difluorostyrenes **52** bearing a tosylamido group at the *ortho*-position underwent intramolecular nucleophilic substitution of the fluorine atom *via* a 5-*endo* trigonal process leading to 2-fluorinated indoles **53** [22, 23]. The cyclization is promoted by base, for example sodium hydride. The starting β,β -difluorostyrenes **52** were obtained accordingly to scheme below. Firstly, coupling of 2,2-difluorovinylboranes **50**, generated *in situ* from 2,2,2-trifluoroethyl toluene-*p*-sulfonate **49**, with *N*-butylmagnesium-*o*-iodoaniline were performed in the presence of copper(I) iodide and a palladium catalyst to give alkene **51**. Next, alkene **51** was converted into **52** by the reaction with TsCl.



Another intramolecular cyclization of amine **58** is the last step in the pyrrolo[3,2-*d*]pyrimidine analogue **59** synthesis. Intermediate **58** formed *in situ* from nitro precursor **57** by reduction with tin(II) chloride is a key step of this version of Leimgruber–Batcho synthesis leading to formation of **59** finally. This simple three-step route to **59** started from the coupling of electron-poor dichloronitropyrimidine **54** with β -fluoroenamine **55** to form alkene **56**. Regioselective nucleophilic

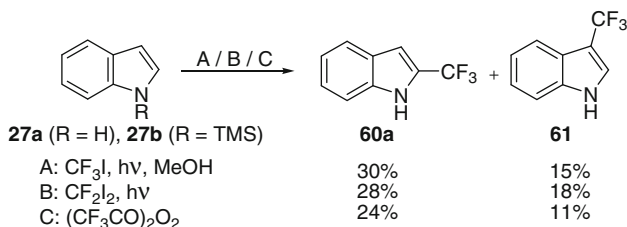
substitution of chlorine with piperidine led to nitro precursor **57**, which transforms into target pyrrolo[3,2-*d*]pyrimidine **59** by reduction in 6% overall yield [5].



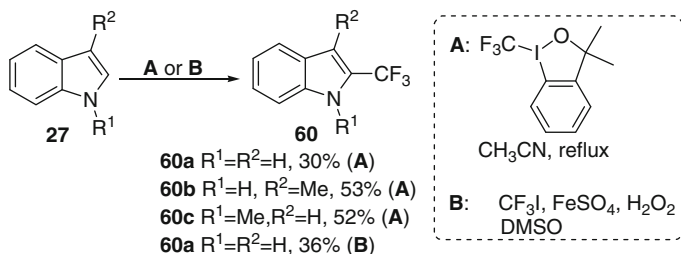
3 Synthesis of Trifluoromethylindoles

3.1 Direct Trifluoromethylation

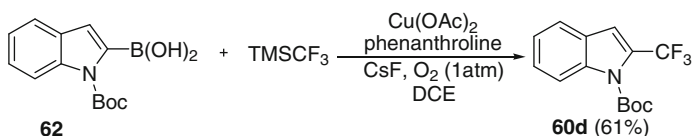
Radical trifluoromethylation of *N*-trimethylsilylindole **27b** with trifluoroiodomethane proceeded nonselectively into both 2- and 3-positions, with a preference for the 2-trifluoromethylindole formation [24]. Quench of the reaction mixture with methanol afforded the 2- and 3-trifluoromethylindoles **60a** and **61** in 2/1 ratio. Similarly, the trifluoromethylation using difluorodiodomethane [25] and bis(perfluoroalkanoyl) peroxide [26] led to a mixture of the same products. In all cases, the overall yield of isomeric indoles was moderate.



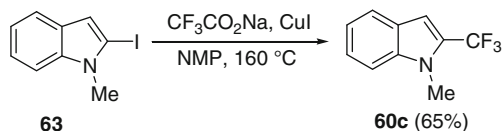
Perfect selectivity was achieved then hypervalent iodine reagent **A** [27] was used for electrophilic trifluoromethylation of indoles. Radical trifluoromethylation using CF_3I - FeSO_4 - H_2O_2 -DMSO system **B** [28] provided also excellent regioselectivity. However, yields of 2-trifluoromethylindoles **60a-c** in both cases were moderate to good.



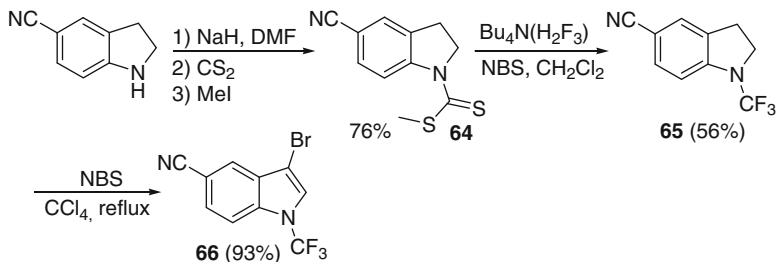
Another selective approach to 2-trifluoromethylindole is copper-mediated oxidative cross-coupling of 2-indolylboronic acid with TMSCF_3 . Reaction proceeds in mild conditions to give *N*-Boc-2-trifluoromethylindole **60d** in 61 % yield [29].



The nucleophilic trifluoromethylation, which is based on the heating of *N*-methyl-2-iodoindole **63** with 10 equivalents of sodium trifluoroacetate and an equimolar amount of copper(I) iodide in *N*-methylpyrrolidinone, afforded *N*-methyl-2-trifluoromethylindole **60c** in 65 % yield [30].



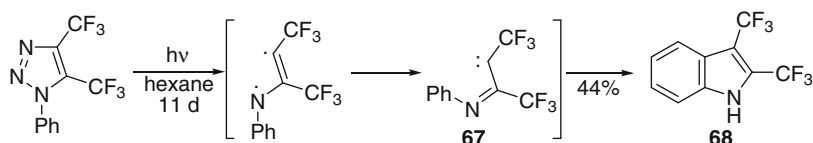
Formal *N*-trifluoromethylation of indole was performed in several steps, starting from indoline. At first step 3-cyanoindoline was treated with NaH , followed by CS_2 and then MeI to form thioderivative **64**. The latter was treated with tetrabutylammonium dihydrogen trifluoride, followed by NBS , to give *N*- CF_3 -indoline **65**. Aromatization of **65** was carried out by reaction with NBS in CCl_4 at reflux, leading to *N*-trifluoromethyl-3-bromoindole **66** [31].



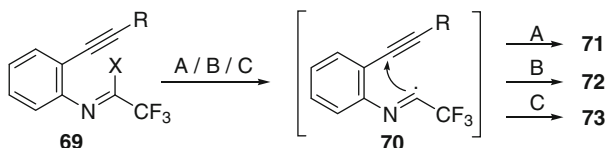
3.2 Heterocyclizations

3.2.1 Formation of the C3-C4 Bond

Kobayashi et al. elaborated an unusual pathway for the synthesis of 2,3-bis(trifluoromethyl)indoles [32]. Photolysis of the 1-phenyl-4,5-bis(trifluoromethyl)-1*H*-1,2,3-triazole in hexane proceeded very slowly to afford the indole **68** in 44 % yield. It was proposed, that after homolytic nitrogen extrusion, the carbene **67** was formed. Intramolecular cyclization led to the indole **68**.



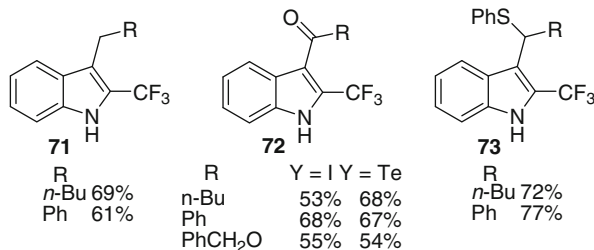
Radical, photochemical and thermolytic generation of *N*-aryltrifluoroacetimidoyl radicals followed by intramolecular cyclization was successfully used to synthesize 2-trifluoromethylindoles [33]. The radical approach was based on treatment of imidoiodides **69a** with tributyltinhydride in the presence of 2,2'-azobis(isobutyronitrile) (AIBN). The second method for the generation of *N*-aryltrifluoroacetimidoyl radicals **70** was based on the homolytic cleavage of carbon-iodine or carbon-tellurium bond in imidoiodides **69a** and tellurides **69b** under irradiation [34]. The third method involved the thermal homolysis of aza compounds **69c**. All of these methods provided the indoles **71**, **72** and **73**, respectively, in high yields [33, 34].



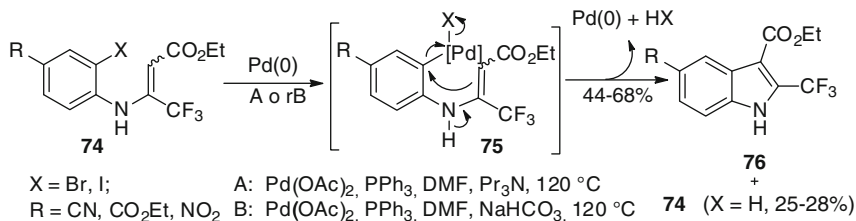
A: (**69a**) X = I; *n*-Bu₃SnH, AIBN, benzene, 80 °C

B: (**69b**) X = I or TePh; THF-H₂O, hv

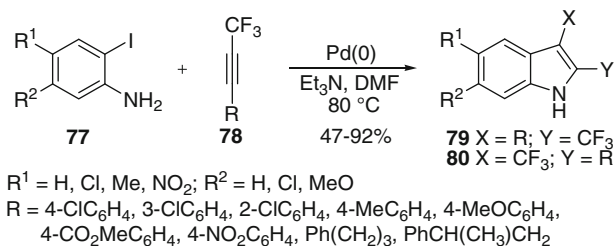
C: (**69c**) X = N=N-CPh₃; PhSH, toluene, 100 °C



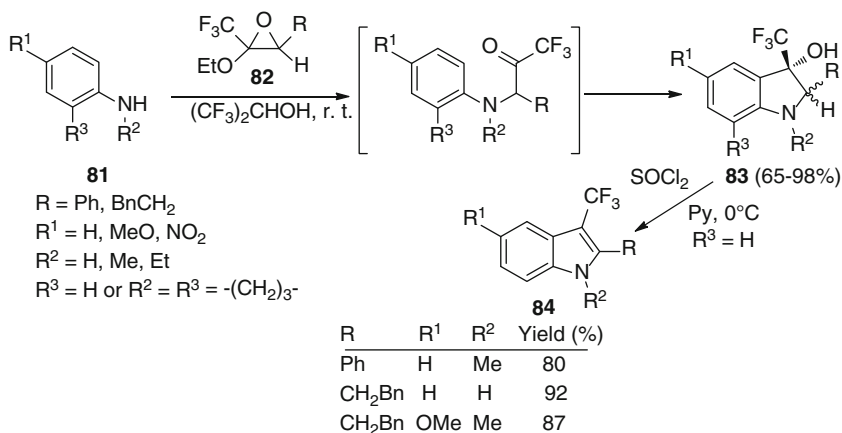
The intramolecular Heck reaction of bromo- or iodoaryl enamines **74** is another versatile key step for the synthesis of indoles. Zero-valent palladium catalysis afforded a mixture of indoles **76** and reduced enamines **74** (X=H) via intermediate formation of **75** depending on the base used [35].



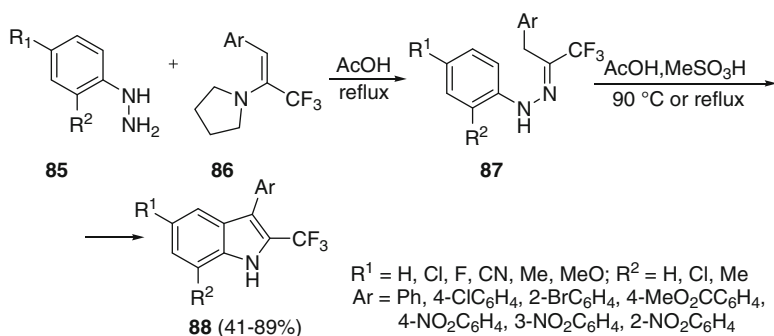
A variation of the intramolecular Heck coupling towards indoles bearing trifluoromethyl and aryl groups in the 2- and 3-positions was described by Chae and co-workers. First the C2-N bond was built, followed by ring closure that forms the C3-C4 bond. Accordingly, the palladium catalyzed addition of the trifluoromethyl(aryl) acetylenes **78** to the *ortho*-iodoanilines **77** afforded a mixture of the indoles **79** and **80** in high overall yield. Depending on the catalyst [20 mol% Pd(PPh)₃ or 10 mol% Pd₂(dba)₃·CHCl₃, P(*o*-Tol)₃], one isomeric indole of either **79** or **80** was formed predominantly [36].



Another versatile approach towards 3-trifluoromethylated indoles was elaborated by Rodrigues et al. Anilines **81** reacted with epoxy ethers **82** (prepared by epoxydation of the corresponding vinyl ethers) in hexafluoropropan-2-ol to form mixtures of diastereomeric indolines **83** in high yields. The ratio of the diastereomers varied between 96:4 and 79:21. These diastereomers can be separated easily by column chromatography. The reaction was general and allowed effective preparation of indolines with both electron-donating and electron-withdrawing substituents. Compounds with fused rings were also prepared by this method. Treatment of the major *trans*-diastereomer of **83** with thionyl chloride in pyridine afforded the 3-trifluoromethylindoles **84** in high yields [37].

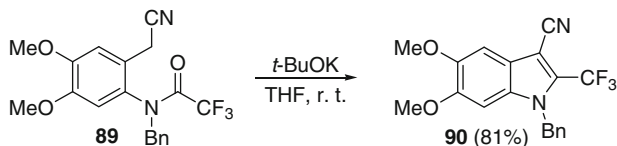


3-Aryl-2-trifluoromethylindoles **88** were prepared regioselectively using trifluoromethyl-2-arylenamines as synthetic equivalents of trifluoromethylated carbonyl compounds in the Fischer indole synthesis. Accordingly, arylhydrazines **85** reacted smoothly with enamines **86** in acetic acid to give the α -trifluoromethylhydrazones **87**. Fischer rearrangement of these hydrazones was performed in refluxing acetic acid the presence of methanesulfonic acid. As a result, a number of 3-aryl-2-trifluoromethylindoles were prepared in moderate to high yields [38]. This approach is first successful example of Fisher rearrangement for trifluoromethylated derivatives.

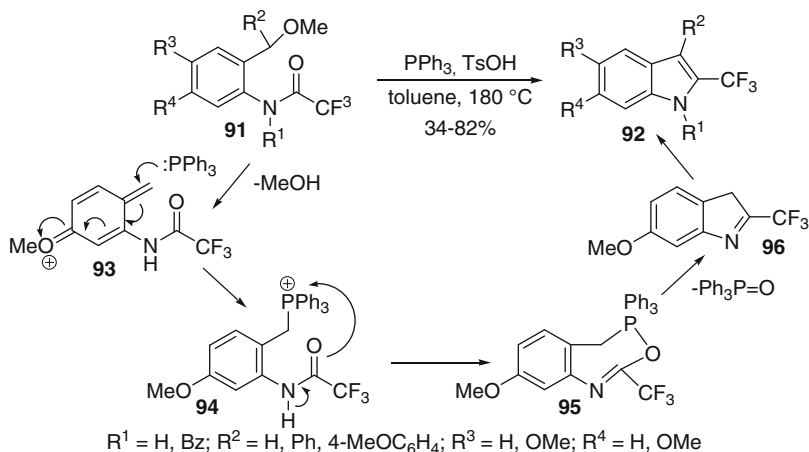


3.2.2 Formation of the C2-C3 Bond

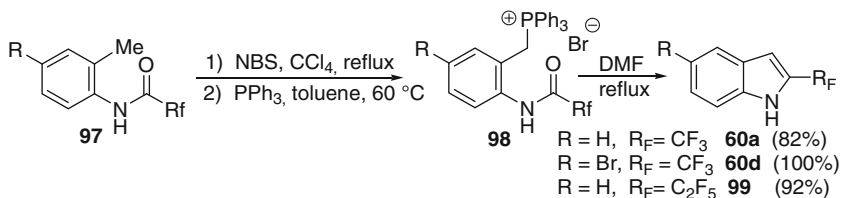
Indole **90** was synthesized by a modified Madelung reaction from the amide **89** by treatment with potassium *tert*-butoxide. The presence of two strong electron-withdrawing groups (CN and CF₃) in **89** facilitated both the deprotonation to the benzyl anion and its intramolecular cyclization under very mild conditions. Formation of **90** was completed in 10 min at room temperature in 81% yield [39].



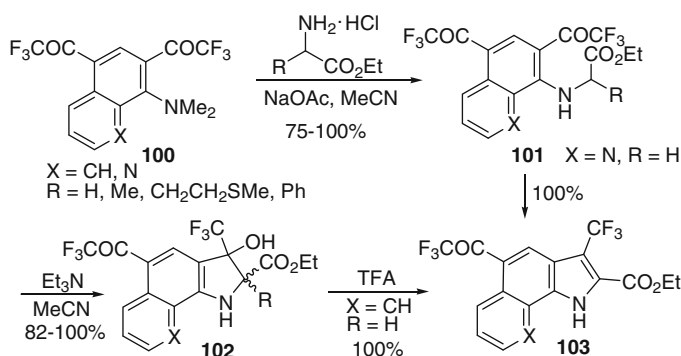
Miyashita and co-workers developed a novel 2-trifluoromethylindole synthesis based on thermolysis of 2-(*N*-acylamino)benzyl methyl ethers **91** in the presence of triphenylphosphine. However, this method has several disadvantages. The presence of a MeO-group in 5-position or 4-methoxyphenyl group at the benzyl carbon atom is necessary for the formation of **92**, otherwise the yields tend to zero. An explanation invokes the necessity of resonance stabilization of the intermediate oxonium ion **93**, which gives the key phosphonium salt **94** after attack by PPh₃. Subsequent intramolecular Wittig reaction leads to **95** which affords the 3-*H*-indole **96**. Isomerization of the latter leads to the target indole **92**. Another significant disadvantage of the method is the four-steps synthetic sequence to reach the starting 2-(*N*-acylamino)benzyl methylethers **91** [40].



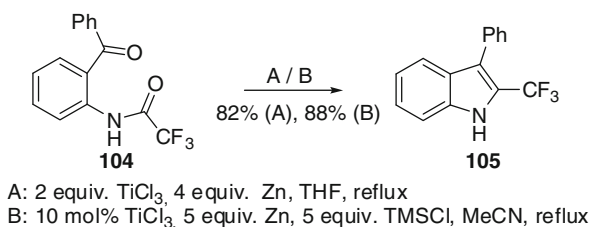
These disadvantages could be overcome by use of the phosphonium salts **98**, which are prepared in two steps from amides **97**. Bromination of **97** with NBS followed by reaction with triphenylphosphine permits to prepare **98** effectively. 2-Perfluoroalkylindoles **60a,d** and **99** were obtained in high yields using this method [40, 41].



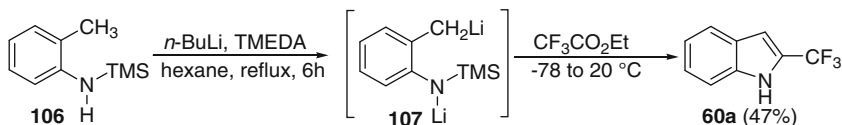
Okada and co-workers investigated the reactions of the quinoline and naphthalene bis(trifluoroacetyl) derivatives **100** with amino acid esters in acetonitrile [42]. Two COCF_3 groups facilitate extremely nucleophilic substitution in **100** to make dimethylamino group good enough nucleophile in this case. In the presence of equimolar amounts of sodium acetate (neutral media) the dimethylamino group was substituted with the amino acid ester moiety forming **101**. Subsequent treatment with triethylamine resulted in cyclization of **101** into the condensed dihydropyrrole derivatives **102** as mixtures of diastereomers. Quinoline **101** ($\text{X}=\text{N}$) was not isolated, but spontaneously cyclized to give 1*H*-pyrrolo[3,2-*h*]quinoline **102** ($\text{X}=\text{N}$). In contrast, naphthalene **101** ($\text{X}=\text{CH}$) in basic media was stable enough to be isolated. Treatment of **102** ($\text{X}=\text{CH}$) with trifluoroacetic acid gave the 1*H*-benzo[*g*]indole **103** quantitatively.



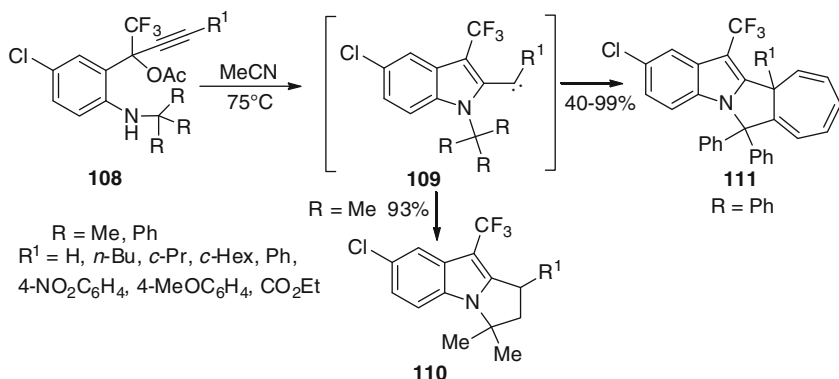
Fürstner and co-workers used the McMurry reaction for the synthesis of 2-trifluoromethyl-3-phenylindole **105** from ketonamide **104**. The reaction was performed either with two equivalents or substoichiometric amounts of titanium(III) chloride. In the latter case, large excesses of trimethylsilyl chloride and zinc were necessary [43].



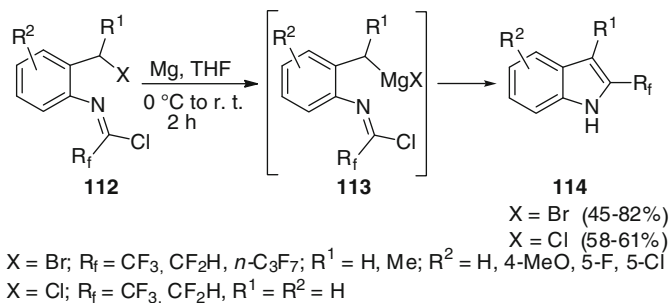
Refluxing of *N*-trimethylsilyltoluidine **106** with *n*-butyllithium in hexane in the presence of TMEDA afforded the dianion **107**, which on treatment with ethyl trifluoroacetate at -78°C gave 2-trifluoromethylindole **60a** in 47% yield [30].



An interesting rearrangement was found by Frey et al. Heating the amino alcohol *O*-acetate **108** (R=Me) in acetonitrile led to the tricyclic indole derivative **110**, while the trityl derivative **108** (R=Ph) afforded the dihydrocyclohepta[3,4]pyrrolo[1,2-*a*]indoles **111** in high yields. The authors suggested the carbene **109** as a key reaction intermediate, though the reaction mechanism is still a matter of discussion [44].

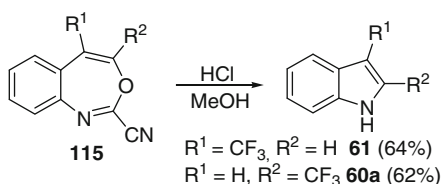


A convenient pathway to 2-fluoroalkyl-substituted indoles **114** was elaborated using the fluorinated *N*-[2-(haloalkyl)aryl]imidoyl chlorides **112** as key intermediates [45]. Treatment of the latter compounds with magnesium in tetrahydrofuran gave the Grignard compounds **113**, which afforded the indoles **114** in high yields by intramolecular cyclization initiated by attack of the nucleophile on imidoyl fragment.

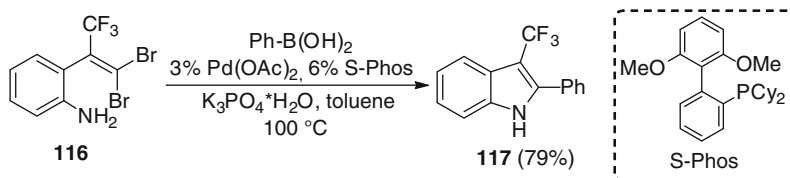


3.2.3 Formation of the C2-N Bond

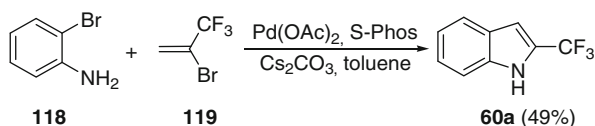
A regioselective pathway to 2- and 3-trifluoromethylindoles based on the ring-opening reaction of compounds **115** was developed by Attanasi and co-workers. After treatment of **115** with HCl in methanol, the corresponding indoles **60a** and **60a** were obtained in good yields. The starting compounds **115** were prepared from trifluoroquinolines in three steps [46].



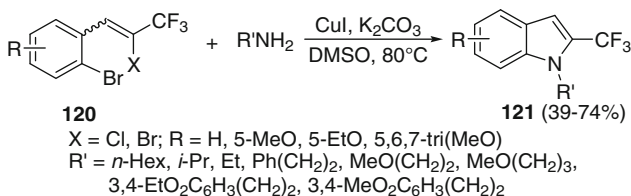
The synthesis of 3-trifluoromethyl-2-phenylindole **117** was accomplished by succeeding palladium catalyzed carbon–carbon cross-coupling of **116** with phenylboronic acid and carbon–nitrogen coupling in the presence of S-Phos [47].



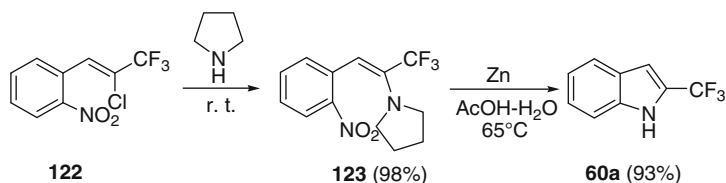
Under similar conditions, 2-trifluoromethylindole **60a** was prepared starting from 2-bromoaniline **118** and 2-bromo-3,3,3-trifluoroprop-1-ene **119** using palladium catalysis [48].



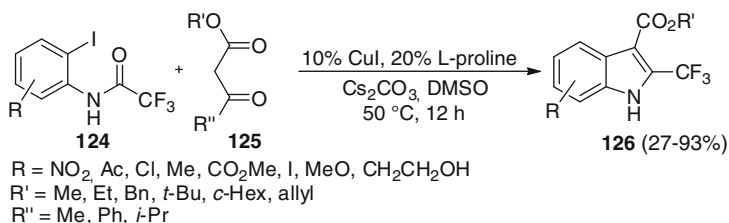
An efficient one-pot synthesis of substituted 2-trifluoromethylindoles was elaborated using copper(I)-catalyzed nucleophilic substitution of vinyl or aryl halogen atoms in styrenes **120** by primary amines. The resulting 2-trifluoromethylindoles **121** were prepared in moderate to good yields. The simplicity of the synthetic procedure and readily available starting materials are significant advantages of this method [49].



Another synthetic sequence for the preparation of 2-trifluoromethylindole **60a** was developed. In the first step, the styrene **122** was converted into the enamine **123** in quantitative yield. Subsequent treatment of this enamine with zinc dust under the standard conditions of the Leimgruber-Batcho indole synthesis led to 2-trifluoromethylindole, also in almost quantitative yield. Moreover, a one-pot methodology without isolation of enamine was also applied. In that case, an overall 90 % yield was obtained [50].



A convenient method for the synthesis of 2-trifluoro-methyl-1*H*-indole-3-carboxylic acid esters **126** was elaborated using a cascade coupling, condensation and deacylation sequence. Starting from aryl trifluoroacetamides **124** and ketoesters **125**, the corresponding indoles **126** were prepared in good to excellent yields, using a catalytic system of copper(I) iodide and L-proline [51].

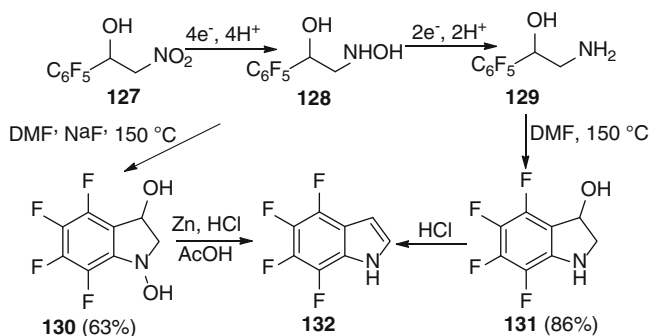


In conclusion, the synthesis of trifluoromethylated indoles is more difficult and less studied compared to synthesis of indoles bearing C-F bonds, therefore new effective strategies are very desirable to make these compounds to be more accessible building blocks for drug discovery.

4 Synthesis of Indoles with Fluorine Atoms in Carbocycle

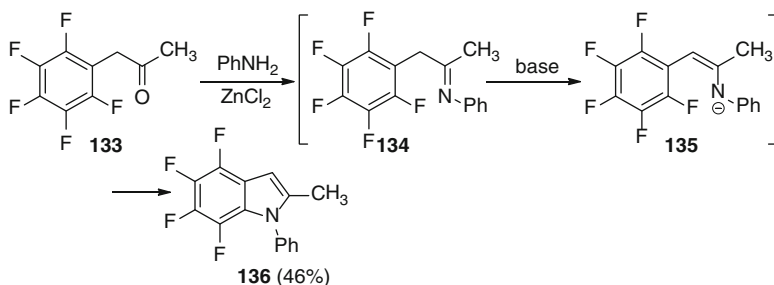
The influence of the fluorine atom on the nature of indole system is lower when fluorine is located on the benzene ring. However, there is significant specificity for indoles having fully fluorinated benzene ring. This part of the chapter is focused on 4,5,6,7-tetrafluoroindole and derivatives.

A common approach to the 4,5,6,7-tetrafluoroindoles is based on the various heterocyclizations starting from pentafluorophenyl precursors. Thus, heating of 1-pentafluorophenyl-2-amino-ethanol **129** in dimethylformamide gives 4,5,6,7-tetrafluoroindole **132** in good yield. The reaction proceeds via intramolecular nucleophilic substitution of the *ortho*-fluorine atom, followed by dehydration [52].

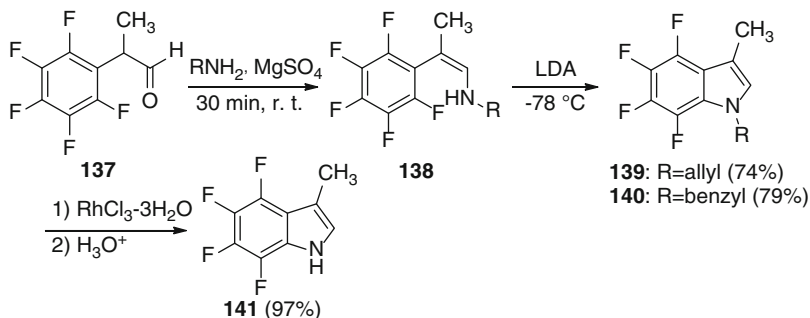


Another possible route for the nucleophilic substitution of the *ortho*-fluorine atom includes intramolecular attack by the hydroxy group of 2-(hydroxyamino)-1-(pentafluorophenyl)ethanol **128**. Heating of compound **128** in *N,N*-dimethylformamide in the presence of sodium fluoride led to cyclizations at the nitrogen to give 1,3-dihydroxy-4,5,6,7-tetrafluoro-indoline **130**. The latter was readily reduced by zinc in acidic media into 4,5,6,7-tetrafluoroindole **132**. The starting amino alcohols **128** and **129** were obtained by the potential-controlled electrochemical reduction of the nitroalcohol **127**, which can be prepared directly from pentafluorobenzaldehyde and nitromethane.

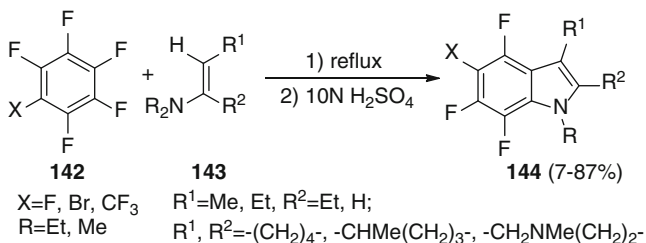
Alternative method for the synthesis of tetrafluoroindole was described in 1968. Ketone **133** was heated under reflux with aniline in the presence of anhydrous zinc chloride in order to prepare the Schiff base **134**. However, the only product isolated was *N*-phenyl-4,5,6,7-tetrafluoro-2-methylindole **136** (<10%). The yield of **136** was increased up to 47% by the addition of aniline hydrobromide to the reaction mixture. Thus, the improved synthesis of indole **136** includes heating of the ketone **133**, aniline hydrobromide, anhydrous zinc chloride and aniline under reflux for 2 h [53].



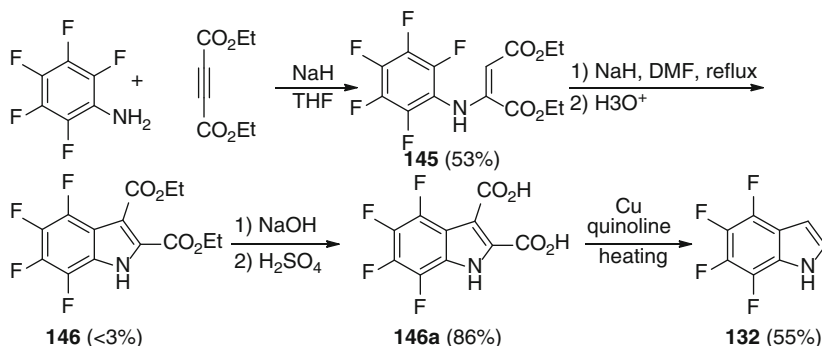
A similar approach was realized by other authors starting from aldehyde **137**. The reaction of the latter one with amines, followed by cyclization of intermediate **138** using lithium diisopropylamide as a base leads to tetrafluoroindole core. Finally, deprotection of **139** or **140** by a rhodium catalyst gave 3-methyl-4,5,6,7-tetrafluoroindole **141**. Overall yield of **141** starting from **138** was 72 % [54].



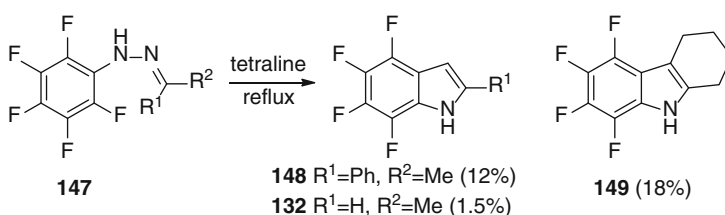
Intramolecular nucleophilic substitution of fluorine led to the formation of the pyrrole ring in the above mentioned transformations. However, the C-arylation can precede the heterocyclization. For example, condensation of cyclic enamines **143** with perfluorobenzenes **142** gave fluorinated indoles **144** via formation of C-N and C-C bonds. The authors reported that initial C-arylation was in competition with an initial N-arylation producing N-dialkylaminopoly-fluoroarenes. The “C versus N” arylation ratio was found to be dependent upon the nature of the enamine [55].



Similar cyclizations based on *N*-arylation are also known. For instance, when pentafluorophenyl substituted aminofumarate **145** (prepared from pentafluoroaniline and diethyl acetylenedicarboxylate) was treated with sodium hydride in dimethylformamide under reflux the indole derivative **146** was isolated. However, the yield of the target indole was very low [56]. Subsequent hydrolysis and decarboxylation provided tetrafluoroindole **132** in 55 % yield.

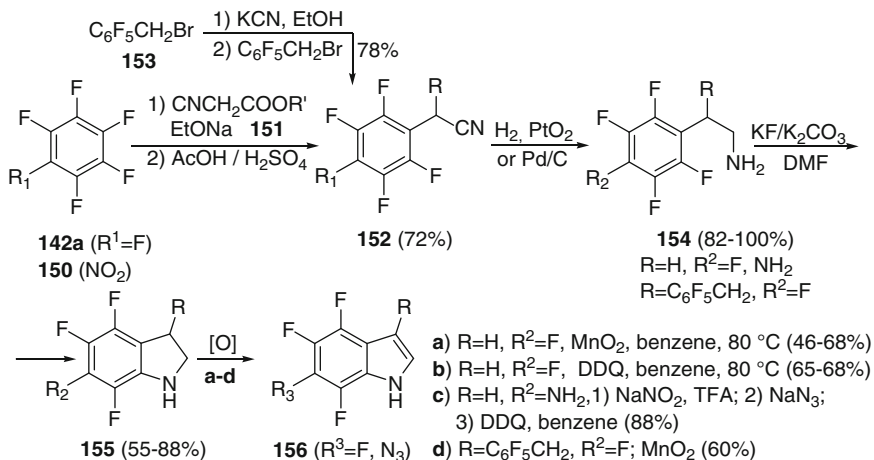


An unusual formation of indoles via a formal Fischer cyclization of *N*-pentafluorophenyl hydrazones **147** was discovered by Brooke. Generally, the Fischer reaction demands the *ortho*-position be unoccupied. However, in refluxing tetraline, hydrazones **147** were transformed into polyfluoroindoles accompanying with the loss of one *ortho*-fluorine. Hydrazones of acetophenone and cyclohexanone afforded the corresponding indoles **148** and **149** in 12 and 18 % yields respectively. In case of acetaldehyde hydrazone, only a minor amount of parent tetrafluoroindole **132** were isolated. The mechanism of the reaction has not been clarified [57].



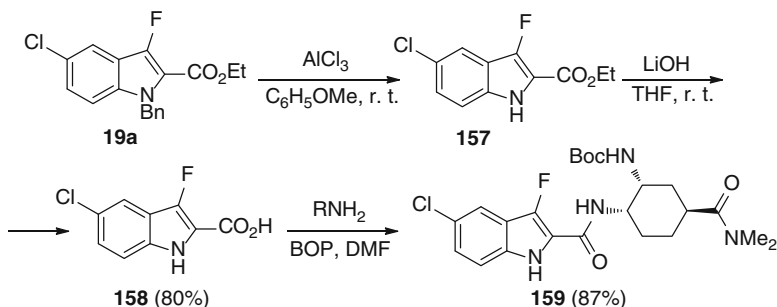
An efficient approach to polyfluoroindole was elaborated starting from hexafluorobenzene **142a** [58] and pentafluoronitrobenzene **150** [59]. In the first step, perfluoroarylacetonitriles **152** were obtained by nucleophilic substitution of fluorine with cyanoacetate **151** followed by acid catalyzed decarboxylation. Alternatively, nitrile **152** could be prepared from pentafluorobenzyl bromide **153** by treatment with potassium cyanide. Next, nitriles **152** were reduced into β -polyfluoroarylethyl amine **154**, which underwent facile cyclizations into fluorinated indolines **155**. The

latter were smoothly aromatized into the corresponding indoles **156** by treatment with manganese (IV) oxide or 2,3-dichloro-5,6-dicyano-1,4-benzoquinone.

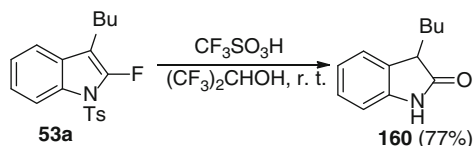


5 Properties

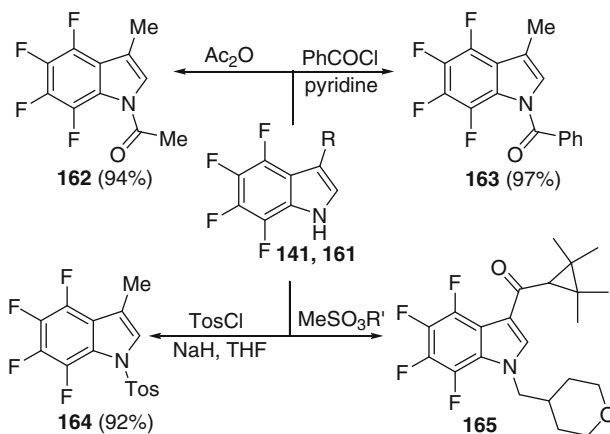
Fluorinated indoles reveal very similar properties in comparison to their non-fluorinated analogues. However, it should be noted that the chemistry of monofluorinated indoles (with fluorine atom attached to both 2 and 3 position) is scarcely studied. For example, 3-fluoroindole derivative **19a** was debenzylated to give indole carboxylic acid ester **157** quantitatively; the latter one was converted into amide **159** by hydrolysis followed by reaction with the corresponding amine in the presence of BOP reagent [9a]. Nitrogen atom in case of 3-fluorosubstituted indole derivatives has usual nucleophilicity and can participate in standard indole reactions, for example reaction with tosyl chloride provided *N*-sulfonylation product in 61 % yield [15].



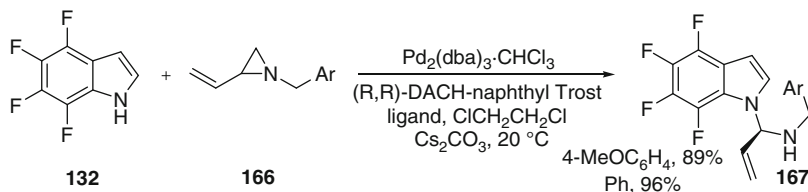
One more example of monofluoroindoles reactivity is hydrolysis of indole derivative **53a** into oxindole **160**, which was achieved under treatment with trifluoromethanesulfonic acid in hexafluoroisopropanol [60].



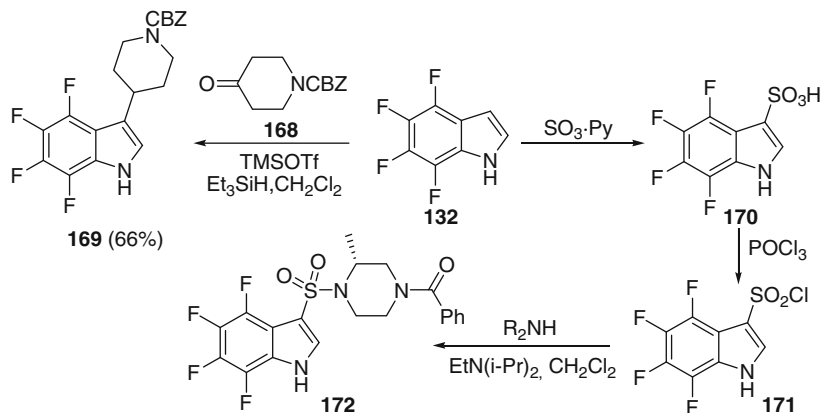
4,5,6,7-Tetrafluoroindoles were also shown to exhibit typical reactivity of indole. N-Substituted 4,5,6,7-tetrafluoroindole derivatives were obtained easily by the reaction of the parent indole with various electrophiles under basic conditions. Reaction of indoles **141** and **161** with acetic anhydride, benzoyl chloride, tosyl chloride and methanesulfonic acid ester afforded the corresponding N-substituted derivatives **162–165** in high yields [3, 54b].



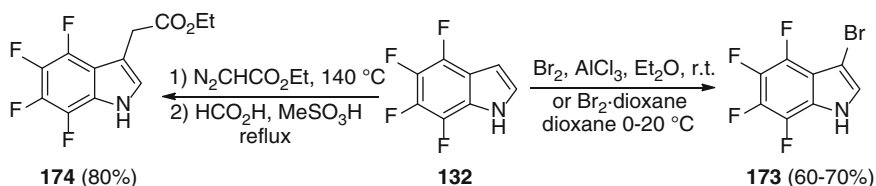
Alternative approach to 4,5,6,7-tetrafluoroindole nitrogen modification was proposed by Trost et al. Reaction of 4,5,6,7-tetrafluoroindole **132** with vinyl aziridines **166** under $\text{Pd}_2(\text{dba})_3$ catalysis proceeded with ring-opening to give, stereoselectively, allyl amine derivatives **167** in high yields [61].



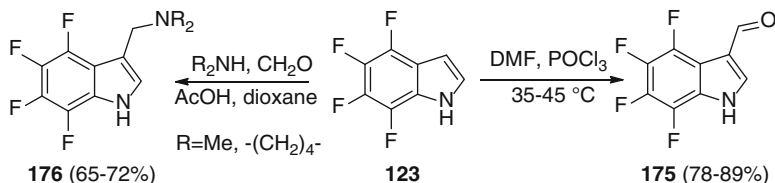
In spite of electron withdrawing action of four fluorine atoms, 4,5,6,7-tetrafluoroindole **132** reacts with electrophiles under quite mild conditions to give products of substitution at the 3-position. For example, reaction of **132** with *N*-(carbobenzyloxy)piperidin-4-one **168** in the presence of trimethylsilyl triflate and triethylsilane afforded the corresponding piperidine derivative **169** [62]. Using sulfur trioxide-pyridine complex indolyl sulfonic acid **170** was obtained, which was further converted into sulfonyl amide **172** by reaction with phosphorus(V) oxychloride, followed by treatment with derivative of piperazine [2a].



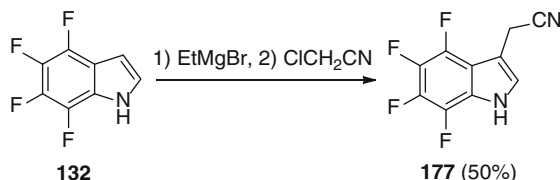
Bromination was carried out using bromine in presence of catalytic amount of aluminum chloride or bromine-dioxane complex at 0–20 °C to form 3-bromoderivative **173** in high yield [63]. Electrophilic carbenoid species, generated at elevated temperature, reacted with polyfluoroindole to form indolyl carboxylic esters **174** after treatment with formic acid [58c].



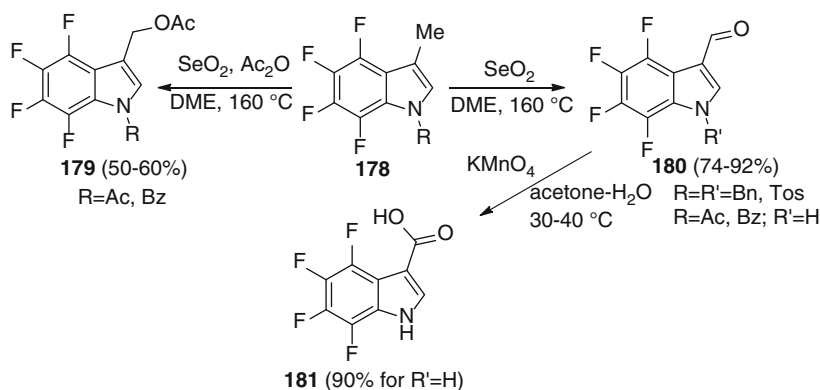
Fluorinated 3-indolyl carbaldehyde **175** was obtained in yields up to 89 % by Vilsmeier-Haack reaction [58c, 63]. Aminomethylation afforded the corresponding fluorinated gramine derivatives **176** in good yields [58c, 63].



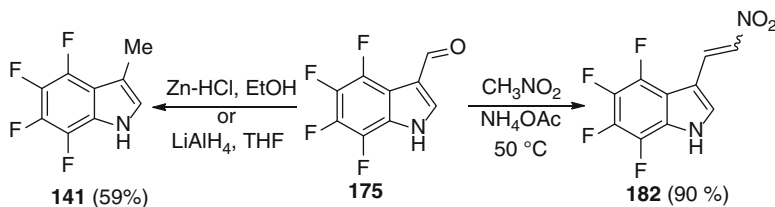
Reaction of chloroacetonitrile with 4,5,6,7-indolyl magnesium bromide, obtained by treatment of tetrafluoroindole with ethylmagnesium bromide, proceeded regioselectively at 3-position to afford the corresponding nitrile **177** in moderate yield [58c].



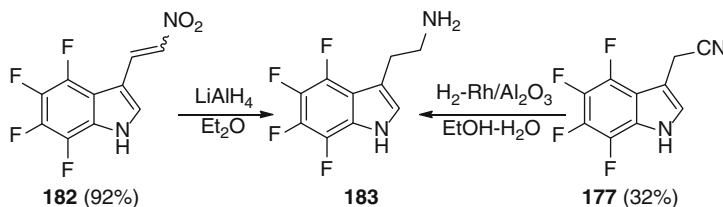
Oxidation of 3-methyltetrafluoroindoles **178** by selenium dioxide in presence of acetic anhydride can be stopped at the alcohol oxidation level step to give acetates **179**. Fluorinated 3-indolylcarbaldehydes **180** were isolated in high yields when the oxidation was performed without addition of acetic anhydride [54]. Further oxidation of aldehyde was achieved by treatment with potassium permanganate to afford 3-indolylcarboxylic acid **181** in high yield [58c].



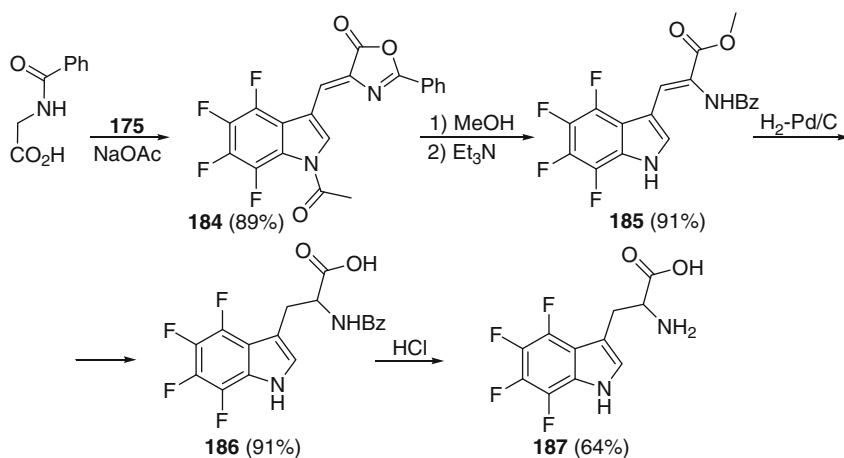
Reduction of the aldehyde **175** with lithium aluminum hydride [63] or zinc in hydrochloric acid [58c] gave fluorinated 3-methylindole **141** in good yield.



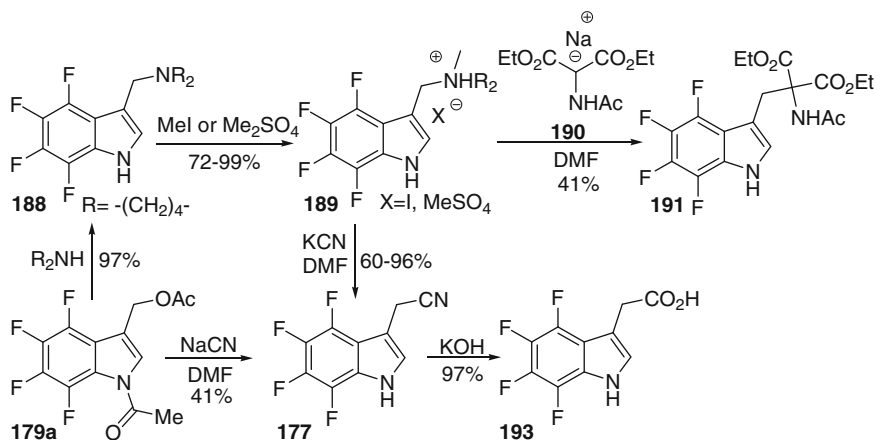
Fluorinated tryptamine **183** was prepared by Rh-catalyzed reduction of the corresponding nitrile **177** by hydrogen [58c]. Alternatively, the compound **183** was synthesized by lithium aluminum hydride reduction of nitroalkene **182**, which was obtained by condensation of aldehyde **175** with nitromethane [54].



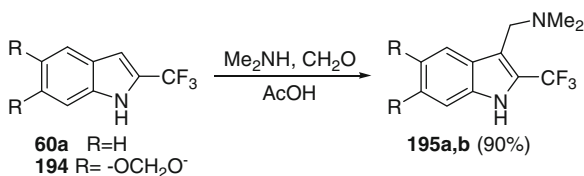
Through a similar reaction sequence, fluorinated tryptophan **187** was synthesized. Condensation of aldehyde **175** with *N*-benzoyl glycine afforded oxazolone **184**, which was converted into unsaturated acid **185**. Reduction of **185** by hydrogen and subsequent acid-catalyzed hydrolysis gave fluorinated tryptophan **187** in good total yield [54].



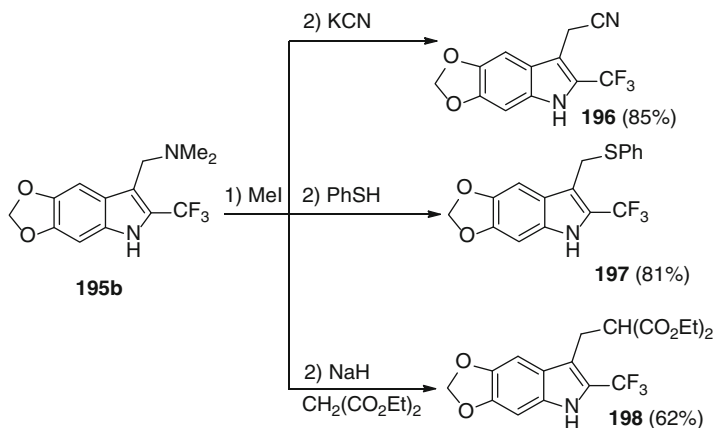
Fluorinated gramine analogue **188** was easily *N*-alkylated by reaction with methyl iodide [58c] or dimethyl sulfate [54, 63]. The tertiary amine salt **189** and the acetoxy derivative **179a** are suitable substrates for various nucleophilic substitutions. For instance, treatment of **189** or **179a** with potassium cyanide or sodium cyanide afforded the corresponding nitrile **177** [54, 58c] which was hydrolyzed into fluorinated indolyl acetic acid **193** [54]. Reaction of acetoxy compound **179a** with secondary amines led to gramine **188**. The corresponding tryptophan derivative **191** was obtained using the sodium salt of diethyl aminomalonate as a nucleophile [58c].



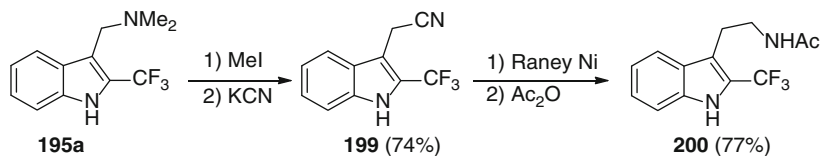
Trifluoromethylindoles undergo similar transformations in comparison to their non-fluorinated analogues as well. Thus, electrophilic substitution at the C-3 position takes place when the C-2 position is occupied by the trifluoromethyl group. The Mannich reaction provided dimethylaminomethyl derivatives in good yields under standard conditions [64].



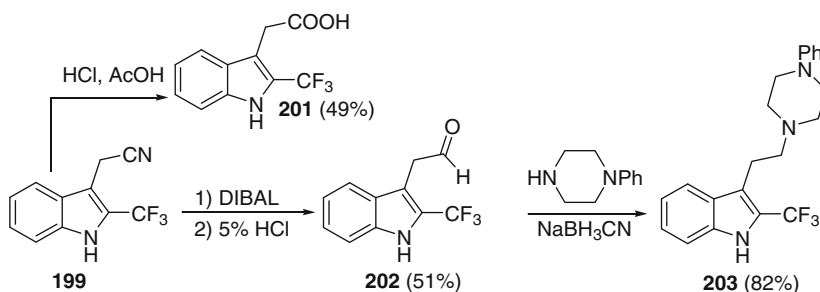
Quaternization of the compounds **195b** with methyl iodide and subsequent reactions with nucleophiles, e.g. potassium cyanide, thiophenol, and diethyl malonate, gave corresponding products **196–198** in 62–85 % yields [64].



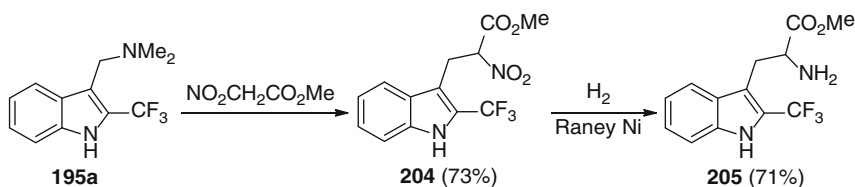
Reduction of the nitrile group of the compound **199** and subsequent reaction with acetic anhydride led to 2-trifluoromethyltryptamine **200** [64]. For the reduction, Raney Ni was used, since hydrides, for example, lithium aluminium hydride, can reduce the trifluoromethyl group as well.



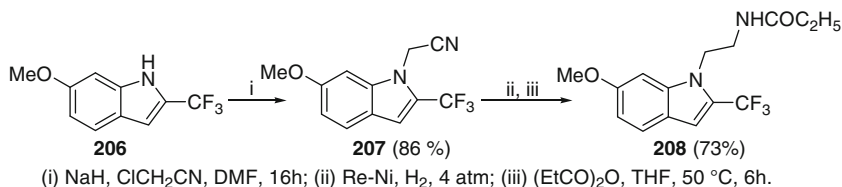
Hydrolysis of the nitrile **199** gave 2-trifluoromethylindole-3-acetic acid **201** in moderate yield [60]. A partial reduction of the nitrile group in **199** provided indole-3-acetaldehyde **202** in 51 % yield. The latter was used for the synthesis of the 2-trifluoromethylated analogue of oxyperline (an antipsychotic used in the treatment of schizophrenia) **203** upon treatment with *N*-phenylpiperazine and sodium cyanoborohydride [64].



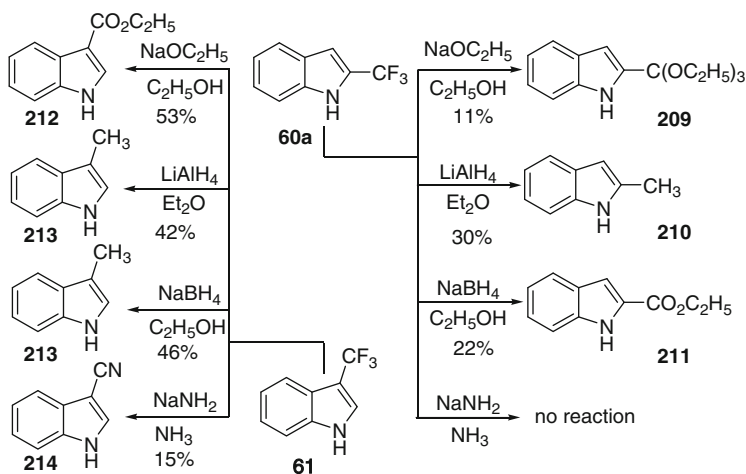
2-Trifluoromethyltryptophan methyl ester **205** was synthesized from nitro derivative **204** obtained via direct reaction of **195a** with methyl nitroacetate. Chemoselective reduction of the nitro group was achieved by hydrogenation in the presence of Raney Ni in methanol [60].



N-Alkylation of indole **206** was achieved by treatment with NaH in DMF, followed by reaction with chloroacetonitrile [65]. Subsequent catalytic reduction of **207** with hydrogen under Raney-Ni followed by reaction with ethylcarbonate led to compound **208**, which was investigated as melatonin receptor ligand.



Attanasi et al. investigated reactions of both 2- and 3-trifluoromethylindole involving trifluoromethyl group and leading to loss of fluorine. Treatment of trifluoromethylindoles with LiAlH₄ gave methylindoles **210** and **213**.

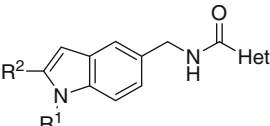
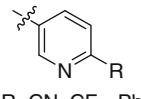
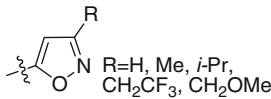
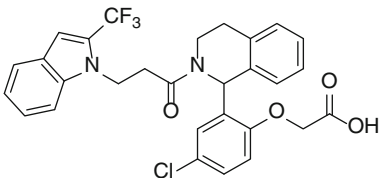
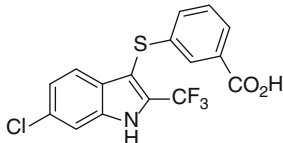
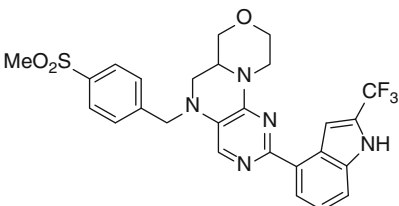
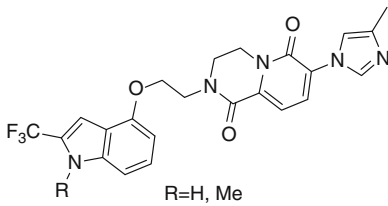
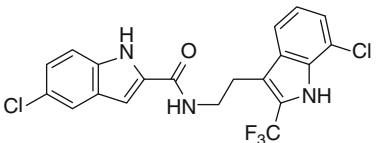
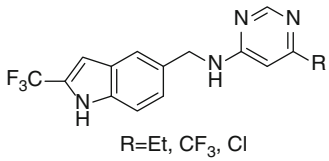
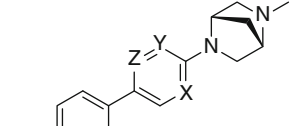
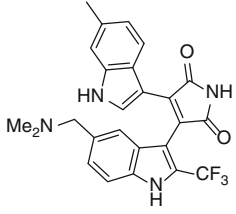


Reaction of 2-trifluoromethylindole with sodium ethoxide led to *ortho*-ether **209**, while ethyl 3-indolylcarboxylate **212** was isolated in case 3-trifluoromethylindole. Reaction of 2-trifluoromethylindole with NaBH₄ in ethanol led to ethyl 2-indolylcarboxylate **211**. In contrast, reduction of trifluoromethyl group was observed to form 3-methylindole **213** in case of 3-isomer. Treatment of 3-trifluoromethylindole with sodium amide in liquid ammonia led to 3-cyanoindole **214**, whereas 2-trifluoroindole did not react with sodium amide at all [46].

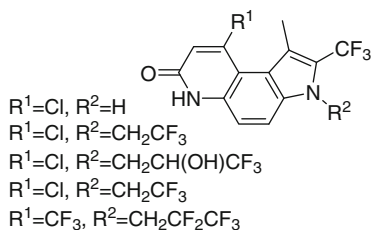
6 Pharmacological Properties of Fluorinated Indoles

Fluorinated indoles possess a broad scope of physiological activity and they are very prominent candidates for further biological testing and using as drugs. In this part of the chapter pharmacological properties of fluorinated indoles are collected (Table 1). One can see very broad spectrum of biological activity of such structures and synergism bringing both indole fragment and fluorine in a molecule.

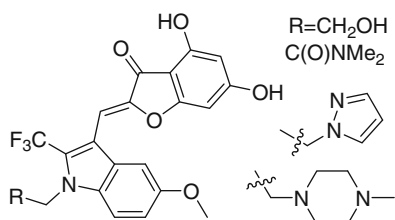
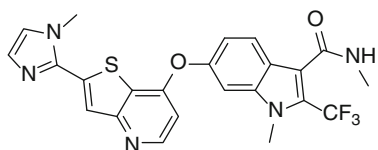
Table 1 Pharmacological properties of fluorinated indoles

 <p>R²=CF₃, R¹=H, Me R²=CF₃, R¹=H, Me</p>	 <p>R=CN, CF₃, Ph</p>	 <p>R=H, Me, <i>i</i>-Pr, CH₂CF₃, CH₂OMe</p>
<p>Modulators of nicotinic acetylcholine $\alpha 7$ receptor and KCNQ potassium channel [31]</p>		
		
<p>Prostaglandin D2 receptor modulators [66] Autotoxin (ATX) inhibitors [67]</p>		
	 <p>R=H, Me</p>	
<p>Inhibitor of PI3Kδ [68] Inhibitor of amyloid beta protein Aβ(1–42) production [69]</p>		
	 <p>R=Et, CF₃, Cl</p>	
<p>Modulator of human prostaglandin EP₂ receptor [70] Modulator of nicotinic acetylcholine $\alpha 7$ receptor [71]</p>		
 <p>X=Y=C, Z=N X=Y=N, Z=C X=C, Y=Z=N X=Z=N, Y=C</p>		
<p>Modulator of $\alpha 7$ neuronal nicotinic receptors (NNRs) [72] Inhibitor of Protein Kinase Cβ1 (PKCβ1) [73]</p>		

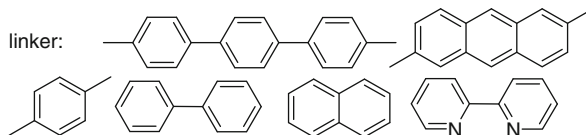
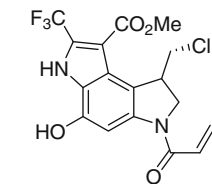
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Table 1 (continued)

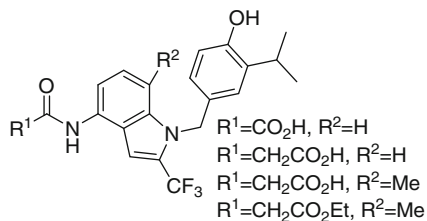
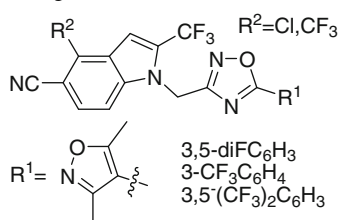
Androgen receptor modulator [74]

Inhibitor of phosphatidylinositol-3 kinase α (PI3K α) [76]

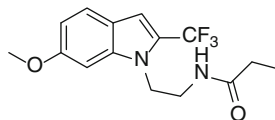
Inhibitor of autophosphorylation receptor [78]



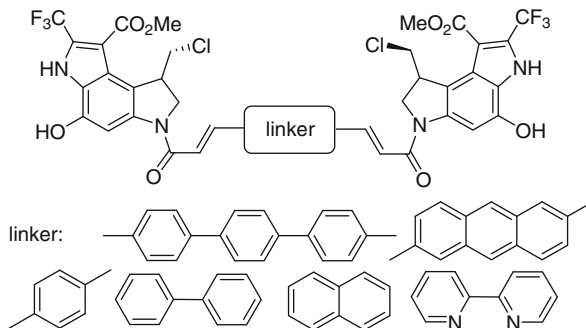
Antiproliferative, antineoplastic, antitumor activity [79]

Thyroid hormone receptors (TR α and TR β) ligand [75]

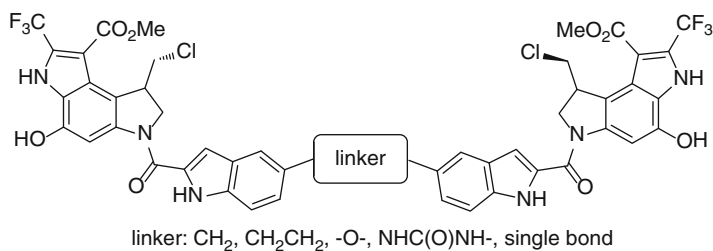
Androgen receptor (AR) agonist [77]



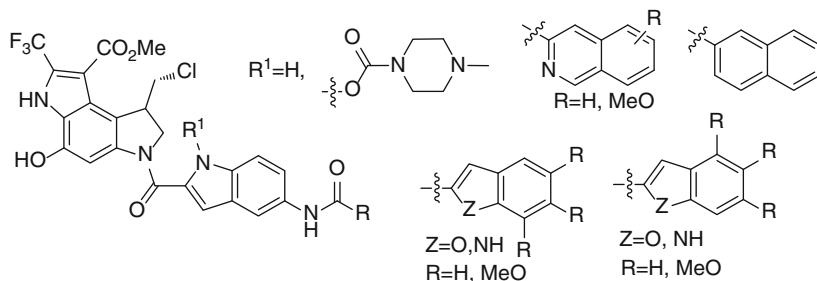
Melatonin receptor ligand [65]



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Table 1 (continued)

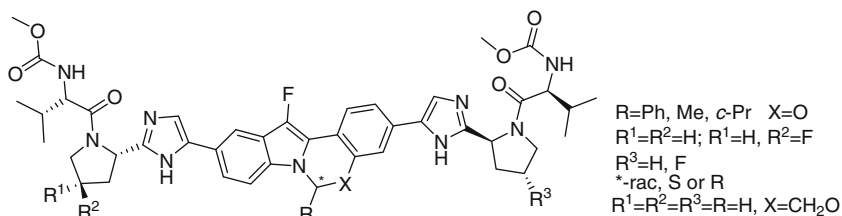
Antitumor activity [80]



Antitumor activity [79c]

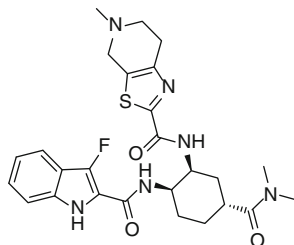
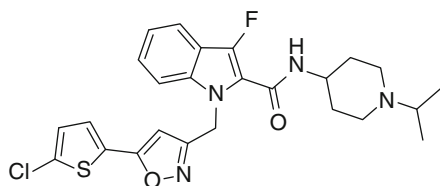


Herbicide [81]



Agricultural and horticultural fungicide [82]

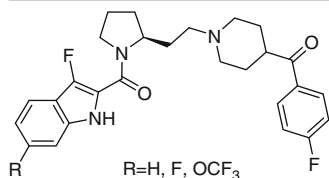
Antiviral against hepatitis C virus [83]



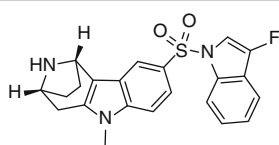
Factor Xa inhibitor [4]

Inhibition of factor Xa, anticoagulant [84]

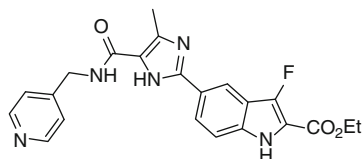
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Table 1 (continued)

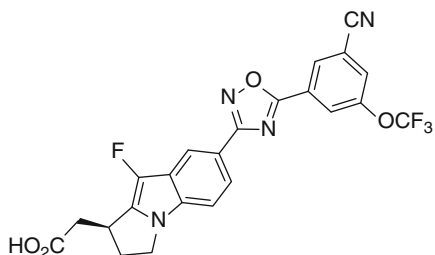
Inhibitors of dopamine D2L receptor, serotonin 5-HT_{2A} receptor, serotonin 5-HT₆ receptor, adrenaline α 1D receptor [85]



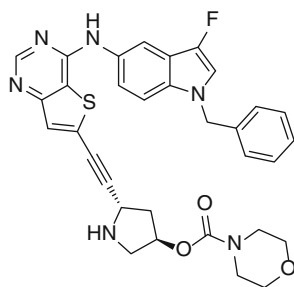
Human 5-HT₆ receptor modulator [86]



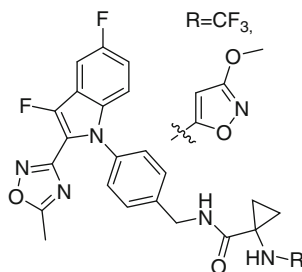
Inhibitor of matrix metalloprotease 13 (MMP13) [87]



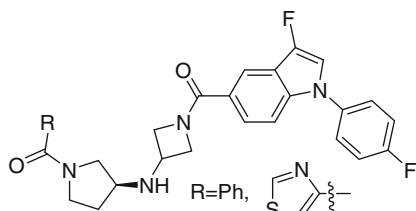
Agonist of the sphingosine-1-phosphate S1P1 receptor [88]



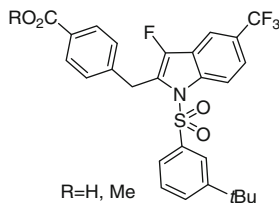
Inhibitor of EGFR and ErbB-2 kinases antiproliferative, cytotoxic for foreskin fibroblast of human [89]



Bradykinin B₁ receptor antagonist [90]

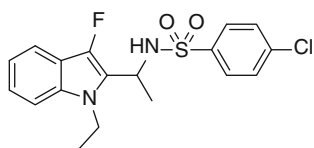


Monoacylglycerol lipase inhibitors [91]

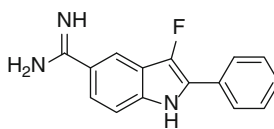


Activators of NURR-1/RXR α and NURR-1/RXR γ heterodimers formation [92]

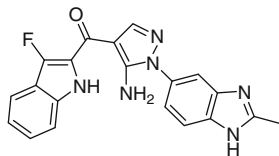
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Table 1 (continued)

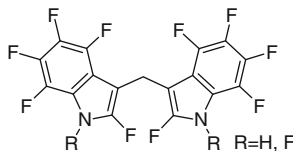
Edg-1 receptor antagonist [93]



ASIC (acid-sensing ion channel) modulator [94]



Inhibitor of fibroblast growth factor receptor 1 (FGFR1) [95]

Antiproliferative activity, antiandrogen (R=F).
Immune response activator (R=H) [96]

7 Conclusions

Recent decades, fluorinated indoles and their analogues have enjoyed remarkable attention of chemists. However, one can definitely conclude that synthesis of these compounds is still challenging and attractive task.

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Fluorinated Indolizines

Eugene V. Babaev

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Abstract The chapter is devoted to the synthesis and application of indolizines bearing fluorine atoms, perfluorinated alkyl (aryl) groups, and COCF₃ fragments.

Keywords Indolizine • Fluorine • Trifluoromethyl group • Synthesis • Fluorinated heterocycles

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1 Introduction

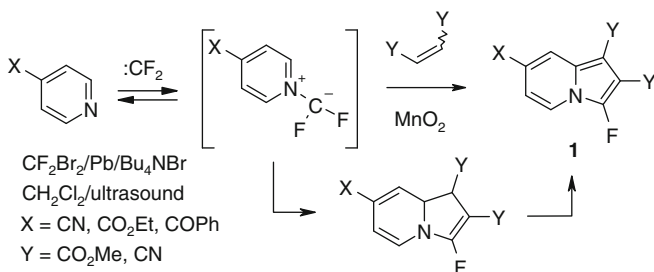
Fluorinated heterocycles have received increasing attention due to their important biological properties. Considerable efforts have been paid to the exploitation of new synthetic routes to these fluorinated compounds. Indolizine is an important fundamental ring system in view of its similarity to indole. This heterocycle occurs commonly as a fully reduced form in natural products. Owing to the increasing importance of fluorine containing heterocycles in biology, pharmacology, and industrial application, synthesis of fluorine-containing indolizines became of considerable interest. In spite of existence of numerous reviews on the chemistry of indolizines [1] no attention have been paid to its fluorinated derivatives. In fact, this area is relatively young (the first research paper on this topic appeared 30 years ago). In spite of many efforts, up to now no indolizines with perfluorinated groups appeared on the market.

The review is organized in the following way. First, indolizines with substituents at pyrrole fragment are covered. This includes indolizines substituted at positions 3 and 1 (since these positions are most easily substituted), and then 2-substituted derivatives. Then, indolizines substituted at pyridine ring are covered: structures with 6(8)-perfluorinated groups are reviewed, and finally, 7- and 5-derivatives are discussed. Major attention is paid to indolizines; benzo-derivatives are also included.

2 Synthesis of Indolizines with Substituent in Pyrrole Fragment

2.1 Indolizines with Substituent at Position 3

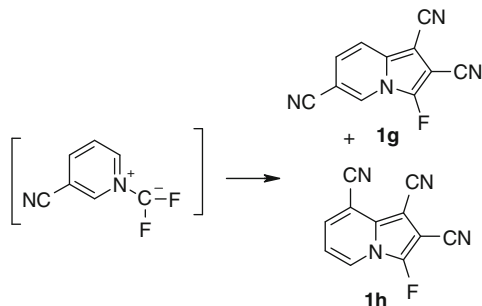
Although the position 3 in the indolizine ring is the most reactive toward electrophilic attack, no direct fluorination of indolizines have been reported. Instead, in the recent work [2] 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition was studied to difluoro-substituted pyridinium ylides.



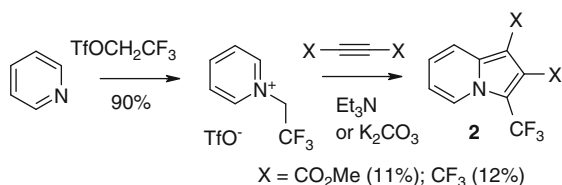
Pyridine	Dipolarophile	Yield (%)
4-COPh	CO ₂ Me	18 (1a)
4-COPh	CN	31 (1b)
4-CO ₂ Et	CO ₂ Me	23 (1c)
4-CO ₂ Et	CN	28 (1d)
4-CN	CO ₂ Me	48 (1e)
4-CN	CN	43 (1f)
3-CN	CO ₂ Me	16 (1g:1h) (1:1)

Difluoromethylides were prepared from 4-cyano, 4-benzoyl- and 4-ethoxycarbonyl-substituted pyridines under difluorocarbene generation conditions (ultrasound, CF₂Br₂/Pb/Bu₄NBr) and trapped with dimethyl maleate or fumaronitrile. 3-Fluoroindolizines were isolated as final products of the reaction which involves dehydrofluorination of the primary cycloadducts followed by dehydrogenation by active MnO₂.

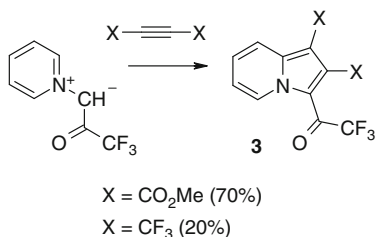
These ylides were shown to dissociate to carbene and pyridine with low activation barrier. The equilibrium constant of the reaction increases with increasing electron-withdrawing ability of substituents in the pyridine ring. There was no reaction with unsubstituted pyridine or picolinic acid nitrile. In the reaction of nicotinic acid nitrile with the fumaronitrile a mixture of the regioisomeric products was formed:



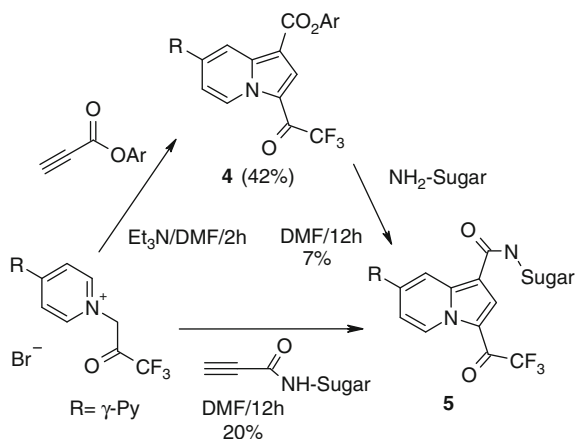
The reaction of N-CH₂CF₃ pyridinium salt with dimethyl acetylenedicarboxylate or perfluorobut-2-yne in the presence of base (Et₃N or K₂CO₃) [3] has provided first formation of indolizines **2** with CF₃-group in position 3.



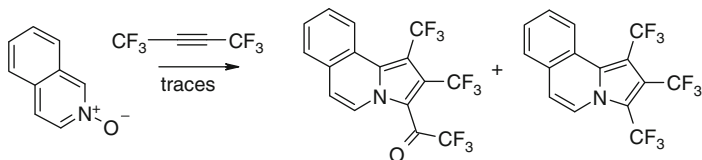
Similarly, the reaction of ylide formed from N-CH₂COCF₃ pyridinium salt and dimethyl acetylenedicarboxylate or perfluorobut-2-yne gave rise to 3-COCF₃-indolizines **3** [4].



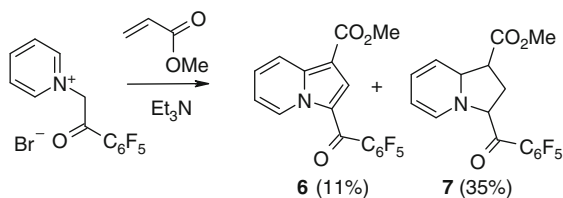
The same methodology was applied to N-CH₂COF₃ γ,γ' -bipyridinium salt leading to intermediate indolizine **4** or final aminosugar **5** with 3-COCF₃ group [5].



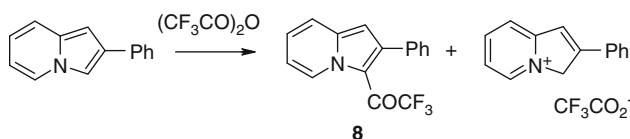
It should be mentioned that isoquinoline 2-oxide reacted with perfluorobut-2-yne similarly forming (among other products) 1,2,3-tris(trifluoromethyl)- and 1,2-bis(trifluoromethyl)-3-trifluoroacetylpyrrolo[2,1-a]isoquinoline [6].



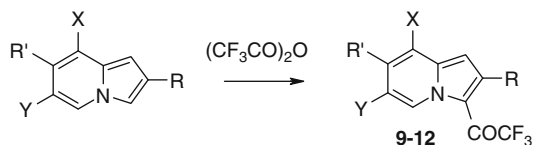
Finally, 3-COCF₆F₅ indolizine **6** was obtained together with more saturated product **7** by cycloaddition of the corresponding ylide and methyl acrylate [7].



Meanwhile, it is much easier to prepare indolizines with perfluoroacetyl substituent at position 3 by perfluoroacetylation reaction. The reaction yields are strongly depended on the basicity of the parent indolizine: thus 2-phenylindolizine underwent trifluoroacetylation to form **8** in 36 %; the rest (60 % after regeneration) was indolizinium cation formed by protonation of starting material [8].

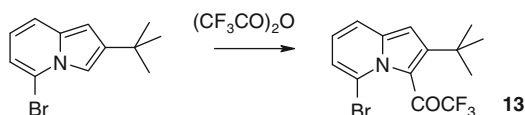


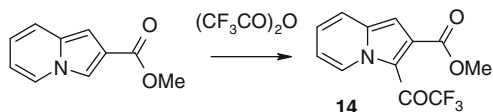
Nitroindolizines having 6- and 8-nitro group in the same reaction led to trifluoroacetyl derivatives **9–12** in quantitative yield [9]. It was shown that their basicity is decreased.



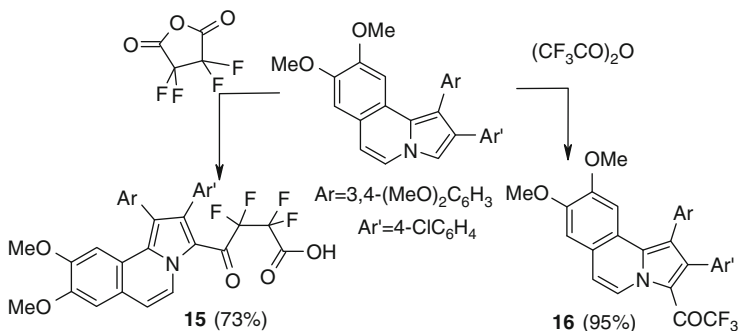
Indolizine		Yield (%)
9	3-COCF ₃ -6-NO ₂ -2-Ph-7-Me	97
10	3-COCF ₃ -6-NO ₂ -2-Me	96
11	3-COCF ₃ -8-NO ₂ -2-Me	100
12	3-COCF ₃ -8-NO ₂ -2-Ph	100

5-Bromoindolizine underwent trifluoroacetylation selectively at position 3 leading to compound **13**; the yield was 83 % [10]. 2-Carbomethoxyindolizine is transformed to 3-COCF₃ derivative **14** in 85 % yield [11].

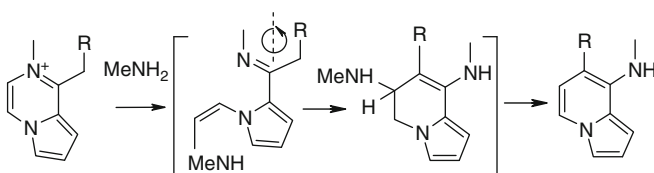




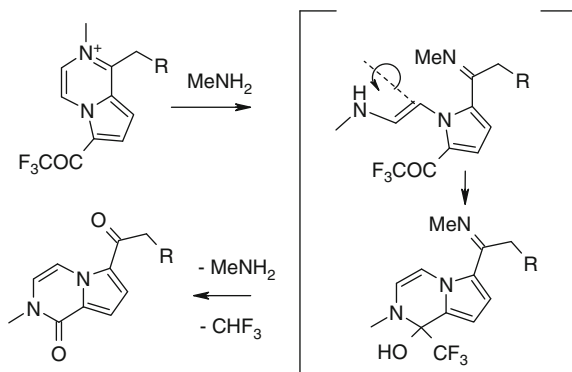
There is only one example of trifluoroacylation in the series of benzoindolizines. 3-Perfluoroacyl derivatives **15** and **16** were obtained in high yield [12] using trifluoroacetic and perfluorosuccinic anhydride as acylating agents.



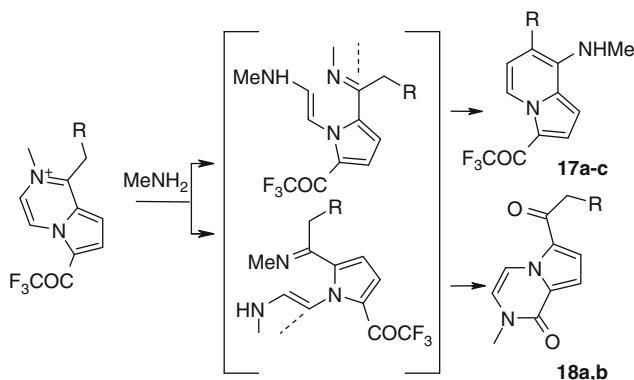
Pyrrolo[1,2-a]pyrazinium (7-azaindolizinium) cations may undergo ring opening and transformation of the pyrazinium fragment under the action of MeNH_2 . The rearrangement is known as Kost-Sagitullin (enamine) rearrangement.



On the other hand, 7-azaindolizinium cations with COCF_3 group may be involved in haloformic recyclization leading to oxo-derivatives of pyrrolo[1,2-a]pyrazines. Here the NHMe -amino group was originated from the reagent.

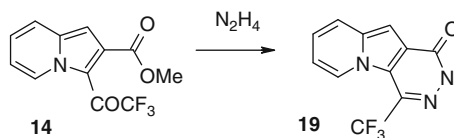


At lower temperature the product **17** of enamine rearrangement to pyridine ring predominated, whereas at higher temperature (and in water solution) the ring transformation occurred with haloformic reaction to form **18** [13].

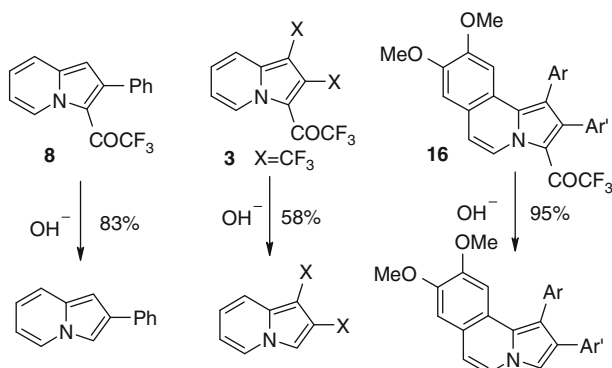


		17:18	
N₂	R	30 °C	170 °C
a	Et	10:39	45:6
b	n-Pr	15:50	44:10
c	PhCH ₂	60:0	70:0

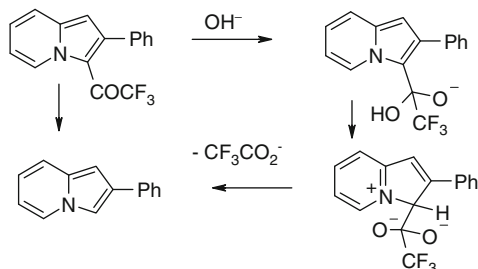
Electrophilic nature of 3-COCF₃ group is displayed by the reaction of indolizine **14** with hydrazine forming pyridazinone derivative **19** in the yield 79 % [11].



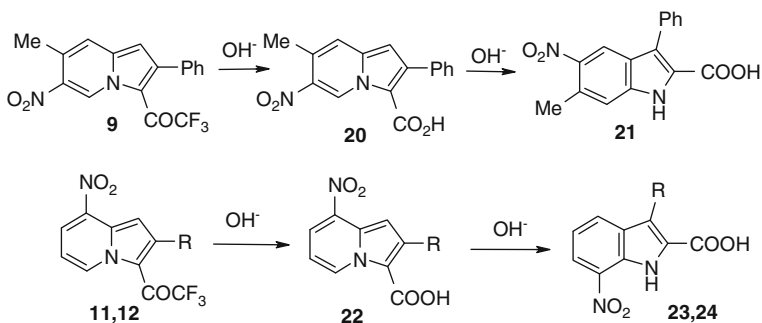
3-Trifluoroacetyl indolizines underwent removal of 3-COCF₃ group in good yield by the reaction with cold alkali [9, 4, 12].



It should be mentioned that similar pyrroles, indoles and azulenes bearing COCF_3 group all reacted with alkali with haloformic removal of CHCF_3 ; the “strange” behavior of 3- COCF_3 indolizines was explained by their higher basicity and possibility of substitution of trifluoroacetate ion by ipso-protonation [14].

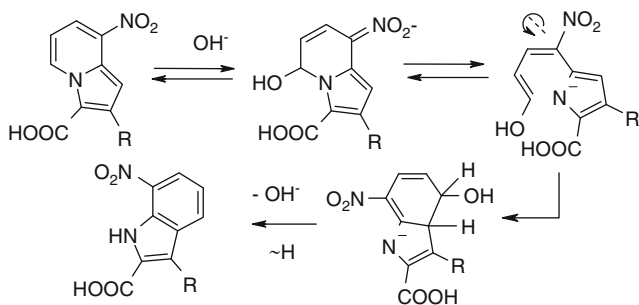


Particularly, this statement was confirmed by reaction of trifluoroacetyl derivatives of 6- and 8-nitroindolizines with alkali. Being less basic these compounds underwent haloformic reaction to form nitroindolizine-2-carboxylic acids. The reaction, however, did not stop at this point and finalized with transformation of pyridine ring (of indolizines) to benzene ring of indoles [9].



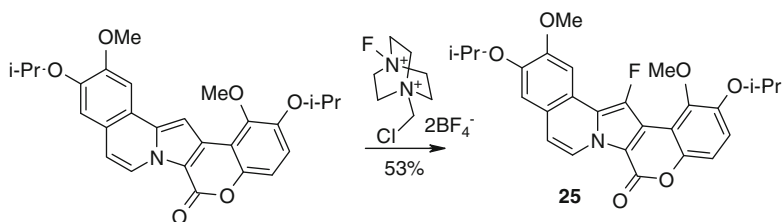
Indolizine	Indole (acid)	Yield of indole (acid), %
9	21 (20)	98 (67)
11	23 (22)	72 (42)
12	24	80

It should be mentioned that conversion of indolizines to indole 2-carboxylic acids proceeded in higher yields and in milder conditions (0°C) than for indolizines without COCF_3 group. The overall mechanism is of the ANRORC type:

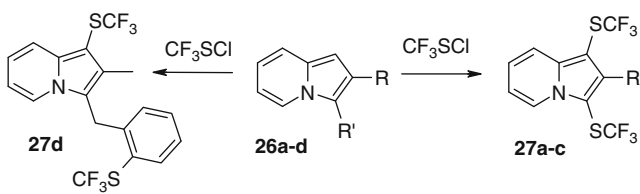


2.2 Indolizines with Substituent at Position 1

Position 1 of the indolizine ring is the second one (after position 3) that can be attacked by electrophiles. However, there are no examples of direct fluorination of indolizine ring at position 1. Among the benzoindolizines there is such an example [15] where the desired F-containing scaffold **25** was obtained by use of Selectfluor.

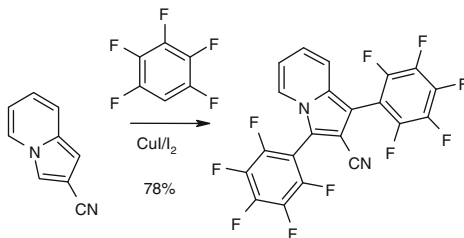


Another example of direct incorporation of perfluorinated substituent at the position 1 is the insertion of CF_3S group using CF_3SCl as electrophile [16]. Reaction proceeded at positions 1 and 3 even in the case of deactivated 3-COMe indolizine quantitatively. In the case of 3-benzylindolizine substitution at C-1 is accompanied by insertion of electrophile in the benzyl fragment as well.

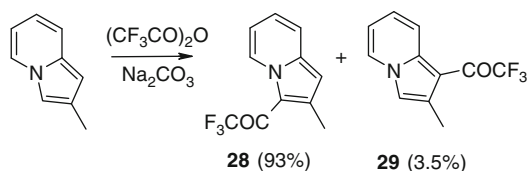


26a	R=R'=H	27a
26b	R=H, R'=Me	27b
26c	R=Me, R'=Ac	27c
26d	R=Me, R'=PhCH ₂	27d

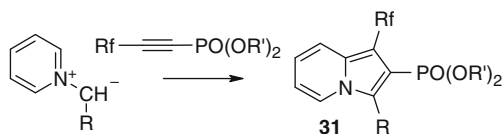
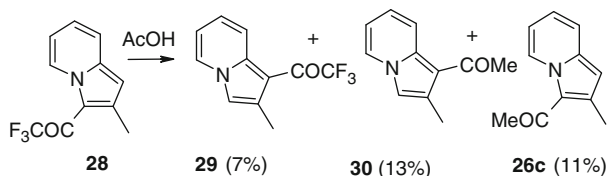
As it was shown recently [17], perfluorophenyl group can be inserted at position 1 and 3 under the cross-coupling conditions. This regioselective reaction took place with pyridine, potassium phosphate, copper (I) iodide, 1,10-phenanthroline and iodine in 1,4-dioxane at 120–130 °C during 74 h.



Investigation of the direction of trifluoroacetylation of 2-methylindoline has shown minor amounts of the 1-substituted isomer formed in addition to the “usual” product of substitution in the 3 position [18].

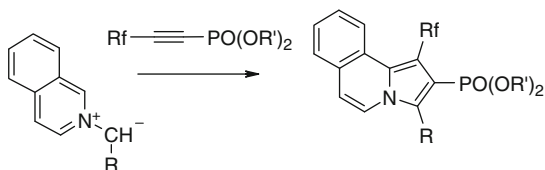


Furthermore, 1-COCF₃ isomer is formed when 3-COCF₃ indoline was heated in CH₃COOH (together with 1- and 3-acetylindolizines) [14]. The reaction mechanism seemed to be intramolecular.

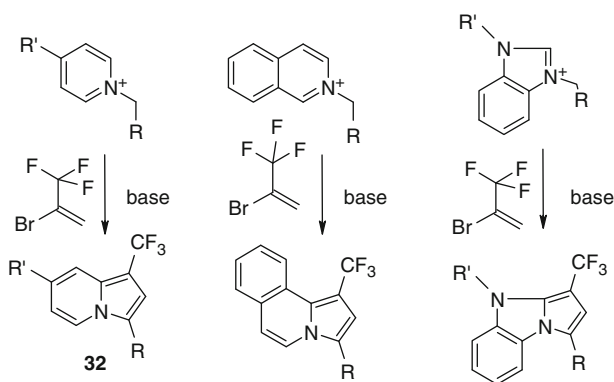


Compound	R _f	R'	R	Yield (%)
31a	CF ₃	Et	CN	74
31b	CF ₃	Pr	CN	70
31c	C ₂ F ₅	Et	CN	73
31d	C ₂ F ₅	Pr	CN	49
31e	CF ₃	Et	CO ₂ Et	47
31f	CF ₃	Pr	CO ₂ Et	51
31g	C ₂ F ₅	Et	CO ₂ Et	51
1 h	CF ₃	Et	COPh	77
31i	C ₂ F ₅	Et	COPh	65
31j	C ₃ F ₇	Et	COPh	70

In addition to direct insertion of perfluorinated group at position 1, there are plenty of methods how to introduce such a group via cycloaddition reaction. Thus, convenient method to perfluoroalkylated indolizinylium-phosphonates **31** was reported [19]. The reaction proceeded regioselectively via the 1,3-cycloaddition of pyridinium N-ylide and perfluoroalkynyl phosphonate in 49–77 % yields. Similar reaction was proposed to obtain pyrrolo[1,2-a]isoquinolinyl phosphonates in 48–78 % yields [20].

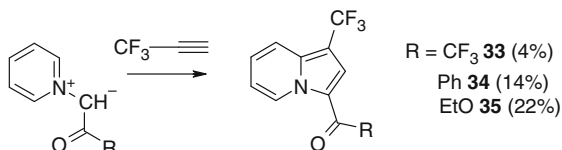


In the reaction of 2-bromo-3,3,3-trifluoropropene with pyridinium ylides cycloaddition occurred readily leading to 1-CF₃ derivatives of indolizines [21]. Similar reaction took place in the cases of pyridazinium and isoquinolinium ylides.

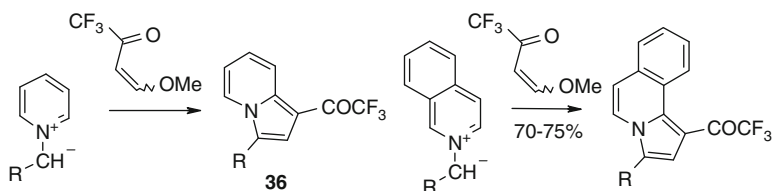


R	R'	Yield (%)	R	R'	Yield (%)
COPh	H	40	COPh	Me	49
COMe	H	24	COMe	Me	27
CO ₂ Et	H	35			

The reaction of 3-COCF₃ pyridinium ylide with 1,1,1-trifluoropropyne proceeded similarly giving 1-CF₃ indolizine in low yield [4]. Similarly behaved other pyridinium ylides with benzoyl and ester groups [22].



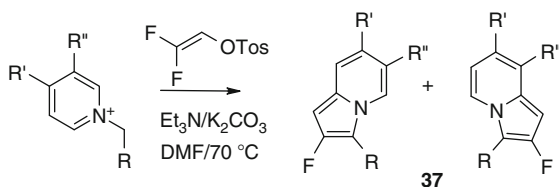
Pyridinium ylides reacted with 4-ethoxy-1,1,1-trifluorobut-3-en-2-one to give the corresponding 1-trifluoroacetyl-substituted indolizines [23]. Isoquinolinium ylides behaved similarly.



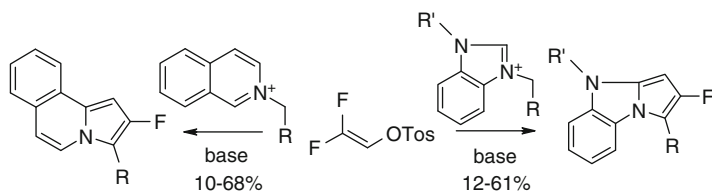
R	Yield (%)
COPh	76 %
CN	74 %
CO ₂ Et	R=CO ₂ Et/Me

2.3 Indolizines with Substituent at Position 2

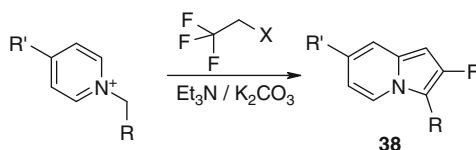
2-Fluoroindolizines are easily available via cycloaddition of fluorinated vinyl tosylates and pyridinium ylides [24]. Using β -substituted pyridinium ylides both isomers (6 and 8) were formed with clear predominance of 8-isomers. One product with 3-CO₂Et group was recently patented as the intermediate [25]. The reaction also proceeded with isoquinolinium and benzimidazolium ylides.



R R' R''	Yield (%)	R R' R''	Yield (%)
COPh H H	34	CO ₂ Et H COPh	8 (1:1.5)
COPh CH ₃ H	23	CN H H	59
COPh H CH ₃	37 (1:2)	CN CH ₃ H	33
COPh H Br	27 (1:1.5)	CN H CH ₃	67 (1:10)
CO ₂ Et H Br	40 (1:6)	CN H Br	58 (1:1.7)

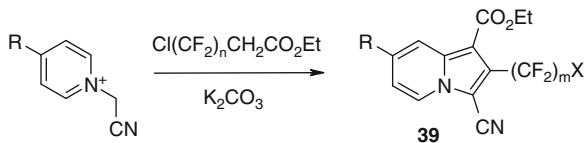


Further modification of the strategy was proposed; 1-chloro-2,2,2-trifluoroethane (bp 6 °C) or 1,1,1,2-tetrafluoroethane (bp -27 °C) gave the corresponding 2-fluoroindolizines **38** via 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition at 80–100 °C in DMSO at atmospheric pressure in normal glassware [26]. The reaction started with the elimination of HF from CF₃CH₂X and can be applied to isoquinolinium ylides.



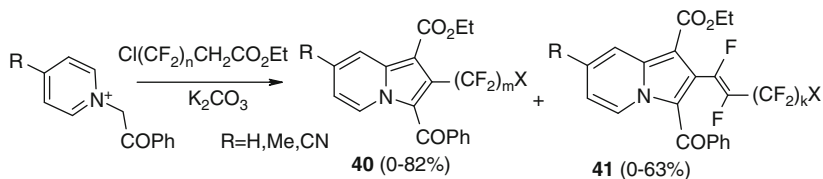
X	R, R'	Yield of 38	X	R, R'	Yield of 38
Cl	COPh, H	45	F	COPh, H	37
Cl	COPh, Me	67	F	CO ₂ Et, H	47
Cl	CO ₂ Et, H	82	F	CO ₂ Et, Me	28
Cl	CO ₂ Et, Me	76			

In the presence of base, 2,2-dihydropolyfluoroalkanoates of the type R_FCF₂CH₂CO₂Et reacted with N-(cyanomethyl)pyridinium ylides to give the corresponding indolizine derivatives carrying both a fluoroalkyl and a cyano group [27].

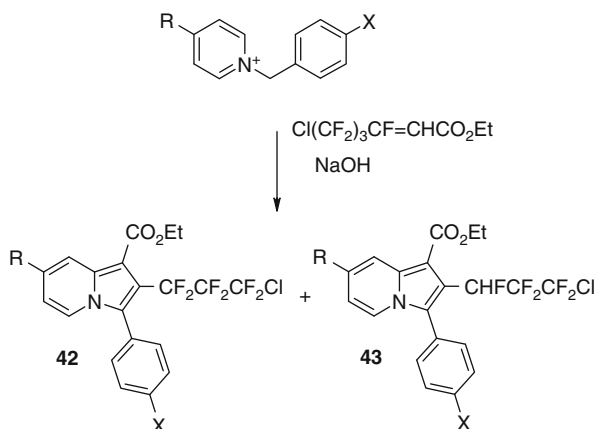


R	n	m	X	Yield	R	n	m	X	Yield
H	2	1	H	76	Me	2	1	H	90
H	4	3	Cl	70	Me	4	3	Cl	83
H	6	5	Cl	61	Me	6	5	Cl	88
H	8	7	Cl	52					

Ethyl 2,2-dihydropoly(per)fluoroalkanoates reacted with N-phenacylpyridinium ylides in DMF to give poly(per)fluoroalkyl-substituted indolizines **40** and **41** [28]. Origin of the products **41** is explained by the adduct aromatization.

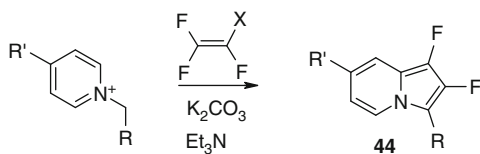


N-Benzylpyridinium ylides (generated in situ from the N-benzylpyridinium bromide and alkali) reacted with ethyl 3-fluoro-3-fluoroalkyl acrylates to give one or two fluoroalkylated indolizine derivatives through 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition followed by an oxidative aromatization or 1,3-H-shift aromatization process [29].



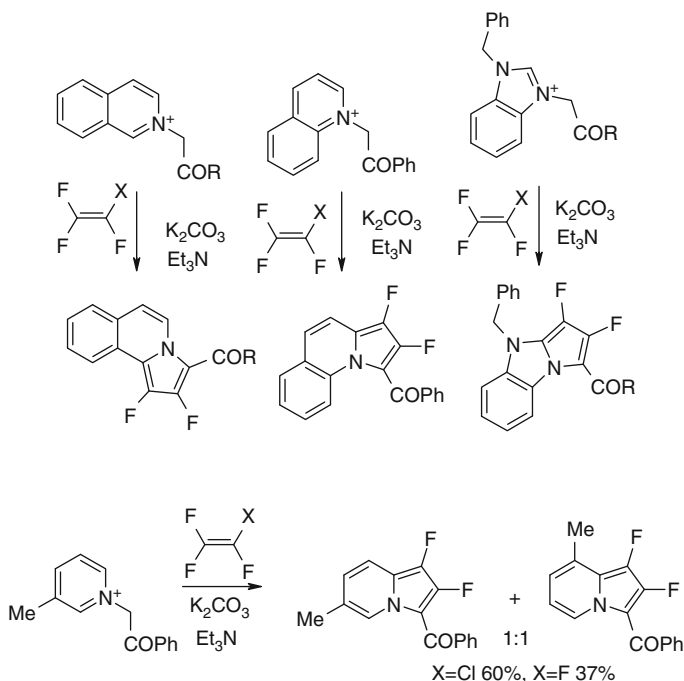
Pyridinium salt	Products and yield (%)	
R=H, X=H	42a (18)	43a (14)
R=H, X=OMe	42b (31)	43b (18)
R=H, X=NO ₂	42c (31)	43c (29)
R=CO ₂ Et, X=H	42d (35)	43d (8)
R=Me, X=NO	42e (5)	–
R=CO ₂ Et, X=NO ₂	42f (33)	–

In the presence of K₂CO₃ and Et₃N, pyridinium N-ylides, generated in situ from their halides, reacted with gaseous fluoroalkenes CF₂=CFX (X=Cl, Br) in DMF under atmospheric pressure in normal glassware at 70 °C to give the corresponding 1,2-fluorinated indolizines. Similar results were obtained with tetrafluoroethene in an autoclave [30].

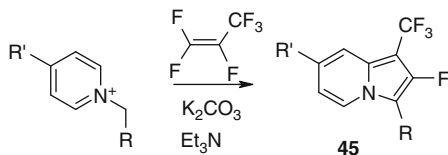


Alkene/X	Ylide, R,R'	Yield
Cl	COPh, H	66
Cl	COPh, Me	64
Cl	CO ₂ Et, H	37
Br	COPh, H	57
Br	COPh, Me	77
Br	CO ₂ Et, H	75
F	COPh, Me	32

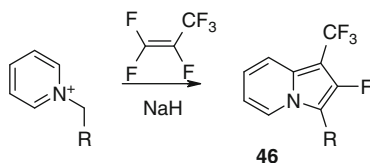
The reaction proceeded also with quinolinium, isoquinolinium and benzimidazolium ylides. In the reaction of ylide obtained from β -picoline the mixture of 6- and 8-isomers was formed.



Similar reaction took place for hexafluoropropene to form 1-CF₃ indolizines. The result was similar to the early one by Banks with NCH₂CO₂Bu^t [31], [32], NCH₂COCF₃ [4] and NCH₂COR [22] pyridinium salts.



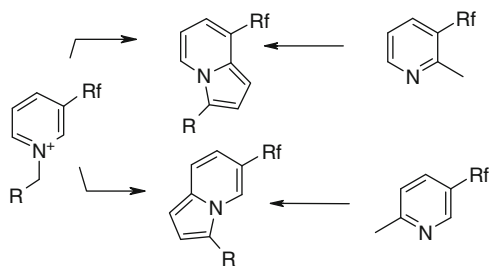
R, R'	Yield of 45 (%)	R	Yield of 46 (%)
COPh, H	62	CO ₂ Bu ^t	37
COPh, Me	71	COCF ₃	10
CO ₂ Et, H	57	COPh	12
CO ₂ Et, Me	53	CO ₂ Et	13



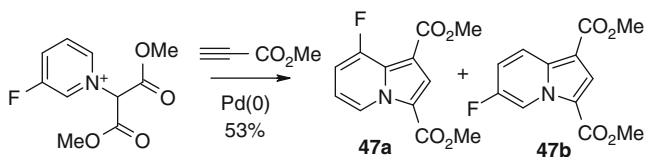
3 Synthesis of Indolizines with Substituent in Pyridine Ring

3.1 Indolizines with Substituent at Position 6 and 8

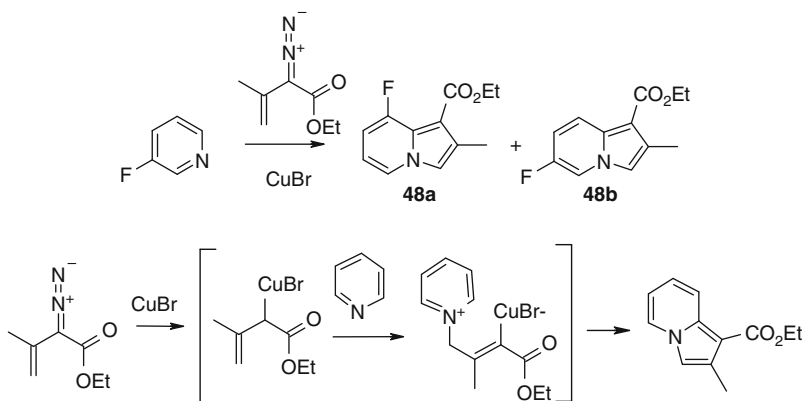
It is difficult to obtain pure isomers containing fluoro (or perfluorinated group) at 6- or 8-position. Since the substituents cannot be inserted directly into the pyridine fragment of indolizine ring, they should already exist in the precursors of the corresponding indolizines. However, this caused loss of regioselectivity (if β -substituted pyridinium salts were used) or necessity to use poorly available β -substituted α -picolines.



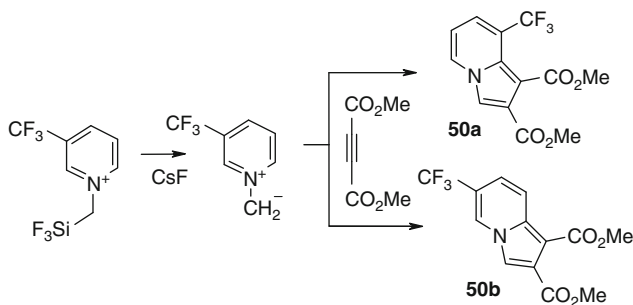
For example, reaction between 3-fluorosubstituted pyridinium N-bis-(methoxycarbonyl)methylide and methyl propiolate [33] proceeded in the yield 53 % giving predominant formation of 8-isomer (**47a:47b** = 65:35). CNDO2 calculations showed that the site selectivity can be rationalized by dipole-dipole interactions.



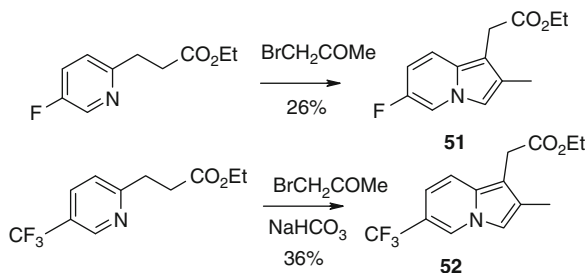
Another example was the copper(I)-catalyzed cycloaddition of ethyl isopropenyldiazoacetate to 3-F-pyridine [34]; reaction took place in the yield 60 % with clear predominance of 8-isomer (**48a**:**48b**=3:1). The process represents the first successful example of metal-catalyzed cyclization of a π -deficient heterocyclic system with alkenyldiazo compounds.



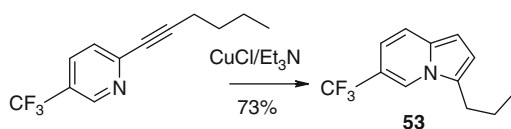
More one example is connected with generation of unsubstituted ylides [35]. As facile precursors for non stabilized pyridinium methylides N-(trimethylsilylmethyl) pyridinium triflates were synthesized. Cesium fluoride induced desilylation of the precursors liberated the nonstabilized pyridinium methylides which were trapped as the cycloadducts to dimethyl acetylenedicarboxylate. Trapping of 3-CF₃-pyridinium ylide gave the mixture of isomers (**50a**:**50b** = 1:5) in 53 % overall yield.



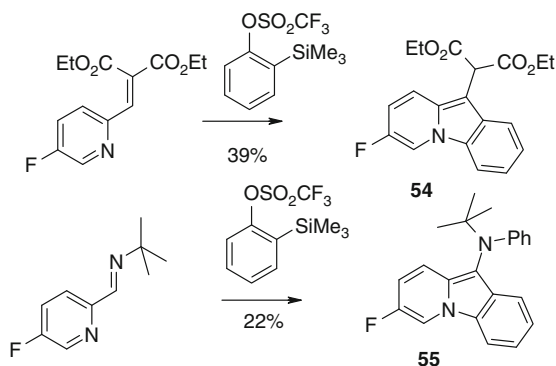
In the patent literature there were two examples of preparation of indolizyl-1-acetic acid according to Chichibabin methodology: the first one – 6-fluoroindolizine **51** [36] and the second one – 6-CF₃-derivative [37].



Successful cycloisomerization of acyclic alkynyl imines to pyrroles caused an attempt to the cycloisomerization of the cyclic alkynyl imines; thus 2-alkynyl pyridine with CF₃-group gave a product of cyclization, indolizine **53** [38].

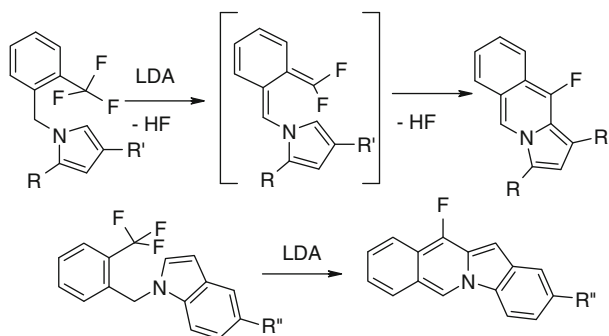


2-(Pyridin-2-yl-methylene)malonates and arynes reacted to produce pyrido[1,2-a]indoles which in some cases (**54**, **55**) correspond to 6-fluoroderivatives of benzoindolizines [39].



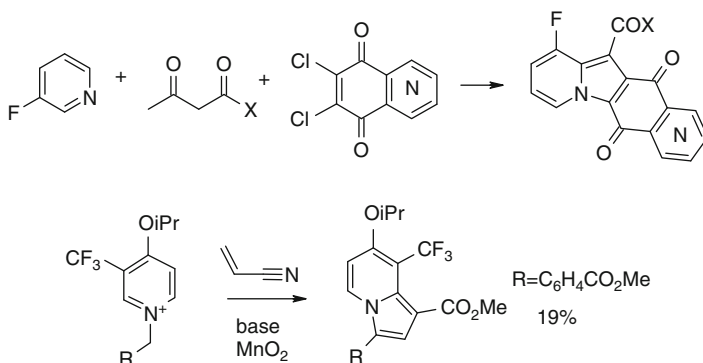
A base-promoted conversion of ortho-trifluoromethyl benzyl derivatives of NH-heterocycles into a respective fluorinated isoquinolines (38–57 % isolated yields) was reported [40]. The reaction is general for the benzylated derivatives of the electron-rich NH heterocycles, particularly indoles. The outcome of the reaction

could be explained by an intermediate formation of a highly reactive quinone methylene species.

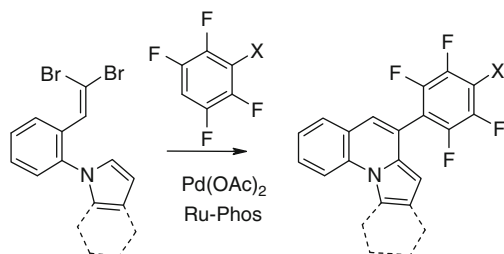


R	R'	R''	Yield, %	R	R'	R''	Yield, %
H	H	–	38	–	–	H	44
Me	H	–	39	–	–	Cl	52
Me	Me	–	48	–	–	OMe	43

In several cases the reported structures of 8-fluoro indolizine were in fact mixtures; however, no analysis of traces of the 6-fluoro isomer was performed. Thus, to the product of reaction of 3-fluoropyridine, CH-acid and active quinone compound the structure of 8-F-indolizine was assigned [41, 42, 43]. Similarly, cycloaddition to β -CF₃-pyridinium ylide is claimed to result in 8-CF₃-derivative of indolizine [25].



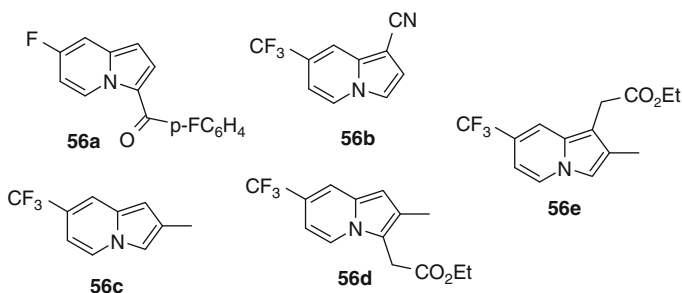
A novel and efficient preparation of 4-polyfluoroaryl substituted pyrrolo[1,2-a]quinolines via a palladium-catalyzed reaction of 1-[2-(2,2-dibromo-ethenyl)phenyl]-1H-pyrrole with polyfluorinated arenes was described [44]. The reaction is also applicable to obtain indoloquinolines with the same substitution pattern.



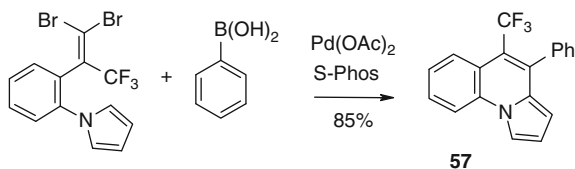
X	Yield, %	X	Yield, %
F	90	Me	68
MeO	80	CF ₃	82

3.2 Indolizines with Substituent at Position 7

7-F or 7-CF₃ indolizines can be found only in the patent literature, namely compounds **56a** [45], **56b** [25], **56c**, **56d** [46] and **56e** [37].

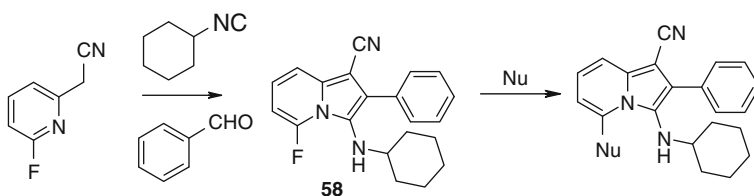


A water-accelerated palladium-catalyzed reaction of gem-dibromoolefins with a boronic acid via a tandem Suzuki-Miyaura coupling and direct arylation was reported [47]. One of the products, **57**, corresponded to 7-CF₃ derivative of benzoindolizine.



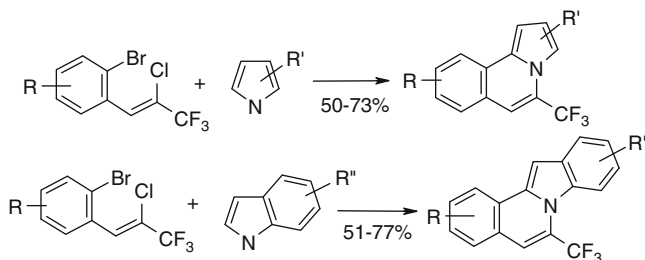
3.3 Indolizines with Substituent at Position 5

The only reaction which allowed introducing fluorine atom at position 5 of indolizine ring was the Ugi-type reaction [48]. The resulting 5-fluoroinolizine **58** was sensitive to nucleophiles giving rise to mini-library of 5-substituted derivatives.



Indolizine (Nu)	Yield, %	Indolizine (Nu)	Yield, %
F (58)	65	O(CH ₂) ₃ NMe ₂	17
SCH ₂ CO ₂ Me	98	1-Morpholinyl	61
SCH ₂ CO ₂ H	95	NH(CH ₂) ₂ NMe ₂	48
SMe	49		

Finally, a palladium- and copper-catalyzed tandem N-H/C-H bond functionalization reaction of ortho-(2-chlorovinyl)bromobenzenes with indoles and pyrroles has been developed [49].



A variety of CF₃-containing indolo- and pyrrolo[2,1-a]isoquinolines were prepared in moderate to good yields via the cyclization of 1-bromo-2-(2-chloro-3,3,3-trifluoroprop-1-enyl)benzenes with indoles and pyrroles.

4 Conclusion

Fluorinated indolizines remained relatively rare class of compounds. In contrast to indolizines substituted at pyrrole fragment the structures having a perfluoro-substituent in the pyridine ring are less available. This is caused by the fact that 3

and 1 substituted indolizines are easily available by direct insertion of fluorine containing group. It should be mentioned that 1-, 2- and 3-substituted indolizines could be easily obtained by 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition reactions, whereas there is lack of general methods to the structures substituted in pyridine ring.

Acknowledgments This work was funded by RFBR (grant 12-03-00644-a).

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Fluorinated Furans and Benzofurans

Alexander V. Butin, Igor V. Trushkov, Olga V. Serdyuk,
and Vladimir T. Abaev

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Abstract Synthesis, reactions, and application of furans and benzofurans bearing a fluorine atom and a trifluoromethyl group are reviewed.

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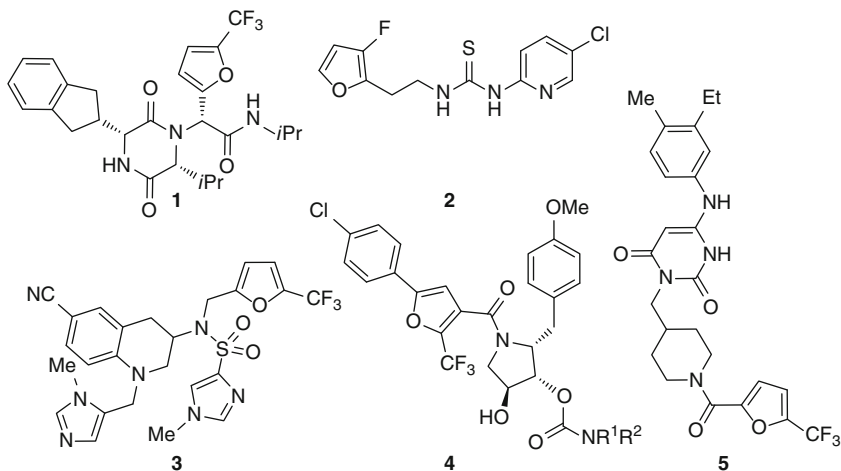
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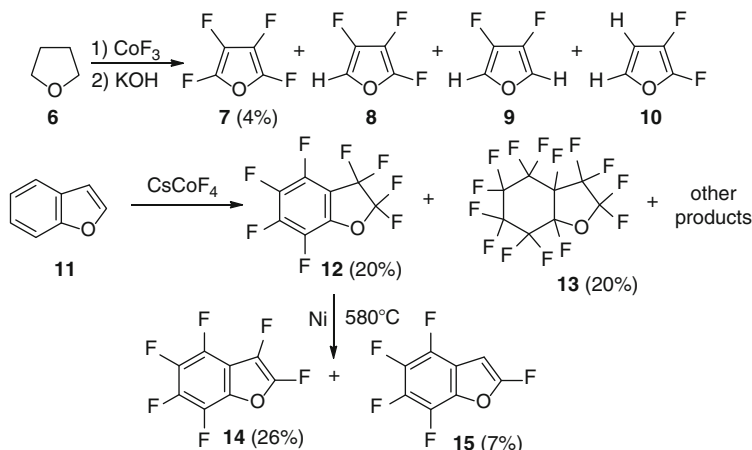
1 Introduction

Furans and benzofurans bearing a fluorine atom or a trifluoromethyl group attract significant attention due to their important pharmacological properties. For example, 2-trifluoromethylfuran **1** is oxytocin antagonist [1], 3-fluorofuran **2** inhibits HIV-1 reverse transcriptase at nanomolar level [2]. 2-Trifluoromethylfuran **3** reveals antimalarial activity [3], derivatives **4** and **5** demonstrate antibacterial properties [4, 5], etc. [6–12]. The main progress in the synthesis of fluorinated furans was summarized recently [13]. The present review covers methods for the synthesis of furans and benzofurans with a fluorine atom or a trifluoromethyl group, as well as their application, excluding patent data.



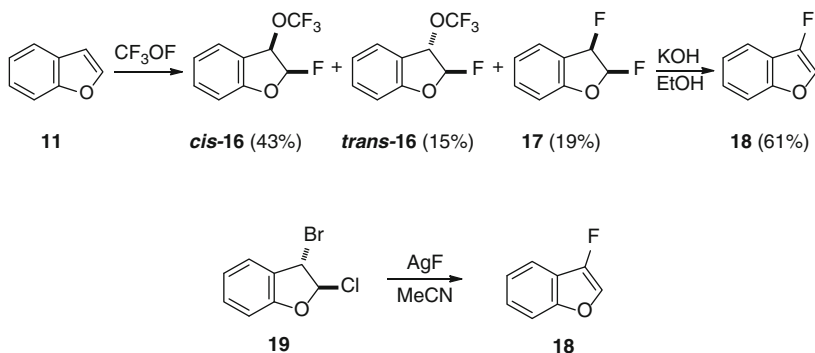
2 Synthesis of Fluorofurans and Fluorobenzofurans

It is well known, that the direct fluorination of furan proceeds non-selectively. Application of fluorine diluted with an inert gas to the furan monofluorination was found to be unsuitable [14]. Moreover, the reaction of 2,5-diarylfurans with Selectfluor proceeded via oxidative ring opening to produce *cis*-enediones [15]. Reaction of tetrahydrofuran **6** with cobalt(III) fluoride or potassium tetrafluorocobaltate(III) (KCoF₄) followed by the treatment with alkali afforded a mixture of perfluorofuran **7**, both trifluorofurans and three difluorofurans. All products were isolated in very low yields [16–18].



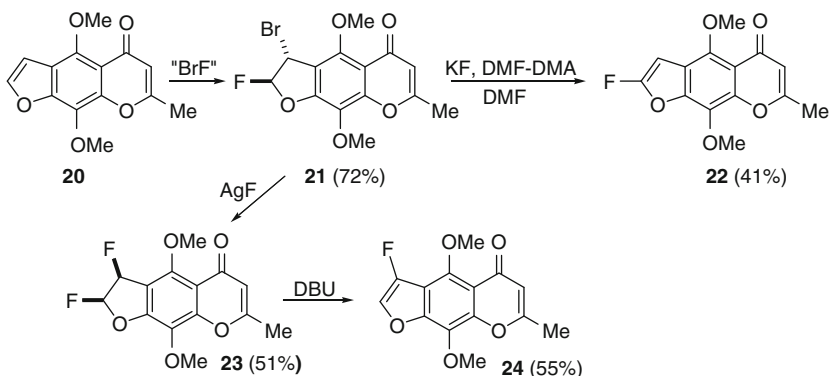
Similarly, fluorination of benzofuran **11** with cesium tetrafluorocobaltate(III) led to a mixture of nonaromatic products. Heating the product **12** over nickel gauze at 580 °C yielded hexa- and pentafluorobenzofurans **14** and **15** [19].

Other addition/elimination sequence was utilized for monofluorination of benzofuran and its derivatives. Thus, the reaction of benzofuran **11** with trifluoromethyl hypofluorite (CF_3OF) furnished 2-fluoro-3-trifluoromethoxy-2,3-dihydrobenzofurans **16** (43 % *cis*- and 15 % *trans*-isomer) and *cis*-difluoroderivative **17** (19 %). Treatment of the derivative **17** with ethanolic potassium hydroxide produced 3-fluorobenzofuran **18** in 61 % yield [20]. 3-Fluorobenzofuran **18** was also synthesized from the compound **19** using silver fluoride as fluorinating and dehydrohalogenating reagent at the second step [21].

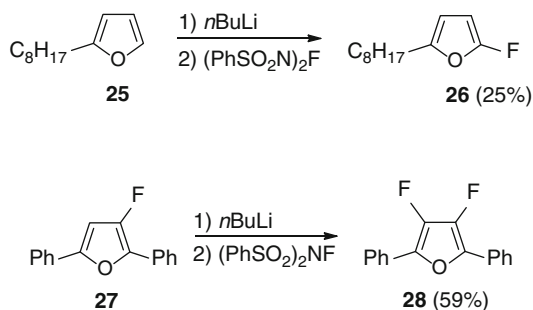


A related procedure for benzofuran monofluorination was developed starting from khellin **20**. The reaction with BrF generated *in situ* yielded product **21**, which dehydrobromination with $\text{KF}/\text{DMF-DMA}$ system produced 2-fluorokhellin **22** along with 3-bromoderivative. Transformation of **21** into *cis*-difluoride **23** followed

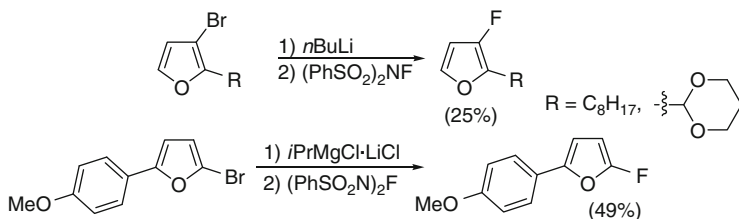
by the treatment with DBU afforded 3-fluorokhellin **24** [22]. The study of *anti*- and *syn*-elimination from 2,3-dihalo-2,3-dihydrobenzofurans showed that halide was eliminated from the C2 atom exclusively; *cis*-isomer reacted faster than *trans*-one; electron-withdrawing chlorine substituent at the C5 atom of benzofuran ring accelerated elimination [23].



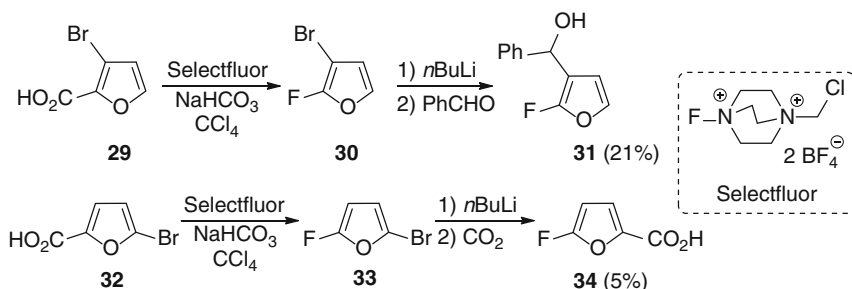
Selective monofluorination of furan can be performed via lithiation followed by the treatment with *N*-fluorobis(benzenesulfonyl)amine. For example, 2-octylfuran **25** was transformed into 2-fluoro-5-octylfuran **26** in 25 % yield [24]. When both α -positions are substituted, a fluorine atom can be introduced into the β -position. Thus, fluorination of **27** furnished 3,4-difluorofuran **28** in 59 % yield [25].



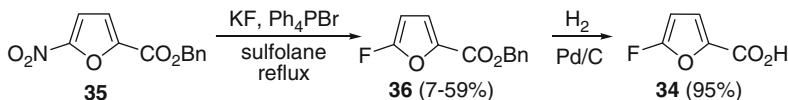
Another method for the fluorofuran synthesis is transmetalation of the corresponding aryl halide with *n*BuLi [2, 24] or *i*PrMgCl [26, 27] followed by addition of positive fluorine source, for example, *N*-fluorobis (benzenesulfonyl)amine.



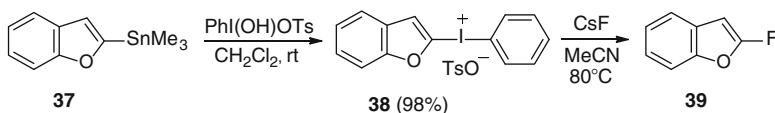
Fluorodecarboxylation was also used for the introduction of fluorine into the furan ring. Thus, treatment of **29** with Selectfluor afforded 3-bromo-2-fluorofuran **30**. Subsequent transmetalation with *n*BuLi and quench with benzaldehyde furnished alcohol **31** in 21 % overall yield. Similarly, 5-bromo-2-furoic acid **32** was transformed into 2-bromo-5-fluorofuran **33** and then to 2-benzoyl-5-fluorofuran **33** and then to 2-benzoyl-5-fluorofuran [28] and 5-fluoro-2-furoic acid **34** [29].



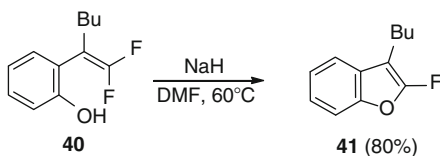
A related fluorodenitration was shown to proceed efficiently allowing for transformation of benzyl 5-nitrofuran-2-carboxylate **35** into 5-fluoro derivative **36** in 59 % yield. The reaction did not proceed with methyl or *tert*-butyl esters as well as in the case of free acid or nitrile. Hydrogenolysis of benzyl ester allowed to obtain acid **34** as well [29].



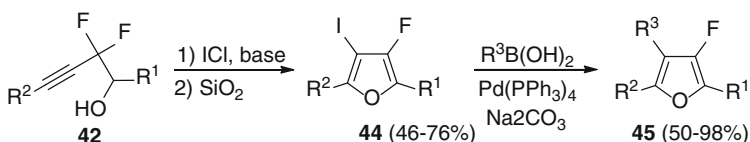
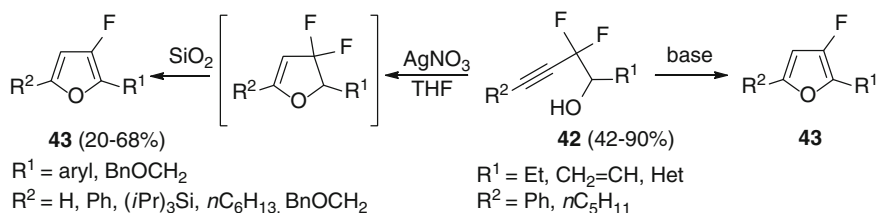
Reaction of cesium fluoride with (benzofuran-2-yl)phenyliodonium tosylate **38**, which can be easily synthesized from (benzofuran-2-yl)trimethyltin **37** in quantitative yield, produced 2-fluorobenzofuran **39**. (2-Furyl)phenyliodonium salt afforded furan and fluorobenzene (the yield was not given) [30].



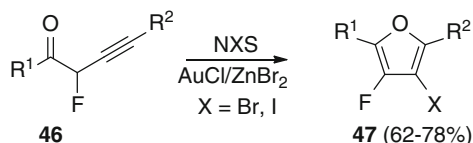
Base-induced cyclization of *o*-(2,2-difluoroalkenyl)phenol **40** was demonstrated to be an efficient method for the synthesis of 2-fluoro substituted benzofuran **41** [31, 32].



Cyclization of difluorohomopropargylic alcohols **42** afforded 3-fluorofurans **43** in good yields. Reaction was induced by either DBU, potassium *tert*-butoxide [25, 33], or silver nitrate [34]. Iodocyclization of alcohols **42** yielded the corresponding 3-fluoro-4-iodofurans **44** which were further involved into the Suzuki reaction yielding 3-fluorofurans **45** in good to high yields [35]. A related halocyclization of 2-fluorobut-3-yn-1-ones **46** in the presence of gold(I) chloride and zinc(II) bromide produced 3-fluoro-4-halofurans **47** in 62–78 % yields [36, 37].

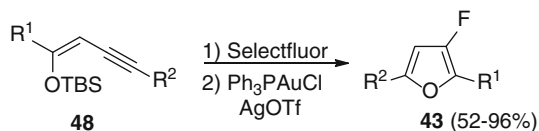


$R^1 = \text{Ph, 4-MeOC}_6\text{H}_4, 4\text{-CF}_3\text{C}_6\text{H}_4, \text{BnOCH}_2$; $R^2 = \text{Ph, } n\text{-C}_6\text{H}_{13}, \text{BnOCH}_2$;
 $R^3 = \text{Ph, 4-FC}_6\text{H}_4, 4\text{-CF}_3\text{C}_6\text{H}_4, 4\text{-HOCC}_6\text{H}_4, 4\text{-CNC}_6\text{H}_4, 3,4\text{-(OCH}_2\text{O)C}_6\text{H}_4,$
 $\text{PhCH=CH, 3-thienyl}$

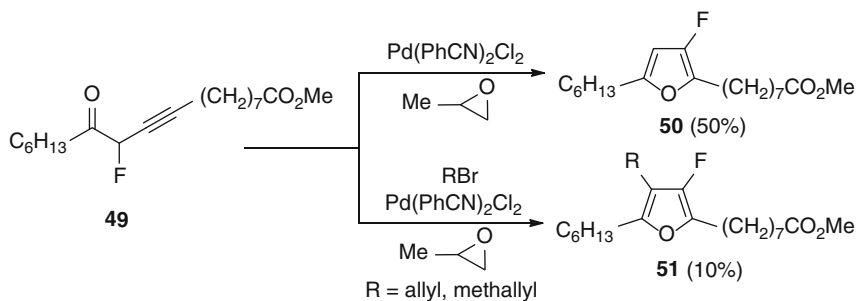


$R^1 = \text{Ph, 4-FC}_6\text{H}_4, 4\text{-BrC}_6\text{H}_4$; $R^2 = 4\text{-MeC}_6\text{H}_4, \text{cC}_3\text{H}_5, 4\text{-}t\text{BuC}_6\text{H}_4$

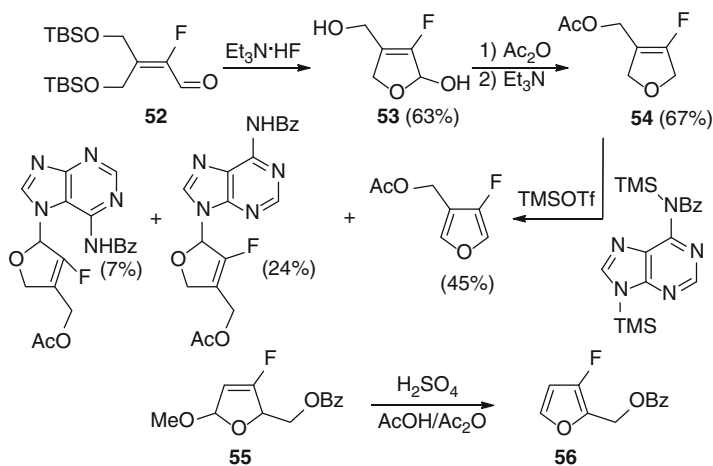
Similar fluorocyclization of but-3-yn-1-ones using Selectfluor was found to be inefficient. However, the transformation of ketone into silyl enolate **48** allowed one to perform the cyclization with formation of 3-fluorofurans **43** in 52–96 % yields [37, 38]. 3-Fluorofuran derived fatty esters **50**, **51** were obtained from alkynone **49** using a similar reaction catalyzed by $(\text{PhCN})_2\text{PdCl}_2$ in propylene oxide [39].



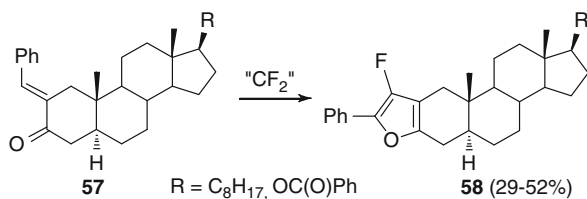
$R^1 = \text{Et, Ph, 4-FC}_6\text{H}_4, 4\text{-BrC}_6\text{H}_4, 4\text{-CF}_3\text{C}_6\text{H}_4$; $R^2 = \text{Ph, 4-MeC}_6\text{H}_4, \text{cC}_3\text{H}_5, 4\text{-}t\text{BuC}_6\text{H}_4$



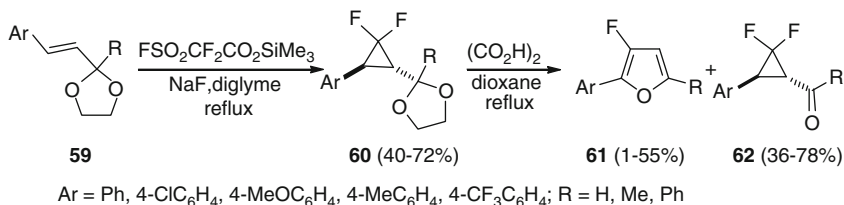
Desilylative cyclizations of **52** yielded lactol **53**. Further acetylation with acetic anhydride followed by the treatment with N6-benzoyladenine derivative resulted in formation of 3-acetoxymethyl-4-fluorofuran in 45 % yield [40]. A similar reaction of 2-methoxy-2,5-dihydrofuran **55** with silylated pyrimidine bases or the treatment of **55** with an acid led to fluorofuran **56** [41].



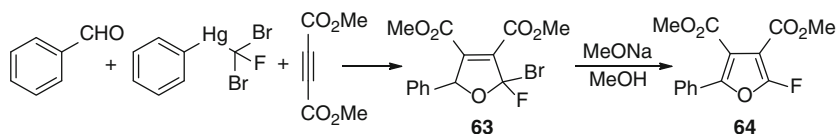
The reaction of difluorocarbene, generated by thermal decomposition of sodium chlorodifluoroacetate, with 2-benzylidene-5 α -cholestan-3-one **57** and related substrates afforded 3-fluoro-2-phenylfuran fused to steroid fragment via C4-C5 bond **58**. 2-Benzylidenecyclohexanone reacted similarly with difluorocarbene yielding 3-fluoro-2-phenyl-4,5,6,7-tetrahydrobenzofuran in low yield [42].



This formal [4+1] cycloaddition proceeded through cyclopropanation followed by rearrangement of acylcyclopropane to dihydrofuran and HF elimination. It was shown that reaction of 2-styryl-1,3-dioxolanes **59** with difluorocarbene, generated from $\text{FSO}_2\text{CF}_2\text{CO}_2\text{SiMe}_3$ under the treatment with sodium fluoride, furnished difluorocyclopropanes **60**. Further heating with oxalic acid produced 3-fluorofurans **61** or the corresponding cyclopropyl ketones **62** depending on substituents in starting compounds [43]. Moreover, bromide induced ring opening of 1-benzoyl-2,2-difluoro-3-phenylcyclopropane (**62**, Ar=R=Ph) was accompanied by formation of 3-fluoro-2,5-diphenylfuran in 7 % yield [44].



Reaction of carbene, generated from $\text{PhHgCBr}_2\text{F}$, with benzaldehyde and dimethyl acetylenedicarboxylate afforded 2-bromo-2-fluoro-2,3-dihydrofuran **63**. The compound **63** was aromatized by treatment with sodium methoxide producing fluorofuran **64**. The reaction proceeded via intermediate carbonyl ylide that was trapped with dimethyl acetylenedicarboxylate in the subsequent [3+2] cycloaddition reaction [45].



Fluorinated butenolides **65** were easily transformed into 2-siloxy-3-fluorofurans **66** by reaction with silyl chlorides [46–48].

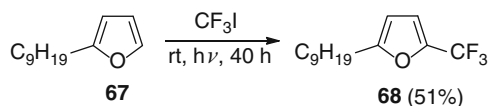


3 Synthesis of Trifluoromethyl-Substituted Furans and Benzofurans

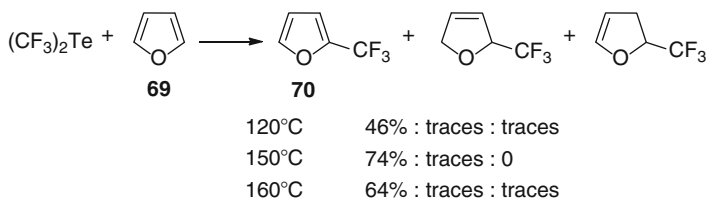
Methods for the synthesis of trifluoromethyl-substituted furans and benzofurans can be divided into several groups: direct trifluoromethylation of heterocycle, transformation of functional groups of heteroarene into trifluoromethyl substituent, Diels-Alder/retro-Diels-Alder sequence, and various methods for the furan ring formation from precursors bearing trifluoromethyl moiety.

3.1 Trifluoromethylation of Furan Derivatives

Trifluoromethylation of furans and benzofurans is less studied to compare with other aromatic heterocycles. Generally, it can be performed as radical, electrophilic or nucleophilic process depending on the nature of trifluoromethyl source and reaction conditions. Thus, treatment of 2-nonylfuran **67** with trifluoromethyl iodide in acetonitrile under irradiation afforded the α -trifluoromethylated product **68** in 51 % yield [49].

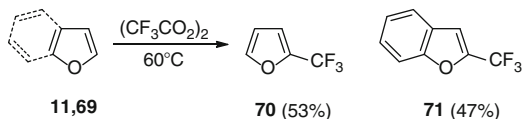


Photochemical and thermal trifluoromethylation of furan **69** was performed using trifluoromethyl iodide, as well as $\text{Te}(\text{CF}_3)_2$, $\text{Hg}(\text{CF}_3)_2$, and $\text{Sb}(\text{CF}_3)_3$. Under these conditions, the best yields of 2-(trifluoromethyl)furan **70** (51 and 74 %) were achieved using $\text{Te}(\text{CF}_3)_2$ [50].

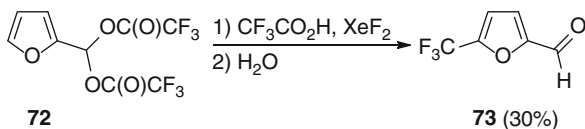


Other systems for generation of electrophilic perfluoroalkyl radicals were also applied to the synthesis of perfluoroalkylfurans. Thus, trifluoromethylation of furan and benzofuran with trifluoromethyl iodide in DMSO afforded the 2-trifluoromethyl derivatives in 16 and 30 % yield correspondingly [51]. Better results were reported for the photocatalytic $\text{Ru}(\text{bpy})_3\text{Cl}_2$ -TMEDA system. Trifluoromethylation of

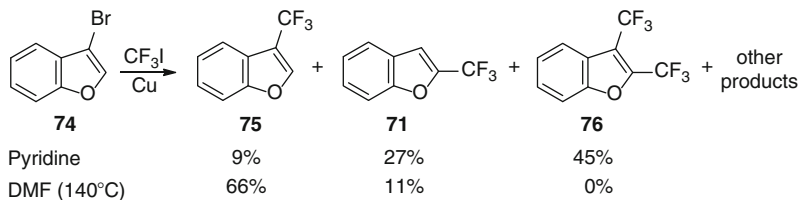
2-ethylfuran under visible light irradiation proceeded in 92 % yield with low catalyst loading (1 mol %) [52]. Trifluoromethylation of furan and benzofuran was also performed via the thermal decomposition of bis(trifluoroacetyl) peroxide [53].



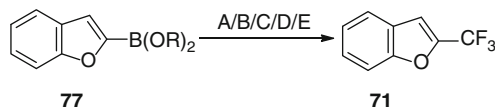
One more common source of trifluoromethyl radical is trifluoroacetic acid-xenone difluoride system. For example, treatment of furfural or its bis(trifluoroacetate) **72** with trifluoroacetic acid and XeF₂ followed by hydrolysis furnished 5-(trifluoromethyl)furfural **73** in moderate yield [54].



Trifluoromethylation of 3-bromobenzofuran **74** with trifluoromethyl iodide and copper powder produced a mixture of products including (trifluoromethyl)benzofurans **71**, **75**, and **76** [55]. Yields of products depend on the reaction conditions significantly [56].



The employment of more nucleophilic benzofuranylboronic acid **77** as a substrate for trifluoromethylation and a copper salt as an additive has advantages due to the mild conditions (40–70 °C), rate acceleration, better selectivity and yields. It was proposed that trifluoromethylcopper species are responsible for this effect. The trifluoromethyl group can be delivered to copper center as a radical and this approach was exemplified by using trifluoromethyl iodide, copper(I) acetate and visible-light photocatalyst Ru(bpy)₃Cl₂·6H₂O [57] or CF₃SO₂Na/*t*-BuOOH/CuCl system [58] where 2-trifluoromethylbenzofuran **71** was obtained in 56 and 77 % yield correspondingly. Employment of a CF₃SiMe₃/KF/CuOTf system as a source of trifluoromethyl anion was also suitable; benzofuran **71** was obtained in 76 % yield [59]. Examples of electrophilic trifluoromethylating reagents including Togni's reagent and trifluoromethylsulphonium salts were also reported [60–62].



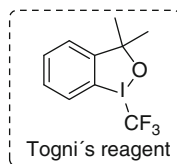
A: CF_3I , CuOAc , $\text{Ru}(\text{bpy})_3\text{Cl}_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$, K_2CO_3 , $h\nu$, DMF (56%)

B: $\text{CF}_3\text{SO}_2\text{Na}/t\text{BuOOH}/\text{CuCl}$ (77%)

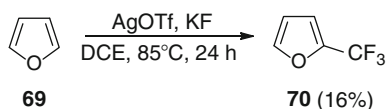
C: $\text{CF}_3\text{SiMe}_3/\text{KF}/\text{CuOTf}$ (76%)

D: $\text{Ph}_2\text{S}^+\text{CF}_3 \text{OTf}^-$, Cu , NaHCO_3 (66%)

E: Togni's reagent, $\text{Cu}(\text{I})$, base, 1,10-phenanthroline (76%)

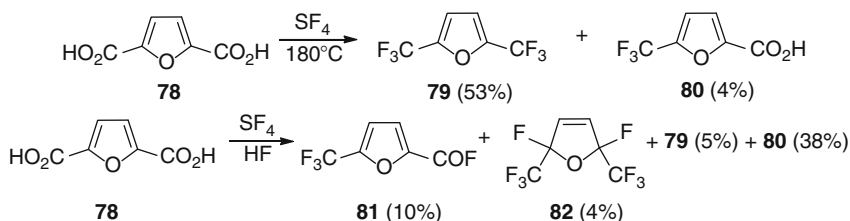


Trifluoromethylation of furan with $\text{Me}_3\text{SiCF}_3/\text{KF}/\text{AgOTf}$ was shown to proceed in low yields, on the contrary to trifluoromethylation of other aromatics [63].

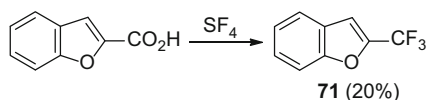


3.2 Synthesis of Trifluoromethylfurans from Furoic Acids

Treatment of 2,5-furandicarboxylic acid **78** with five equivalents of sulfur tetrafluoride provided 2,5-bis(trifluoromethyl)furan **79** as a major product [64]. Other furoic acid derivatives were also transformed into trifluoromethylfurans using sulfur tetrafluoride [65–71]. If the reaction was performed in the presence of anhydrous HF, furan dearomatization products were formed. Thus, diacid **78** gave fluoroanhydride **81** and dihydrofuran derivative **82** along with **79** and **80**. Yields of the products depend on ratio of reagents and reaction temperature [64, 65].

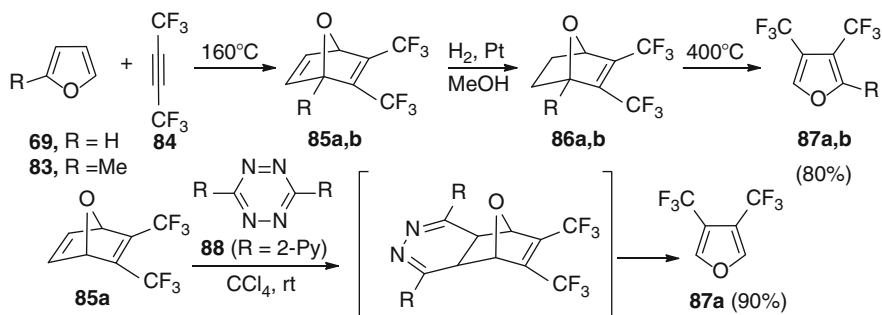


Treatment of 2-benzofurancarboxylic acid with sulfur tetrafluoride was found to produce 2-(trifluoromethyl)benzofuran **71** in 20 % yield; 3-(trifluoromethyl)benzofuran **75** could not be synthesized by this method [55].

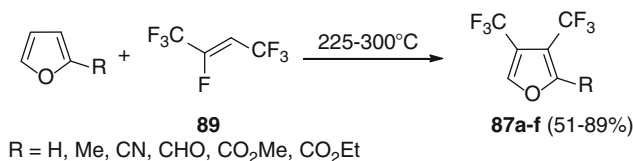


3.3 Diels-Alder/Retro-Diels-Alder Sequence

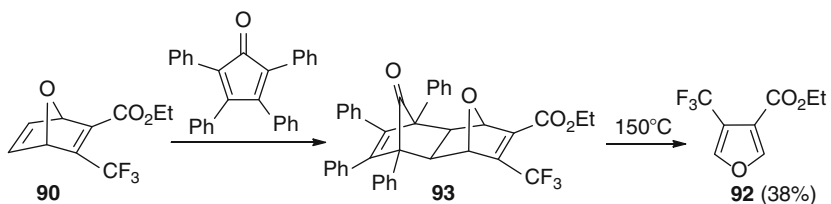
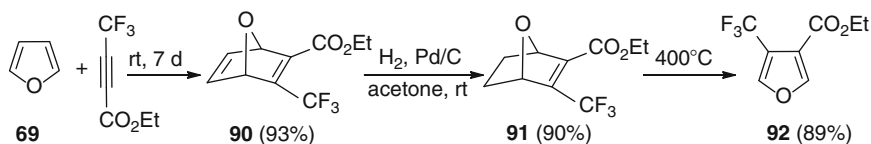
Diels-Alder reaction/retro-Diels-Alder sequence can be applied to the synthesis of furans with unusual substitution pattern. For example, the reaction of furan **69** and 2-methylfuran **83** with hexafluorobut-2-yne **84** afforded 7-oxanorbornadienes **85**, which were further transformed into 3,4-bis(trifluoromethyl)furans **87** through the intermediate **86** [72–75]. Temperature of retro-Diels-Alder reaction should be relatively high in this case. However, this drawback can be circumvented by the addition of tetrazine **88**. It was shown that reaction of **85a** with this reagent proceeds at room temperature giving rise to 3,4-bis(trifluoromethyl)furan **87a** through the Diels-Alder cycloaddition and double retro-Diels-Alder reaction [76].



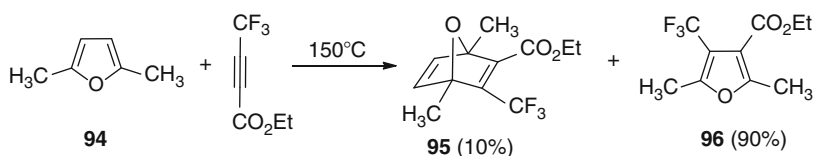
Compound **84** is expensive, and its preparation is quite challenging. Instead, heptafluorobutene **89** was proposed as an alternative for the same transformation as it can be readily synthesized from hexachlorobutadiene and KF. It was shown that heating of **89** with various furans produced compounds **87a-f** in moderate to good yields. The exception was 2-furoic acid which underwent decarboxylation under reaction conditions furnishing **87a** in 39 % yield. Nevertheless, the acid **87g** can be obtained by indirect way through basic hydrolysis of esters **87c** (R=CO₂Me) and **87d** (R=CO₂Et). In reaction of **89** with 2-cyanofuran, compound **87a** (21 %) was isolated as a product of hydrolysis and decarboxylation together with **87e** (R=CN, 71 %). Hydrofluorination of cyano-group with subsequent elimination of cyanogen fluoride accounts for the unusual formation of the latter compound. Authors pointed out that **87** are formed through cycloaddition of **89** to furan followed by HF elimination rather than elimination-cycloaddition sequence [77].



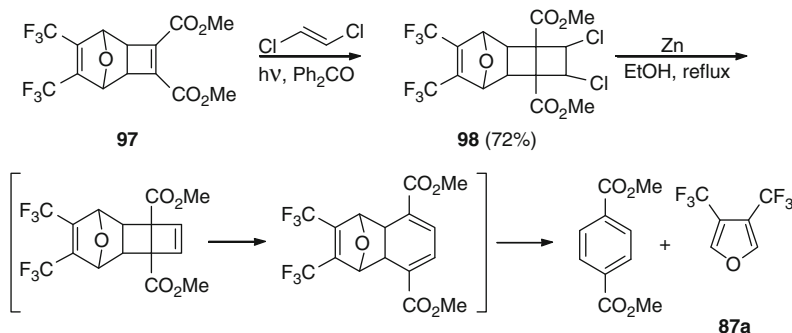
Similarly, Diels-Alder/retro-Diels-Alder sequence was utilized to the synthesis of ethyl 4-(trifluoromethyl)furan-3-carboxylate **92** starting from furan and ethyl trifluorobut-2-ynoate via intermediate products **90** and **91** [78]. Cycloadduct **90** was also transformed into **92** by two-step procedure including its Diels-Alder reaction with tetracyclone and thermolysis of adduct **93** [79].



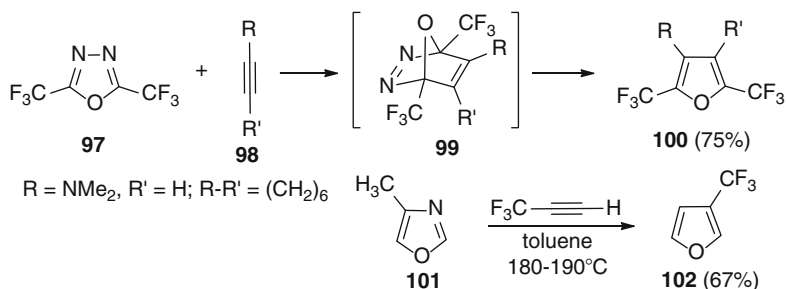
Hydrogenation of the intermediate 7-oxanorbornadiene is not always a necessary step. Thus, reaction of ethyl trifluorobutynoate with 2,5-dimethylfuran **94** at 150 °C for 24 h afforded a mixture of cycloadduct **95** and tetra-substituted furan **96** in a ratio of 1:9 [80].



Other rings were also used for related transformations. For example, derivative **87a** was synthesized from tricyclic compound **97** through [2+2] cycloaddition leading to **98** followed by Zn induced dechlorination which led to domino-reaction, which last step is retro-Diels-Alder reaction [81]. Starting material was synthesized via the reaction of **85a** with dimethyl acetylenedicarboxylate.

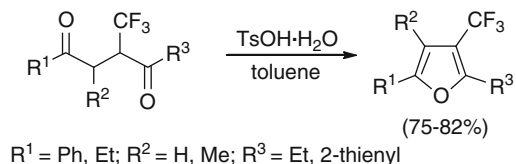


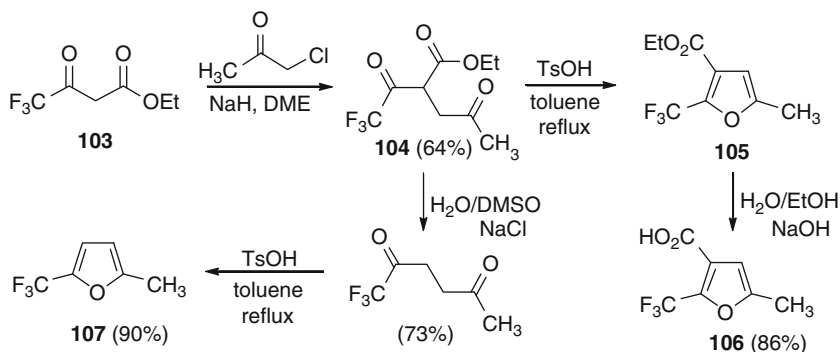
Heating of 1,3,4-oxadiazole **97** with alkynes **98** furnished the corresponding furans **100** in good yields [82, 83]. Similarly, reaction of 4-methyloxazole **101** with trifluoropropyne gave rise to 3-(trifluoromethyl)furan **102** [84].



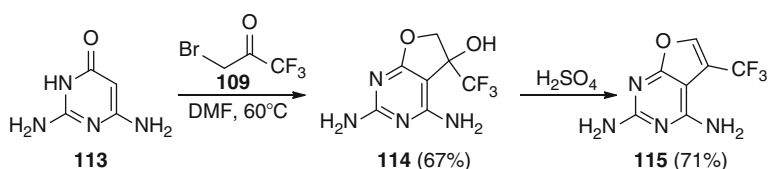
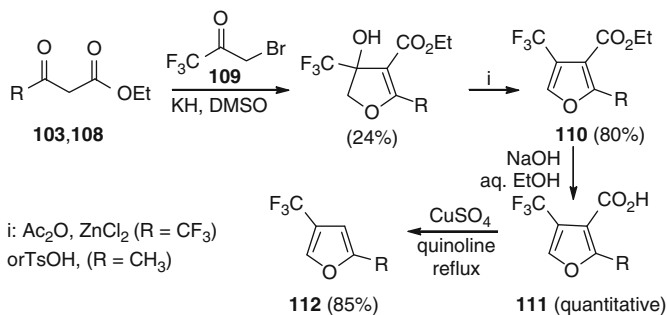
3.4 Cyclization Leading to Trifluoromethyl-Substituted Furans

Other common approach towards trifluoromethylated furans is based on a cyclization of the corresponding 1,4-diketones [85]. Various methods were used for the synthesis of starting trifluoromethyl-substituted 1,4-diketones. Thus, alkylation of ethyl 4,4,4-trifluoroacetate **103** with chloroacetone produced 1,4-diketone derivative **104**. The latter underwent cyclizations either directly [86] or after decarboxylation [87] yielding furans **105–107**.

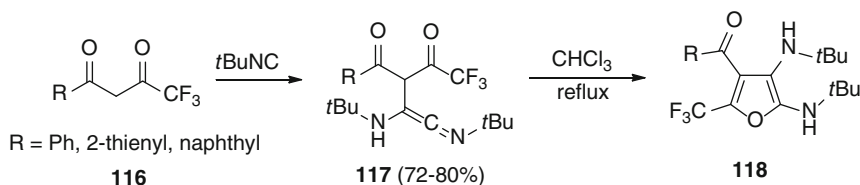




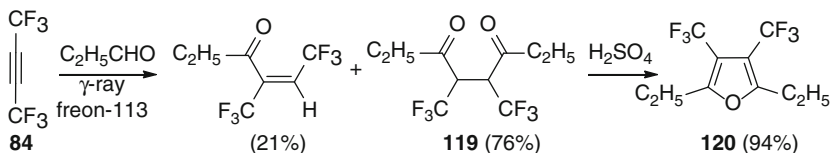
Isomeric furans **110**–**112** were obtained by reaction of **103** or ethyl acetoacetate **108** with 1,1,1-trifluoro-3-bromoacetone **109** [87, 88]. Reaction of **109** with 2,6-diaminopyrimidin-4-one **113** produced bicyclic adduct **114** aromatization of which gave furo[2,3-*d*]pyrimidine **115** [89, 90].



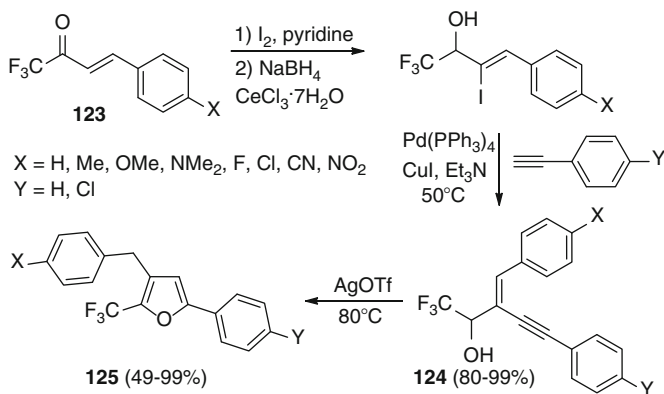
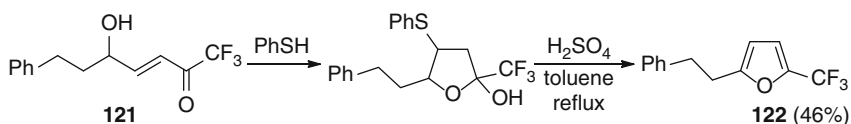
A related cyclization of β -ketoketimines **117**, obtained by reaction of *tert*-butyl isocyanide with 4-aryl-1,1,1-trifluorobutan-2,4-diones **116**, afforded 2,3-diamino-4-aryl-5-(trifluoromethyl)furans **118** [91].



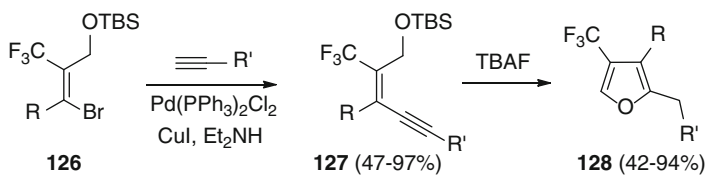
γ -Ray irradiation of a mixture of hexafluorobutyne **84** and propionaldehyde gave 1,4-diketone **119** which was efficiently cyclized into furan **120** in 94 % yield [92].



Thiol-mediated cyclizations of γ -hydroxy- α,β -unsaturated trifluoromethyl ketones **121** was utilized to the preparation of trifluoromethylfuran **122** [93]. α,β -Unsaturated trifluoromethyl ketones **123** were transformed into 3-alkylidene-4-yn-2-ols **124** which underwent silver-catalyzed cyclization into furans **125** [94].

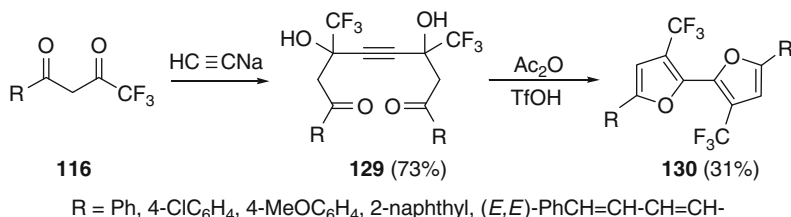


A related cyclization of silyl ethers **127**, synthesized by Sonogashira reaction from bromides **126**, into furans **128** was initiated by fluoride ion [95].

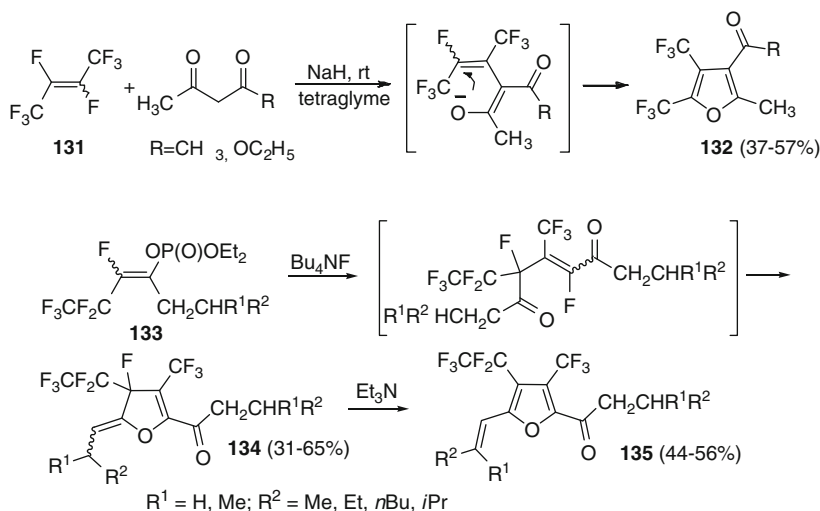


R = H, Me, Bn; R' = Ph, 4-MeC₆H₄, 4-MeOC₆H₄, 4-MeO₂CC₆H₄, CH₂OBn, *n*C₅H₁₁

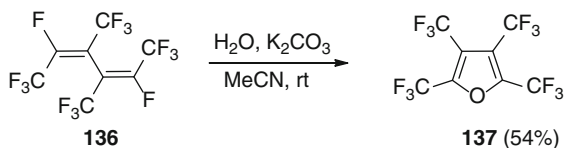
2,2'-Bifuryl derivatives bearing trifluoromethyl groups in β -positions of both furan rings **130** were synthesized by cyclization of oct-4-yne-1,8-diones **129** obtained by reaction of sodium acetylide with 1-trifluoromethyl-1,3-diones **116** [96].



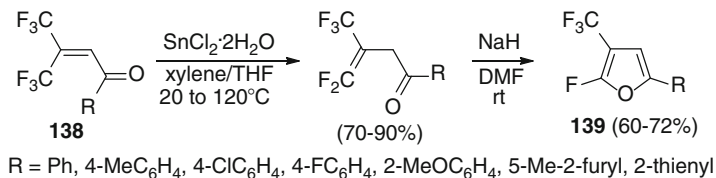
The increased ability of polyfluorinated compounds to undergo fluorine substitution was used for the synthesis of trifluoromethyl-substituted furans. Reaction of perfluorobut-2-ene **131** with acetylacetone or acetoacetic ester furnished 2,3-bis(trifluoromethyl)furans **132** through two sequential fluorine substitutions [97]. Similarly, fluoride-ion catalyzed reaction of fluorinated enol phosphates **133** led to dihydrofurans **134** which treatment with a base produced furans **135** in 44–56 % yields [98].



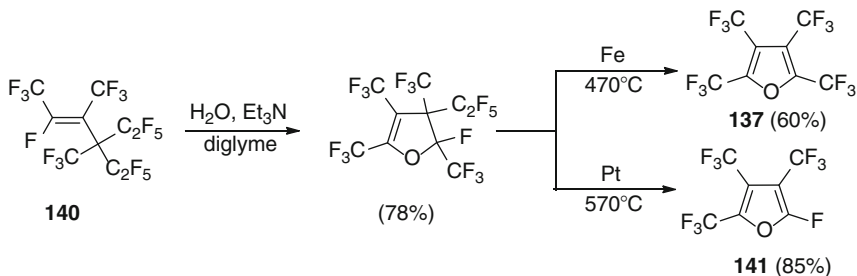
Tetrakis(trifluoromethyl)furan **136** was obtained by basic hydrolysis of perfluoro-3,4-dimethylhexa-2,4-diene **137** in 54 % yield [99–101].



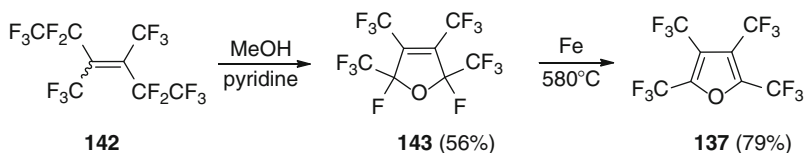
A number of 5-substituted 2-fluoro-3-trifluoromethylfurans **139** was synthesized using sequential treatment of β,β -bis(trifluoromethyl)- α,β -unsaturated ketones **138** with tin(II) chloride and sodium hydride [102–104].



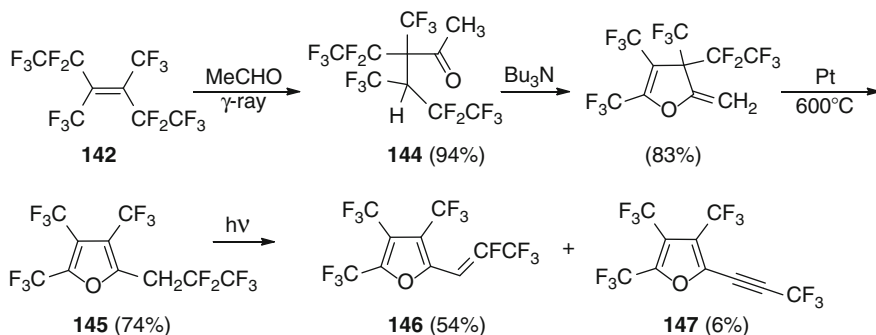
Perfluorotetramethylfuran **137** and perfluorotrimethylfuran **141** were obtained from pentamer of tetrafluoroethylene **140** in two steps. The first step of the reaction is hydration with formation of fluorinated dihydrofuran derivative. The subsequent heating in the presence of iron or platinum catalyst resulted in **137** or **141** in high yields [105].



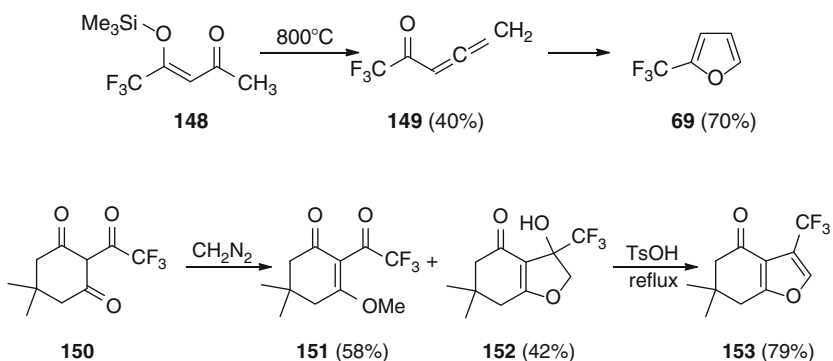
The reaction of perfluoro-3,4-dimethylhex-3-ene **142** with methanol in the presence of a base yielded cyclic product **143** which was transformed into perfluorotetramethylfuran **137** by heating over iron at 580 °C [106, 107] or treatment with sodium amalgam [108].



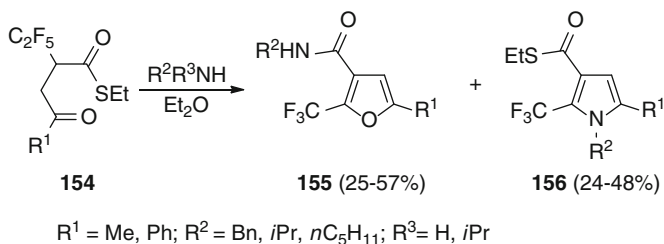
Perfluoro-2,3,4-trimethyl-5-propylfuran **145** was prepared from ketone **144**, obtained from compound **142** via γ -ray induced addition of acetaldehyde, using base-induced cyclization followed by pyrolysis. Irradiation of **145** gave products **146** (54 %) and **147** (6 %) [109].



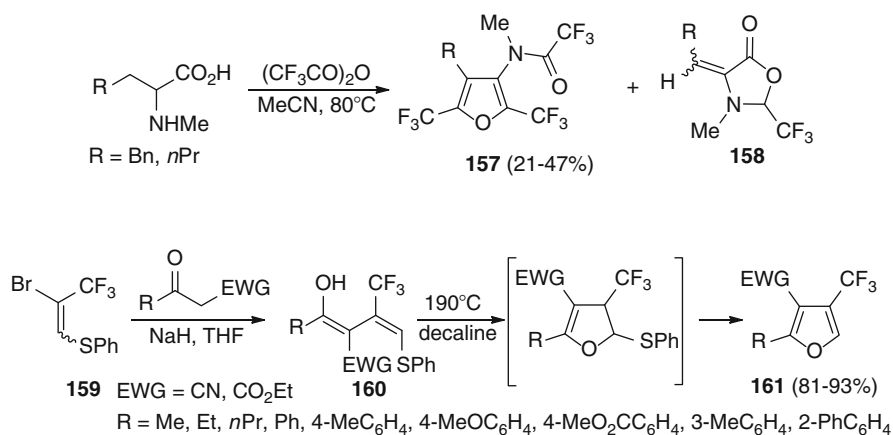
Other methods were also used for the synthesis of trifluoromethylfurans. Thus, flash vacuum thermolysis of silyl enol ether of 1,3-diketone **148** at 800 °C afforded furan **69** (70 %) via intermediate allenic ketone **149** [110]. Another synthesis of trifluoromethylated furan from 1,3-diketone comprised reaction of diazomethane with 2-(trifluoroacetyl)dimedone **150**. This approach produced dihydrofuran **152** in a mixture with methylated product **151**. Compound **151** underwent aromatization into **153** under heating with *p*-toluenesulfonic acid [111].



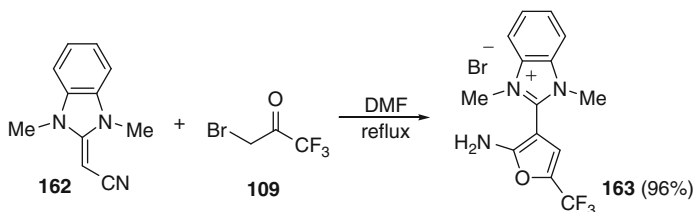
An unusual formation of furans **155** (together with the corresponding pyrroles **156**) was observed when compound **154** was treated with two equivalents of primary amine. Ratio of products depends on amine properties. Thus, if the amine acts as a base, the reaction proceeds via the intermediate enolate and an intramolecular Michael addition/fluoride elimination sequence. Further nucleophilic displacement of the ethylsulfanyl group gives 3-carboxamide furans **155**. If the amine acts as a nucleophile, a Michael addition/elimination followed by an intramolecular condensation leads to the corresponding pyrrole **156** via the enaminone [112, 113].



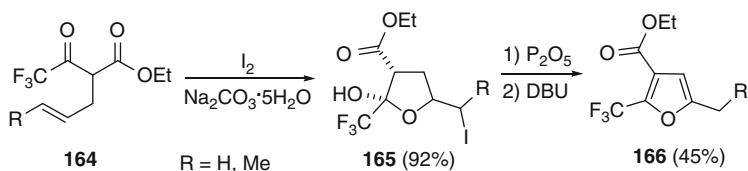
Similarly, the reaction of *N*-methylnorleucine and *N*-methyl-homophenylalanine with trifluoroacetic anhydride led to 3-aminofurans **157** as main products and oxazolidinones **158** as minor products [114]. Reaction of bromoalkene **159** with CH-acids gave dienes **160** which underwent thermal cyclization into the corresponding furans **161** in 81–93 % yields [72].



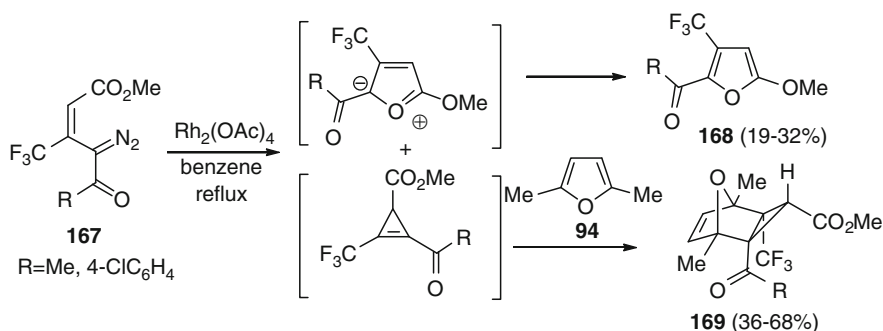
Condensation of **109** with nitrile **162** produced furan **163** in 96 % yield [115]. The derivative **163** is formed through initial C-alkylation of compound **162** with the α -bromo ketones followed by hydrogen bromide assisted enolization and intramolecular addition of the hydroxy group to the nitrile. The latter step is accompanied by the positive charge transfer to the benzimidazole moiety.



Iodolactonization of γ,δ -unsaturated trifluoroacetates **164** yielded tetrahydrofurans **165** which were then aromatized into furans **166** [116].

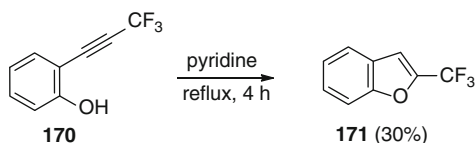


Catalytic decomposition of diazoketones **167** with $Rh_2(OAc)_4$ in the presence of 2,5-dimethylfuran **94** gave a mixture of trifluoromethylfurans **168** and tricyclic compounds **169** derived from [2+4] cycloaddition of 2,5-dimethylfuran and intermediate cyclopropene [117].

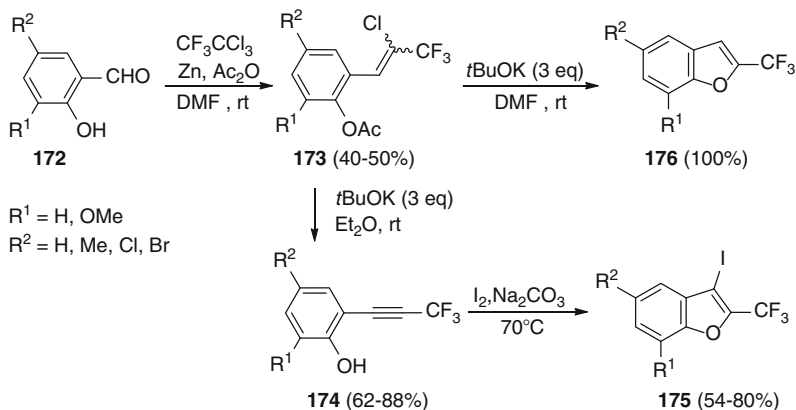


3.5 Cyclization Leading to Trifluoromethyl-Substituted Benzofurans

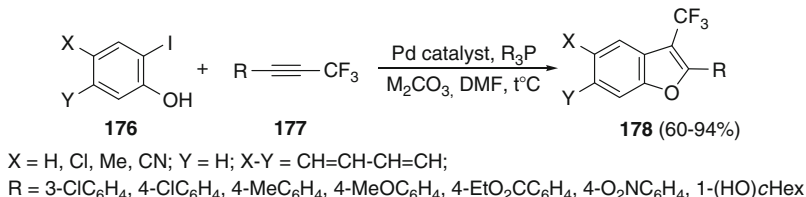
Common methods for the furan ring construction were applied to preparation of trifluoromethyl-substituted benzofurans starting from the substrates bearing appropriately located CF_3 -group. Thus, 2-(trifluoropropynyl)-phenol **170** was cyclized into trifluoromethylbenzofuran **171** by heating with pyridine [118].



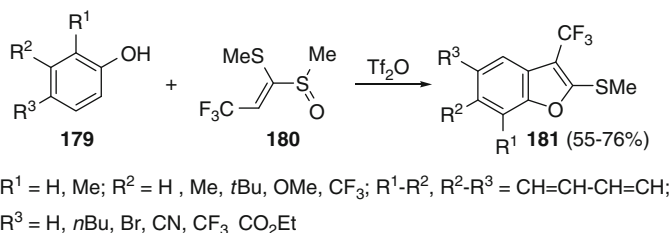
Treatment of β -chloro- β -trifluoromethylstyrenes **173**, obtained from salicylaldehydes **172**, with potassium *tert*-butoxide in DMF produced trifluoromethylbenzofurans **176** in excellent yields. On the other hand, iodocyclization of **174** into **175** took place under very mild conditions in 54–80 % yields [119].



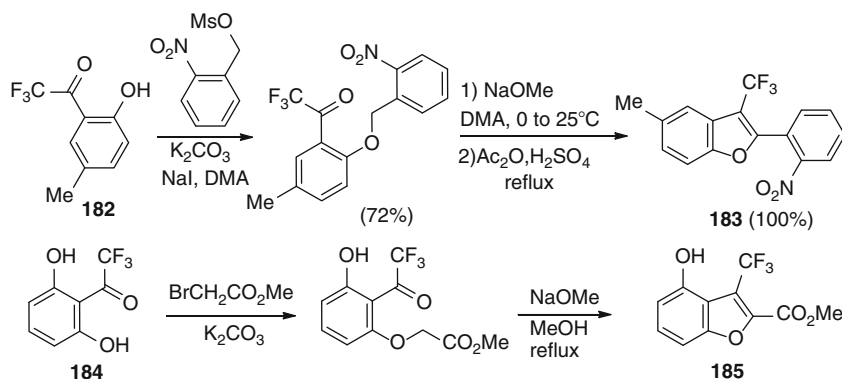
Intermolecular reaction of *o*-iodophenols **176** with trifluoromethylacetylenes **177** promoted by Pd catalysts afforded 3-(trifluoromethyl)benzofurans **178** [120, 121].



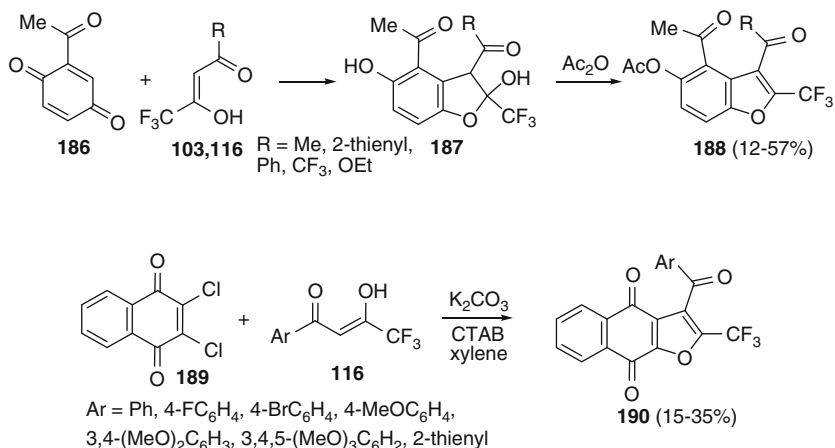
Reaction of phenols **179** with 1,1-bis(methylthio)-2-trifluoromethylethene *S*-oxide **180** and trifluoromethanesulfonic anhydride gave 2-methylthio-3-(trifluoromethyl)benzofurans **181** [122].



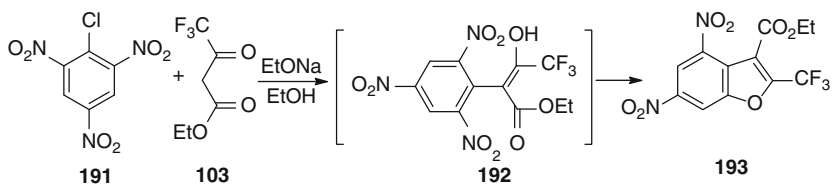
Alkylation of *o*-hydroxytrifluoroacetophenones **182** and **184** with *o*-nitrobenzyl mesylate and methyl bromoacetate, respectively, followed by Madelung-like cyclization produced 3-(trifluoromethyl)benzofurans **183** and **185** [123, 124].



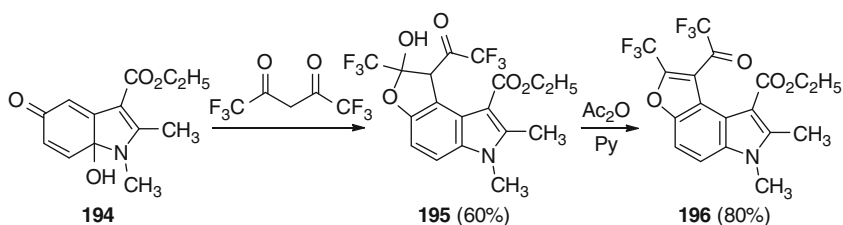
Reaction of benzoquinone **186** with fluorinated 1,3-diketones **116** or ketoester **103** gave 2-trifluoromethyl-2,3-dihydrobenzofurans **187** which underwent dehydration into the corresponding benzofurans **188** [125]. The related reaction of aroyl(trifluoroacetyl)methane **116** with 2,3-dichloro-1,4-naphthoquinone **189** yielded naphtho[2,3-*b*]furan-4,9-diones **190** in moderate yields under phase-transfer conditions [126].



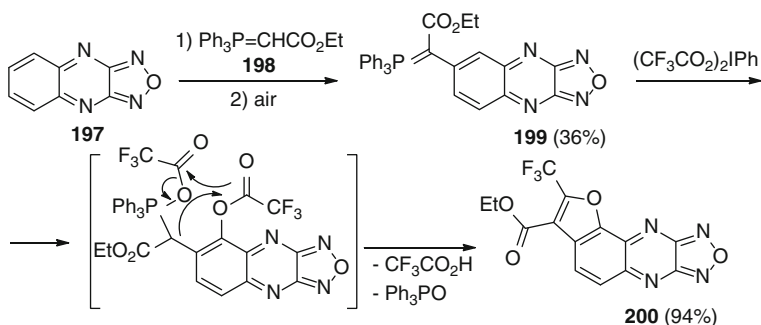
Substitution of both chlorine atom and nitro group in the reaction of picryl chloride **191** with trifluoroacetoacetate **103** led to benzofuran **193** [127].



Treatment of cyclic semiaminal **194** with hexafluoroacetylacetone produced compound **195** which was further dehydrated to furo[3,2-*e*]indole **196** using acetic anhydride/pyridine mixture [128].



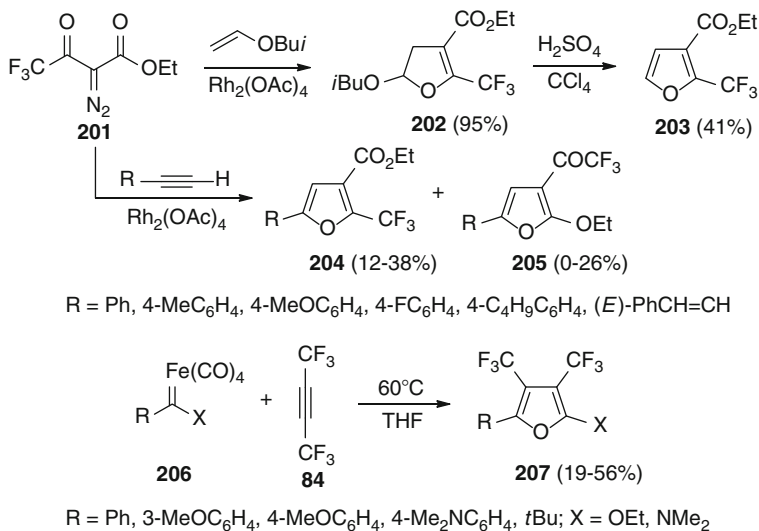
The oxidative reaction of furazano[3,4-*b*]quinoxaline **197** with ylide **198** furnished new phosphonium ylide **199** that underwent smooth transformation into benzofuran derivative **200** under the treatment with $\text{PhI}(\text{O}_2\text{CCF}_3)_2$. Obviously, trifluoroacetoxylation with subsequent intramolecular Wittig-like reaction led to the formation of this unusual product [129].



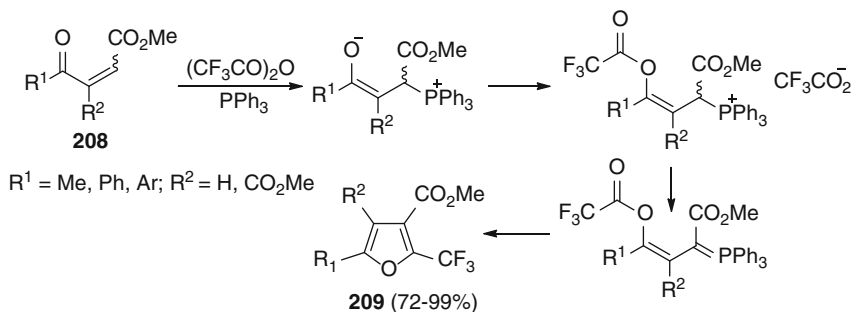
3.6 Miscellaneous

1,3-Dipolar cycloaddition of ethyl 2-diazo-4,4,4-trifluoroacetate **201** with isobutyl vinyl ether produced dihydrofuran **202** which underwent elimination affording 2-trifluoromethylfuran **203** [130]. A related reaction with alkynes directly

produced 2-(trifluoromethyl)furan-3-carboxylates **204** together with 2-ethoxy-3-(trifluoroacetyl)furans **205** [131]. The reaction proceeds through the intermediate formation of metal carbene complex. Reaction of stable iron(0) carbene complex **206** with hexafluorobutylene **84** led to 3,4-bis(trifluoromethyl)furans **207** [132].

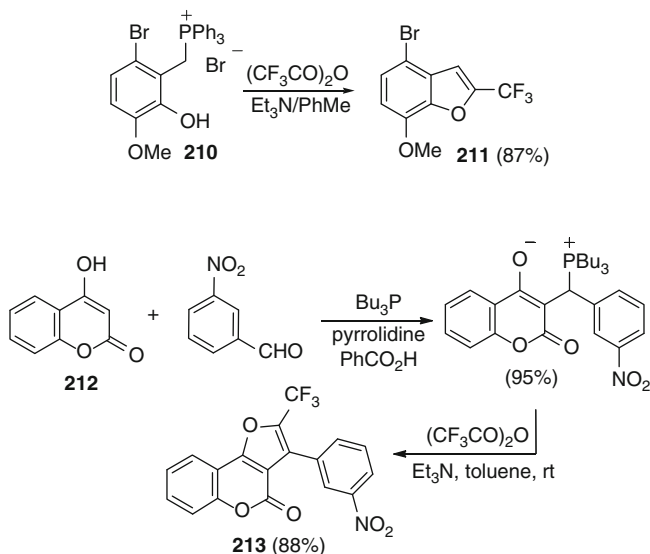


Treatment of 3-acylacrylates and 2-acylfumarates **208** with trifluoroacetic anhydride and PPh₃ yielded 3,4,5-substituted 2-(trifluoromethyl)furans **209**. The plausible mechanism of the reaction includes slow Michael addition of triphenylphosphine to enone fragment with fast trifluoroacetylation of resulted adduct and subsequent intramolecular Wittig olefination. An alternative mechanism via trifluoroacetyl radical arising from interaction of trifluoroacetic anhydride and triphenylphosphine is also possible [133].

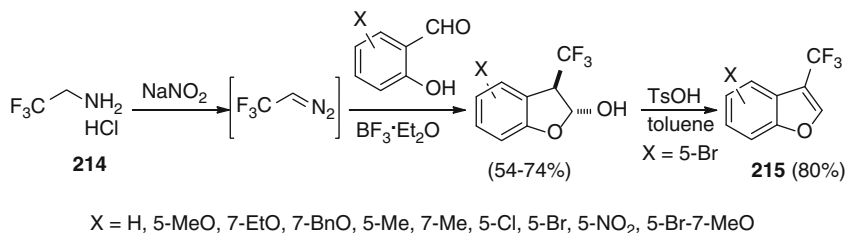


4-Bromo-7-methoxy-2-(trifluoromethyl)benzofuran **211** was synthesized by reaction of (*o*-hydroxybenzyl)triphenylphosphonium bromide **210** with trifluoroacetic anhydride and base under reflux [134]. A similar approach was utilized for

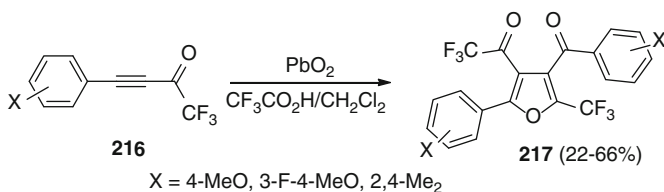
synthesis of polysubstituted furo[3,2-*c*]coumarin **213** bearing a trifluoromethyl group at the C(2) atom from 4-hydroxycoumarin **212** [135].



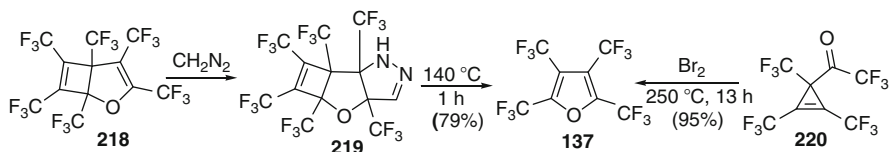
A series of 3- CF_3 -benzofurans **215** was synthesized by transformation of trifluoroethylamine **214** into the corresponding diazo compound followed by the BF_3 -catalyzed reaction with salicylaldehydes and dehydration [136].



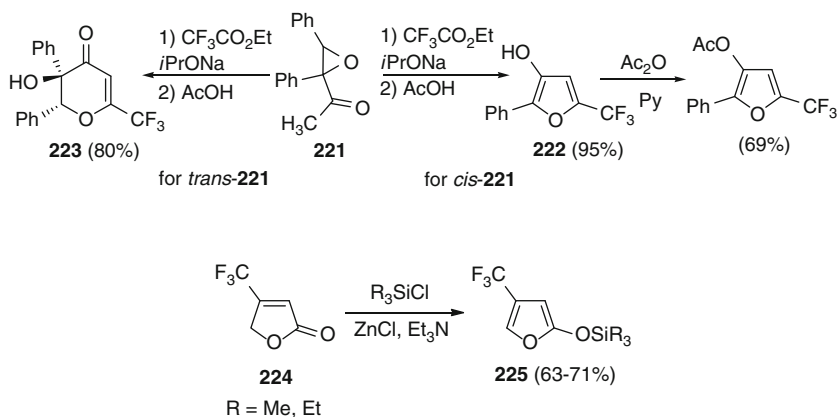
Oxidative dimerization of 1-aryl-2-(trifluoroacetyl)acetylenes **216** with lead(IV) oxide afforded furan derivatives **217** in 22–66 % [137, 138].



Tetrakis(trifluoromethyl)furan **137** was obtained in 79 % yield by thermolysis of tricyclic compound **219** which was synthesized from valence-bond isomer of hexakis(trifluoromethyl)oxepin **218** via the reaction with diazomethane [139]. This compound was also obtained by bromine-induced isomerization of 3-(trifluoroacetyl)-1,2,3-tris(trifluoromethyl)cyclopropane **220** [140].

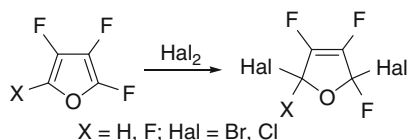


Reaction of *cis*-2-acetyl-2,3-diphenyloxirane **221** with ethyl trifluoroacetate afforded 3-hydroxy-2-phenyl-5-trifluoromethylfuran **222**. Oppositely, *trans*-isomer was cyclized under the same conditions into pyran derivative **223** [141]. Silylation of trifluoromethylated butenolide **224** gave 2-siloxyfurans **225** in 63–71 % yield [142].

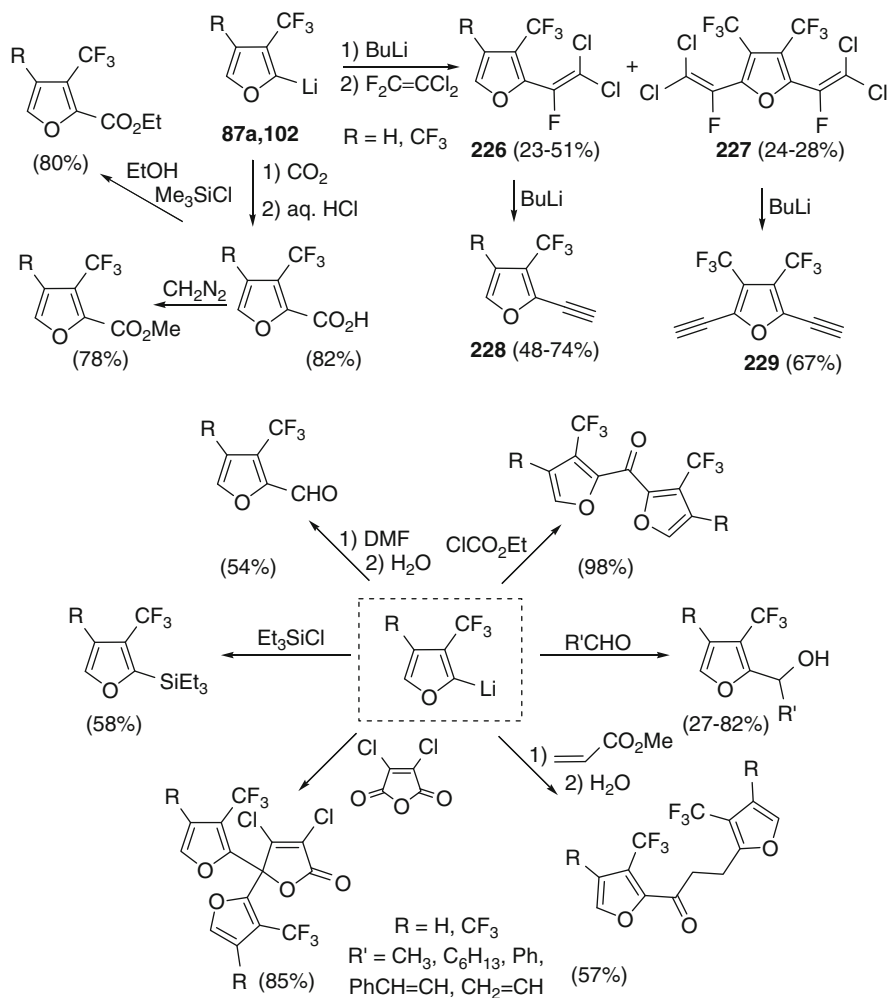


4 Reactions of Fluoro- and Trifluoromethyl-Substituted Furans

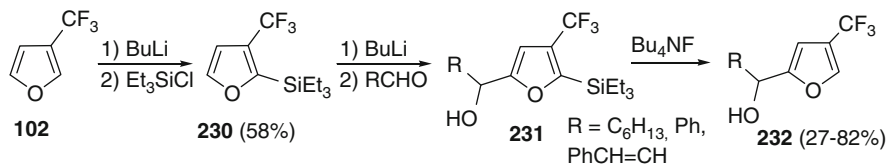
Polyfluorofurans are unstable even at room temperature. Tetrafluorofuran and 2,5-difluorofurans are polymerized affording white solids; trifluorofurans, 2,3- and 3,4-difluorofurans decomposed with the evolution of HF [18]. Introduction of fluorine atoms slightly decreases nucleophilicity of the furan ring. For example, bromine, chlorine, acetyl nitrate react rapidly with tetrafluorofuran and 2,3,4-trifluorofuran to give a mixture of the *cis*- and *trans*-2,5-adducts. When furans were treated with iodine monochloride, products of 2,5-chlorination were also isolated. However, polyfluorofurans failed to react with HCl and HBr [18].



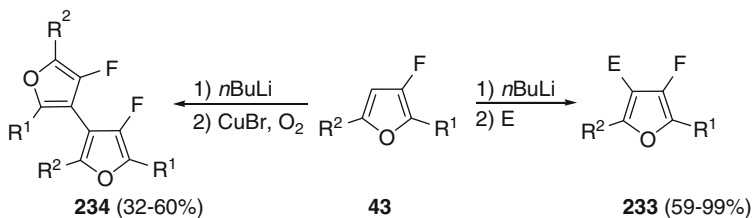
3,4-Bis(trifluoromethyl)furan **87a** did not react with bromine, however lithiation allowed one to insert Br-atom regioselectively at the C2 position [143]. Many other electrophilic reagents can be involved into the reaction with lithiated furan derivatives, for example, carbon dioxide, aldehydes, silyl chlorides, various Michael acceptors, etc. [74, 84, 144]. Treatment of vinylation products **226**, **227** with alkyl-lithium afforded the corresponding alkynes **228**, **229** [64, 143].



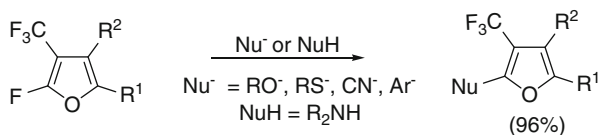
To introduce a substituent into the C5 position of furan **102**, intermediate protection of C2 atom by silyl group was proposed. Silylated derivative **230** was lithiated and treated with aldehydes furnishing products **231** which were desilylated to **232** using tetrabutylammonium fluoride [84].



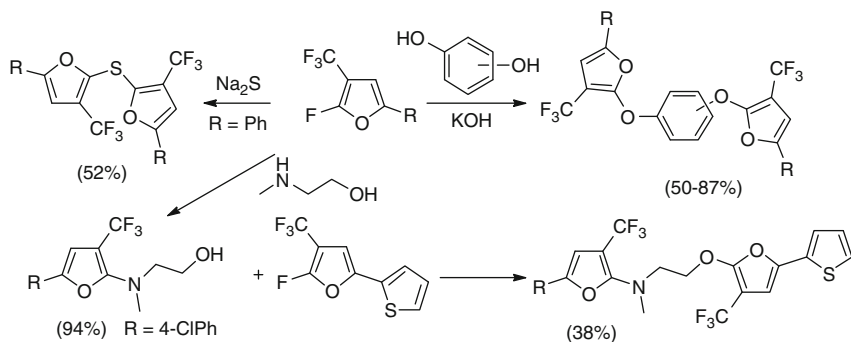
Lithiation of 2,5-disubstituted 3-fluorofurans **43** allowed one to introduce new substituents at C4 atom producing **233** or perform oxidative dimerization to **234** [25].



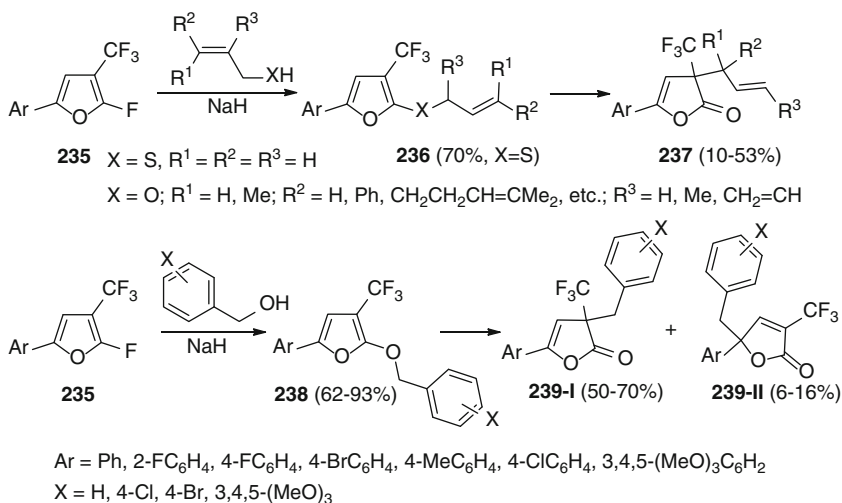
A perfluoroalkyl group activates fluorine atom in 2-fluoro-3-trifluoromethylfurans to nucleophilic substitution with a broad range of nucleophiles [102–105]. Fluorine can be efficiently substituted by alkoxy or phenoxy groups, aliphatic or heterocyclic thiols and amines or reduced with lithium aluminium hydride. The C-nucleophiles like cyanide or malonate anion as well as phenyllithium and phenylmagnesium bromide can also be involved into the reaction.



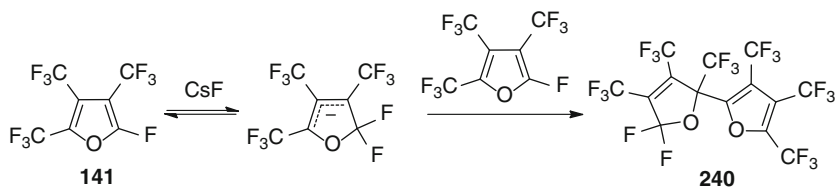
Application of binucleophilic reagents, such as resorcinol, hydroquinone, amino-ethanol derivatives and others, led to formation of dimeric trifluoromethyl-substituted furans [102, 104].



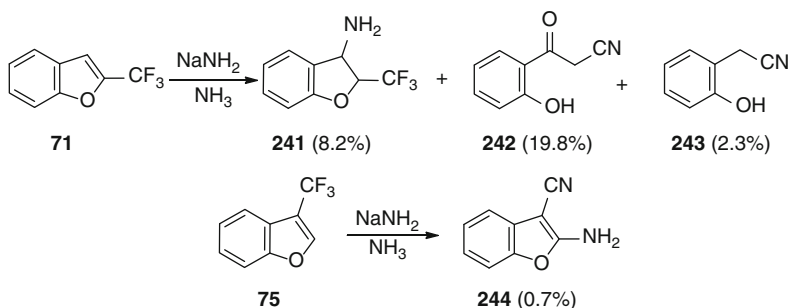
Reaction of 2-fluoro-3-trifluoromethylfurans **235** with allyl alcohols followed by Claisen rearrangement directly produced butenolides **237** [145, 146]. Oppositely, allyl mercaptane formed stable substitution product **236** [146]. A similar transformation was reported for benzyl alcohols. While benzhydryl and (2-thienyl)methyl groups migrated at room temperature directly furnishing butenolides **239**, in the case of benzyloxy derivatives, heating at 120 °C was required to reach the transformation. On the other hand, stable up to 140 °C products **238** were formed in the reaction of benzylamine, benzyl mercaptane, and 2-(hydroxymethyl)pyridine [147].



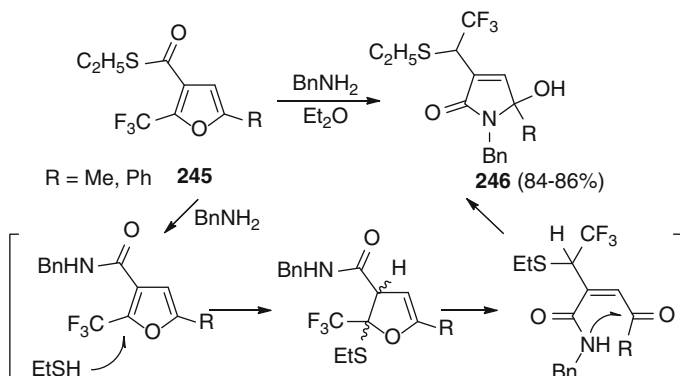
Nucleophilic attack of cesium fluoride induced dimerization of perfluorotrimethylfuran [105]. Due to the strong electrophilic properties, perfluorinated furan ring easily undergoes addition of fluoride anion with the subsequent release in a second nucleophilic substitution step with another molecule of perfluoro-2,3,4-trimethylfuran.



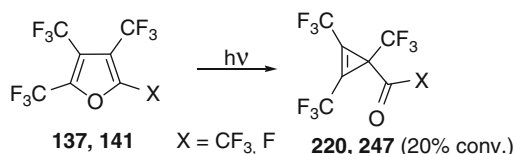
Heating of 2- and 3-(trifluoromethyl)benzofuran **71**, **75** with alcoholic sodium hydroxide solution under reflux yielded the corresponding acids in poor yields. Significant tar formation was observed due to the ring opening. Products of the ring opening **241–243** were isolated in reaction of **71** with sodium amide in liquid ammonia. Oppositely **75** gave the compound **244** in very low yield [55].



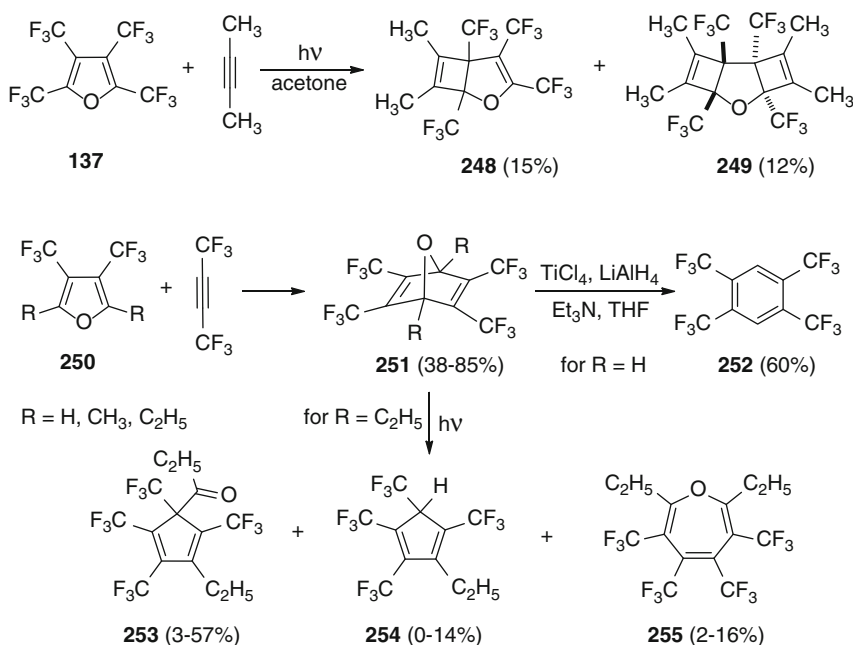
Reaction of furans **245** with benzylamine is accompanied by recyclization leading to pyrrolidones **246**. The first step of the reaction includes amidation with benzylamine with release of ethanethiol. The furan ring, which is activated by both the trifluoromethyl substituent and the amide function, acts as a Michael acceptor with thiol to give the dihydroderivative. Such an intermediate might undergo ring opening followed by a 1,3-proton migration to afford the γ -keto amide and cyclization to lactam **246** [148].



Tetrakis(trifluoromethyl)furan **137** was reported to be inert in a reaction with common dienophiles and stable to irradiation, unlike the most other furans [139, 149]. However, later it was shown that **137** rearranged into cyclopropenyl ketone **220** under irradiation with high pressure Hg-lamp. Similarly, furan **141** was transformed into acyl fluoride **247** [105].

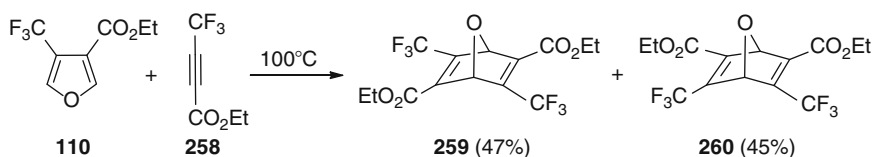
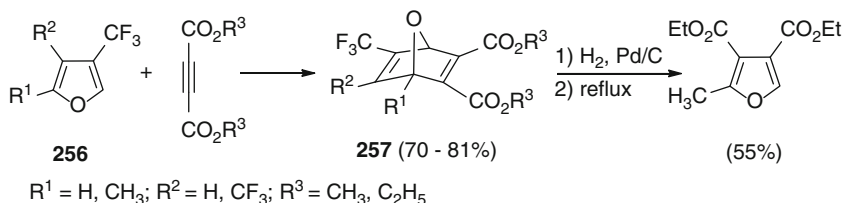


Acetone-sensitized photoreaction of **137** with butyne-2 gave products of mono-**248** and bis [2+2] cycloaddition **249** [149]. Oppositely, 3,4-bis(trifluoromethyl) furans **250** participate in the Diels-Alder reaction. They reacted with hexafluorobut-2-yne **84** giving 7-oxanorbornadiene **251** [72, 73, 77, 150]. Treatment of **251** with $TiCl_4/LiAlH_4/Et_3N$ system led to the formation of tetrakis(trifluoromethyl)benzene **252** [77]. Irradiation of **251** produced mixture of cyclopentadienes **253** and **254** as well as oxepin **255** in variable ratios depending on the solvent [150].

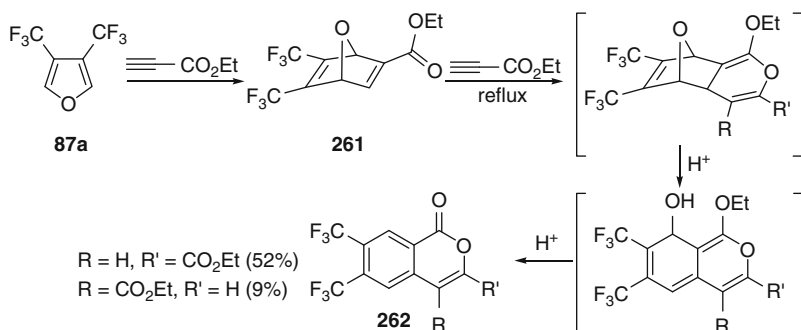


Similarly, a reaction of furans **256** with DMAD or DEAD furnished oxanorbornadienes **257** [88, 151]. Depending on substitution mode, these norbornadienes can

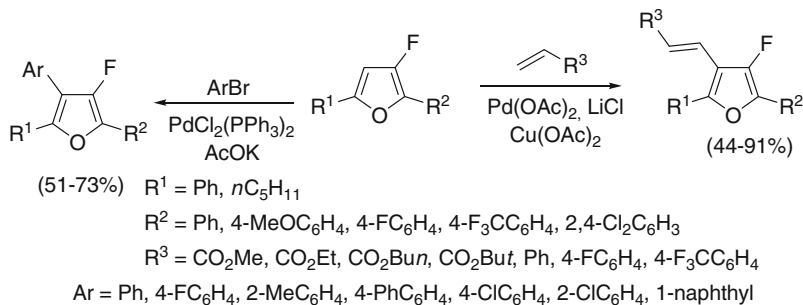
be partially hydrogenated and involved into retro-Diels-Alder reaction [88]. A related Diels-Alder reaction of furan **110** with DMAD and hexafluorobut-2-yne proceeded smoothly with formation of the corresponding 7-oxanorbornadienes in excellent yields. When asymmetric dienophile **258** was utilized, a mixture of regioisomeric cycloadducts **259**, **260** was obtained in 92 % overall yield [78].



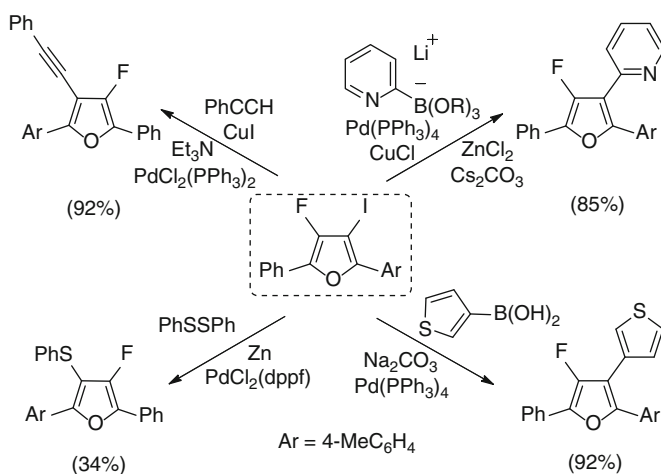
On the contrary, when **87a** was reacted with ethyl propynoate, isocoumarins **262** were obtained. In this case the Diels-Alder cycloadduct **261** reacted as diene with another ethyl propynoate molecule. Tricyclic pyran underwent oxygen bridge opening followed by ethanol elimination presumably catalyzed by acidic Pyrex reaction tube walls [75, 78, 151]. Reaction of **110** with ethyl propynoate yielded complex mixture of unidentified products [78].



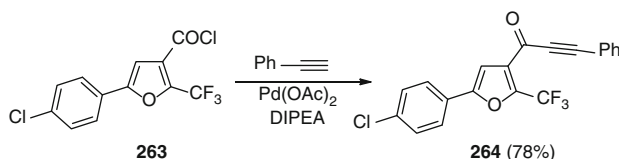
Fluorine atom activates furan ring to oxidative Heck reaction with various alkenes [152] and to Pd-catalyzed arylation of the neighboring carbon atom [153].



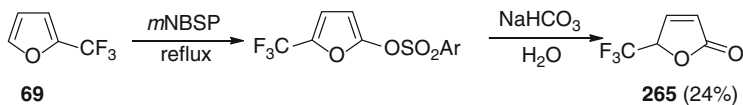
Another way to 4-aryl-3-fluorofurans is Suzuki reaction of 3-fluoro-4-iodofurans. Other cross-coupling reactions of fluoroiodofuran were also described. Thus, Sonogashira coupling gave phenylethynyl fluorofuran, the Suzuki-Miyaura coupling reaction with the thiophene-3-boronic acid conducted using classical conditions produced (thienyl)fluorofuran. Employment of lithium (pyridin-2-yl) triisopropoxyborate allowed for the introduction of a conventionally unreactive moiety. Coupling with diphenyl disulfide carried out under reductive conditions produced phenylthiofuran in poor yield [37].



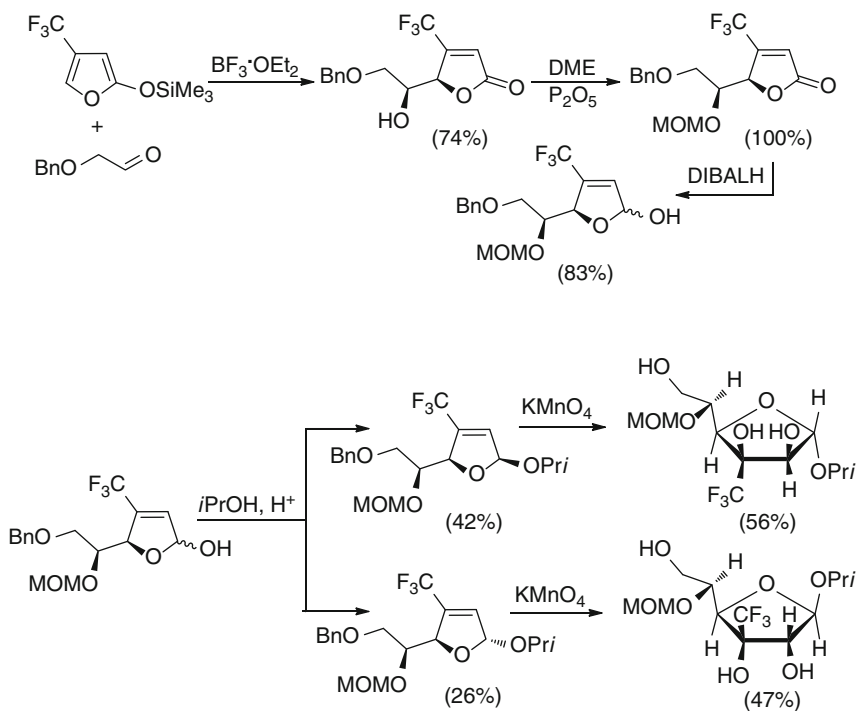
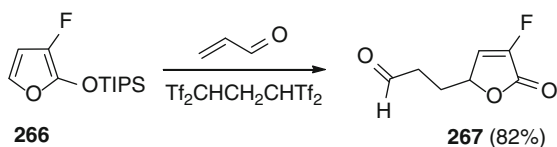
Palladium-catalyzed reaction of 5-aryl-2-(trifluoromethyl)furan-3-carbonyl chloride **263** with phenylacetylene afforded derivative **264** which is a convenient precursor for synthesis of pyrazoles, pyrimidines, and other heterocyclic systems bearing trifluoromethylated furan as substituent [154].



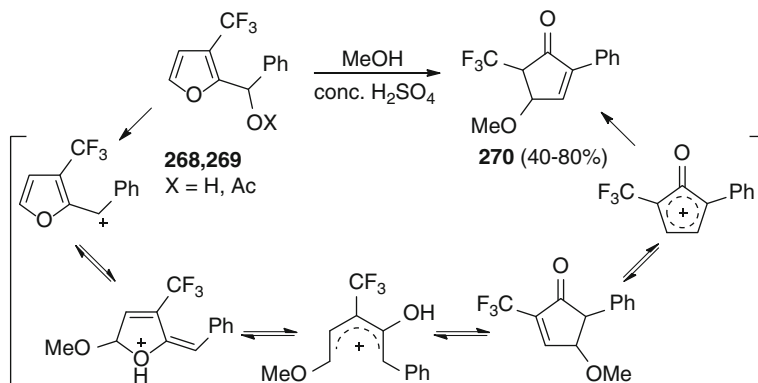
The oxidative transformation of 2-trifluoromethylfuran **69** into butenolide **265** was performed using *m*-nitrobenzenesulfonyl peroxide (*m*-NBSP) followed by hydrolysis under basic conditions. Deprotonated butenolide was shown to be good nucleophile in Michael addition to various substrates [155].



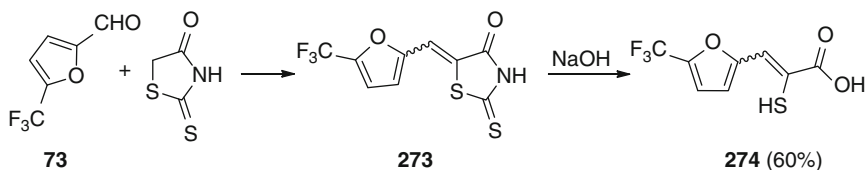
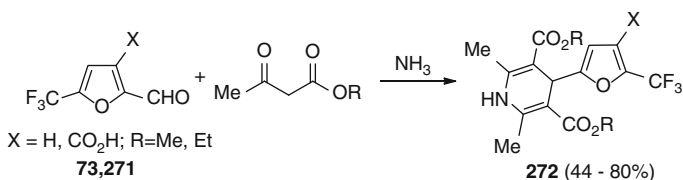
α -Fluoro- γ -butenolide **267** was synthesized from 3-fluoro-2-siloxyfuran **266** using vinyllogous Mukayama-Michael reaction with α,β -unsaturated aldehydes [156]. Similar reaction was utilized for the synthesis of trifluoromethylated sugars [142].



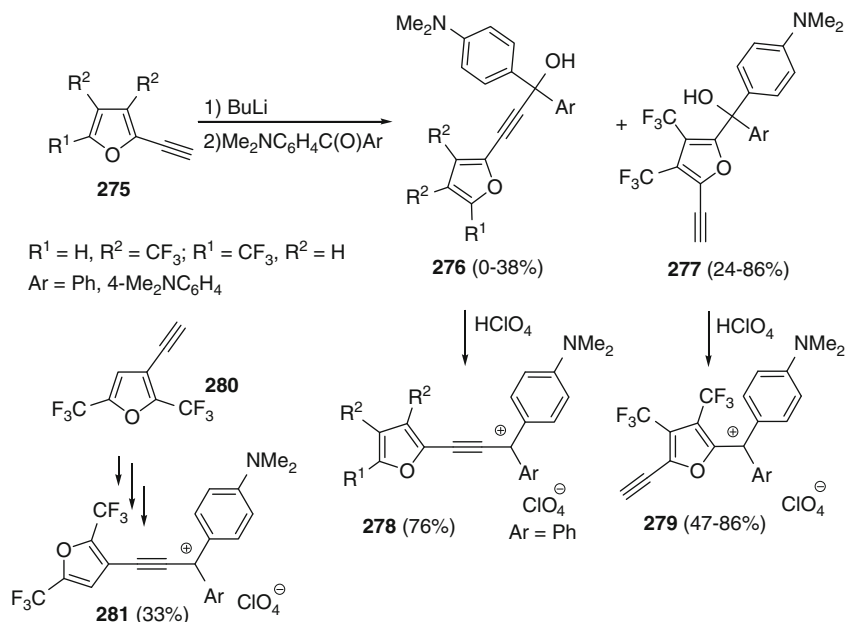
Under treatment with strong acid, 2-furyl(phenyl)carbinol **268** and acetate **269** recycled into cyclopentenone **270**; the related alkyl(furyl)carbinols gave product of dehydration [84].



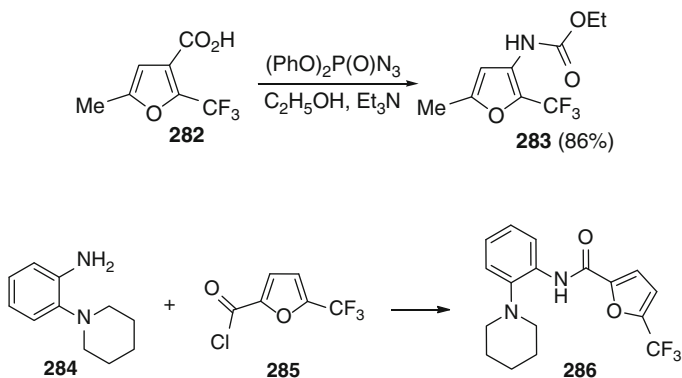
Condensation of **73** and related aldehyde **271** with acetoacetate and NH_3 afforded 1,4-dihydropyridines **272** [157]. Reaction of **73** with rhodanine followed by basic hydrolysis of **273** led to α -mercapto- β -(5-trifluoromethyl-2-furyl)acrylic acid **274** [158].



Lithiation of ethynyl(trifluoromethyl)furans **275** followed by the reaction with diaryl ketones produced diaryl(2-arylethynyl)carbinols **276** and triarylcarbinols **277**. Further treatment with HClO_4 yielded the corresponding dyes **278**, **279**. Similarly, furan **280** was transformed into dye **281** [159].

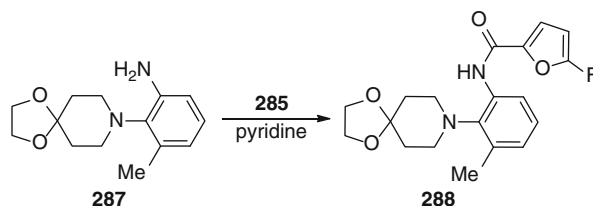


Curtius rearrangement was applied to synthesis of 3-ethoxycarbonylamino-5-methyl-2-(trifluoromethyl)furan **283** from 3-furoic acid **282** [160]. Other transformations of side chains and functional groups in trifluoromethyl-substituted furans were also reported. They are intensively used to search novel bioactive compounds due to the high potential of fluorinated furans as pharmacological agents. Thus, 2-piperidinoaniline **284** was acylated with 5-trifluoromethyl-2-furoyl chloride **285** searching for new inhibitors of colony-stimulated factor-1 receptor, but product **286** appeared to be devoid of significant activity [161].

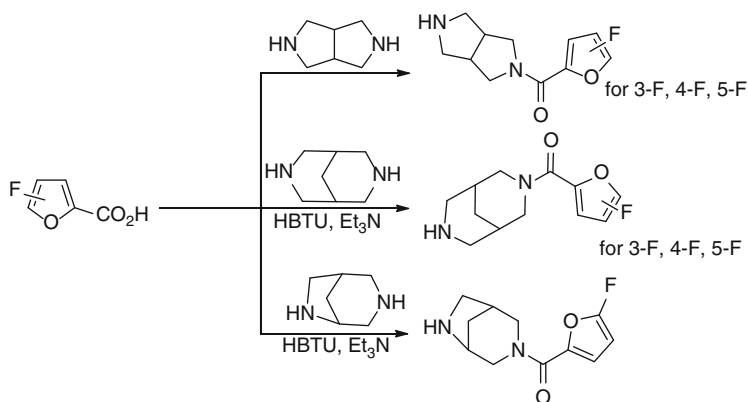


5 Application of Fluoro- and Trifluoromethyl-Substituted Furans

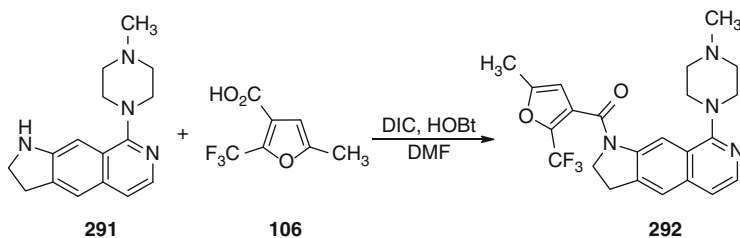
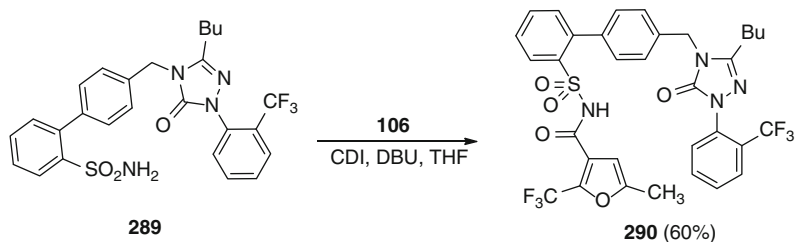
The section highlights synthesis of compounds demonstrated physiological activities using fluoro- or trifluoromethyl-substituted furans as starting compounds. Acylation of aniline **287** with 5-fluorofuran-2-carbonyl chloride gave amide **288** which inhibited c-jun *N*-terminal kinase at submicromolar level [162].



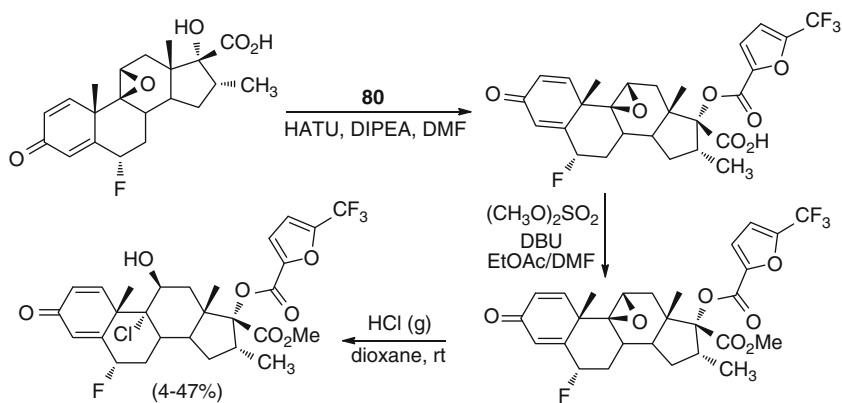
Reaction of the corresponding acid **34**, as well as 3-fluoro- and 4-fluoro-2-furoic acids with bicyclic diamines was used for preparation of nicotinic acetylcholine receptor agonists and antagonists with binding affinity to $\alpha 4\beta 2$ receptor subtype, which is target for the treatment of Alzheimer's disease, schizophrenia, major depression, etc., as low as 3 nM [163].



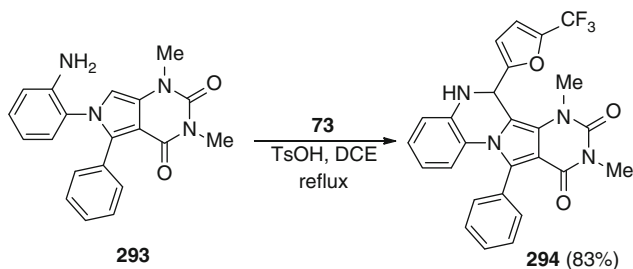
Condensation of 5-methyl-2-trifluoromethyl-3-furoic acid **106** with triazolinone-sulfamide **289** led to imide **290** which demonstrated affinity to angiotensin AT_1 receptor at nanomolar level [164]. Acylation of pyridoindole **291** with acid **106** afforded amide **292** showing binding ability to serotonin receptors [165].



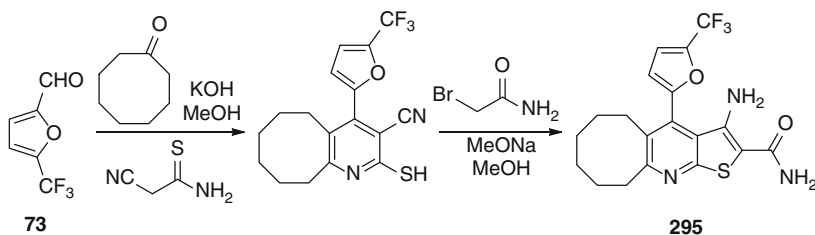
5-Trifluoromethyl-2-furoic acid **80** was employed for the synthesis of novel glucocorticoid androstene ester with 4.8 times higher TNF α potency than those for budesonide which is a steroid for the treatment of asthma [166].



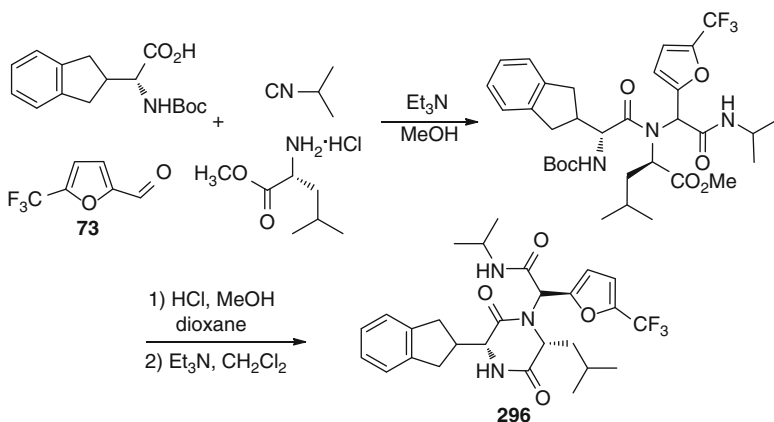
Condensation of 5-(trifluoromethyl)furfural **73** with compound **293** gave polycyclic product **294** inhibiting cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator chloride channel at submicromolar level [167].



Reaction of **73** with cyclooctanone followed by consecutive treatment of product with 2-cyanothioacetamide and 2-bromoacetamide produced cyclooctathienopyridine **295** which inhibits eukaryotic elongation factor-2 kinase with IC_{50} 0.3 $\mu\text{mol/L}$ and can be applied for the treatment of breast carcinoma [168].

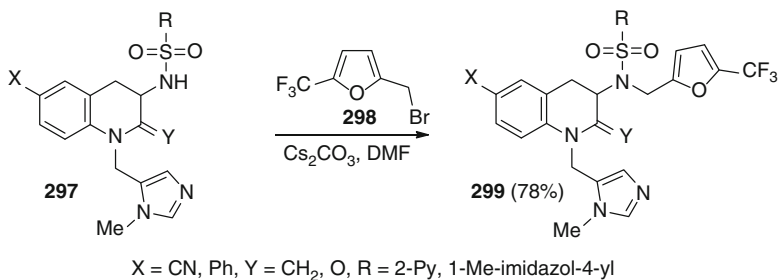


Ugi reaction of **73** with isopropyl isocyanide, *N*-Boc-2-(indan-2-yl)glycine and leucine methyl ester was applied to the synthesis of compound **296** – oxytocin antagonist with pK_i 10.0 [1].

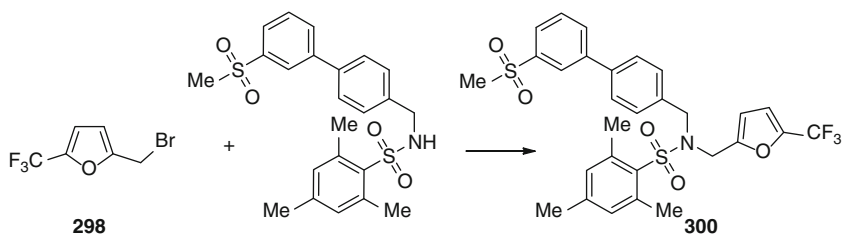


Alkylation of tetrahydroquinolines **297** ($Y=H_2$) with 5-(trifluoromethyl)furfuryl bromide **298** afforded derivative **299** which inhibited protein farnesyltransferase

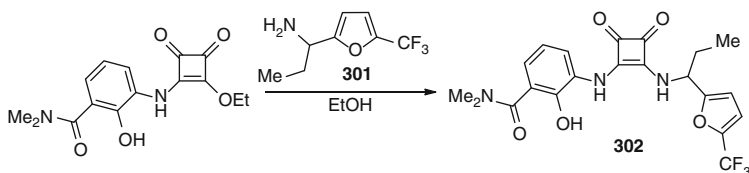
and demonstrated antimalarial activity at submicromolar level [3]. The related tetrahydroquinolone **299** (Y=O, X=CN, R=1-methylimidazol-4-yl) was synthesized in two steps via the reaction between **298** and **297** (X=Br) and bromine substitution with $\text{Zn}(\text{CN})_2/\text{Pd}(\text{PPh}_3)_4$ [169].



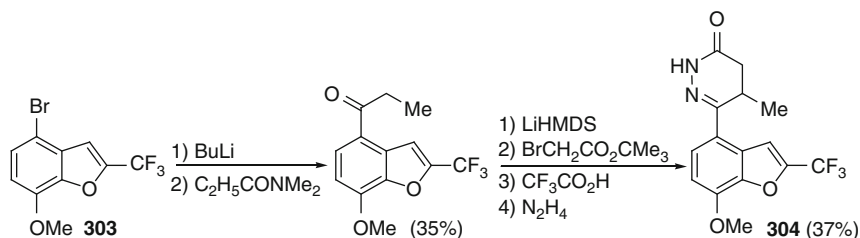
Compound **298** was applied to the synthesis of *N*-4-biphenylmethyl-*N*-furfurysulfonamide **300** demonstrating liver X receptor β -binding with pIC_{50} of ca. 7.5 [170].



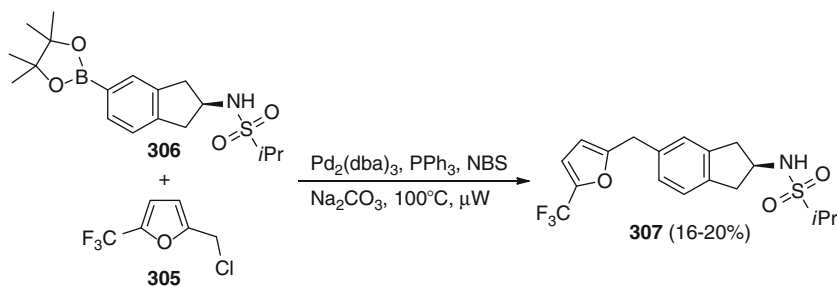
α -Ethyl-5-(trifluoromethyl)furfurylamine **301** was a starting material in the preparation of highly active and selective CXCR2 antagonist **302** [171].



Oppositely, reaction of 2-(trifluoromethyl)benzofuran **303** was a first step in the synthesis of compound **304** inhibiting phosphodiesterases PDE3A and PDE4B at 19.8 and 0.38 $\mu\text{mol/L}$ respectively [134].



Cross-coupling of furfuryl chloride **305** with (indan-5-yl)pinacolyborane **306** gave benzylfuran **307** which was shown to be a modulator of AMPA receptor with EC₅₀ of ca. 1 μmol/L [172].



6 Conclusions

Obviously, the majority of the efficient methods for fluorinated furans synthesis has been described over the last 20 years. The development of modern fluorinating agents, organometallic chemistry, and homogeneous catalysis provided new possibilities for the preparation of fluoro- and perfluoroalkylfurans, which find their application in pharmacology, agriculture, and material science.

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Fluorinated Thiophenes and Their Analogues

Olga V. Serdyuk, Vladimir T. Abaev, Alexander V. Butin,
and Valentine G. Nenajdenko

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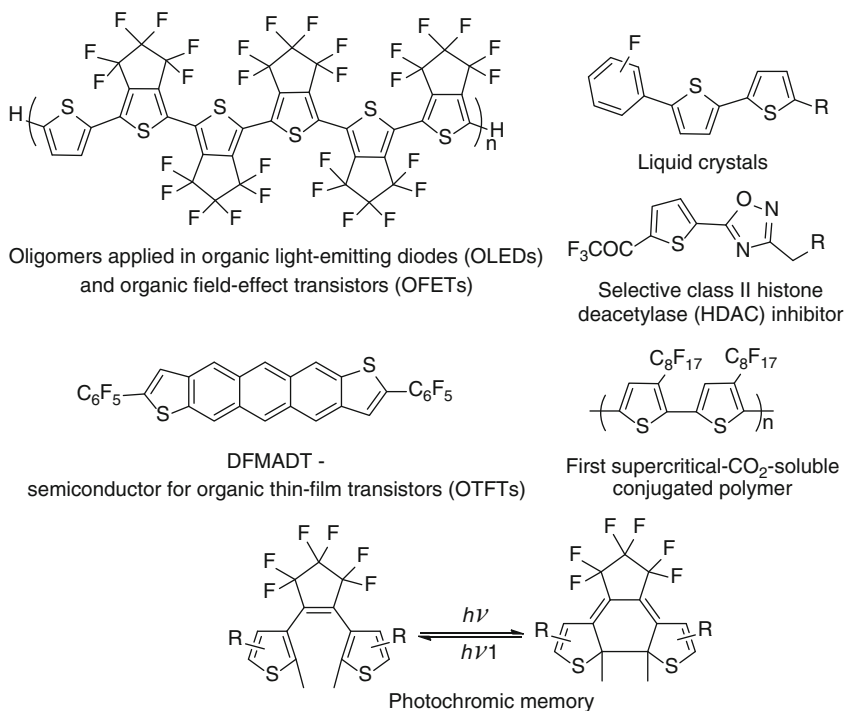
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Abstract The chapter is devoted to the synthesis and application of thiophenes (selenophenes) and benzothiophenes bearing fluorine atoms, CF_3 groups, and perfluorinated aryl fragments.

Keywords Thiophene • Fluorine • Trifluoromethyl group • Synthesis • Fluorinated heterocycles

1 Introduction

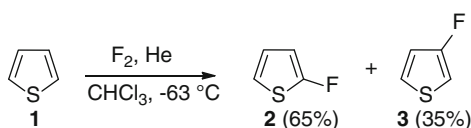
Fluorinated thiophene derivatives are widely used as soluble semiconductors [1], polymers [2], blue light emitting materials [3], and liquid crystals [4]. Some of them represent potent selective class II histone deacetylase (HDAC) inhibitors [5], agonists of sphingosine-1-phosphate (S1P) receptors [6], and some reveal fungicidal properties [7], anti-inflammatory, and immunoregulatory activity [8]. In addition, thiophene-substituted perfluorocyclopentenes are being investigated as thermally irreversible photochromic compounds having a high resistance to fatigue [9]. Herein, we describe methods for the preparation of thiophenes with a fluorine atom in the 2- and 3-position, and polyfluorothiophenes. These methods are classified into functionalization of the thiophene ring and heterocyclizations. This principle of classification is also applied for thiophenes with a perfluoroalkyl group, their benzo analogues, and benzothiophenes with four fluorine atoms on the carbocycle.



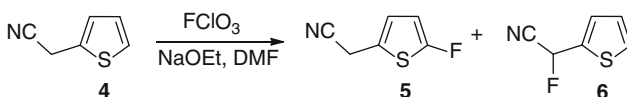
2 Synthesis of Fluorothiophenes

2.1 Functionalization of the Thiophene Ring

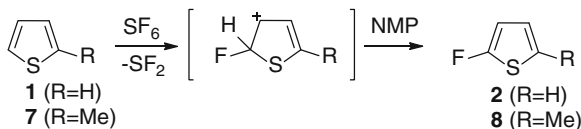
Direct fluorination of thiophene with molecular fluorine (F_2) is inconvenient as it is not selective process, owing to the extreme reactivity of molecular fluorine. For example, the reaction of thiophene **1** with fluorine at $-63\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ (5 % F_2 in He) gave a mixture of 2- and 3-fluorothiophene **2** and **3** in a 2:1 ratio [10]. The synthesis of 3-fluorothiophene **3** is challenging due to the higher reactivity of the 2-position of thiophene. When a tenfold excess of fluorine was used, the 3-substituted isomer **3** (68 %) was three times more abundant than the 2-substituted product **2**.



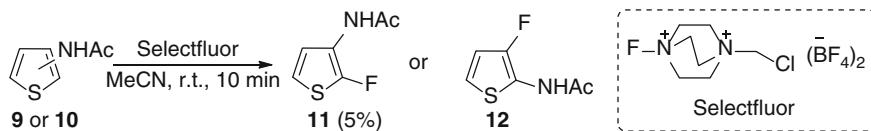
The treatment of 2-(thiophene-2-yl)acetonitrile **4** with perchloryl fluoride ($FCIO_3$) in N,N -dimethylformamide in the presence of sodium ethoxide was also not selective. The formation of 2-(5-fluorothiophen-2-yl)acetonitrile **5** was accompanied by fluorination of the methylene group to give 2-fluoro-(2-thiophen-2-yl)acetonitrile **6** [11].



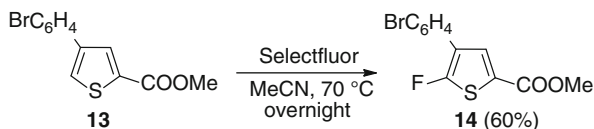
Gaseous SF_3^+ is a gentle and effective electrophilic monofluorinating reagent for five-membered heterocyclic compounds. The reaction of thiophenes **1,7** with gaseous SF_3^+ , generated by electron ionization of sulfur hexafluoride and acting as a source of fluorine cation (F^+), is one more example of a direct fluorination process [12].



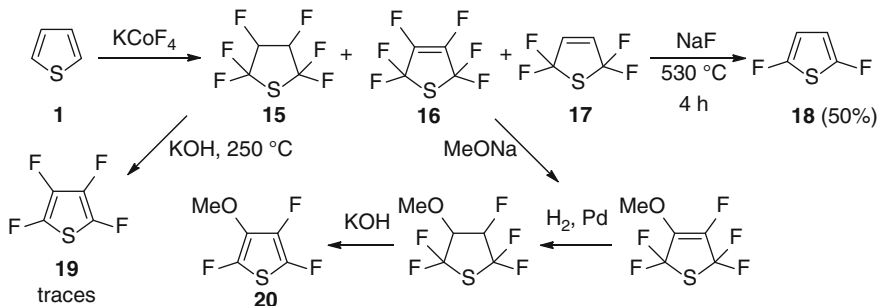
1-(Chloromethyl)-4-fluoro-1,4-diazobicyclo[2.2.2]octane tetrafluoroborate (SelectfluorTM) can also serve as selective fluorinating reagent. Thus 3-acetamidothiophene **9** was fluorinated in the 2-position exclusively on treatment with SelectfluorTM, but the yield of **11** was 5 % [13]. Fluorination of the isomeric 2-acetamidothiophene **10** gave the 3-fluorinated product **12** in low yield.



However, the 60 % conversion was achieved using Selectfluor for the overnight performed fluorination reaction of methyl thiophene-2-carboxylate derivative **13** [14].

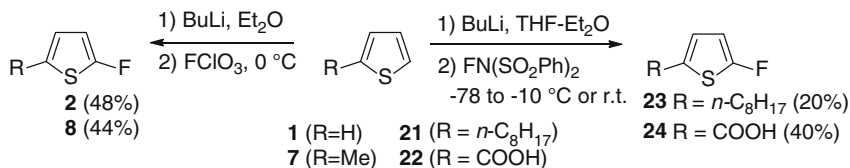


Thiophene **1** was fluorinated with potassium tetrafluorocobaltate(III) (KCoF_4) to give a mixture of hexafluorotetrahydrothiophene **15** and 2,2,5,5-tetrafluoro-2,5-dihydrothiophene **17** as major products. When hexafluorotetrahydrothiophene **15** was bubbled through molten potassium hydroxide, tetrafluorothiophene **19** was formed in low yield. When sodium methoxide was used, substitution of fluoride took place [15]. 2,5-Difluorothiophene **18** was obtained in 50 % yield by heating of 2,2,5,5-tetrafluoro-2,5-dihydrothiophene **17** with sodium fluoride at 530 °C. These conditions were found to be optimal, since the reaction did not occur at moderate temperatures (<480 °C). However, at 530 °C side reactions also took place, thus accounting for the only moderate yield of 2,5-difluorothiophene **18** [16].

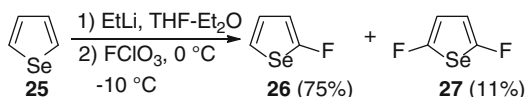


A more convenient approach to the synthesis of fluorothiophenes was based on the reaction of their organolithiums (easily prepared by metallation or halogen-metal exchange) with electrophilic fluorinating reagents such as perchloryl fluoride [17] or *N*-fluorodibenzenesulfonimide [18]. The yields of target fluorinated thiophenes **2**, **8** and **23**, **25** were moderate. This approach was proposed by Gronowitz and Rosén [19] for the preparation of various substituted 2-fluorothiophenes and 3-fluorothiophenes. Complications can arise in the case of halogen-metal exchange: rearrangement can occur if the thienyllithium is thermodynamically unstable. The

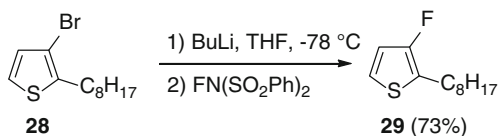
metallation of 2- and 3-fluorothiophenes followed by reaction with electrophiles was found to provide substituted 2-fluorothiophenes and 3-fluorothiophenes, since fluorine does not interfere in the metallation or in the halogen-metal exchange.



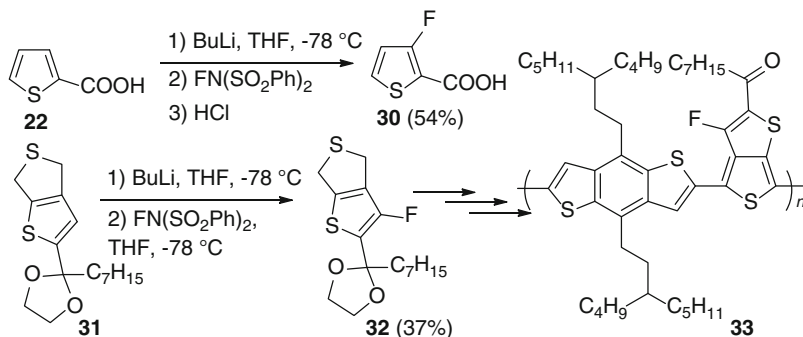
Fluorination of 2-selenophenyllithium **25** with perchloryl fluoride gave a mixture of 2-selenophene **26** and 2,5-difluoroselenophene **27** [20].



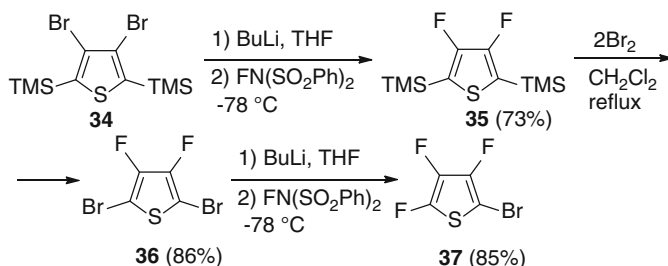
3-Fluorothiophene derivatives were easily obtained starting from the corresponding 3-bromothiophenes (Br-Li exchange). For example, the reactions of 3-thienyllithium obtained from **28** with N-fluorodibenzenesulfonimide as electrophilic fluorinating reagent led to the 3-fluorosubstituted thiophene **29** [18, 21].



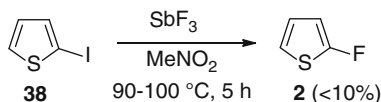
In some cases, the direct metallation was also applied for the synthesis of 3-fluorothiophenes. Thus, 3-fluorothiophene-2-carboxylic acid **30** was prepared in two steps from the corresponding thiophene-2-carboxylic acid **22** by treatment with *n*-butyllithium followed by reaction with N-fluorodibenzenesulfonimide [22]. This approach was applied to the synthesis of monomer **32** for thieno[3,4-*b*]thiophene polymers **33** used in organic solar cells [23].



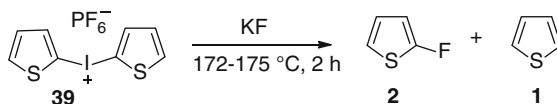
Another convenient approach is based on the use of *N*-fluorodibzenesulfonimide. 2,3-Difluoro-, 2,4-difluoro- [18], 3,4-difluoro-, and 2,3,4-trifluorothiophenes can be prepared by this method. Thus, lithiation of 2,5-di(trimethylsilyl)-3,4-dibromothiophene **34** with *n*-BuLi followed by treatment with *N*-fluorodibzenesulfonimide provides 3,4-difluoro-2,5-bis(trimethylsilyl)-thiophene **35**. The latter was transformed into 2,5-dibromo-3,4-difluorothiophene **36**. 1-Bromo-2,3,4-trifluorothiophene **37** was prepared similarly [24].



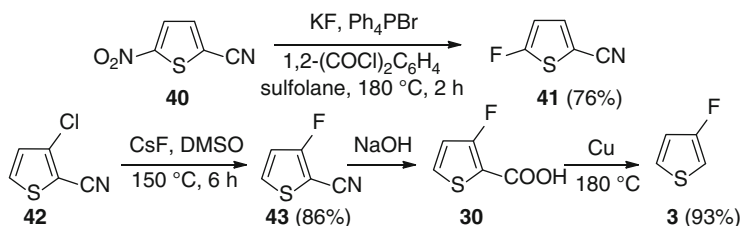
The first reported method for the preparation of 2-fluorothiophene **2** was the reaction of 2-iodothiophene **38** with SbF₃ in nitromethane. However, the method was inconvenient since it gave the target 2-fluorothiophene **2** in less than 10 % yield [25].



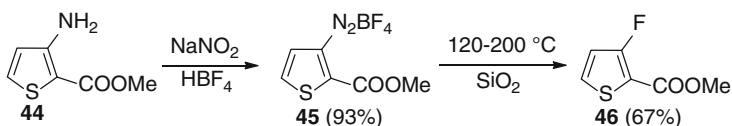
A more useful approach to fluorothiophenes was based on transformations of iodonium salts. 2-Thienyliodonium salts, for example dithiophen-2-ylidonium hexafluorophosphate **39**, afford 2-fluorothiophene **2** (37 %) and thiophene **1** (20 %) after treatment with potassium fluoride and heating at 172–175 °C [26].



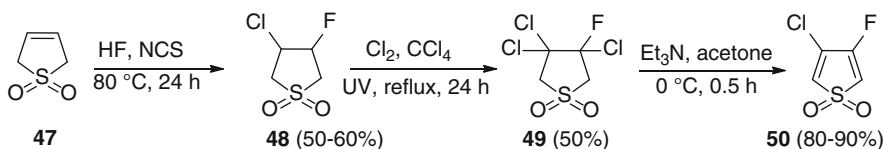
It is known that nitro group is a good leaving group for aromatic nucleophilic substitution and can be substituted by fluoride. For example, 5-nitrothiophene-2-carbonitrile **40** reacted with potassium fluoride in the presence of tetraphenylphosphonium bromide and phthaloyl dichloride in sulfolane at 180 °C providing 5-fluoro-2-cyanothiophene-2-carbonitrile **41** in 76 % yield [14, 27]. The reaction of 2-cyano-3-chlorothiophene **42** with CsF in dimethylsulfoxide gave 2-cyano-3-fluorothiophene **43** in 86 % yield. Subsequent hydrolysis by sodium hydroxide and decarboxylation gave 3-fluorothiophene **3** in 93 % yield [28].



One more method for the synthesis of 3-fluorothiophene is based on the thermal decomposition of a diazonium tetrafluoroborate (Schiemann reaction), which has been successfully used in the synthesis of a variety of fluorobenzenes. The reaction was carried out by heating of thiophene diazonium salt **45** in dry xylene (48 %) [29] or in a mixture with silica gel under vacuum (67 %) [13, 30].

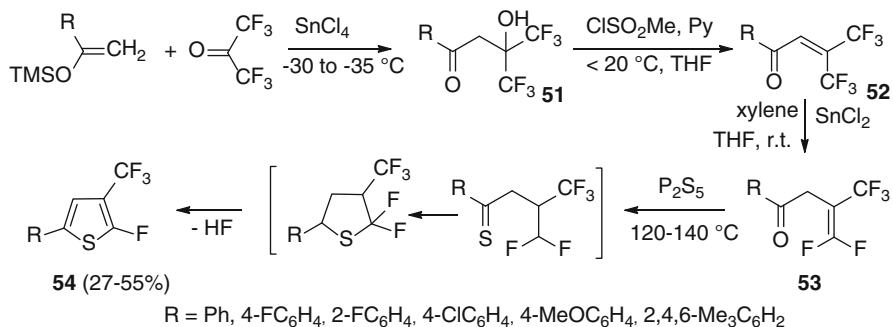


The straightforward synthetic route to 3-chloro-4-fluorothiophene-1,1-dioxide **50** involved chlorofluorination of 3-sulfolene **47**, photochemical chlorination, and dehydrochlorination of 3,3,4-trichloro-4-fluorosulfolene **49** [31].

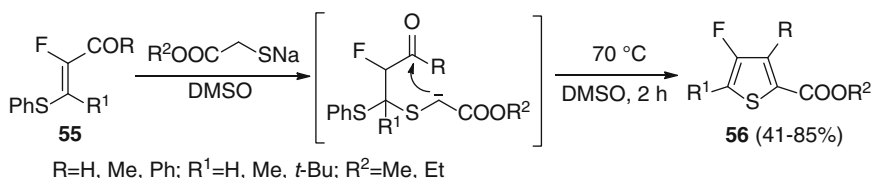


2.2 Heterocyclization

The transformation of 4,4-difluoro-3-trifluoromethylbut-3-ene-1-ones **53**, easily prepared from hexafluoroacetone (HFA), into 2-fluoro-3-trifluoromethylthiophenes **54** proceeded on heating with phosphorus pentasulfide [32]. Yields of 2-fluoro-3-trifluoromethylthiophenes **54** depend on the reaction conditions and the progress of the transformation should be monitored by ^{19}F NMR spectroscopy. The starting compounds were formed by elimination of water from hexafluoroacetone aldols **51** obtained by reaction of HFA with enol silyl ethers in the presence of Lewis acid such as SnCl_4 . The unsaturated ketones **52** were reduced with SnCl_2 and **53** were cyclized to the desired thiophenes **54** with phosphorus pentasulfide [33].

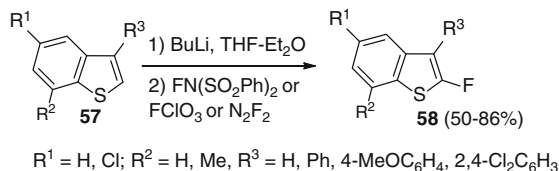


The reaction of (*Z*)- α -fluoro- β -(phenylthio)butanones **55** with methyl or ethyl thioglycolate in dimethylsulfoxide led to substituted 3-fluorothiophenes **56** in moderate to high yields. The authors proposed nonclassical nucleophilic vinylic substitution mechanism, occurring through an enolate intermediate. The first step of the sequence is the Michael addition that gives enolate; subsequent cyclization and aromatization leads to the target 3-fluorothiophenes **56** [34].



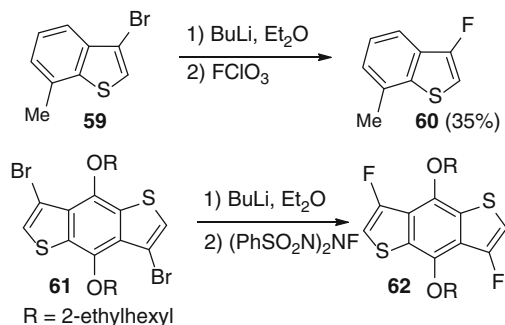
3 Synthesis of Fluorobenzothiophenes

Methods for the synthesis of fluorobenzothiophenes are rare. A lithiation-fluorination sequence by treatment of benzothiophenes **57** with *n*-BuLi followed by fluorination with perchloryl fluoride [35], N_2F_2 [36], or *N*-fluorodibzenzenesulfonimide afforded 2-fluorobenzo[*b*]thiophenes **58** in good yields [37].

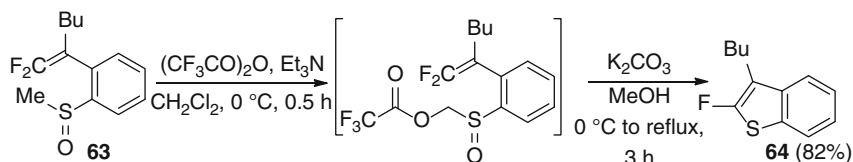


3-Fluorobenzo[*b*]thiophenes **60** and **62** were synthesized from the lithiated precursors by treatment with perchloryl fluoride [35] or *N*-fluorodibzenzenesulfonimide

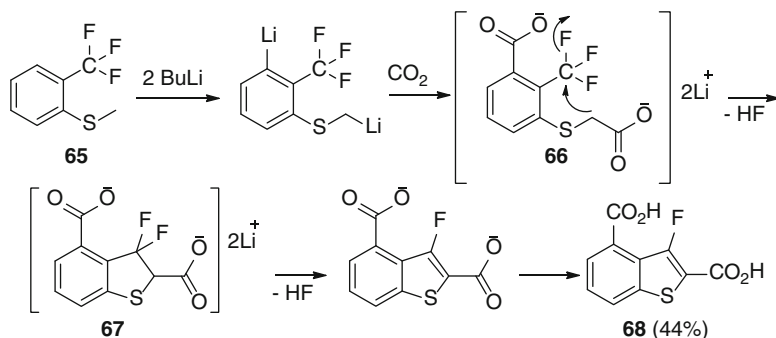
in good yields [38]. The lithium derivatives were obtained from 3-bromobenzo[*b*]thiophene derivatives **59** and **61** and *n*-butyllithium.



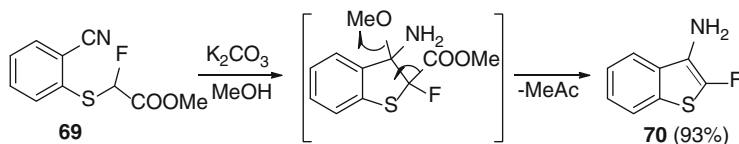
Fluorobenzo[*b*]thiophenes synthesis was also accomplished through a 5-*endo-trig* cyclization. Successive reaction of β,β -difluoro-*o*-methylsulfinylstyrene **63** first with trifluoroacetic anhydride and triethylamine in dichloromethane and then with potassium carbonate provided 2-fluorobenzo[*b*]thiophene **64** in 82 % yield [39].



3-Fluorobenzo[*b*]thiophene derivative **68** was prepared in 44 % yield starting from 4-(methylthio)-1-(trifluoromethyl)benzene **65** by double metallation with *n*-BuLi and subsequent reaction with CO₂. The primary intramolecular cyclization of **66** was anchimerically assisted by the carboxylate anion in *ortho* position and gave rise to a nucleophilic substitution of the fluorine atom by the SCH⁻ anion. The resulting intermediate **67** aromatized after acidification into 3-fluorobenzo[*b*]thiophene **68** [40].



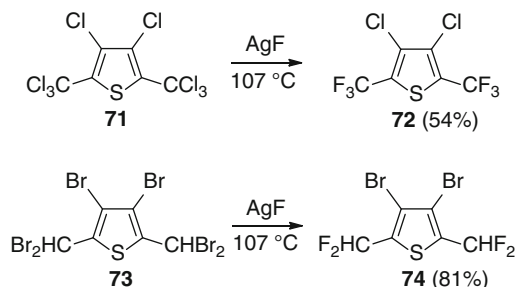
Fluorinated benzo[*b*]thiophene derivative **70** was synthesized in 93 % yield by the intramolecular cyclization of anodically fluorinated open-chain sulfide **69** containing the 2-cyanophenyl group [41].



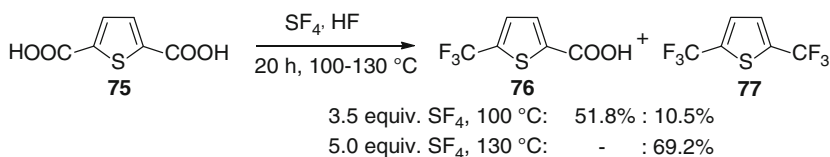
4 Synthesis of Perfluoroalkylthiophenes

4.1 Functionalization of the Thiophene Ring

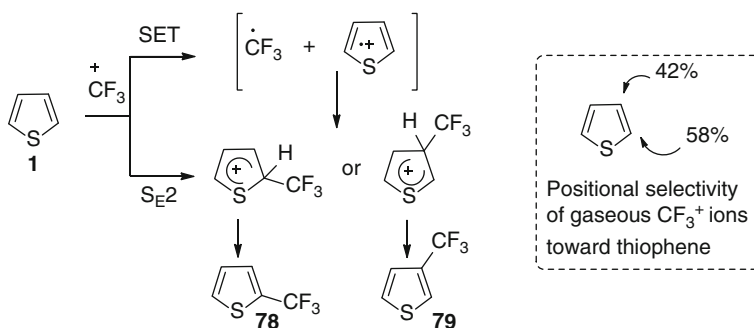
A perfluoroalkyl group can be incorporated onto the thiophene ring directly, or a haloalkyl substituent can be transformed into a perfluoroalkyl moiety. For example, treatment of 2,5-bis(trichloromethyl)-3,4-dichlorothiophene **71** with AgF resulted in exchange of chlorine by fluorine in the CCl₃-groups. It should be noted that no exchange took place for the chlorine atoms attached directly to the thiophene ring. In a similar way, brominated 2,5-dimethylthiophene **73** gave a 2,5-bis(difluoromethyl) thiophene derivative **74** under the same conditions [42].



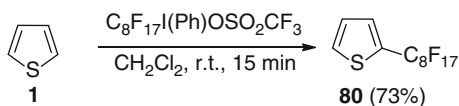
A very useful method for the introduction of a CF₃ group onto the thiophene ring is the transformation of a carboxylic group with SF₄. Depending on the conditions, thiophene-2,5-dicarboxylic acid **75** reacted with SF₄ and HF to produce 5-(trifluoromethyl)thiophene-2-carboxylic acid **76** and 2,5-bis(trifluoromethyl)-thiophene **77**. At lower temperature, the compound **76** was the major product, while **77** was obtained at 130 °C with five equivalents of SF₄ [43].



The direct trifluoromethylation of thiophene can be performed under electrophilic and radical conditions. The electrophilic reaction proceeded in the gas phase using trifluoromethyl cations obtained from CF_4 under radiolysis (^{60}Co γ -rays) [44]. The selectivity trend for thiophene in the gas phase follows the order $\text{C}2 > \text{C}3 > \text{S}1$. The major products of this transformation were found to be monosubstituted trifluoromethylthiophenes **78** and **79** (<20 % yield) [45]. It has been proposed that the trifluoromethylation proceeds through electrophilic substitution and single-electron transfer mechanisms.

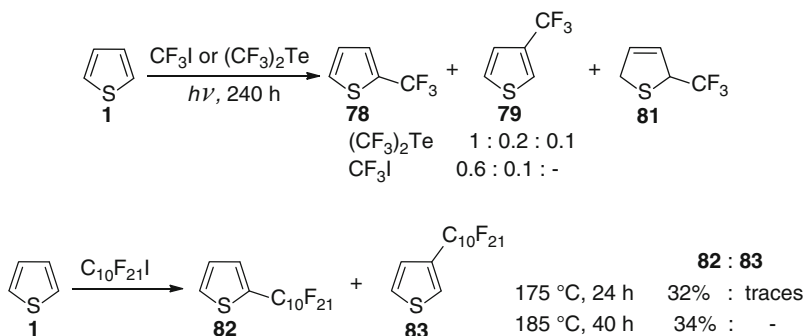


Electrophilic perfluoroalkylation has been performed with the use of iodonium salts $\text{R}_f\text{I}(\text{Ar})\text{X}$, where the perfluoroalkyl group is bonded with a positively charged heteroatom. The trifluoromethylation of thiophene **1** with $\text{C}_8\text{F}_{17}\text{I}(\text{Ph})\text{OSO}_2\text{CF}_3$ in dichloromethane at room temperature proceeds in 73 % yield in the presence of 2,6-di-*tert*-butyl-4-methylpyridine as a base [46].

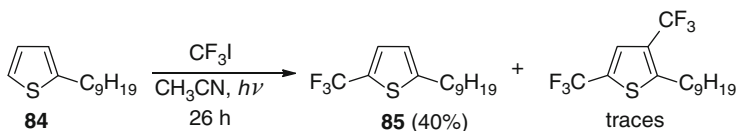


Radical perfluoroalkylation is more versatile because it can be performed under thermal, photolytic, oxidative, and reductive conditions. For example, the photochemical reaction of thiophene **1** with bis(trifluoromethyl)tellurium or trifluoromethyl iodide yields 2-trifluoromethylthiophene **78** as the major product. The most suitable reagent in this case was found to be bis(trifluoromethyl)tellurium. Similarly, perfluoroalkylation of thiophene with perfluorodecyl iodide under thermal

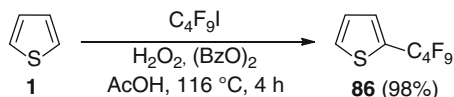
conditions (175 °C, 24 h, steel bomb) provided predominantly the 2-substituted isomer **82**. The latter was the sole product when the reaction was carried out at higher temperature [47].



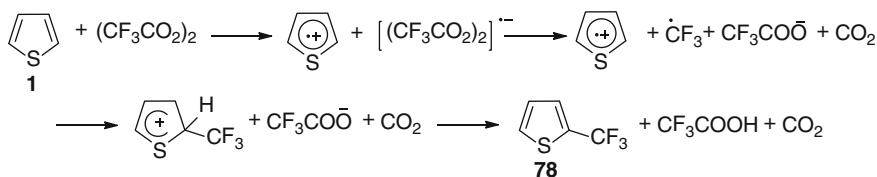
2-Nonylthiophene **84** was trifluoromethylated with trifluoromethyl iodide in acetonitrile under irradiation to produce 2-nonyl-5-trifluoromethylthiophene **85**. A trace amount of 3,5-bis(trifluoromethyl)-2-nonylthiophene was also formed in this reaction. However, the conversion was not complete and starting thiophene (25 %) was recovered [48].



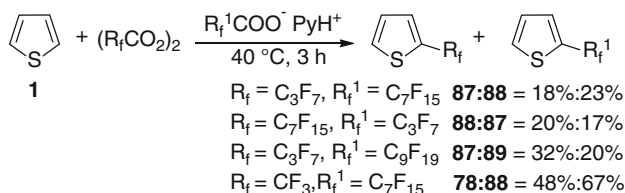
Nonfluoro-4-iodobutane can serve as a source of nonfluorobutyl radical under oxidative conditions. The reaction with thiophene **1** was carried out under reflux in AcOH in the presence of hydrogen peroxide and benzoyl peroxide. Other solvents appeared to be less effective, probably because hydrogen abstraction from the solvent by nonfluorobutyl radical competes with the attack of thiophene [49].



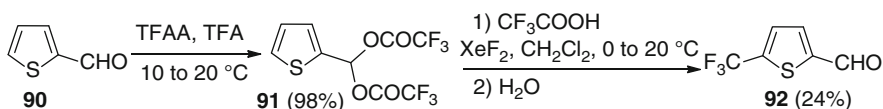
Perfluoroalkylation is often performed with bis(perfluoroalkanyl)peroxides, e.g. bis(trifluoroacetyl)peroxide and bis(heptafluorobutyl)peroxide, which are thermally stable, convenient to use, and can be obtained from the corresponding anhydrides and hydrogen peroxide in Freon 113 (CFCl₂CF₂Cl) as a solvent. Perfluoroalkoxyperoxides provide the same reactivity. The mechanism of the transformation includes oxidation of thiophene to radical cation, followed by reaction with perfluoro radical to produce 2-perfluoroalkylthiophenes [50].



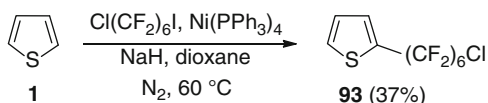
Interestingly, the perfluoroalkyl group can be incorporated onto the thiophene ring even if the corresponding peroxide cannot be synthesized. For example, when thiophene was treated with bis(perfluoroalkanyl)peroxide in the presence of pyridinium perfluoroalkanoate, not only the perfluoroalkyl group of the peroxide, but also the perfluoroalkyl group of perfluoroalkanoate was incorporated [51].



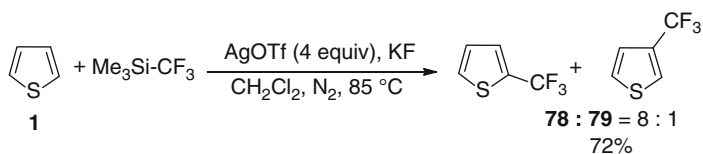
It is well known that xenon fluoride trifluoroacetate, obtained from XeF₂ and trifluoroacetic acid, is able to generate trifluoromethyl radicals which allow introduction of the trifluoromethyl group onto the aromatic ring at room temperature. The trifluoromethylation of thiophene-2-carbaldehyde bistrifluoro-acetate **91** gave 5-trifluoromethyl-thiophene-2-carbaldehyde **92** in 24 % yield [7].



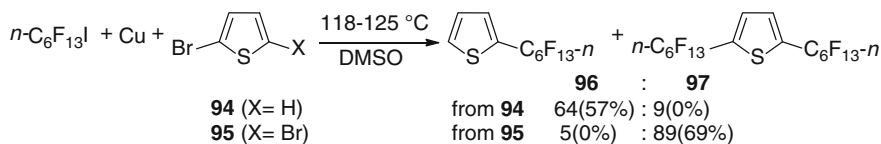
Fluoroalkylation reaction can also be performed using transition-metals catalysis. In the presence of a catalytic amount of tetrakis(triphenylphosphine)nickel, polyfluoroalkyl iodide reacted with thiophene to produce the 2-substituted isomer **93** as the sole product. To complete the reaction, addition of sodium hydride was required to absorb hydroiodic acid by-product [52].



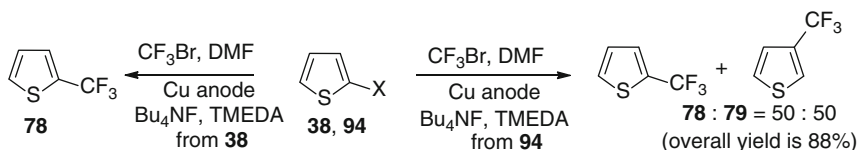
The silver-mediated trifluoromethylation of thiophene with TMSCF₃ gave 2- and 3-trifluoroderivatives **78** and **79** in 72 % total yield. The authors proposed that the reaction proceeds via AgCF₃ intermediates [53].



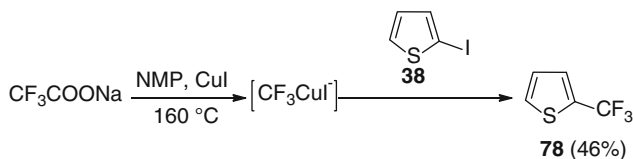
The copper-promoted substitution of halogen atoms on the thiophene ring provides another method for perfluoroalkylation. For example, 2-perfluorohexylthiophene **96** and 2,5-bis(perfluorohexyl)-thiophene **97** were obtained from the corresponding bromothiophenes **94** and **95** and perfluorohexyl iodide in dimethylsulfoxide (isolated yields are given in parentheses) through reaction with the organocopper intermediate, perfluorohexyl copper(I) [54]. More detailed information about fluorinated organometallics and their use in organic synthesis was presented in a review [55], and some examples of copper-promoted perfluoroalkylation of halothiophenes are also described in papers [2b, 8, 56].



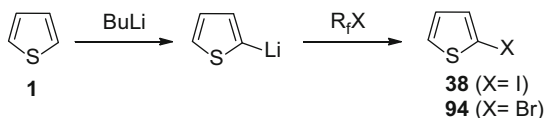
Another method of trifluoromethylation was based on the electrochemical reaction (copper anode) of 2-bromothiophene **94** with bromotrifluoromethane in DMF. In comparison to usual methods leading to trifluoromethylcopper, this one offered an advantage because it allowed the use of CF_3Br instead of the more expensive CF_3I . However, the reaction was not selective and gave a mixture of 2- and 3-isomers **78** and **79**. The use of 2-iodothiophene **38** as a starting material was found to be more effective: 2-trifluoromethylthiophene **78** was obtained in 60% yield [57].



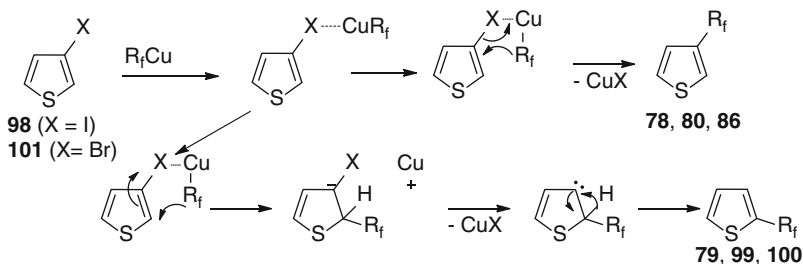
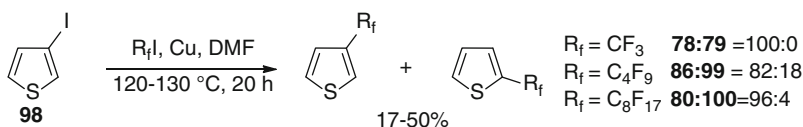
Sodium trifluoroacetate, in the presence of copper(I) iodide, was also used as trifluoromethyl source to replace halogen by trifluoromethyl group in the thiophene system. Sodium trifluoroacetate was decarboxylated, forming fluoroform, when heated alone in aqueous N-methylpyrrolidin-2-one. The addition of copper(I) iodide increased the rate of decarboxylation dramatically. The mechanism of this process was explored and an intermediate $[\text{CF}_3\text{CuI}]^-$ was proposed. Introduction of higher perfluoroalkyl groups from their corresponding sodium perfluoroalkane carboxylates was also shown to be possible [58].



The reaction of 2-thienyllithium with perfluoroalkyliodides and bromides gave 2-halothiophenes **38**, **94** rather than corresponding perfluoroalkylated thiophene [59].

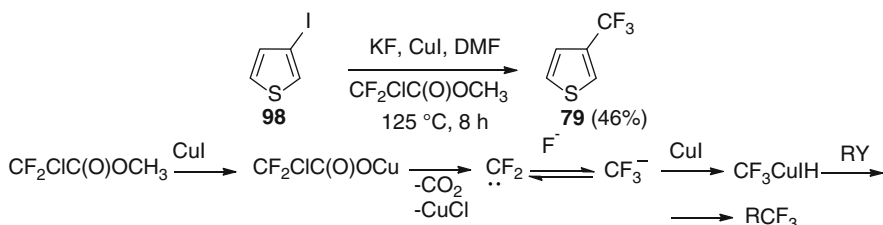


The copper-catalyzed substitution of a halogen atom was used for the preparation of 3-perfluoroalkylthiophenes. Usually, the reaction involves the heating of 3-iodothiophene **98** with perfluoroalkyliodide in *N,N*-dimethylformamide or dimethylsulfoxide [54]. In some cases, however, it was not possible to obtain useful quantities of the three-substituted products. When the perfluoroalkyl group was not trifluoromethyl, two isomers were formed due to the addition of the perfluoroalkyl anion to the C(2)–C(3) double bond. The ratio of isomers was also influenced by the nature of halogen: iodine, which is better leaving group than bromine, gave a lower percentage of rearrangement [60].

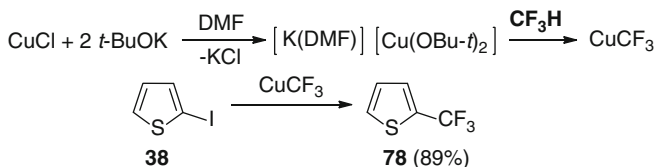


An improved method of 3-trifluoromethylthiophene **79** synthesis was the reaction of methyl-2-chloro-2,2-difluoroacetate with 3-iodothiophene **98** in the presence of copper(I) iodide and potassium fluoride in *N,N*-dimethylformamide. The reaction was carried out at 125 °C and gave 3-trifluoromethylthiophene **79** in 46 % as the sole product [61]. The proposed mechanism includes the formation of the copper(I)

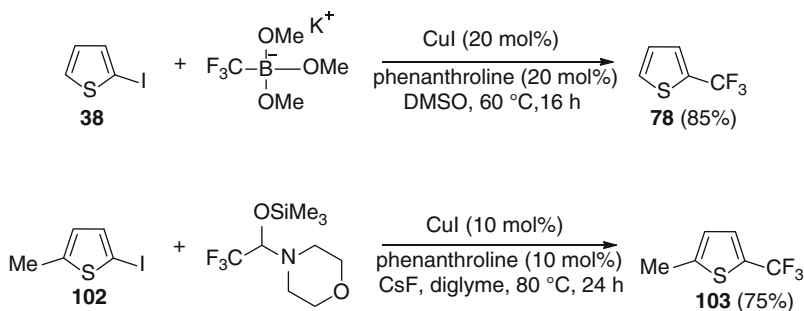
iodide salt or a complex, followed by its decarboxylation to yield difluorocarbene; the latter then reacts with fluoride to establish an equilibrium with trifluoromethyl anion. In the presence of copper(I) iodide, the equilibrium was readily shifted to give trifluoromethyl copper species CF_3CuI^- , which reacted with halides to afford the final products [62].



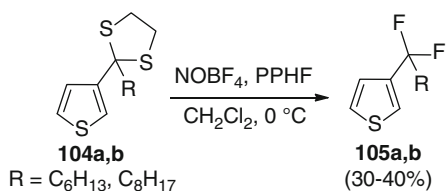
The reaction of direct cupration of fluoroform provides a source for the introduction of the trifluoromethyl group into organic molecules, including thiophene [63].



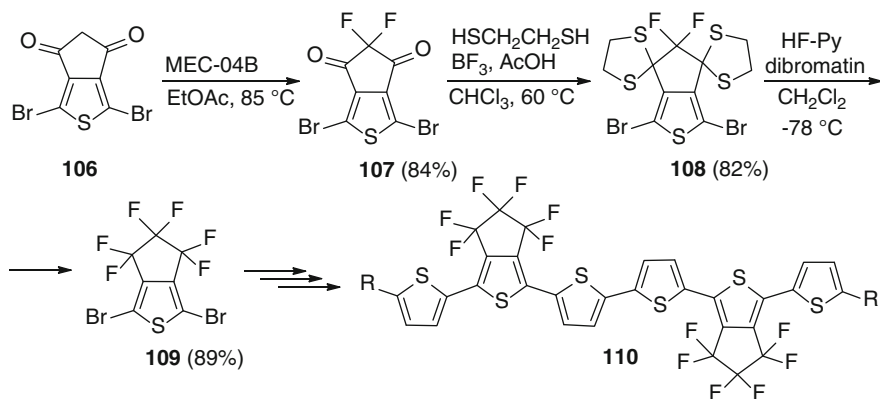
Recently, it was demonstrated that a small amount of copper(I) iodide-phenanthroline complex efficiently catalyzes aromatic trifluoromethylation of 2-iodothiophenes **38** and **102** leading to 2-trifluoromethylated products **78** and **103** in 75–85 % yields [64].



Dithioacetals **104** have been transformed into difluoromethyl derivatives **105**: a one-pot desulfurative fluorination of dithiolane led to the synthesis of difluoroalkylthiophene. Treatment of the dithioacetals **104a, b** with pyridinium polyhydrogen fluoride (PPHF) and nitrosyl tetrafluoroborate at 0°C led to 3-(1,1-difluoroheptyl) thiophene **105a** (40 %) or 3-(1,1-difluorononyl)thiophene **105b** (30 %) [65].

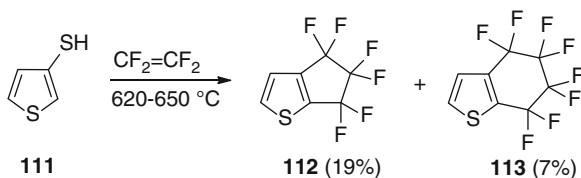


Fluorination of a carboxylic group with sulfur tetrafluoride was applied to the incorporation of the trifluoromethyl and difluoromethyl group onto the thiophene ring [43, 66]. As it was mentioned, 2,5-bis(trifluoromethyl)thiophene **77** was obtained by the reaction of thiophene-2,5-dicarboxylic **75** acid with five equivalents of sulfur tetrafluoride at 130 °C. This approach can also be used for the synthesis of oligothiophenes annelated with hexafluorocyclopentene **110**. The latter have good electron-donating properties and inherently low electron affinities, and have widespread applications as hole-transporting materials to various electronics such as organic light-emitting diodes (OLEDs), organic field-effect transistors (OFETs), and organic solar cells. The synthesis of such thiophenes includes three steps.



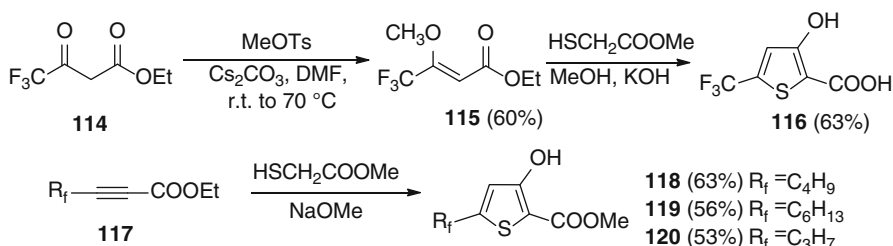
The first is fluorination of cyclopenta[*c*]thiophene-4,6-dione **106** by treatment with *N*-fluoro-6-(trifluoromethyl)pyridinium-2-sulfonate (MEC-04B) in ethyl acetate to give 1,3-dibromo-5,5-difluorocyclopenta[*c*]thiophene-4,6-dione **107** in 84 % yield. Then, conversion of the two carbonyl groups to difluoromethylene groups was accomplished via formation of the bis-1,3-dithiolane derivative **108** followed by desulfurative fluorination with hydrofluoric acid-pyridine complex and dibromatin (1,3-dibromo-5,5-dimethylhydantoin) in dichloromethane to afford 1,3-dibromoheptafluorocyclopenta[*c*]thiophene **109** in a two-step yield of 73 % [1d, 67].

2-Substituted thiophenes were found to react with tetrafluoroethylene (TFE) at high temperatures to produce 4,4,5,5,6,6-hexafluorocyclopenta[*b*]thiophene **112**. In such a reaction, 3-thiophenethiol **111** gave rise to the major product **112**, along with 4,4,5,5,6,6,7,7-octafluorocyclohexa[*b*]thiophene **113**. Yields of the products were low [68].

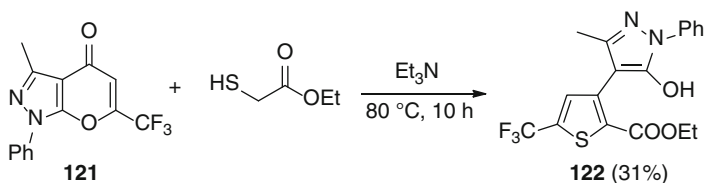


4.2 Heterocyclization and Cycloaddition

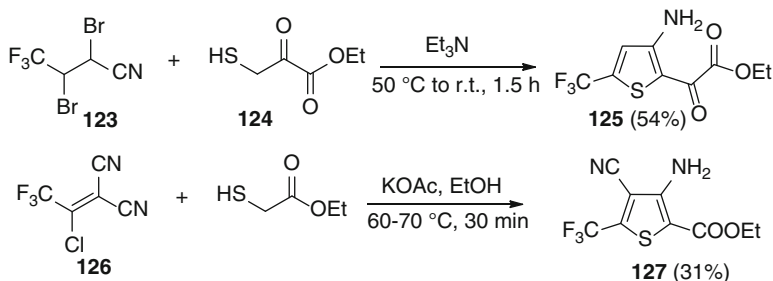
The most versatile method for synthesis of 2-trifluoromethylthiophenes is based on heterocyclizations with the participation of methyl thioglycolate (HSCH₂COOMe). For example, 2-trifluoromethylthiophene **116** was formed as a result of condensation of trifluoromethyl-substituted α,β -unsaturated ester **115** and methyl thioglycolate in the presence of a base. 2-Trifluoromethyl- and (perfluoroalkyl)thiophenes were prepared by reaction with α -fluoroalkylacetates in good yields [69]. A similar transformation took place when fluoroalkylpropynoates **117** were treated with methyl thioglycolate under basic conditions [70].



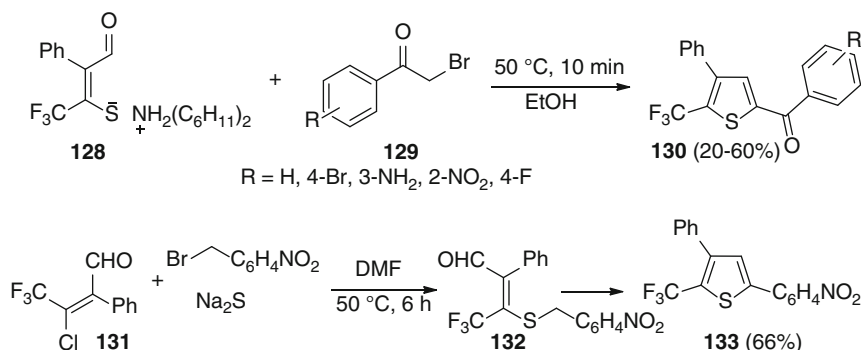
6-Trifluoromethylpyranopyrazole **121** reacted at C(6) atom with excess of methyl mercaptoacetate in the presence of triethylamine to form a derivative **122** of trifluoromethyl thiophene bonded with a pyrazole fragment. The reaction took place via pyran ring opening and intramolecular aldol-type condensation [71].



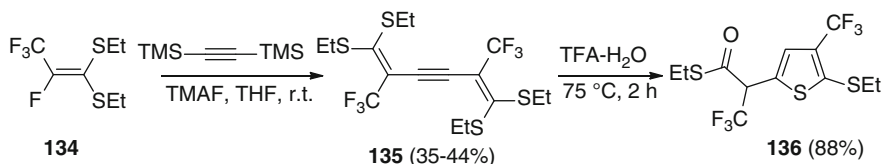
Ethyl mercaptopyruvate **124** was also transformed into 2-trifluoromethylthiophene **125** in 54 % yield by reaction with 2,3-dibromo-4,4,4-trifluorobutanenitrile **123** in the presence of triethylamine at 50 °C [72]. The condensation of a trifluoromethylethylene **126** derivative with ethyl thioglycolate in ethanol proceeded analogously [73].



Additionally, sulfur and perfluoroalkyl functionalities can both be present in the same starting molecule. For example, nucleophilic attack of trifluoromethylated thiolate **128** on phenacyl bromides **129** followed by spontaneous aldol cyclization gave 5-substituted 2-trifluoromethylthiophene **130** in yields of 20–60 % [74]. 4,4,4-Trifluoro-3-(4-nitrobenzylthio)-2-phenylbut-2-enal **132** obtained from trifluoro-substituted β -chlorovinylaldehyde **131** afforded the trifluoromethylthiophene product **133** in 66 % yield on heating in *N,N*-dimethylformamide [75].

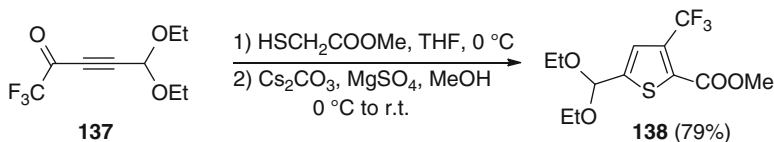


Some heterocyclizations have been used for the preparation of 3-perfluoroalkylthiophenes. As an illustration, treatment of 1,1,6,6-tetrakis(ethylsulfanyl)-2,5-bis(trifluoromethyl)-hexa-1,5-dien-3-yne **135** with a mixture of trifluoroacetic acid and water for 2 h at 75 °C led to the thiophene derivative **136** in high yield. The starting compound **135** was obtained by reaction of perfluoroketene dithioacetal **134** with bis(trimethylsilyl)acetylene [76].

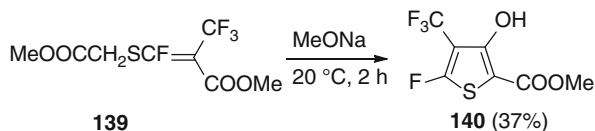


2,3,5-Trisubstituted thiophene **138** was synthesized in good yields using a tandem Michael addition and intramolecular Knoevenagel condensation strategy starting

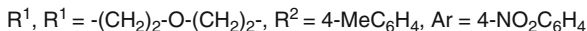
from readily available acetylenic ketone **137** in the presence of cesium carbonate and magnesium sulfate as a base to initiate the reaction [77].



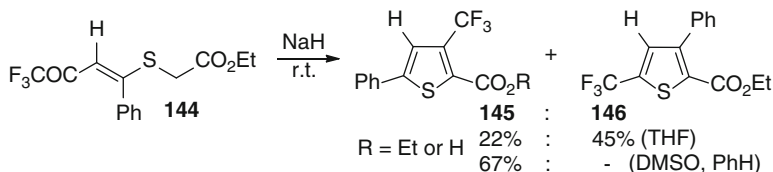
1,3,3,3-Tetrafluoro-2-(methoxycarbonyl)propenyl methoxycarbonylmethyl sulfide **139**, with its activated α -methylene group, underwent intramolecular cyclocondensation in the presence of sodium methoxide as a catalyst to form 3-trifluoromethylthiophene **140** in 37 % yield. The fluorine atom at the 2-position was substituted by a methoxy group when an excess of sodium methoxide was used [78].



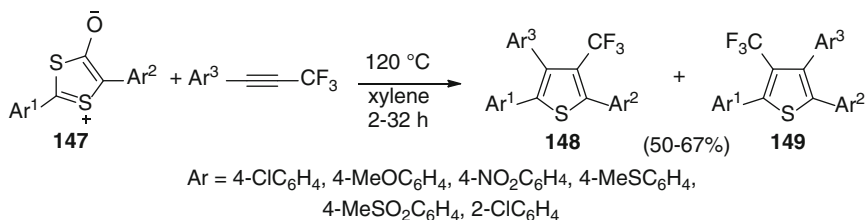
The reaction of mercaptomethyleniminium salts **141** with trifluoroacetic anhydride in the presence of triethylamine yielded substituted 2-aminothiophenes, including 3-trifluoromethyl heterocycle **143**. The starting mercaptomethyleniminium salts were prepared by S-alkylation of thioacetamides. When triethylamine was not used in the reaction, it was possible to isolate the intermediate ketene-S,N-aminals **142** and cyclize them under basic conditions [79].



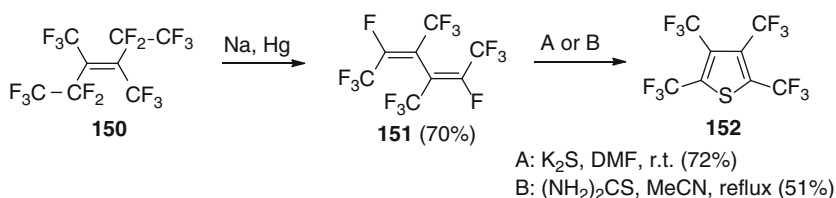
Ethyl-2-(4,4,4-trifluoro-3-oxo-1-phenylbut-1-enylthio)acetate **144** gave 3-trifluoromethylthiophene derivative **145** in moderate yield upon treatment with sodium hydride in benzene in the presence dimethylsulfoxide. The same reaction in tetrahydrofuran yielded a mixture of 2- and 3-trifluoromethylthiophene **146** and **145** with a predominance of the 2-isomer **146** [80].



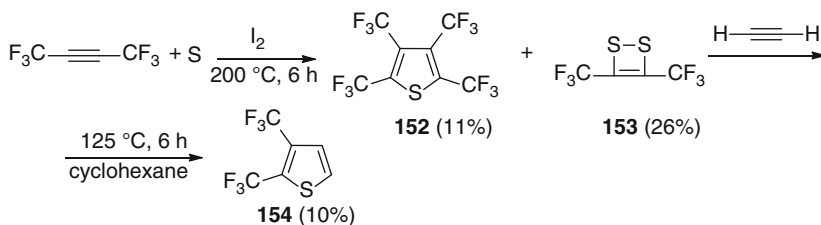
Triaryl- β -trifluoromethylthiophenes **148**, **149** were synthesized from 1,3-dithiolium-4-olates **147** and various 1-aryl-3,3,3-trifluoro-1-propynes. The 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition was carried out by heating in xylene at 120 °C. Interestingly, when the substituents Ar¹ and Ar² in the mesoionic 1,3-dithiolium-4-olates were swapped, the isomer ratio was completely reversed. The observed regioselectivity was explained by HOMO-LUMO interactions of the reacting species [81].



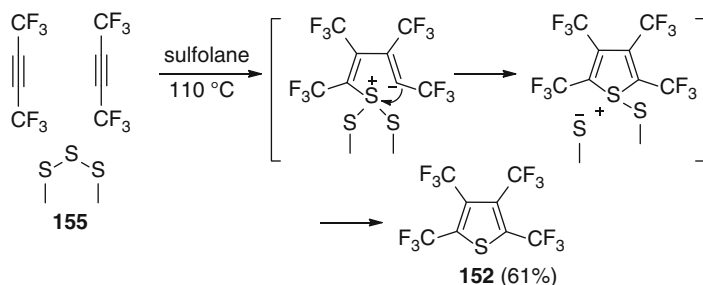
1,2,3,4-Tetrakis(trifluoromethyl)buta-1,3-diene **151** was employed for the preparation of 2,3,4,5-tetrakis(trifluoromethyl)thiophene **152**. The transformation can be performed by treatment of the diene with potassium sulfide in *N,N*-dimethylformamide at room temperature [82] or by heating at reflux with thiourea in acetonitrile [83]. The starting diene **151** was obtained from perfluoro-3,4-bis(trifluoromethyl)hex-3-ene **150**.



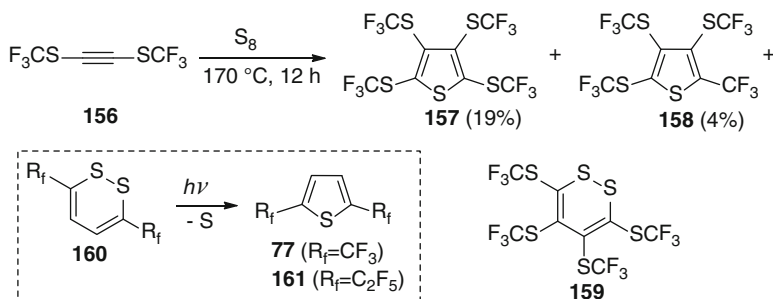
2,3,4,5-Tetrakis(trifluoromethyl)thiophene **152** was also obtained by addition of sulfur to hexafluoro-2-butyne at 110–200 °C [84]. The process is supposed to involve reaction of an intermediate dithietene **153** with starting hexafluoro-2-butyne at high temperature. This mechanism was supported by the preparation of 2,3-bis(trifluoromethyl)thiophene **154** and tetrakis(trifluoromethyl)thiophene **152** from dithietene **153** and the corresponding alkynes [85].



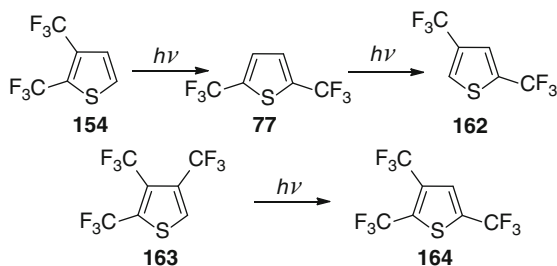
The reaction with dimethyltrisulfide **155** as sulfur source occurred at 110 °C in sulfolane giving tetrakis(trifluoromethyl)thiophene **152**. No other sulfur heterocycles were detected and the authors presumed that a different process was taking place under these conditions. They concluded that a nucleophilic cyclisation process operates with the *cis*-addition occurring because sulfur is both a bulky and a neutral nucleophile [84].



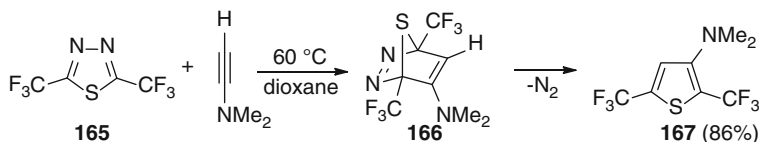
Photolysis or heating of bistrifluoromethylthioacetylene **156** with sulfur afforded 2,3,4,5-tetrakis(trifluoromethylthio)thiophene **157** in low yield. The transformation was determined to proceed via an intermediate 1,2-dithiin derivative **159**; this was supported by the reaction of 3,6-bis(perfluoroalkyl)-1,2-dithiins **160** that produced 2,5-bis(perfluoroalkyl)thiophenes **77**, **161** under irradiation [86].



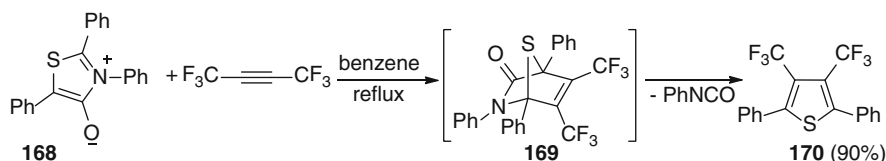
The photolysis of bis(trifluoromethyl)thiophenes **154** and **77** and tristrifluoromethylated thiophene provides a simple way to produce isomeric structures, but usually these procedures are not synthetically useful for the preparation of thiophene derivatives [87].



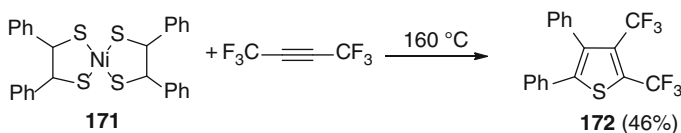
A convenient synthesis of 2,5-bis(trifluoromethyl)thiophene **167** involved the [4+2]-cycloaddition reaction of acetylenes to 2,5-bis(trifluoromethyl)-1,3,4-thiadiazole **165** and subsequent elimination of nitrogen. The reaction proceeded under sufficiently mild conditions and led to 2,5-bis(trifluoromethyl)thiophene **167** in high yield [88].



Another type of cycloaddition used to produce, in this case, 3,4-bis(trifluoromethyl)thiophene **170** was the reaction of hexafluoro-2-butyne with mesoionic thiazolium system **168**. Phenyl isocyanate was eliminated from the initial adduct, giving the substituted thiophene in more than 90 % yield [89].

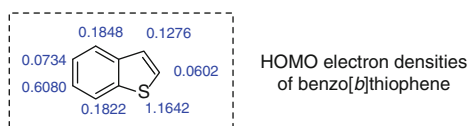


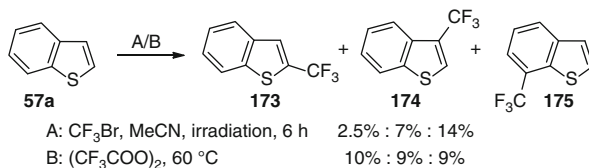
The reaction of bis(dithiobenzyl)nickel **171** with alkynes yielded thiophene derivative **172**. In view of the improved method of preparation of the complexes, this reaction has been applied to the synthesis of difficult-to-access substituted thiophene derivatives. Complexes are air-stable and easily available from benzoin and phosphorus pentasulfide [90].



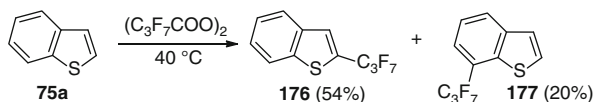
5 Synthesis of Perfluoroalkylbenzothiophenes

Direct trifluoromethylation of benzo[*b*]thiophene is not selective. For instance, photochemical reaction with bromotrifluoromethane yielded a mixture of 3-, 4- and 7-trifluoromethylbenzo[*b*]thiophenes (**173**, **174** and **175**), which correlates with the values of electron density in the molecule [91].

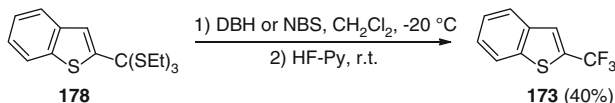




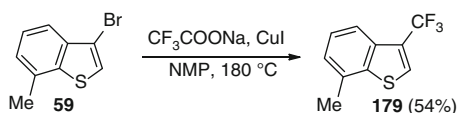
Oxidative trifluoromethylation with bis(trifluoroacetyl)peroxide provided a similar result, while the reaction with bis(heptafluorobutyryl)peroxide afforded 3-heptafluoropropylbenzo[*b*]thiophene **176** as a major product (54 %) with some 7-substituted isomer **177** [50].



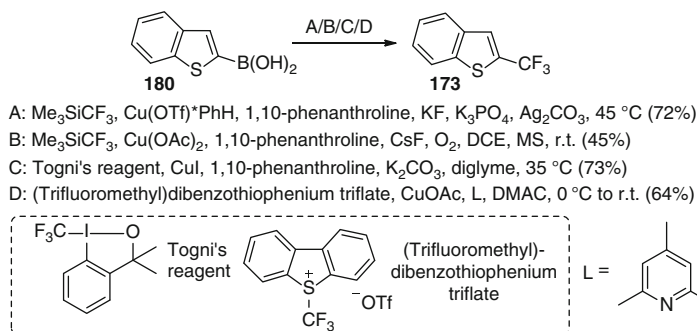
A more effective method for the preparation of 2-trifluoromethylbenzo[*b*]thiophene **173** involved the treatment of orthothioester **178** with 1,3-dibromo-5,5-dimethylhydantoin (DBH) or *N*-bromosuccinimide (NBS) followed by hydrofluoric acid-pyridine complex. The target compound was obtained by this method in 40 % yield [92].



Through direct trifluoromethylation, 7-methyl-3-trifluoromethyl-benzo[*b*]thiophene **179** was prepared in 54 % yield from 7-methyl-3-bromobenzo[*b*]thiophene **59**. The reaction took place with sodium trifluoroacetate and copper(I) iodide in *N*-methylpyrrolidone at 180 °C [35].

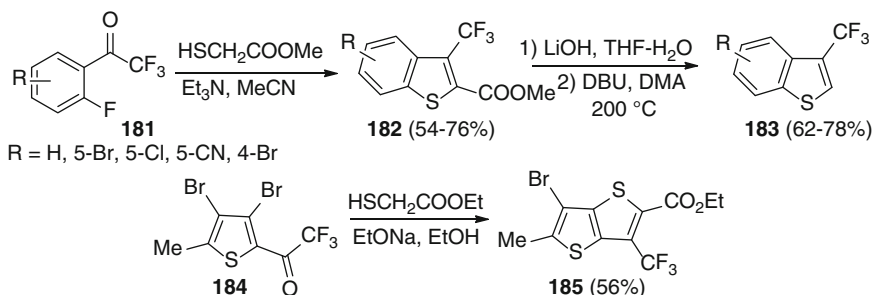


Recently, simple copper-catalyzed trifluoromethylation of aryl boronic acids under mild conditions was developed. Using (trifluoromethyl)trimethylsilane (Me_3SiCF_3) [93], trifluoromethyldibenzothiophenium triflate [94], or Togni's reagent [95], 2-trifluoromethylbenzo[*b*]thiophene **173** was prepared in 45–73 % yields.

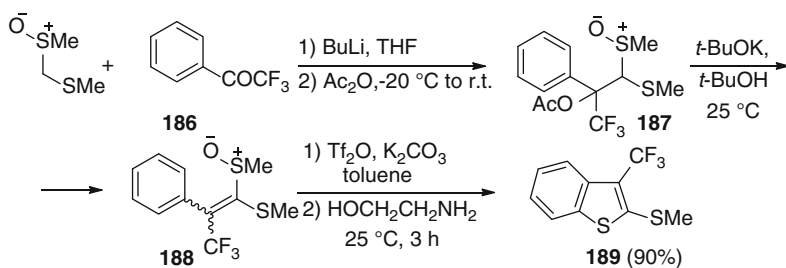


A straightforward method for the synthesis of 5- or 6-substituted 2-trifluoromethylbenzo[*b*]thiophenes involved the reaction of *ortho*-fluorinated trifluoroacetophenones **181** with methyl thioglycolate [96]. The starting trifluoroacetophenones **181** were prepared from fluorobenzenes and ethyl trifluoroacetate. The key transformation proceeded in the presence of triethylamine at room temperature in acetonitrile and produced methyl 3-trifluoromethylbenzo[*b*]thiophene-2-carboxylates **182** in good yields. The products **182** were easily transformed into their corresponding 3-trifluoromethylbenzo[*b*]thiophenes **183**.

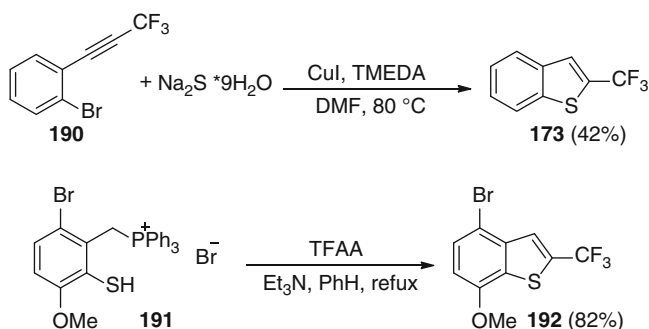
A similar approach was used for the preparation of the thienothiophene derivative **185**: the treatment of the trifluoroacetyl-substituted thiophene **184** with ethyl thioglycolate gave the condensed thiophene [97] bearing a trifluoromethyl group [98].



An alternative approach to benzo[*b*]thiophene derivatives includes treatment of an aryl-substituted ketene dithioacetal monoxide **188** with trifluoromethanesulfonic anhydride [99] (Tf_2O) in the presence of K_2CO_3 in toluene at 25°C , followed by addition of ethanolamine to the reaction mixture, provided benzo[*b*]thiophenes, including 3-trifluoromethylbenzo[*b*]thiophene **189**, in good yields. The cyclization proceeded through formation of reactive sulfonium electrophile [100]. The synthesis of the starting material **188** was also facile and scalable, starting from aryl ketone **186** and formaldehyde dimethyl dithioacetal S-oxide (FAMSO) [101].



In 2011 a copper-catalyzed thiolation annulation reaction of 2-bromo alkynylbenzenes **190** with sodium sulfide has been developed. This approach provided 2-substituted benzo[*b*]thiophenes in moderate to good yields [102]. Also, synthesis of the 2-trifluoromethyl benzothiophene **192** was carried out in high yield using the thiophenol equivalent of the phenolic phosphonium bromide salt **191** [103].

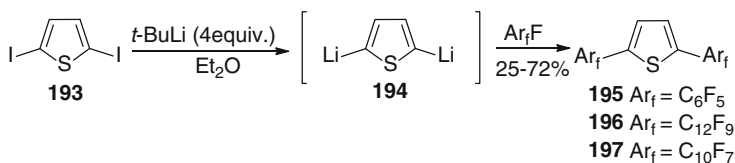


6 Synthesis of Perfluoroarylthiophenes

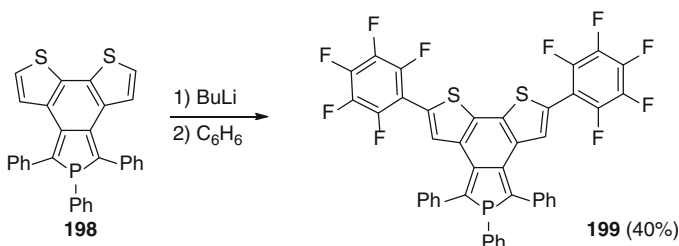
Usually, methods used for the synthesis of 2-perfluoroarylthiophenes synthesis are also applicable for the preparation of 3-perfluoroarylthiophenes. Although not numerous, they include reactions with organometallic reagents, cross-coupling reactions, and heterocyclization.

6.1 Organometallic Synthesis

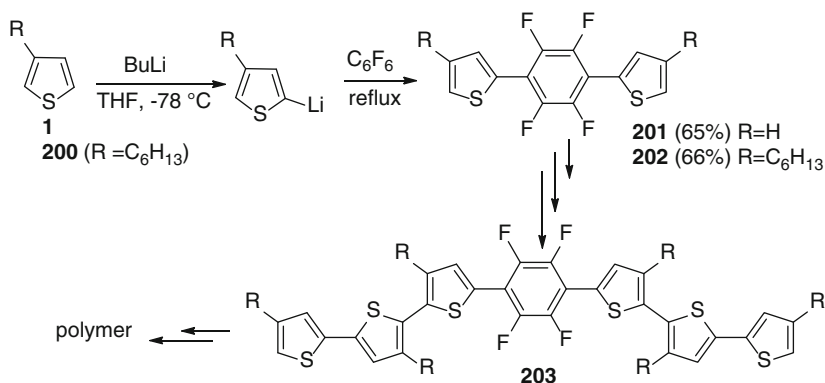
Perfluoroaryl thiophene derivatives **195**–**197** were obtained by nucleophilic aromatic substitution via thienyllithium intermediates **194**. The reaction is quite simple and is widely used for the preparation of various fluoroaromatics [59].



Lithiated bithiophene also gave rise to pentafluorophenyl derivative **199** in moderate yield. The S_NAr-type reaction proceeded with hexafluorobenzene in 8 h. The starting compound was obtained from the corresponding thiophene on treatment with *n*-butyllithium [104].

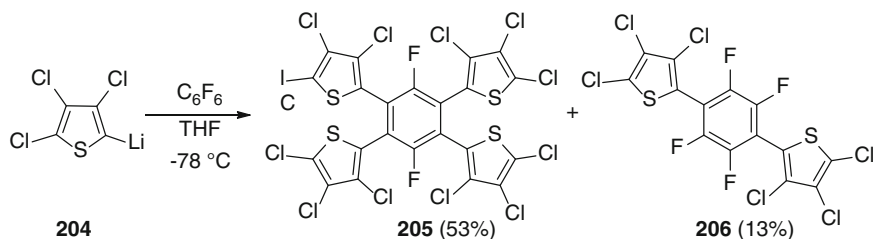


2-Thienyllithium and 4-hexyl-2-thienyllithium reacted with hexafluorobenzene to give the triaryl derivatives **201** (65 %) and **202** (66 %), respectively. The procedure is noteworthy since the lithiation of 3-hexylthiophene was regioselective and resulted in the isolation of a single isomer. The compounds **201**, **202** have been used as precursors for oligothiophene **203** synthesis and preparation of polymeric materials [105].

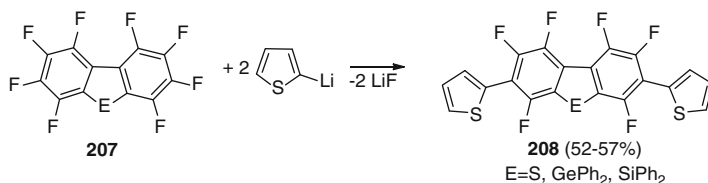


Similarly, lithiated chlorothiophenes reacted with hexafluorobenzene to produce fluoroaryl derivatives. Addition of hexafluorobenzene to trichloro-2-thienyllithium **204** in tetrahydrofuran at $-78\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ gave 1,2,4,5-tetrakis(trichloro-2-thienyl)difluorobenzene **205** and 1,4-bis(trichloro-2-thienyl)tetrafluorobenzene **206**. A

similar reaction in diethyl ether at -15 to -20 °C also gave both **205** (44 %) and **206** (20 %) products [106].

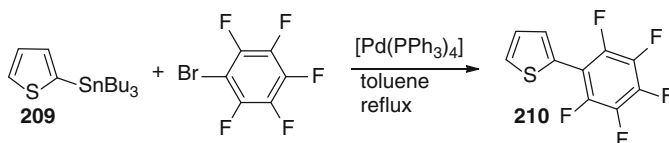


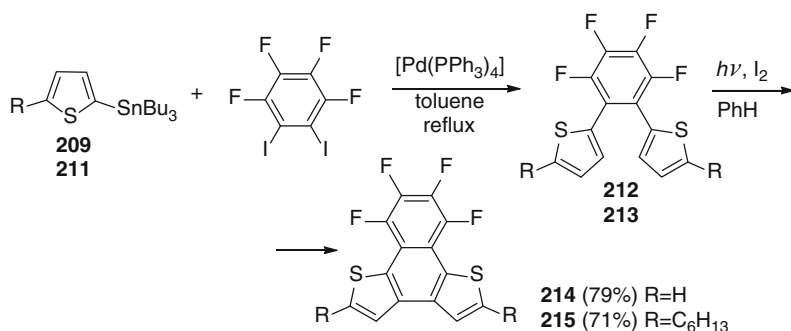
2,7-Disubstituted hexafluoro-9-heterofluorenes **208** were synthesized via nucleophilic aromatic substitution (S_NAr) reactions of 2-thienyllithium with various octafluoroheterofluorenes **207**. These compounds are of interest as possible building blocks for materials with useful electron-transport properties, since they possess relatively low LUMO energy levels [107].



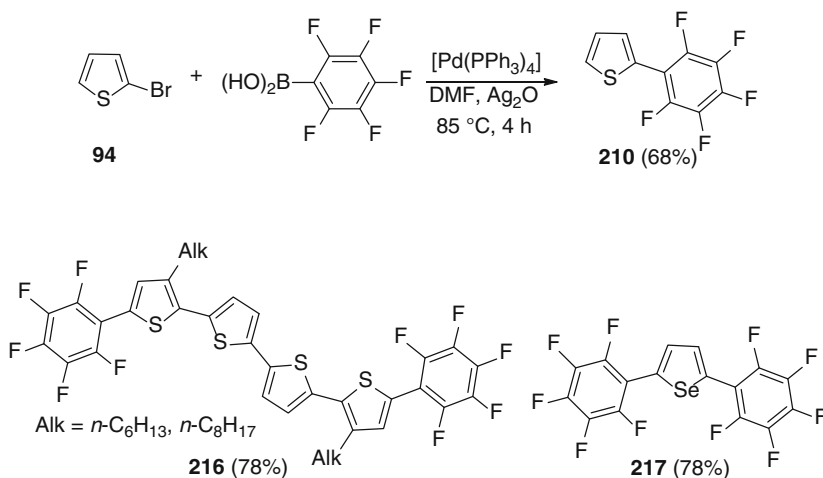
6.2 Cross-Coupling

More often, cross-coupling reactions are applied for the preparation of perfluoroarylthiophenes. Copper and palladium catalysts are common for arylation. For example, palladium-catalyzed Stille coupling with iodo- and bromosubstituted fluoroarenes gave the fluoroarene-modified thiophenes which can act as organic semiconductors [108]. The palladium-catalyzed reaction was performed with the corresponding stannylated thiophenes (e.g. **209**, **211**) in toluene under reflux. Numerous thiophene derivatives have been obtained by this method. Product yields for these transformations ranged from moderate to good (45–80 %) [109].

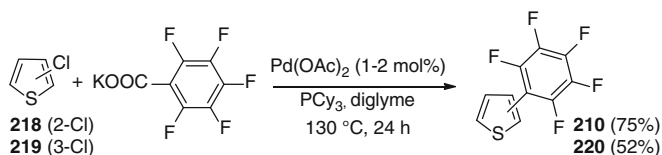




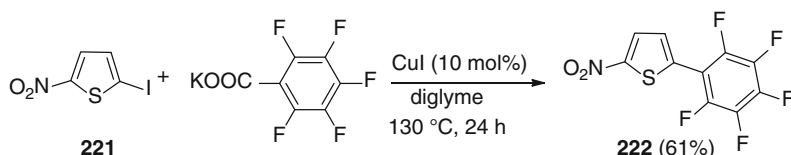
2-(Pentafluorophenyl)thiophene **210** and its derivatives were also synthesized by a palladium catalyzed Suzuki reaction between pentafluoroiodobenzene and thiophene boronic acid derivative. However, considering the ready accessibility of 2-halothiophenes by electrophilic substitutions of thiophenes, commercially available pentafluorophenylboronic acid is the counterpart of choice for the Suzuki coupling. The use of DMF as a solvent and potassium phosphate as a base in the presence of palladium catalyst allowed for the synthesis of a wide range of compounds, including thiophene-fused system and oligothiophenes with various chain lengths, such as **216**, as well as several selenophene homologues, for example **217** [110].



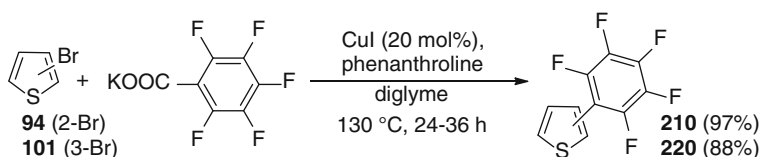
The palladium-catalyzed decarboxylative coupling of potassium pentafluorobenzoate with aryl chlorides, bromides and triflates was shown to be a useful method for the synthesis of polyfluorobiaryls from readily accessible polyfluorobenzoate salts. For instance, 2- and 3-chlorothiophenes **218**, **219** reacted with potassium pentafluorobenzoate to produce pentafluorophenyl derivatives **210** and **220**. The reaction proceeded in refluxed diglyme in the presence palladium acetate(II) [111].



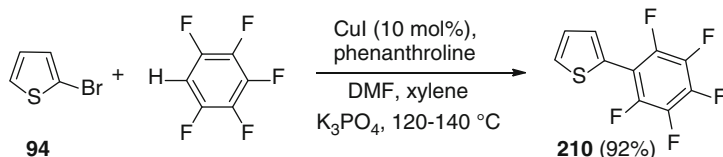
A similar coupling proceeded with 2-iodo-5-nitrothiophene **221** in the presence of a copper catalyst. A possible explanation for the outstanding performance of diglyme is that it can coordinate to K^+ , thereby facilitating the complexation between CuI and pentafluorobenzoate.



This protocol was applicable to aryl iodides but not to less reactive aryl bromides. This problem was solved by using 1,10-phenanthroline as a ligand: 2- and 3-bromothiophenes **94** and **101** formed the corresponding pentafluorophenyl derivatives in good yields in the presence of a copper-phenanthroline catalytic system [112].

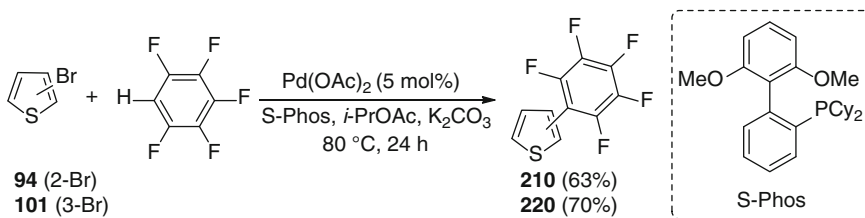


All of the methods presented above are based on cross-couplings of halogenated thiophenes and different pentafluorophenyl derivatives. However, the arylation of polyfluorobenzene C-H bonds can also be used for the synthesis of perfluoroarylthiophenes. For example, 2-bromothiophene **94** and pentafluorobenzene gave 2-(perfluorophenyl)thiophene **210** in 92 % yield in the presence of phenanthroline [113].

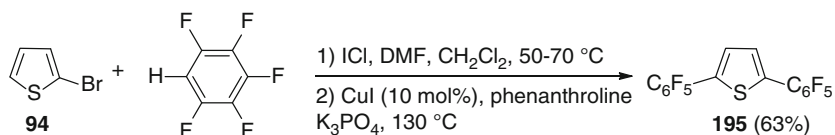


A similar monoarylation was performed with 2- and 3-bromothiophenes **94** and **101** under palladium-catalyzed conditions in good yields. The use of a more

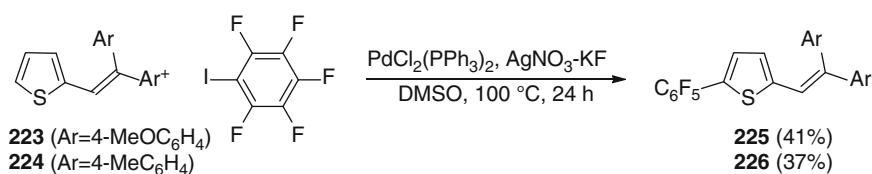
effective palladium catalyst with the phosphine ligand S-Phos allowed for the temperature of this transformation to be reduced to 80 °C [114].



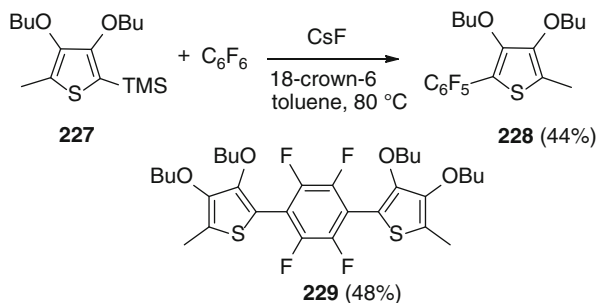
2,5-Bis(perfluorophenyl)thiophene **195** was obtained by a one-pot sequential iodination and copper-catalyzed cross-coupling of arene C–H bonds. The first step was the electrophilic halogenations with incorporation of the iodine atom. Then, copper-catalyzed arylation allowed for a highly regioselective heterocoupling, thereby leading to the diarylated product **195** [115].



The previous three examples involved the couplings of halogenated thiophenes with different substrates. However, it is also possible to perform coupling between thiophene and halogen-substituted arenes. The reaction of thiophene derivatives **223**, **224** with pentafluoroiodobenzene proceeded in the presence of bis(triphenylphosphine)palladium(II) dichloride and silver nitrate [116].

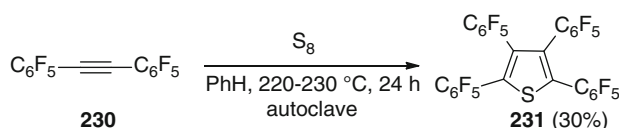


The transition-metal-free carbon-carbon bond formation by fluoride activation of silicon-carbon bonds has been used for coupling of perfluoroarenes and trimethylsilylthiophene derivative **227**. In the case of 2,5-bis(trimethylsilyl)thiophenes, the ratio of isolated products indicated that the first and second attacks on perfluorobenzene proceeded with the same rate, or that conversion of the second TMS group can be more rapid than that of the first [117].

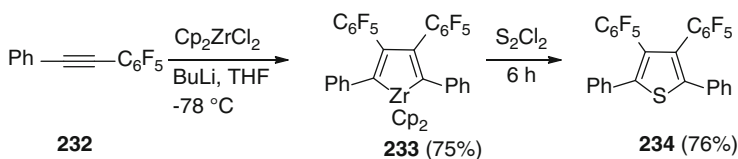


6.3 Heterocyclization

The heterocyclization of substituted alkynes with sulfur was also shown to be applicable for the preparation of perfluoroarylthiophenes. When a mixture of 1,2-bis(perfluorophenyl)ethyne **230** and sulfur was heated in benzene at $220\text{--}230\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ the tetrakis(perfluorophenyl)thiophene **231** was formed in 30 % yield [118].

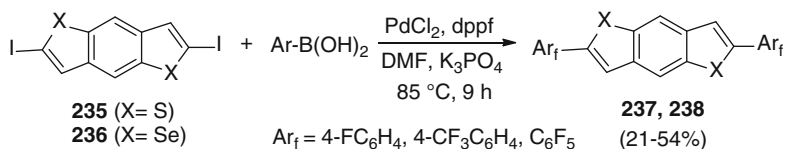


Another pathway to perfluoroalkylthiophenes involved the cyclization of zirconocene obtained from pentafluorophenyl-substituted alkynes. The fluorophenyl-substituted alkynes was synthesized by coupling of the appropriate fluoroaryl iodide with a terminal alkyne catalyzed by tetrakis(triphenylphosphine)-palladium(0) and CuI. Reaction of the resulting alkyne **232** with Negishi's zirconocene synthon at low temperature followed by warming to room temperature afforded zirconacyclopentadienes **233** in high yields. The reaction of the latter with S_2Cl_2 gave thiophene **234** in high yield [119].

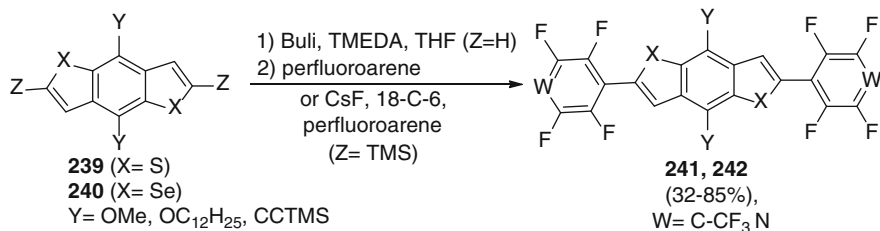


7 Synthesis of Perfluoroarylbenzothiophenes

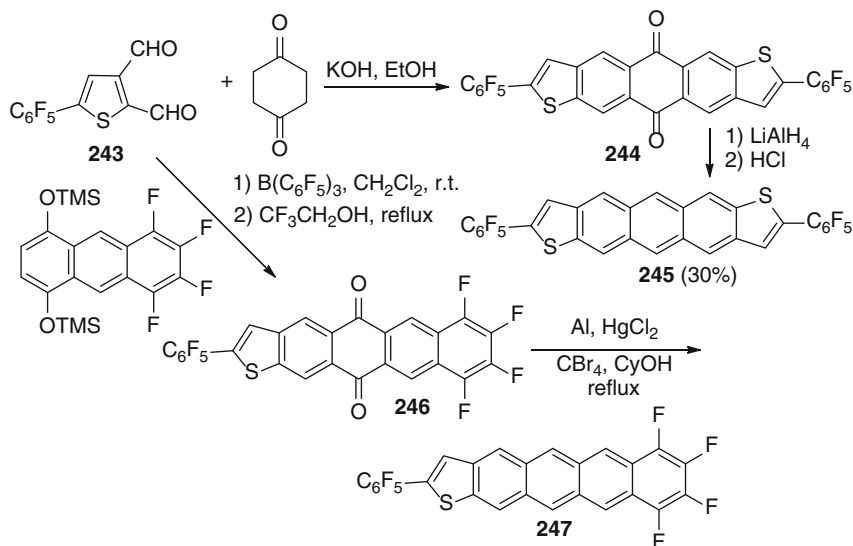
The known approaches to perfluoroarylbenzothiophenes are generally based on the cross-couplings and reactions with organometallic reagents. For example, benzo[1,2-*b*:4,5-*b'*]dithiophene **235** and -diselenophene **236**, which are known p-channel semiconducting materials, were modified via palladium-catalyzed Suzuki-Miyaura coupling reaction. The reaction proceeded in moderate yields and gave compounds **237**, **238** which can act as n-semiconductors [120].



Another method for the synthesis of 2,6-diphenylbenzo[1,2-*b*:4,5-*b'*]dithiophene **241** and diselenophene fluorinated derivatives **242** was based on the reaction of their bismetalates with perfluoroarenes. The same transformation was also performed with trimethylsilyl derivatives using a catalytic amount of cesium fluoride in the presence of 18-crown-6 [121].

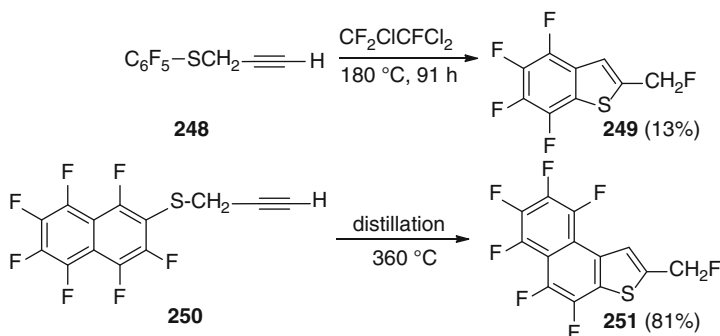


The synthesis of functionalized anthradithiophenes was achieved through condensation of thiophenes derivatives with cyclohexane-1,4-dione. The starting 5-perfluorophenyl-2,3-thiophenedicarboxaldehyde was prepared in 45 % yield by Stille coupling of 5-(tributylstannyl)-2,3-bis(1,3-dioxolan-2-yl)thiophene with bromopentafluorobenzene. The reaction of thiophenedicarboxaldehyde with cyclohexane-1,4-dione gave intermediate quinone **244** that produced dipentafluorophenylanthradithiophene **245** on reduction. The latter is a semiconductor for organic thin-film transistors (OTFTs) [109]. A similar reaction with a 5,6,7,8-tetrafluoroanthracene derivative leads to 7,8,9,10-tetrafluoro-2-pentafluorophenyltetraceno[2,3-*b*]thiophene **247**.



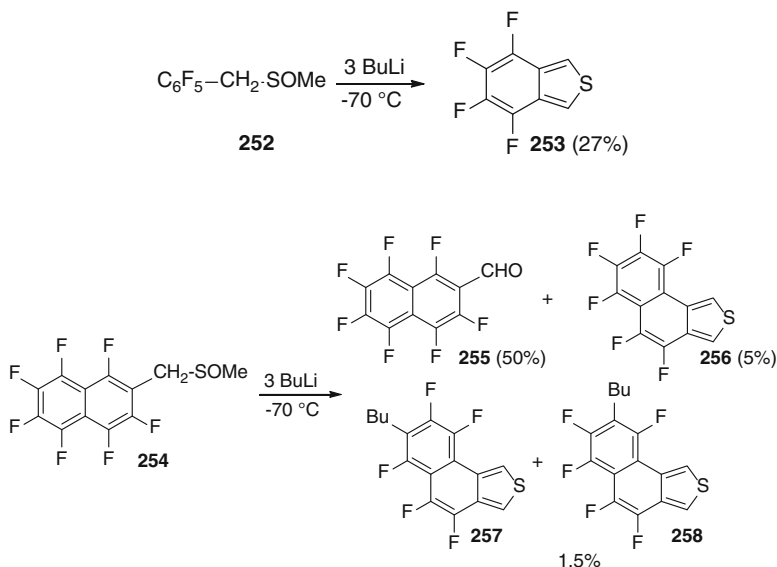
8 Benzothiophenes with Perfluorinated Carbocycle

Benzothiophenes with a fully fluorinated carbocycle are usually prepared by way of cyclization reactions. For example, when pentafluorophenyl prop-2-ynyl sulfide **248** in Freon 113 was heated at 180 °C 4,5,6,7-tetrafluoro-2-fluoromethylbenzo[*b*]thiophene **249** was obtained in low yield. A similar isomerisation of the naphthalene compound **250** was more efficient and gave the 2-fluoromethyl derivative **251** in 41 % yield. Distillation of the starting compound under vacuum through silica-filled tube led to the target compound **251** in 81 % yield [122].

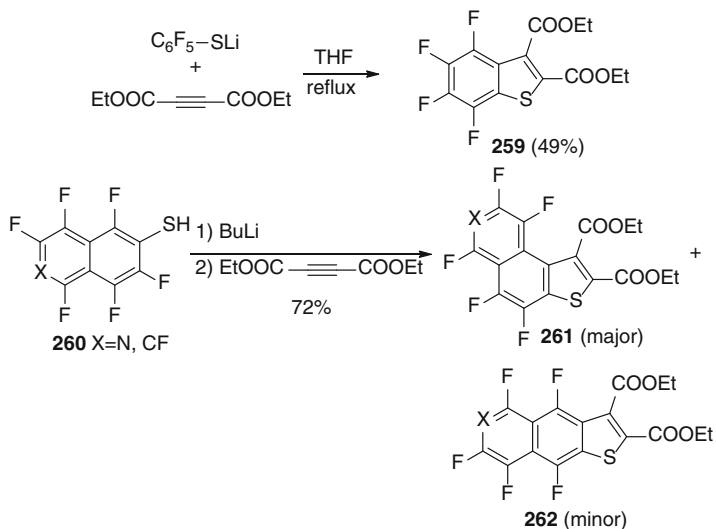


More often, such compounds are synthesized via cyclization induced by organo-metallics. For example, 2,3,4,5,6-pentafluorobenzyl methyl sulfoxide **252** gave 4,5,6,7-tetrafluorobenzo[*c*]thiophene **253** on treatment with BuLi in THF at -70 °C. The mechanism invokes the nucleophilic replacement of *ortho*-fluorine by CH₂Li and

aromatization. Treatment of the naphthalene sulphoxide **254** with BuLi gave 4,5,6,7,8,9-hexafluoronaphtho[1,2-*c*]thiophene **256** in inseparable mixture of the 7- and 8-butyl derivatives **257** and **258**, as well as the aldehyde **255** in 50 % yield [123].



In 1967, the formation of diethyl 4,5,6,7-tetrafluoro-benzo[*b*]thiophen-2,3-dicarboxylate **259** in 49 % yield, by the reaction of lithium pentafluorobenzenethiolate with diethyl acetylenedicarboxylate in THF under reflux, was reported [124]. Later, the cyclization reaction was shown to occur under very mild conditions (-70 to $-58^\circ C$) in 74 % yield [125]. A similar reaction of lithium 1,3,4,5,6,7,8-heptafluoro-2-naphthalenethiolate and its isoquinoline derivative with dimethyl acetylenedicarboxylate was reported to give polyfluorinated condensed products **261** and **262** [126].



9 Conclusion

Fluorinated thiophene derivatives have found a broad application as biologically intriguing molecules and especially as modern organic materials. However, methods for their synthesis are still limited. The direct fluorination or trifluoromethylation of thiophene is either not selective or proceeds in low yields. The most convenient approach to fluorothiophenes and their benzoanalogues involves lithiation-fluorination reactions. Other common methods are based on heterocyclizations with participation of methyl thioglycolate, or cycloaddition reactions. The scarce methods for fluorinated thiophenes synthesis give a chance for synthetic chemists to elaborate new, better pathways to these intriguing and useful compounds.

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Fluorinated Pyrazoles and Indazoles

Santos Fustero, Antonio Simón-Fuentes, Oscar Delgado,
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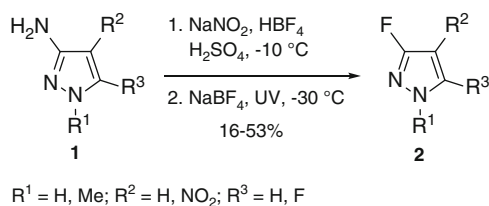
Abstract The synthesis of fluorine containing pyrazoles has been boosted in the past decades due to the interesting properties that confer these building blocks in pharmaceutical and agricultural active ingredients. There are two main methods for the synthesis of fluorine-containing organic compounds, namely, the direct replacement of an atom or functional group such as diazo, hydroxyl, halogen or hydrogen by fluorine, and the modification of fluorine-containing building blocks. In the case of fluorinated pyrazoles the latter approach is the most commonly applied. This chapter deals primarily with the pivotal procedures that allow the preparation of fluoro- and fluoroalkyl- pyrazoles. Their benzocondensed derivatives, indazoles, have been studied to a much lesser extent. The fundamental applications of this class of compounds in different fields are also discussed.

Keywords Pyrazole • Indazole • Fluorine • Synthesis

1 Synthesis of 3-/5-Fluoropyrazoles

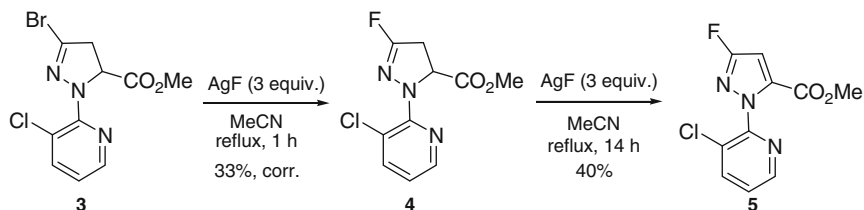
1.1 By Nucleophilic Substitution Reactions

The Balz-Schiemann photolytic dediazonium of pyrazolodiazonium salts using ultraviolet irradiation at low temperature, in the presence of tetrafluoroboric acid, was used in order to obtain 3-/5-fluoropyrazole derivatives **2** [1]. Although poor yields were observed in general (Scheme 1), the presence of an electron-withdrawing group at the C-4 ($R^2=NO_2$) improved the process significantly [1c].



Scheme 1

Halogen exchange has been the most widely used process for fluorine incorporation at C-3 and C-5 of the pyrazole ring. For instance, bromine-fluorine exchange in the 3-bromopyrazoline **3** was described as an alternative approach for the preparation of the 3-fluoropyrazole derivative **5**, a precursor of insecticidal fluorinated anthranilic diamides [2]. Silver fluoride was used as both fluorine source and oxidation reagent of the pyrazoline ring (Scheme 2).

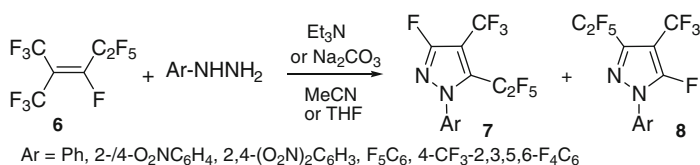


Scheme 2

Chlorine-fluorine exchange was mentioned in some patents as the most adequate procedure for C-5 fluorination [3]. In all cases, KF was employed as fluorine source, and reaction mixtures were warmed from 100 to 200 °C for many hours. The presence of an electron-withdrawing substituent such as a carbonyl group at C-4 seems to facilitate the progress of the reaction.

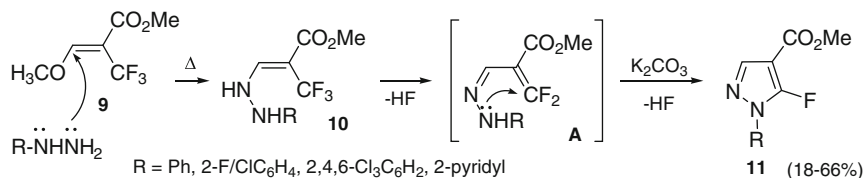
1.2 Using Fluorinated Building Blocks

It has been reported that condensation of perfluoro-2-methyl-2-pentene **6** with hydrazones [4], arylhydrazines and propionylhydrazine [5] in basic media (Na_2CO_3 or Et_3N), lead to 5-fluoropyrazole derivatives as single products in good to excellent yield. However, a study carried out by Furin and co-workers [6] using **6** and a variety of arylhydrazines, in the presence of triethylamine, showed that, in all cases, mixtures of 3- and 5-fluoropyrazole derivatives **7** and **8** (Scheme 3) were obtained. The regioisomeric ratios were dependent on the reaction conditions and arylhydrazine used. Two different reaction pathways were proposed for explaining these results.



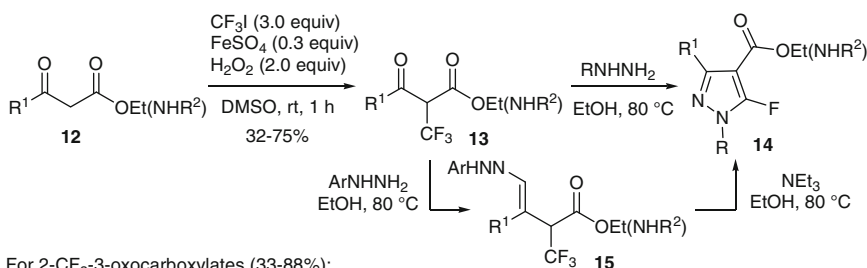
Scheme 3

On the other hand, condensation of methyl 3-methoxy-2-(trifluoromethyl)acrylate **9** with arylhydrazines under weakly basic conditions allowed the synthesis of methyl 1-aryl-5-fluoropyrazole-4-carboxylates **11** (Scheme 4); the lower yields were obtained with arylhydrazines bearing electron-withdrawing substituents [7]. The process involves hydrogen fluoride elimination followed by intramolecular nucleophilic addition from the 3-hydrazinoacrylates **10** previously formed. When alkylhydrazines were employed, no heterocyclic compounds were isolated.



Scheme 4

Similar to **A** intermediates (Scheme 4) were proposed to explain the formation of 1,3-disubstituted 5-fluoropyrazole-4-carboxylates (or carboxamides) **14** from 2-(trifluoromethyl)-3-oxo-carboxylates (or carboxamides) **13** and alkyl(aryl) hydrazines (Scheme 5). Trifluoromethylcarboxylates and carboxamides were prepared in moderate yield by trifluoromethylation of 3-oxocarboxylates and carboxamides **12** with CF₃I in the presence of the Fenton reagent [8]. Treatment of **13** with arylhydrazines in EtOH at 80 °C yielded 3-(arylhazono)-2-(trifluoromethyl)carboxylate(carboxamide) intermediates **15** as the only isolated products. These were then converted into the products **14** by treatment with NEt₃. The 5-fluoropyrazoles were directly obtained from intermediates **13** with the more nucleophilic alkylhydrazines. This approach is highly versatile and more simple than the previously reported procedures for the preparation of fungicides with a 5-fluoropyrazole-4-carboxamide framework [3].



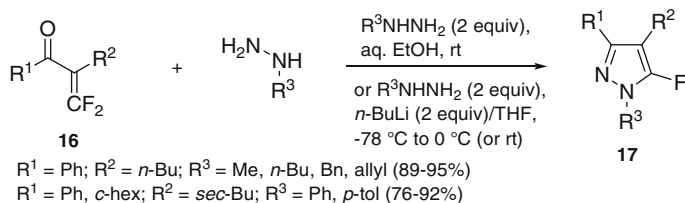
For 2-CF₃-3-oxocarboxylates (33-88%):

R¹ = Me, *i*-Pr, Ph, 4-Me/C₆H₄; R = Me, *i*-Pr, Ph, 2-ClC₆H₄, 3-MeC₆H₄, 4-Cl/MeOC₆H₄

For 2-CF₃-3-oxocarboxamides (44-85%): R¹/R = Me, Ph; R² = H, Ph, 2-*i*Pr/Cl/BrC₆H₄, biphenyl-2-yl

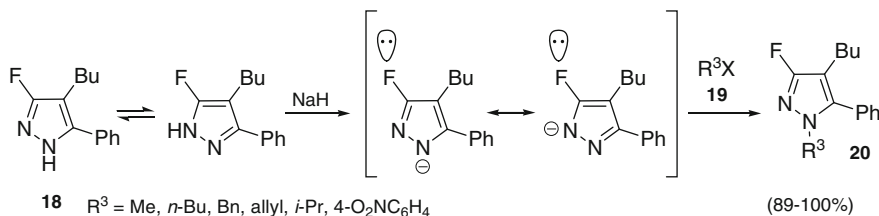
Scheme 5

An alternative method for the synthesis of 5-fluoropyrazoles is depicted in Scheme 6. The target molecules **17** were obtained in high yields (76–95 %) and excellent regioselectivities (96/4-100/0) upon condensing 2,2-difluorovinyl ketones **16** with alkyl and arylhydrazines [9]. Reactions with alkylhydrazines occurred in aqueous ethanol at rt whereas, with arylhydrazines, the use of *n*-butyllithium was requisite to generate the anion of the hydrazine (Scheme 6).



Scheme 6

The fluorine atom has been also employed as a directing group for the alkylation of *N*-unsubstituted pyrazoles [9]. In this context, Ichikawa and co-workers have shown that treatment of 4-butyl-3-fluoro-5-phenylpyrazole **18** with a strong base followed by the addition of a variety of electrophiles **19** leads to the more hindered 1-alkyl-5-phenylpyrazole isomers **20** in excellent yields, and regioselectivities up to 90/10. In contrast, there is no regiocontrol in the *N*-alkylation of the fluorine-free pyrazole analogue. These results revealed that the site of the electrophilic attack in the deprotonated pyrazole was governed by the repulsive interaction between the lone pair of the fluorine atom and the negative charge on the nitrogen closer to the fluorine (Scheme 7).



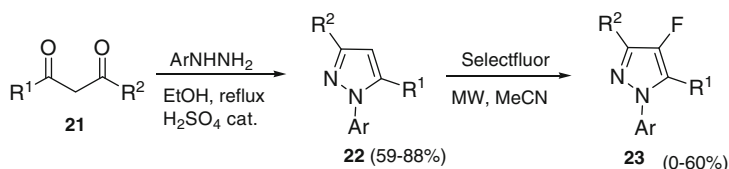
Scheme 7

2 Synthesis of 4-Fluoropyrazoles

2.1 By Fluorination of the Pyrazole Ring

The 4-position of the pyrazole ring is the most nucleophilic and readily undergoes electrophilic substitution. Nevertheless, the direct fluorination at this position is often a difficult task because of the high reactivity of the pyrazole ring toward electrophiles and the high oxidative properties of the electrophilic fluorinating reagents. Elemental fluorine either in acetic acid [10], or diluted in nitrogen [11], has been employed for the C-4 fluorination of 3-alkoxycarbonylpyrazoles in up to 52 % yield. Selectfluor® is the most extensively used electrophilic fluorinating agent for this purpose. Several 3,5-substituted pyrazole carboxylates, intermediates in the synthesis of potentially pharmacological active molecules, were fluorinated at C-4 with this reagent in refluxing acetonitrile in poor to moderate yield [12].

More recently, a study on the influence of the substituents in the reactivity of 1-aryl-3,5-substituted pyrazoles **22** in microwave-mediated fluorinations with Selectfluor® at C-4 of the pyrazole ring was reported [13]. In general, deactivated pyrazoles were unreactive or gave lower yields than more electron-rich derivatives (Scheme 8). Moreover, side products derived from fluorination of aryl or methyl substituents at N-1 and C-3 were isolated. Noteworthy, this was not the case at C-5, probably due to the steric interference between the substituent and the fluorine source. Results were compared with those obtained via C-2 fluorination of 1,3-diketones **21** followed by *in situ* condensation with arylhydrazines (see below).



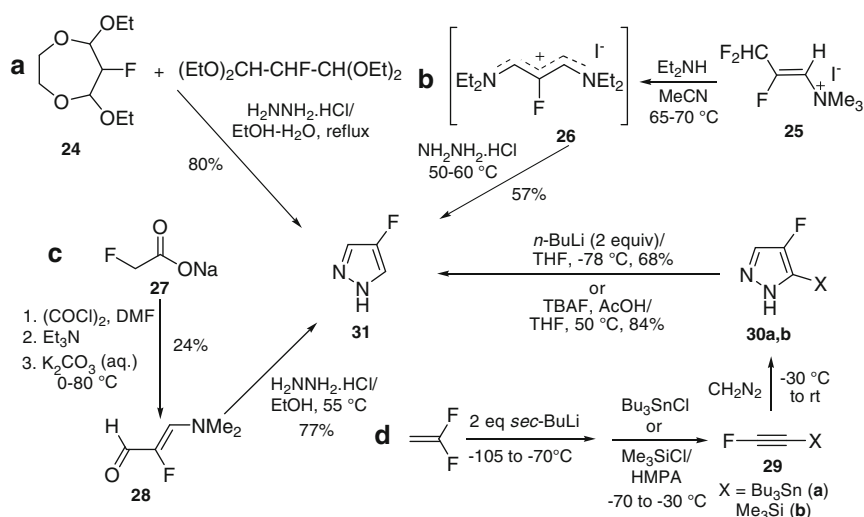
R ¹	R ²	Ar	Yield (%)
Me	Me	Ph	60
Me	4-O ₂ NC ₆ H ₄	Ph	40
Me	CF ₃	Ph	40
Ph	CF ₃	Ph	0
Me	CH ₃	4-O ₂ NC ₆ H ₄	49
Me	CF ₃	4-O ₂ NC ₆ H ₄	13
Me	Me	2,4-(O ₂ N) ₂ C ₆ H ₃	30
Me	Me	4-MeOC ₆ H ₄	20
Ph	Me	4-MeOC ₆ H ₄	53
CF ₃	4-O ₂ NC ₆ H ₄	4-MeOC ₆ H ₄	0

Scheme 8

2.2 Using Fluorinated Building Blocks

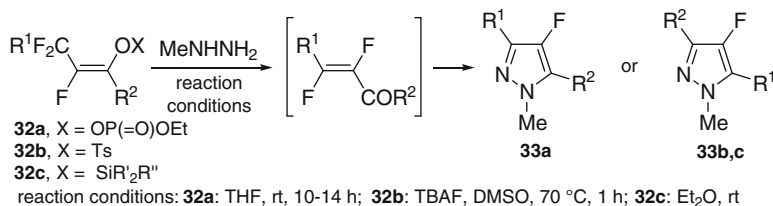
The synthesis of 4-fluoropyrazole (**31**) has been described by several authors. The condensation of either **24** [14] (Scheme 9a) or **26** [15] (Scheme 9b) with hydrazine hydrochloride led to the target compound in 80 % and 57 % yield, respectively. Starting from sodium fluoroacetate (**27**), **31** was obtained through a four-step sequence in 19 % overall yield [16]. More recently, a modification of this procedure allowed the preparation of this compound in only two steps and with identical overall yield (Scheme 9c) [17]. On the other hand, Hanamoto and co-workers [18] obtained pyrazole **31** by either *n*-BuLi-destannylation of **30a** (X=Bu₃Sn) or TBAF-desilylation of 4-fluoro-5-trimethylsilylpyrazole **30b** (X=Me₃Si), in 68 % and 84 %, respectively. Precursors **30** were obtained by 1,3-dipolar cycloadditions of diazomethane with *in situ* prepared fluoro(tributylstannyl)- or fluoro(trimethylsilyl) acetylene **29** (Scheme 9d). 4-Fluoro-1-methylpyrazole was also prepared in 90 % yield by condensation between β-fluorovinamidinium iodide and methylhydrazine [15]. By contrast, diazotization of 4-amino-1-methylpyrazole followed by

photochemical irradiation of the diazonium salt in tetrafluoroboric acid yielded the same compound but in poor yield (8 %) [1a].



Scheme 9

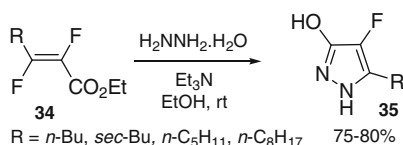
The cyclocondensation between fluorinated 1,3-dielectrophilic compounds and hydrazines has been the pivotal methodology employed for the preparation of 4-fluoropyrazole derivatives. 2,3,3-Trifluoroalkenyl phosphates **32a** [19], sulfonates **32b** [20] and silyloxy derivatives **32c** [21], synthetic equivalents of 2,3-difluoroalkenyl ketones, were used by some authors as fluorinated building blocks for the regioselective synthesis of fluoropyrazoles **33a-c** (Scheme 10). Reactions could be carried out in the presence of a base or an excess of hydrazine to neutralize the hydrogen fluoride generated in the process. This approach was applied to the synthesis of polyfluorinated homo-*C*-nucleoside analogues [22].



R ¹	R ²	33a (%)	R ¹	R ²	33b (%)	R ¹	R ²	33c (%)
CF ₃	CH ₃ (CH ₂) ₅	91	H	H	71	C ₂ F ₅	Ph	95
CF ₃	Ph	82	H	Ph	88	C ₂ F ₅	4-ClC ₆ H ₄	94
CF ₃	<i>c</i> -C ₆ H ₁₁	90	H	4-MeOC ₆ H ₄	83	C ₂ F ₅	4-FC ₆ H ₄	89
CF ₃	CH ₃ (CH ₂) ₂	90	H	4-EtO ₂ CC ₆ H ₄	86	C ₂ F ₅	4-MeOC ₆ H ₄	97
						C ₂ F ₅	<i>n</i> -C ₅ H ₁₁	67

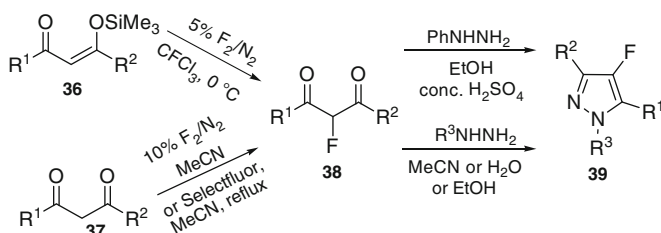
Scheme 10

In a similar fashion, ethyl 3-alkyl-*trans*-2,3-difluoro-2-acrylates **34** underwent a Michael addition with hydrazine monohydrate in the presence of triethylamine affording 5-alkyl-3-hydroxy-4-fluoropyrazoles **35** in good yield (Scheme 11) [23].



Scheme 11

2-Fluorinated-1,3-dicarbonyl and related compounds have been extensively used as fluorinated building blocks in the synthesis of 4-fluoropyrazoles. These substrates were prepared by electrophilic fluorination of the corresponding β -dicarbonyl precursors. Thus, treatment of silyl enol ethers of trifluoromethyl-1,3-diketones **36** and 1-phenyl-1,3-butanedione **37** with 5 % F₂ in N₂ allowed the synthesis of 2-fluoro-1,3-diketones **38**, that were isolated and subsequently condensed with phenylhydrazine in the presence of concentrated sulphuric acid. As a result, 4-fluoro-3-trifluoromethyl(methyl)pyrazole derivatives **39** were isolated as exclusive regioisomers in good yield (Scheme 12) [24]. Recently, this approach was adapted into a single, sequential telescoped two-step continuous gas/liquid-liquid/liquid flow process involving direct fluorination (10 % F₂ in N₂ in MeCN) in the first stage and subsequent condensation with hydrazines (Scheme 12) [25]. The hydrazine was added to the continuous flow process dissolved in acetonitrile, water or ethanol depending on the solubility of the hydrazine derivative. Alternatively, Sloop and co-workers [13] obtained 1-aryl-4-fluoropyrazole analogues **39** (R³=Ar) by selective fluorination of 1,3-diketones **37** with Selectfluor®, followed by *in situ* condensation of the resulting 2-fluoro- β -diketones **38** with arylhydrazines (Scheme 12). The cyclization was catalyzed by the ammonium salt byproduct of the fluorination. This strategy precluded the occurrence of side reactions; no fluorination of alkyl or aryl groups was observed.

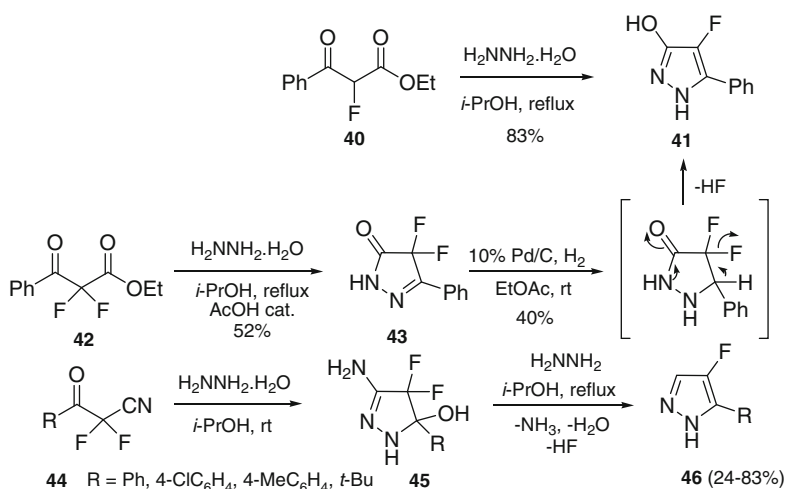


R ¹	R ²	R ³	(%) ^a	R ¹	R ²	R ³	(%) ^b	R ¹	R ²	R ³	(%) ^c
Me	CF ₃	Ph	86	Me	Me	H	77	Me	CF ₃	Ph	60
Et	CF ₃	Ph	70	Me	Me	Me	83	Me	4-O ₂ NC ₆ H ₄	Ph	50
<i>i</i> -Pr	CF ₃	Ph	71	Me	Me	Ph	72	Me	Me	Ph	55
<i>t</i> -Bu	CF ₃	Ph	68	Et	Et	H	72	Ph	CF ₃	Ph	56
CF ₃	CF ₃	Ph	69	Me	<i>t</i> -Bu	H	71	Me	CF ₃	4-O ₂ NC ₆ H ₄	40
Ph	CF ₃	Ph	70	<i>t</i> -Bu	<i>t</i> -Bu	H	74	Me	Me	4-MeOC ₆ H ₄	70
Ph	Me	Ph	74	Me	Ph	H	69	Ph	Me	4-MeOC ₆ H ₄	55
								CF ₃	4-O ₂ NC ₆ H ₄	4-MeOC ₆ H ₄	45

^a Yield from ref. 24. ^b Yield from ref. 25. ^c Yield from ref. 13

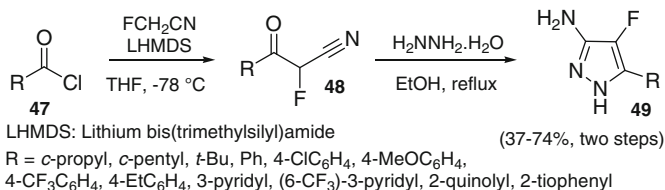
Scheme 12

De Kimpe and co-workers [26] synthesized 4-fluoro-3-hydroxy-5-phenylpyrazole **41** by condensation of ethyl benzoylfluoroacetate **40**, or ethyl benzoyldifluoroacetate **42**, with hydrazine in refluxing *i*-PrOH. While starting from monofluorinated **40**, the product **41** was formed in 83 % yield, the condensation using the difluorinated **42** led to the formation of pyrazolone **43**. The target product **41** could be then obtained by hydrogenation of **43** via a pyrazolidin-3-one intermediate, which readily underwent dehydrofluorination. Surprisingly, when this strategy was applied to the synthesis of the 3-amino analogue by condensation of benzoyldifluoroacetonitrile **44** with hydrazine, the deaminated 4-fluoro-5-phenylpyrazole **46** (R=Ph) was isolated. Similar results were obtained starting from other 2,2-difluoro-3-oxopropanenitriles **44** (Scheme 13).



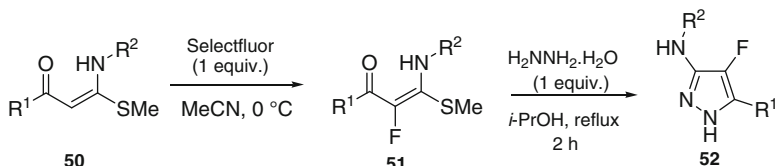
Scheme 13

Some 3-amino-4-fluoropyrazoles **49** have been used to synthesize compounds with potential application in medicinal chemistry and agrochemistry. Although procedures for fluorination of the pyrazole ring of aminopyrazoles using fluorinating agents have been reported, such reactions suffer from low applicability and poor yields. Recently, Cocconcelli and co-workers [27] synthesized a small set of compounds **49** by condensation of alkanoyl- and arylfluorobenzonitriles **48** with hydrazine hydrate in refluxing ethanol. The α -fluoro- β -ketonitrile intermediates **48** were prepared by reaction of the corresponding acyl chlorides **47** with fluoroacetonitrile using lithium bis(trimethylsilyl)amide (LHMDS) as base at -78°C in THF. The target products were obtained in fair to good yields (Scheme 14). Remarkably, the order of addition of the reagents (first fluoroacetonitrile, second the acyl chloride and then the base) was fundamental for the success of the process.



Scheme 14

An alternative strategy to 3-amino-4-fluoropyrazoles was based on the cyclocondensation of β -methylthio- β -enaminoketones with hydrazines. The mono-fluorinated building blocks **51** were prepared by treatment of the *N*-aryl(benzyl)- β -methylthio- β -enaminoketone precursors **50** with Selectfluor® [28]. Subsequent condensation of **51** with hydrazine led to the desired 3-aryl(benzyl)amino-4-fluoropyrazoles **52** in good yield (Scheme 15). With methylhydrazine, a 1:1 mixture of 3- and 5-aminopyrazoles was obtained (R¹=Ph, R²=PMP), whereas with phenylhydrazine, the 5-aminopyrazole was the only observed regioisomer (R¹=Ph, R²=PMP). In contrast to the *N*-benzyl protecting group, which was easily removed by catalytic hydrogenation, the *N*-*p*-methoxyphenyl (PMP) could not be cleaved by a variety of reagents.



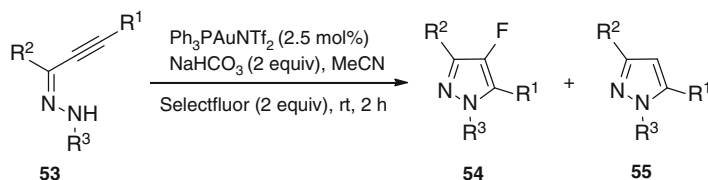
R ¹	R ²	51 (%)	52 (%)
Ph	Ph	73	81
Ph	PMP ^a	91	88
Ph	Bn	n.i. ^b	57
2-furyl	Ph	93	70
CH(OMe) ₂	Ph	73	73
4-FC ₆ H ₄	PMP ^a	n.i. ^b	68
Me	Ph	63	82

^a PMP: *p*-methoxyphenyl. ^b n.i.: not isolated

Scheme 15

In the last decade, metal-catalyzed intramolecular nitrogen addition to alkynes has been introduced as a new methodology for the preparation of pyrazole derivatives. Liu, Xu and co-workers [29] have developed a mild and efficient protocol for the synthesis of 4-fluorinated pyrazoles via gold(I)-catalyzed tandem aminofluorination of alkynes **53** in the presence of Selectfluor® (Scheme 16). In all cases (except for R²=H), mixtures of 4-fluorinated **54** and nonfluorinated pyrazoles **55** (**54**:**55**=2.1:1

to 8.3:1) were produced. This method has a broad substrate scope. The best catalytic activity and chemoselectivity were obtained when acetonitrile was used as solvent and NaHCO₃ as base.



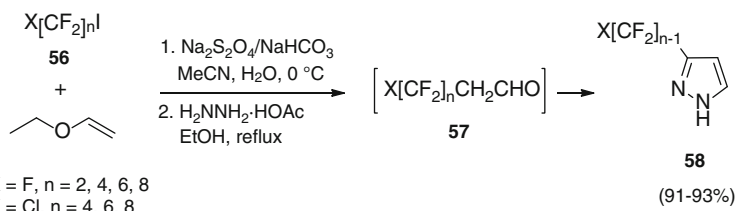
R ² = Me/ R ³ = Ph			R ¹ = R ³ = Ph			R ¹ = Ph/ R ² = Me		
R ¹	54:55	(%) [*]	R ²	54:55	(%) [*]	R ³	54:55	(%) [*]
4-MeC ₆ H ₄	7.2:1	85	Me	6.2:1	81	2,4-ClC ₆ H ₃	3.6:1	56
4-MeOC ₆ H ₄	5.6:1	81	Et	6.1:1	67	4-O ₂ NC ₆ H ₄	7.0:1	64
2-MeOC ₆ H ₄	6.3:1	83	<i>n</i> -Pr	4.6:1	63	Me	2.7:1	49
4-EtOC ₆ H ₄	5.0:1	80	H	100:0	90	H	2.1:1	45
4-EtC ₆ H ₄	4.0:1	73	<i>t</i> -Bu	4.9:1	64			
4-(<i>n</i> -C ₅ H ₁₁)C ₆ H ₄	3.8:1	75						
4-ClC ₆ H ₄	2.8:1	64						
3-ClC ₆ H ₄	4.5:1	73						
4-BrC ₆ H ₄	3.3:1	69						
2-thiophenyl	8.3:1	87						
<i>n</i> -Bu	4.5:1	78						
Bn	3.8:1	74						
<i>t</i> -Bu	5.1:1	75						
TMS	2.1:1	43						

* Yield

Scheme 16

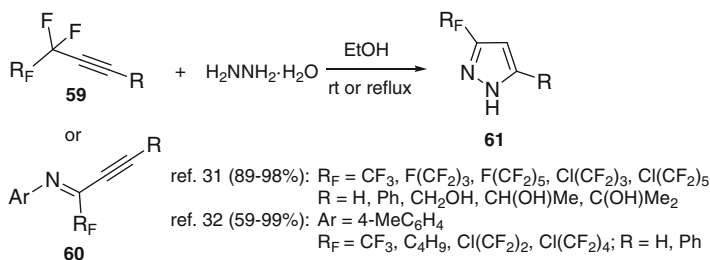
3 Synthesis of 3- and 5-Fluoroalkylpyrazoles

3-Fluoroalkyl-1*H*-pyrazoles **58** were synthesized in excellent yields in one-pot procedure starting from polyfluoroalkyl iodides **56** [30]. The treatment of **56** with ethylvinyl ether led to their corresponding fluoroalkyl aldehyde intermediates **57**, which upon condensation with hydrazine acetic acid under mild conditions gave pyrazoles **58** (Scheme 17).



Scheme 17

3-Perfluoroalkyl-5-substituted-1*H*-pyrazoles **61** can be obtained in excellent yields by reaction of either perfluoroalkylacetylenes **59** [31] or *N*-aryl per(poly) fluoroalkyl phenyl acetylenic imines **60** [32] with hydrazine hydrate in EtOH (Scheme 18). The loss of two molecules of hydrogen fluoride in the former case, and arylamine in the latter, led to the final products. As it has been mentioned above, this strategy can be also applied for the preparation of polyfluorinated derivatives (see Scheme 3), by reaction of perfluoro-2-methyl-2-pentene with hydrazones [4] or arylhydrazines [5, 6] in a basic medium.



Scheme 18

3.1 Synthesis of 3- and 5-Trifluoromethylpyrazoles

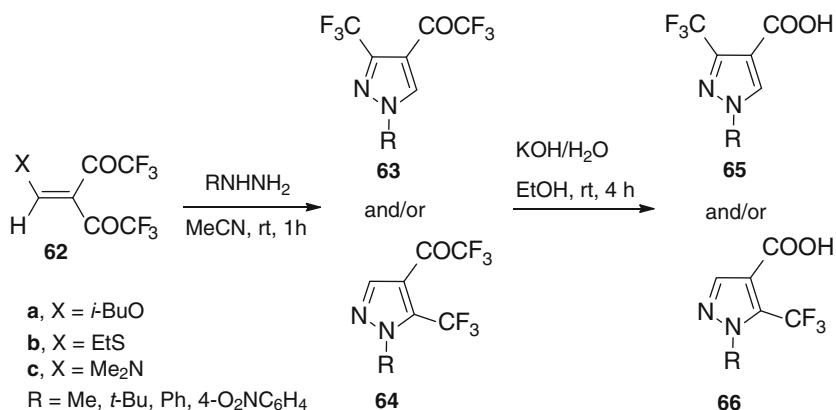
Among fluoroalkylpyrazoles, trifluoromethyl containing derivatives are regarded as privileged building block due to the properties that this group can confer to molecules. 3(5)- and 4-Trifluoromethyl, and 3,5-bis(trifluoromethyl)pyrazoles are commercially available, and it is not surprising that they are often used as the starting materials in medicinal chemistry. In addition to the procedures described above (Schemes 17, 18), the synthesis of 5-substituted 3-trifluoromethyl-1*H*-pyrazoles was carried out with excellent yields starting from pentafluoroethyl iodide. The process involves the reaction of pentafluoroethyl radical with an alkyne, followed by condensation of the adduct with hydrazine hydrate with the loss of two molecules of hydrogen fluoride [33]. 3(5)-Trifluoromethyl-5(3)-(phenyl/butyl/hexyl) pyrazoles were adequately prepared (76–92 % yield) by reaction of hydrazine and trifluoroacetyl acetylenes [34]. The difluoromethylated derivatives were obtained under the same reaction conditions.

Ethyl 5-trifluoromethylpyrazole-3-carboxylate was quantitatively prepared in a 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition between ethyl diazoacetate and sulphur (or bromo) derivatives of 3,3,3-trifluoropropene that act as easier to handle synthetic equivalents of 3,3,3-trifluoropropyne [35]. On top of all these studies, the most common strategy for the preparation of 3- and 5-trifluoromethylpyrazoles entails the [3 + 2] heterocyclization of trifluoromethyl building blocks derived from β -(amino/alkoxy/thioxy) vinylketones and 1,3-dicarbonyl with monosubstituted hydrazines. Mixtures of regioisomers are often obtained depending on the substrate, the substituent of the hydrazine, and the reaction conditions [36].

3.1.1 Using β -(Amino/Alkoxy/Thioxy/Halo)Vinyl Trifluoromethylketones

In principle, the heterocyclization between these β -substituted ketones and monosubstituted hydrazines proceeds by a Michael addition-elimination on the β -carbon atom by the more nucleophilic nitrogen of the hydrazine, followed by cyclodehydration to give mixtures of 3-trifluoromethyl and 5-trifluoromethylpyrazoles. In general, condensation reactions with methylhydrazine lead to the 3-trifluoromethylpyrazole derivatives as only or major regioisomers, whereas with aryl or heterocyclic aromatic hydrazines, the formation of 5-trifluoromethylpyrazole prevails.

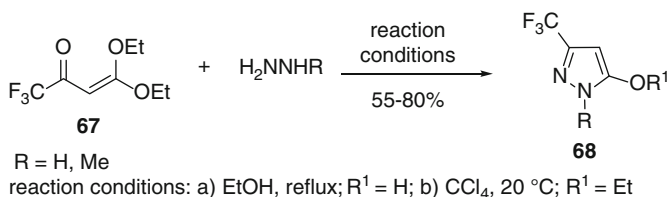
Hojo and co-workers prepared 3- and 5-trifluoromethyl-4-trifluoroacetylpyrazoles **63** and **64** by reaction of β,β -bis(trifluoroacetyl)vinyl ethers **62a**, sulfides **62b**, and amines **62c** with hydrazines in acetonitrile [37]. While the condensation reactions with methylhydrazine led to the 3-trifluoromethylpyrazoles **63** as only isomers in high yields, identical reaction conditions with phenylhydrazine resulted in mixtures of regioisomers **63** and **64**, in a 1:5 to 1:19 ratio. In contrast, condensations between either **62b** or **62c** with *t*-butylhydrazine hydrochloride or **62a** with *p*-nitrophenylhydrazine yielded the 5-trifluoromethyl regioisomers **64** as a single product in high yields (Scheme 19). All pyrazoles were then hydrolyzed to the corresponding pyrazole-4-carboxylic acids **65** and **66** in excellent yields.



Scheme 19

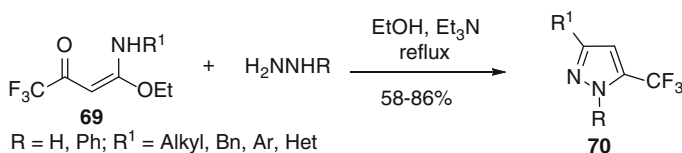
Similar levels of regiocontrol were observed in the condensation of 4-(*N,N*-diethylamino)-1,1,1-trifluoro-3-phenyl-3-buten-2-one and methyl-, phenyl-, and *p*-nitrophenyl hydrazines in acetonitrile (58–83 % yield). With methylhydrazine, the major isomer was the 3-trifluoromethyl-1-methyl-4-phenylpyrazole (ratio: 2.5:1), whereas with phenylhydrazine, the 5-trifluoromethylpyrazole analogue was the predominant component in a 11:1 mixture of isomers. This regioisomer was the only product observed when *p*-nitrophenylhydrazine was used [38].

Depending on the solvent used, the condensation between β,β -diethoxyvinyltrifluoromethylketone **67** and hydrazine gave either 5-ethoxy- or 5-hydroxy-3-trifluoromethylpyrazoles **68** (Scheme 20) [39]. When methylhydrazine was employed as nucleophile the process was shown to be regioselective, resulting in the formation of 3-trifluoromethylpyrazole.



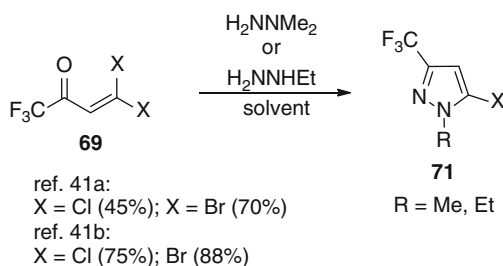
Scheme 20

In contrast, the condensation of β -alkyl(aryl)amino- β -ethoxytrifluoromethylenones **69** with phenylhydrazine led to the sole isolation of 5-trifluoromethylpyrazole regioisomers **70** (Scheme 21) [40].



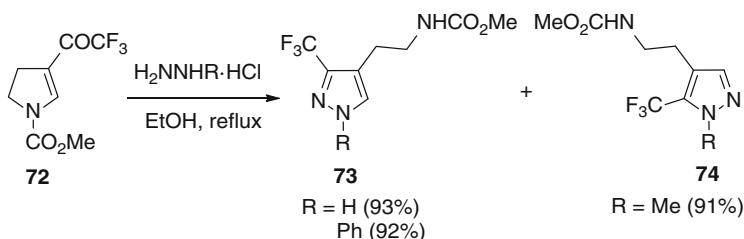
Scheme 21

The incorporation of a chlorine or bromine atom at the pyrazole ring offers considerable potential for diversification of these scaffolds *via* substitution and coupling processes. Levskovskaya and co-workers prepared 5-chloro(bromo)-3-trifluoromethylpyrazoles **71** in acceptable yields by condensation of β,β -dihalotrifluoromethylenone **69** (X=Cl, Br) and *N,N*-dimethylhydrazine and ethylhydrazine (Scheme 22) [41].



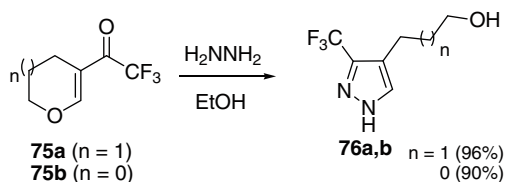
Scheme 22

This approach allows the preparation of more functionalized pyrazoles when the leaving group at the β -carbon of the trifluoromethylenone is embedded in a ring [42]. The condensation of the 3-trifluoroacetyldihydropyrrole **72** with hydrazine or phenylhydrazine in acidic medium afforded 3-trifluoromethylpyrazoles **73** in almost quantitative yield. The regioselectivity could be reversed by using methylhydrazine in the presence of pyridine \cdot HCl, in this case obtaining 5-trifluoromethylpyrazole **74** (Scheme 23) as the major product [42a]. The whole process can be described as a ring-chain-transfer, in which the cycle in the substrate becomes an alkylic substituent in the final pyrazole adduct.



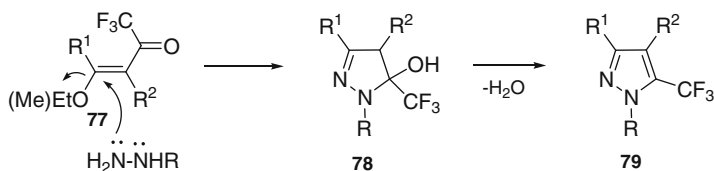
Scheme 23

Similar results were obtained from β -trifluoroacetyl- dihydropyran **75a** ($n=1$) and dihydrofuran **75b** ($n=0$) and hydrazine (Scheme 24). With this protocol both hydroxyethyl and hydroxypropyl chains can be incorporated at C-4 [42b].



Scheme 24

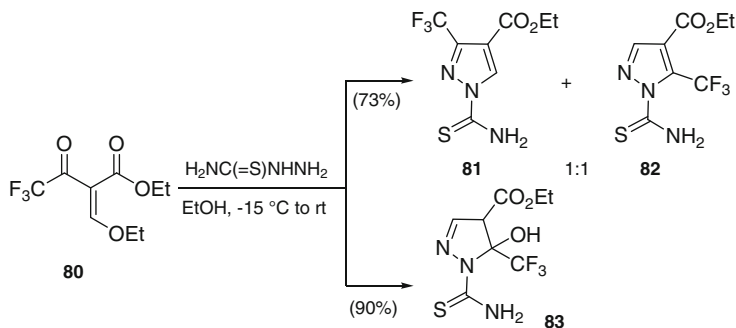
Some authors [43] have described the isolation of 5-trifluoromethyl-5-hydroxypyrazolines **78** (Scheme 25), instead of final products **79**, when reactions were carried out in neutral media (MeOH or EtOH; at room temperature or reflux) with monosubstituted hydrazines that react through the NH_2 group (see also Sect. 3.1.2). The 5-trifluoromethylpyrazoles **79** can be then obtained by the use of a dehydrating agent (H_2SO_4 reflux; AcOH reflux, P_2O_5 , SOCl_2).



- ref. 43a: R = C(=S)NH₂; R¹ = H, Me, Ph, 4-Me/Br/O₂NC₆H₄; R² = H, Me
 ref. 43b: R = C(=NH)NH₂·H₂CO₃; R¹ = Me, *n*-Pr, *t*-Bu, Ph, 4-Me/Cl/Br/MeOC₆H₄; R² = H
 ref. 43c: R = C₆F₅, C₆HF₄, C(=O)CF₂Br, C(=O)C₃F₇; R² = H, (CH₂)_nCH₂OH; R¹ = H
 ref. 43d: R = (4-CF₃-6-Me)-2-pyrimidyl; R¹ = H, Me, Ph; R² = H
 ref. 43e: R = Ph; R¹ 2-thienyl, 2-furyl; R² = H
 ref. 43f: R = (7-Cl)-4-quinolyl; R¹ = Ph, 4-Me/F/Cl/Br/MeO/O₂NC₆H₄, 4-biphenyl; R¹ = H

Scheme 25

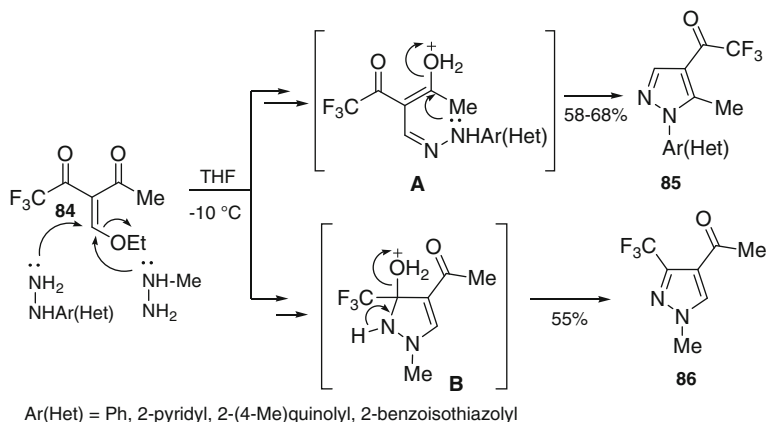
Furthermore, other authors have reported dissimilar results for reactions carried out under identical reaction conditions. For instance, Sanfilippo and co-workers [44] obtained a 1:1 mixture of 3- and 5-trifluoromethylpyrazoles **81** and **82** (73 % overall yield) in the condensation of ethyl 2-ethoxymethylene-3-oxo-4,4,4-trifluorobutanoate **80** with thiourea in EtOH at $-15\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ to room temperature. On the contrary, Tice and co-workers [45] reported that the 5-trifluoro-5-hydroxypyrazoline derivative **83** (90 % yield) was the only product obtained following an identical synthetic protocol (Scheme 26).



Scheme 26

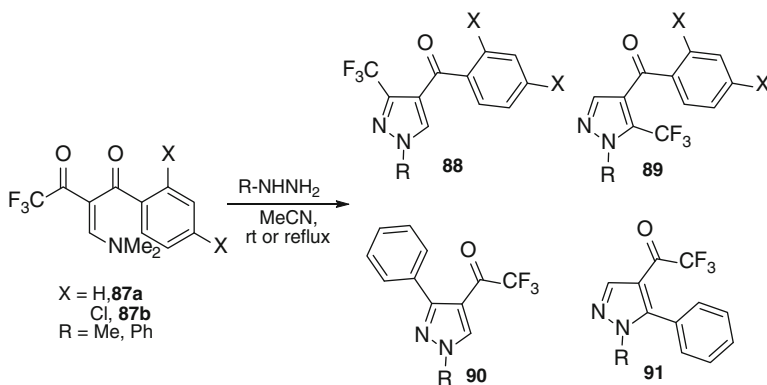
Following a similar strategy, when the substrate contains two ketone functionalities with different electronic properties, the outcome of the reaction in terms of regioselectivity, can be controlled by the substituent of the hydrazine. One example, shown in Scheme 27, is the reaction of 3-acetyl-4-ethoxy-1,1,1-trifluorobut-3-en-2-one **84** with phenyl- and aromatic heterocyclic hydrazines, in THF at $-10\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$. While 4-trifluoroacetylpyrazoles **85** were obtained as exclusive products (58–68 %), the reaction of **84** with methylhydrazine led to the sole formation of 4-acetyl-3-trifluoromethylpyrazole **86** [46]. In both cases, the reaction proceeds through the initial attack of the more nucleophilic nitrogen atom of the hydrazine (NH₂ for the aromatic hydrazines and NH for methylhydrazine) to the β -carbon to the carbonyl and subsequent addition of the other nitrogen atom to the more

electrophilic COCF_3 (with methylhydrazine; intermediate **B**) or to the less reactive COMe (with aromatic hydrazines; intermediate **A**).



Scheme 27

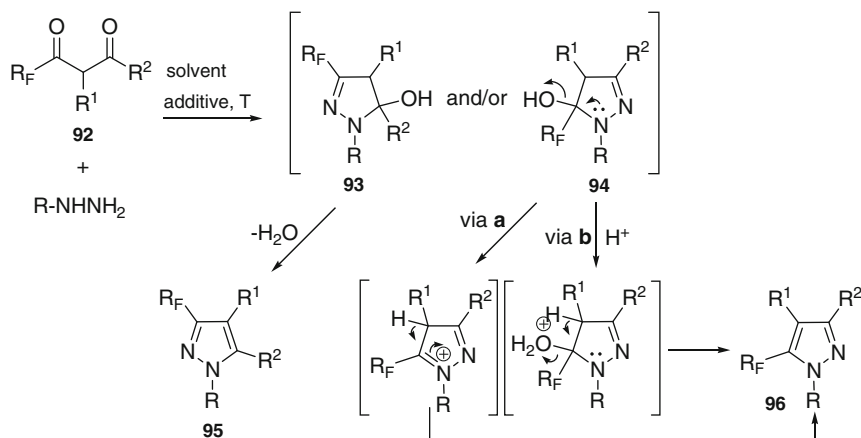
In connection with these observations, Mirand and co-workers [38] studied the influence of electron-withdrawing substituents in the regioselectivity of heterocyclization reactions involving fluorinated enaminodiketones and monosubstituted hydrazines. To this end they prepared **87a** and the 2,4-dichlorophenyl analogue **87b**. The reaction of **87a** with methylhydrazine in acetonitrile afforded a mixture of three pyrazoles **88**, **89** and **90** in a 3:1:1 ratio (81 % overall yield). Treatment of the same diketone **87a** with phenylhydrazine gave a mixture of **89** (54 %) and **91** (28 %) (Scheme 28). In contrast, the condensation of the dichlorophenyl derivative **87b** with either methyl- or phenylhydrazine afforded mixtures of **88** and **89** as only components, but in different ratios depending on the hydrazine (3-/5- ratio = 2.75:1 with methylhydrazine; 3-/5- ratio = 1:21 with phenylhydrazine).



Scheme 28

3.1.2 Using Trifluoromethyl 1,3-Dicarbonyl Compounds

The condensation of fluoroalkyl 1,3-diketones **92** with monosubstituted hydrazines has been the most popular synthetic approach towards fluoroalkyl 3,5-disubstituted pyrazoles of general structure **95** and **96** (Scheme 29) [47]. The influence of the electronic and steric properties on the regioselectivity of the condensation of a variety of fluoroalkyl 1,3-dicarbonyl compounds with aryl and heterocyclic aromatic hydrazines is summarized on Table 1.



Scheme 29

In many cases, mixtures of the 3- and 5-fluoroalkyl regioisomers were obtained. However, when reactions were performed in neutral alcoholic media, 5-fluoroalkyl-5-hydroxypyrazoline intermediates **94** were isolated instead of the dehydrated final products **96** (entries 1, 6, 7, 9; Table 1) [48]. This observation could be explained on the basis of the influence of the fluoroalkyl group adjacent to the hydroxyl group that stabilizes the hydroxypyrazoline **94**, preventing the dehydration process (via **a**). In addition, the dehydration involves a cationic intermediate, whose formation could explain why, when R is an electron-withdrawing group, the dehydration does not occur or occurs with difficulty. In contrast, in an acidic medium, **94** was not observed, probably because the dehydration follows a different mechanism (via **b**). In acidic EtOH solution (H_2SO_4 catalyst), at room temperature or at reflux, the 3-trifluoromethylpyrazole **95** was the major or the only regioisomer observed in the condensation of phenylhydrazine with trifluoromethyl-1,3-diketones bearing aryl, heteroaryl, and alkyl substituents (for $R^2=Me$; ratio **95/96** = 1:1) [24]. Similar results were obtained by Norris [48d] and Singh [48e] in the heterocyclization of 4,4,4-trifluoro- and 4,4-difluoro-1-phenyl-1,3-butanediones with phenyl and 4-methanesulfonylpyridin-2-yl hydrazines in boiling 2-propanol. In all cases, the reactions were carried out in the presence of H_2SO_4 (entries 6 and 7; Table 1).

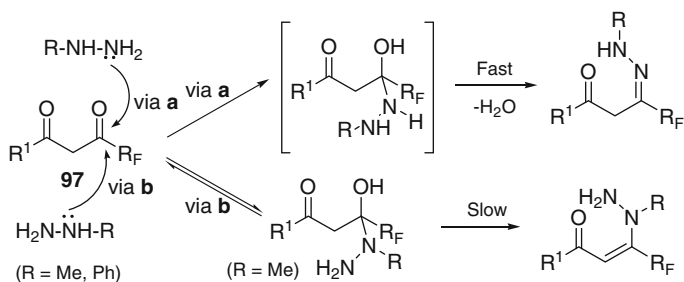
Table 1 Synthesis of fluoroalkyl pyrazoles by condensation between fluoroalkyl 1,3-diketones and monosubstituted hydrazines

Ent	R _F	R ¹	R ²	R	Cond.	Ratio 95:94 or 95:96	Yield (%)	References
1	CF ₃	H	Me, 2-thienyl	C ₆ F ₅ , HC ₆ F ₄ , ClC ₆ F ₄	EtOH; rt or reflux	0:100-1:2	57-72	[48c]
2	CF ₃	H	Me, Et, <i>i</i> -Pr, <i>t</i> -Bu, <i>n</i> -hexyl, Ph, 2(or 4)-Me/MeO/F/ O ₂ NC ₆ H ₄ , NCC ₆ H ₄ , 2-naphthyl/ pyrrolyl/furyl/thienyl/pyridyl	Ph	EtOH; rt or reflux H ₂ SO ₄	100:0-1:1	60-100	[24]
3	CF ₃	H	2-MeOC ₆ H ₄ , 3-Me/MeO/ NCC ₆ H ₄ , 4-Me/Et/FC ₆ H ₄ , 2-/3-/4-pyridyl	4-MeC ₆ H ₄	Si-TsOH; EtOH; μW; 160 °C; 5 min	-	42-95	[51]
4	CF ₃ , CHF ₂	H, Et	4-MeO/Br/O ₂ NC ₆ H ₄ , Ph	Ph, 4-Br/H ₂ NO ₂ SC ₆ H ₄	DMAc, 10 N HCl, rt, 24 h	86:14->99.8:0.2	59-98	[49]
5	CF ₂ Br	H	Ph, 4-Me/MeOC ₆ H ₄ , 3-thienyl	4-O ₂ N/H ₃ NSO ₂ / MeHNSO ₂ Bn	DMF, conc. H ₂ SO ₄ 100 °C; 2-7 h	94:6-99:1	69-86	[50]
6	CF ₃ , CHF ₂	H	Ph	Ph, 4-methanosul- fonylpyridin-2-yl	<i>i</i> -PrOH, 85 °C 1-6 days <i>i</i> -PrOH, 85 °C H ₂ SO ₄ , 1 h	3:1-8:1 15:2-100:0	97-100 65-98	[48d]
7	CF ₃	H	Ph, 4-MeO/F/Cl/Br/O ₂ NC ₆ H ₄	Ph, 4-O ₂ NC ₆ H ₄ , 6-(Me/F) benzo-thiazol-2-yl, 4methylquinol- in-2-yl	EtOH, reflux	R=Ph: 2.5:1-100:0 Remaining hydrazines: 1:1.5-0:100	75-82	[48e]
8	CF ₃	H	2-thienyl	Me	EtOH, H ₂ SO ₄ , reflux	1.5:1-100:0	6-87	[52]
9	CF ₃ , CF ₂ Me, CF ₂ CF ₃	H	Me, Ph, 4-MeO/ClC ₆ H ₄ , 2,4-Cl ₂ C ₆ H ₃ , 2-furyl	Me, Ph	AcOH-EtOH, reflux EtOH, rt, 45 min TFE, rt, 45 min HFIP, rt, 45 min	100:0 1:1-6:1 3:1-99:1 4:1->99:<1	60 52-99 40-99 61-99	[48f]

Excellent regioselectivities were also obtained using polar aprotic solvents, instead of alcohols, in the presence of a protic acid. The condensation reactions of 1-aryl-4,4,4-trifluoro and 1-aryl-4,4-difluoro-1,3-butanediones with arylhydrazines in *N,N*-dimethylacetamide (DMA) in the presence of 10 N HCl aq. (50 mol%), at room temperature, led to 3-fluoroalkylpyrazole derivatives **95** in good yields and with regioselectivities ranging from 88:12 to >99.8:0.2 (entry 4; Table 1) [49] Wu and co-workers [50] reported a highly regioselective synthesis of 3-bromodifluoromethylpyrazoles (from 94:6 to >99:1) by condensing of 1-aryl-4-bromo-4,4-difluoro-1,3-butanediones in dimethylformamide (DMF) at 100 °C in the presence of catalytic amounts of concentrated H₂SO₄ (entry 5; Table 1).

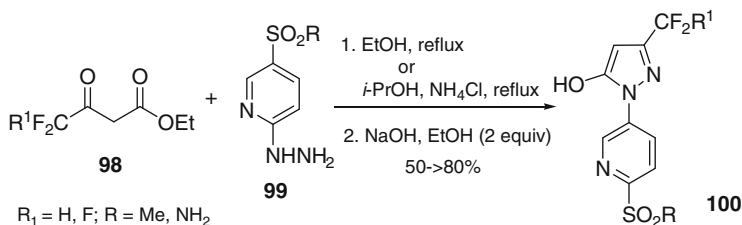
By changing the acid source to silica-supported *p*-toluenesulfonic acid, a series of 1,5-diaryl-3-trifluoromethylpyrazoles **95** were synthesized through the microwave-assisted addition of tolylhydrazine to aryltrifluoromethyl-1,3-diketones in EtOH (entry 3; Table 1) [51]. Reactions were completed in 5 min, and a workup step could be avoided in the isolation of the targeted pyrazoles.

Condensations of fluorinated 1,3-diketones and methylhydrazine are scarce in the literature. In boiling AcOH-EtOH, 4,4,4-trifluoro-1-(2-thienyl)butane-1,3-dione reacted with methylhydrazine yielding 3-trifluoromethyl-1-methyl-5-(2-thienyl)pyrazole as only product in 60 % yield [52]. Fustero and co-workers [48f] reported an elegant and regioselective process that gives fluorinated 1-methylpyrazoles starting from fluoroalkyl 1,3-diketones and methylhydrazine. When reactions were performed in EtOH at room temperature, mixtures of 3-fluoroalkylpyrazoles **95** and 5-fluoroalkyl-5-hydroxypyrazolines **94** were obtained with poor regioselectivities (1:1 to 1:3). Remarkably, using the more acidic alcohols trifluoroethanol (TFE; pK_a=12.4) and hexafluoroisopropanol (HFIP; pK_a=9.3) as solvents, instead of EtOH (pK_a=15.9), regioselectivities improved to 99:1 in favour of the 3-fluoroalkylpyrazole isomers **95**. An NMR experiment revealed the competition between the two nucleophiles, methylhydrazine and EtOH, toward the more electrophilic α -fluorinated carbonyl group, whereas such competition was not observed when the non-nucleophilic TFE or HFIP were added. These results could explain the dramatic increase in the regioselectivities when the fluorinated solvents were used. Interestingly, both methyl- and phenylhydrazine led to 3-fluoroalkylpyrazoles as major regioisomers, despite the fact that NH₂ is the more nucleophilic nitrogen in phenylhydrazine but not in methylhydrazine. This apparent anomaly in the case of methylhydrazine was explained by considering that the attack of the more nucleophilic NH group on the more reactive carbonyl group of **97** (Scheme 30) resulted in the formation of a hemiaminal (via **b**) that does not dehydrate easily to yield the hydrazone and can revert to the starting materials. This dehydration is disfavoured because of the presence of the fluoroalkyl group. In contrast, the NH₂ group of methylhydrazine attacks the fluoroalkylated carbonyl group, leading to the irreversible hydrazone formation (via **a**), in agreement with Elguero's observation that the kinetic controlling step is the first dehydration [53].



Scheme 30

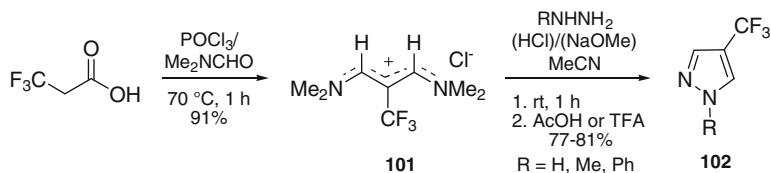
Generally speaking, the condensation reaction between alkyl trifluoroacetates and monosubstituted hydrazines proceeds by the initial attack of the NH_2 of the hydrazine to the more electrophilic $COCF_3$, followed by cyclization, leading to either 5-hydroxypyrazoles or their tautomers 5-pyrazolones. Thus, the condensation of ethyl 4,4,4-trifluoroacetate **98** ($R^1=F$) with 2-pyridylhydrazines **99** in refluxing EtOH or *i*-PrOH, followed by treatment with sodium hydroxide, afforded regioselectively 1-substituted 3-trifluoromethyl-5-hydroxypyrazoles **100** in moderate yield (Scheme 31) [54]. The 2-difluoromethyl-5-hydroxypyrazoles analogues **100** ($R^1=H$) were prepared in the same manner starting from ethyl 4,4-difluoroacetate.



Scheme 31

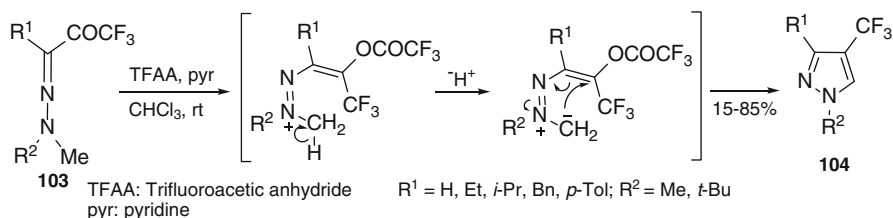
4 Synthesis of 4-Fluoroalkylpyrazoles

Several methods have been described for the preparation of pyrazole containing fluoroalkyl groups at C-4. 1*H*-, 1-Methyl, and 1-phenyl 4-trifluoromethylpyrazoles **102** were regioselectively obtained by condensation of the β -trifluoromethyl vinamidinium salt **101** with hydrazine, methylhydrazine, and phenylhydrazine, respectively (Scheme 32) [55].



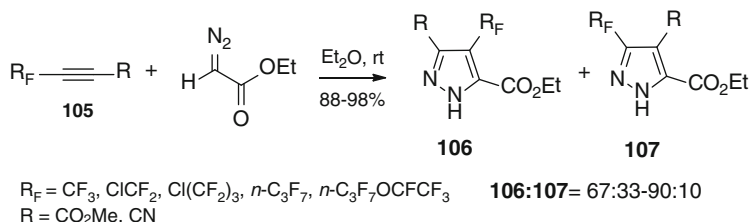
Scheme 32

Hojo and co-workers reported the synthesis of 4-trifluoromethylpyrazoles **104** by trifluoroacetic anhydride (TFAA) induced cyclization of trifluoroacetylated hydrazones **103** in pyridine [56]. Both TFAA and pyridine proved necessary for the success of the reaction. It is noteworthy that the cyclization occurs on the *N*-methyl group (Scheme 33). A speculative mechanism involving a *N*-methylidene intermediate was proposed in order to explain the obtained results.



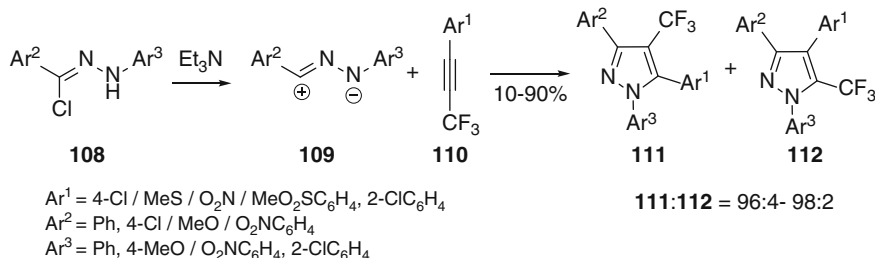
Scheme 33

The 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition using fluoroalkylacetylenes as dipolarophiles represents the key method to preparing diverse 4-fluoroalkylpyrazoles. The addition of ethyl diazoacetate to fluorine-containing acetylenes **105**, in diethyl ether at room temperature, afforded mixtures of 4- and 3-fluoroalkylpyrazoles **106** and **107** in high yield but with poor control over the regioselectivity in general (Scheme 34). Both products were easily separated chromatographically [57].



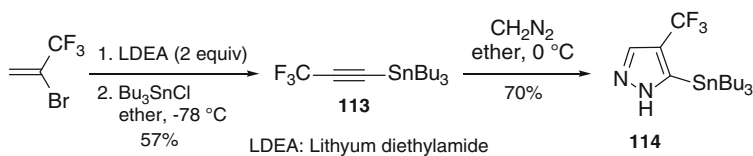
Scheme 34

Higher regioselectivities were obtained in the preparation of 1,3,5-triaryl-4-trifluoromethylpyrazoles **111** by 1,3-cycloaddition between diarylnitrileimines **109** and a variety of substituted 1-aryl-3,3,3-trifluoro-1-propynes **110** [58]. Nitrileimines **109** were formed *in situ* from the corresponding α -halohydrazone **108** (Scheme 35). The regioselectivity was not affected by the nature of the aryl substituents both in the alkyne and the nitrileimine. Lower regioselectivities were observed when nitrileoxides, sydnone and azides were employed as 1,3-dipoles.



Scheme 35

The 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition of tributyl(3,3,3-trifluoro-1-propynyl)stannane **113** with diazomethane allowed the regioselective synthesis of 5-(tributyl)stannyl-4-trifluoromethylpyrazole **114** (Scheme 36) [59], and interesting building-block for the synthesis of a variety of 5-substituted 4-trifluoromethylpyrazoles by cross-coupling reactions (see Sect. 7.1).



Scheme 36

5 Fluoro- and Fluoroalkylindazoles

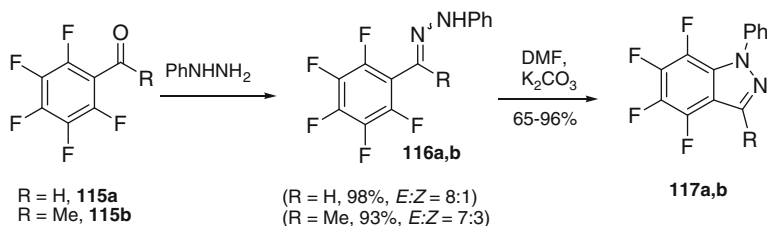
Indazoles (benzo[*c*]pyrazoles) have been studied to a much lesser extent than the related pyrazoles. Yet, molecular entities containing this structural motif have started to flourish recently in the context of pharmaceutical sciences and materials [60]. In particular, the preponderance of fluorine containing indazoles in journals and chemical patent literature is very limited. For the sake of clarity, fluoroindazoles will be classified in four categories, depending on the exact location of the fluorine atom within the bicyclic core:

- (a) Indazoles fluorinated at the phenyl ring, more often in all four positions (4,5,6,7-tetrafluoroindazoles)

- (b) Indazoles fluorinated at the pyrazole ring (3-fluoroindazoles)
- (c) Indazoles containing a fluoroalkyl group at C-3 (3-fluoroalkylindazoles)
- (d) Indazoles containing a fluoroalkyl group at N1 (1-fluoroalkylindazoles)

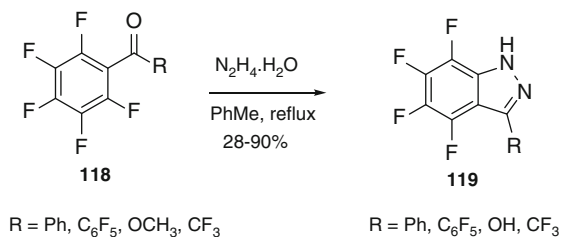
5.1 Synthesis of 4,5,6,7-Tetrafluoroindazoles

In general, indazoles exist in a single tautomeric form (*1H*-) with the exception of some *C*-substituted examples. There are two main methods for the synthesis of indazoles which can be exploited also in the preparation of the fluorinated counterparts: the diazotization of 2-alkylanilines and the cyclization of *ortho*-substituted hydrazones. The former usually requires acidic conditions and works best with electron deficient aromatic substrates while the latter employs hydrazine and involves the formation of one or two bonds of the pyrazole ring starting from cyclohexanones or mono or bifunctional arenes [61, 62]. In the first report describing the preparation of 4,5,6,7-tetrafluoro-1-phenylindazole, pentafluorobenzaldehyde **115a** (R=H) was treated with phenylhydrazine resulting in the formation of the corresponding phenylhydrazone **116a** in excellent yield (98 %) with a 8:1 *E:Z* ratio [63]. While the *Z*-isomer was cyclised to the desired indazole **117a** upon treatment with potassium carbonate in DMF at room temperature, higher temperatures (100 °C) were required in order to observe the complete conversion of the *E*-isomer (Scheme 37). The same reaction sequence was carried out starting from 2,3,4,5,6-pentafluoroacetophenone **115b** (R=Me), leading to C3-substituted indazole **117b** in 60 % yield over two steps.



Scheme 37

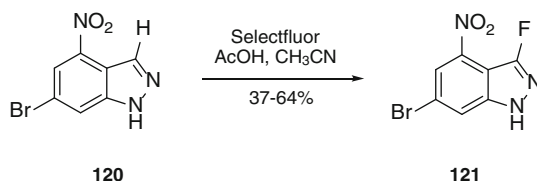
Other derivatives unsubstituted at N1 **119** were synthesized in one step by condensation of hydrazine monohydrate and pentafluoroaryl ketones **118** in excellent yield (Scheme 38) [64]. Interestingly, in the case of methyl pentafluorobenzoate **118** (R=OMe), the desired indazole is obtained in low yield (28 %) due to the fact that substitution of the fluorine by hydrazine occurs *ortho*- and *para*- to the ester group; so, besides 4,5,6,7-tetrafluoro-1H-indazol-3-ol (**119**, R=OH)), the methyl 2,3,5,6-tetrafluoro-4-hydrazinylbenzoate is also formed.



Scheme 38

5.2 Synthesis of 3-Fluoroindazoles

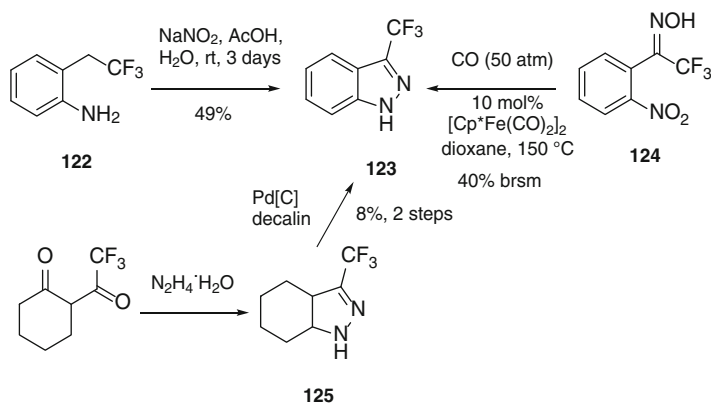
Incorporation of a fluorine at C-3 can be achieved by treatment of a preformed (3*H*)-indazole with electrophilic fluorinating reagents. In the context of a medicinal chemistry programme, scientists at GSK carried out the fluorination of 4-nitro-6-bromo-(1*H*)-indazole (**120**) with Selectfluor® in a mixture of acetonitrile and acetic acid (Scheme 39). Best yields (64 %) were observed when the reaction mixture was submitted to microwave irradiation [65]. The scope of this synthetic transformation is somewhat limited, since the regioselectivity is controlled by the presence of two electron withdrawing groups on the phenyl ring.



Scheme 39

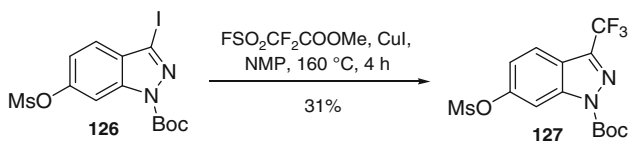
5.3 Synthesis of 3-Fluoroalkylindazoles

The synthesis of 3-trifluoromethyl-1*H*-indazole (**123**) was originally reported in 1975 using a standard condensation procedure [66]. Other procedures that lead to this compound are depicted in Scheme 40. Although the yields are low to moderate, these examples demonstrate that fluorinated indazoles can also be constructed relying on a *N-N* bond forming reaction (diazotization). For instance, treatment of the aniline **122** with sodium nitrite in AcOH gave the desired product in 49 % as a 1:1 mixture with an unidentified side product [67]. Alternatively *ortho*-nitroketoxime **124** were converted to 1*H*-indazole **123** upon reaction with carbon monoxide with [Cp*Fe(CO)₂]₂ as catalyst [68]. This reductive cyclization, albeit low yielding, offers the advantage of being carried out under neutral conditions. Finally, the aromatization of the tetrahydroindazole precursor **125** yielded the same trifluoromethyl indazole **123** in poor overall yield.



Scheme 40

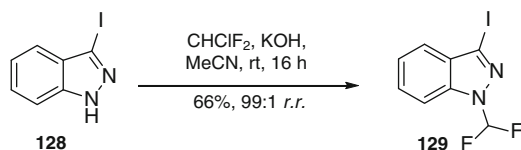
Methods that allow the incorporation of trifluoromethyl group onto haloarenes and haloheteroarenes have emerged in recent years [69]. Only one example has been reported in the context of fluoroalkylindazoles. The copper mediated coupling of a Boc-protected 3-iodoindazole **126** and a suitable source of CF_3 (2-fluorosulfonyl-2,2-difluoroacetic acid methyl ester) led to the formation of the coupling product **127** in low yield (31 %) (Scheme 41) [70]. It is believed that with the recent discovery of synthetic technologies for the palladium and copper catalyzed incorporation of the CF_3 group onto sp^2 -carbon atoms, this approach will be further optimized in the near future.



Scheme 41

5.4 Synthesis of 1-Fluoroalkylindazoles

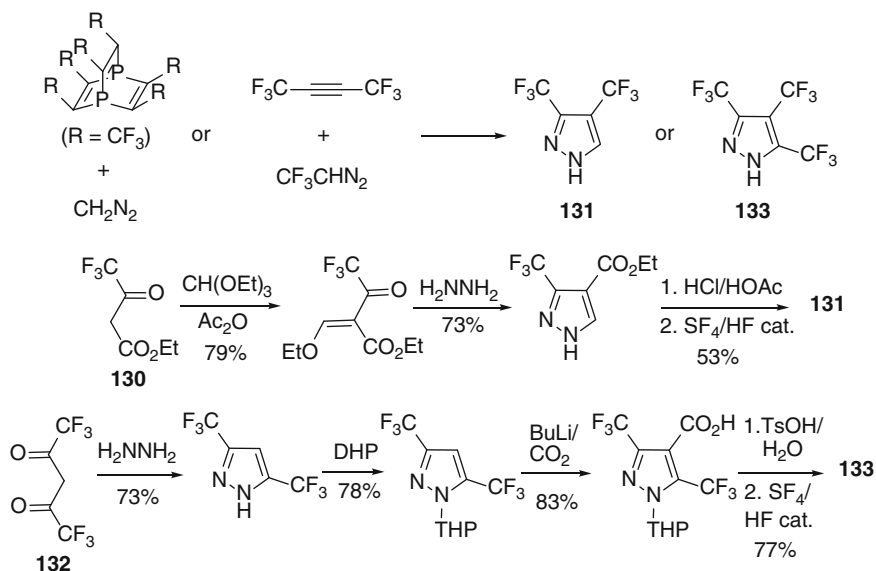
In the context of a medicinal chemistry programme, it was required the incorporation of a difluoromethyl group onto the nitrogen of the indazole. It was shown that the fluorinated grouping provided greater metabolic stability relative to the corresponding 1H-indazole derivative [71]. After extensive optimization it was found that chlorodifluoromethane could be employed for the selective incorporation at N1 of the difluoromethyl group in 3-iodoindazole **128** (Scheme 42). Acetonitrile was identified as the preferred solvent together with aqueous KOH as the base. By using this protocol 1-difluoromethyl-3-iodoindazole **129** was synthesized in 66 % in low scale and 59 % yield on a 20-g scale.



Scheme 42

6 Miscellaneous

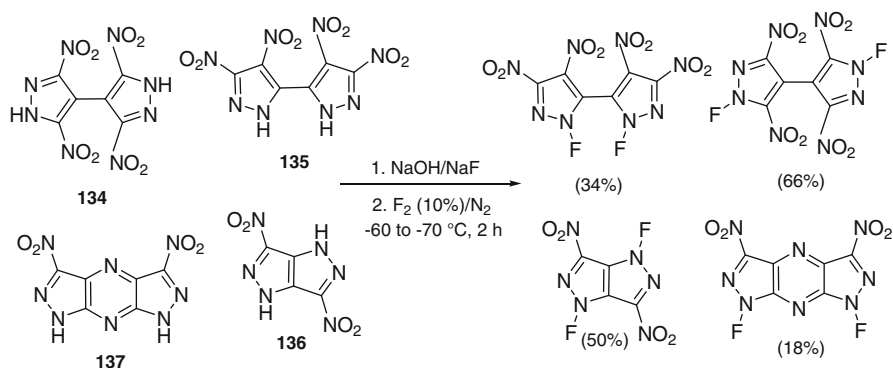
Syntheses of 3,4-bis(trifluoromethyl) **131** and 3,4,5-(tris)trifluoromethylpyrazole **133** were reported in the second half of the past century [72]. These procedures involved the use of gaseous starting materials such as diazomethane, bis(trifluoromethyl) acetylene, or trifluoromethyldiazomethane (Scheme 43). Recently, two practical syntheses to **131** and **133**, based on the transformation of the carboxylic group into the trifluoromethyl group by sulphur tetrafluoride (SF_4), were reported (Scheme 43) [73]. These procedures allowed the gram-scale preparation of **131** (30 % overall yield from commercially available **130**) and **133** (36 % overall yield from commercially available **132**). Physical properties such as *NH*-acidities or fluorescence were determined for both compounds.



DHP: Dihydropyrene, THP: Tetrahydropyrene

Scheme 43

Dalinger and co-workers [74] have reported a regioselective *N*-fluorination of Na-salts of polynitrated bipyrroles **134**, **135** and pyrazole-based fused heterocycles **136**, **137** with fluorine-nitrogen mixture (10 % F₂) at -60 to -70 °C in NaOH solution in the presence of NaF (Scheme 44). The fluorination occurred only at the nitrogen atom which is most distant from the nitro group.

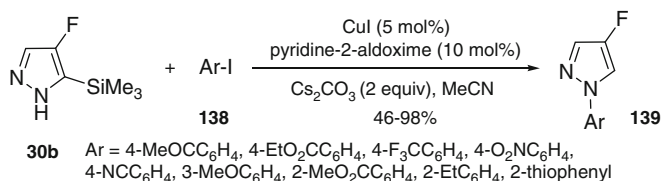


Scheme 44

7 Applications

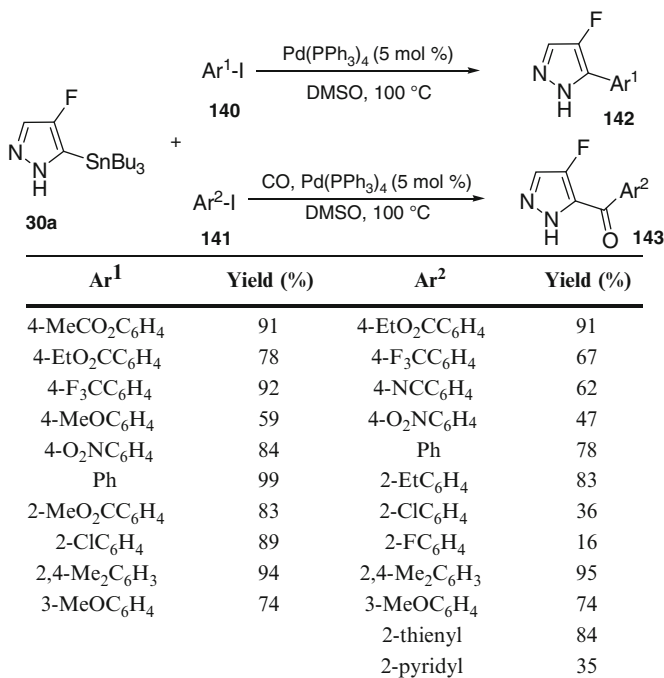
7.1 *C-N and C-C Cross-Coupling Reactions*

In the last years, metal-catalyzed cross-coupling reactions have emerged as a powerful tool for the construction of C-C and C-N bonds. In this context, 4-fluoro-5-trimethylsilyl-1*H*-pyrazole (**30b**) was used as fluorinated building block in a copper iodide-catalyzed *N*-arylation with a variety of aryl iodides **138** (Ullmann-type reaction) affording *N*-aryl-4-fluoropyrazoles **139** in high yields [18a]. Interestingly, these coupling reactions occurred at 60–70 °C using pyridine-2-aldoxime as ligand. It is noteworthy that some functional groups such as ketone, ester, ether or nitro were compatible with the reaction conditions (Scheme 45).



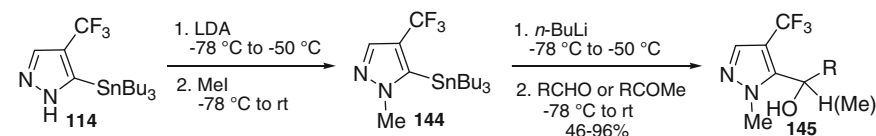
Scheme 45

Palladium-catalyzed C-C cross-coupling reactions between 5-tributylstannyl-4-fluoro-1*H*-pyrazole (**30a**) and aryl iodides **140** and **141** led to the corresponding 5-aryl-4-fluoro-1*H*-pyrazoles **142** in high yields [18c]. The versatility of the process was demonstrated when reactions were conducted under an atmosphere of carbon monoxide (CO). The corresponding 5-acyl-4-fluoro-1*H*-pyrazoles **143** arising from a carbonylative cross-coupling reaction were obtained in variable yields (Scheme 46). As in the C-N cross-coupling reactions mentioned above, a variety of functional groups were tolerated in the process.



Scheme 46

As it was indicated above, 5-(tributyl)stannyl-4-trifluoromethylpyrazole (**114**) was used as suitable building-block for the preparation of some 5-substituted-4-trifluoromethylpyrazoles [75]. Compound **114** was regioselectively converted into its 1-methyl derivative **144** in almost quantitative yield upon treatment with LDA followed by addition of methyl iodide. Transmetalation with *n*-BuLi and quenching of the resulting lithiated species with a range of aldehydes and ketones gave a range of 5-(1-hydroxy)alkylpyrazoles **145** (Scheme 47). Other electrophiles such as *S*-phenyl benzenethiosulfate and phenyl isocyanate afforded the corresponding adducts in good yield.



RCOMe: R = C₉H₁₉, Ph.

RCHO: R = Ph, 4-MeO/Ph/ CF₃C₆H₄, 3,4-(MeO)₂C₆H₃, 2-tolyl, CH=CHPh, CH=CHMe, C₉H₁₉, 3-pentyl.

Scheme 47

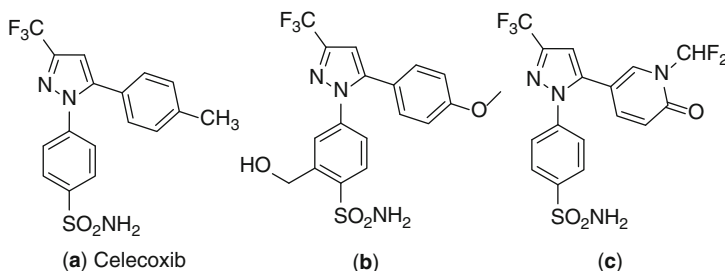


Fig. 1 Inhibitors of COX-2 and LOX-2

7.2 Pharmaceuticals and Agrochemicals

The presence of fluorine atoms in drug candidates has increased dramatically over the past two decades. The special nature of fluorine might confer a range of properties to different molecular scaffolds, such as enhanced binding interactions, increased metabolic stability or changes in physicochemical properties. In this regard, the trifluoromethyl group has become a privileged unit because of its ability to effectively fine-tune pharmacokinetic properties of molecular entities.

3-Trifluoromethyl- and 3,5-bis(trifluoromethyl)-containing pyrazole motifs are present in numerous pharmacologically relevant compounds. Celecoxib [76] (commercialized as Celebrex) is a nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drug (NSAID) introduced into the clinical practice for the treatment of rheumatoid arthritis and osteoarthritis in humans. It belongs to a 1,5-diaryl-3-trifluoromethylpyrazole class of selective cyclooxygenase-2 (COX-2) inhibitors bearing a benzenesulfonamide function at N1 (Fig. 1a). Further structural modifications at N1 and C-5, allowed the preparation of selective COX-2 inhibitors [77]. Some particular modifications, such as the incorporation of a hydroxymethyl group at the phenyl group at N1, together with the incorporation of a *p*-methoxyphenyl group at C-5 led to a considerable increase in potency with respect to celecoxib (Fig. 1b) [78].

The pharmacological profile of this series was enhanced by the incorporation of *N*-difluoromethyl-1,2-dihydropyrid-2-one at C-5. The compound shown (Fig. 1c) displayed dual selective COX-2/lipoxygenase-2 (LOX-2) inhibitory activities [79]. Replacement of *p*-tolyl moiety by a *N*-(4-nitrooxybutyl)piperidyl or *N*-(4-nitrooxybutyl)-1,2,3,6-tetrahydropyridyl group revealed a new chemical series of

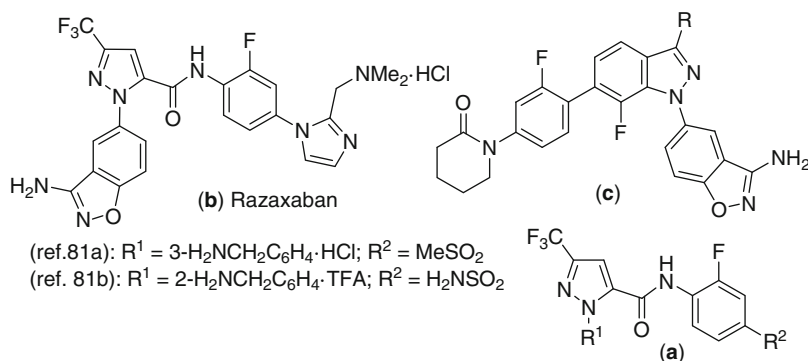


Fig. 2 Inhibitors of factor Xa

hybrid nitric oxide (NO) releasing anti-inflammatory (AI) coxib prodrugs (NO-coxib) with an AI potency profile that was similar to aspirin [80].

The 1-aryl-3-trifluoromethylpyrazole-5-carboxamide group is present in many of the orally available blood coagulation factor Xa inhibitors. Pinto and co-workers found in their medicinal chemistry program that a fluorinated pyrazole was an optimal five-membered heterocyclic core. Thus, two members of the 3-trifluoromethylpyrazole-5-carboxamide series were advanced to preclinical development (Fig. 2a) [81]. An additional structural modification, the incorporation of an aminobenzisoxazole moiety at *N1* instead of the benzylamine group, led to the discovery of razaxaban (Fig. 2b), a potent, selective, and orally bioavailable inhibitor of factor Xa with *in vivo* efficacy in antithrombotic models [82]. The amide hydrolysis observed *in vivo* could be modulated by introducing bicyclic core variants at the carboxamide portion, such as 1*H*-pyrazolo[4,3-*d*]pyrimidin-7(6*H*)-one or 1,4,5,6-tetrahydropyrazolo[3,4-*c*]pyridine-7-one [83].

In the context of a study of selective factor Xa inhibitors for thromboembolic diseases, a key 7-fluoroindazolyl moiety was employed [84]. It was reasoned that fluoro group on the indazole scaffold could be used as a replacement of the carbonyl group of an amide that was found in previously reported factor Xa inhibitors (Fig. 2a). According to the solid state structure of a factor Xa cocrystal containing an example of the 7-fluoroindazole series, showed the 7-fluoro atom hydrogen-bonding with the N-H of Gly216 in the peptide backbone. The presence of the F atom did also have an effect in inhibitory potencies, being 60-fold greater for the 7-fluoroindazoles (Fig. 2c) versus non-fluorinated counterparts.

A series of 5-[(3-trifluoromethyl)-1*H*-pyrazol-4-yl)methylene]-2-thioxothiazolidin-4-ones were evaluated as ADAMTS-5 (aggrecanase-2) inhibitors. It is believed that by preventing the degradation of aggrecan, a major component of cartilage, the progression of osteoporosis can be arrested. The most representative compound of this series is depicted in Fig. 3a [85]. In an alternative effort, a structure-activity relationship (SAR) study around 3-trifluoromethyl-1-methylpyrazoles allowed the discovery of potent and selective calcium-release-activated calcium (CRAC) channel inhibitors. Interestingly, the incorporation of an additional trifluoromethyl

Fig. 3 Inhibitors of ADAMTS-5 (a), and CRAC channel (b)

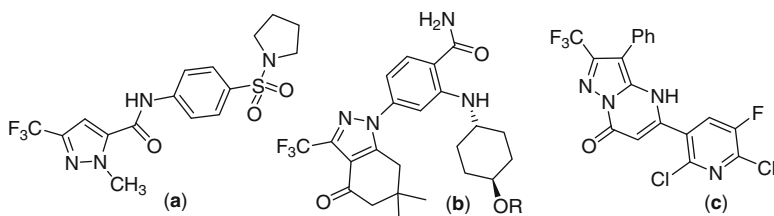
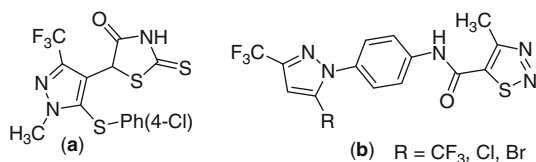


Fig. 4 Non-nucleoside inhibitor of the measles virus RNA-dependent RNA polymerase complex (a), inhibitor of heat shock protein 90 (b), and activator of KCNQ potassium channel (c)

group at the pyrazole ring increased the *in vitro* potency (Fig. 3b) [86]. Other electron-withdrawing groups (Cl, Br) were equally effective. Related 4'-[3,5-bis(trifluoromethyl)pyrazol-1-yl]carboxyanilides were previously identified as nuclear factor of activated T-cells (NFAT) transcription factor regulators [87].

The 3-trifluoromethyl-1-methylpyrazole motif is also present in non-nucleoside inhibitors of the measles virus RNA-dependent RNA polymerase complex (Fig. 4a) [88]. Measles virus is one of the most infectious pathogens known to date. Quantitative structure-activity relationships (QSAR) suggests that the pyrazole-CF₃ most likely sits in a pocket housing cationic Arg, His or Lys. Other biologically relevant trifluoromethylpyrazole derivatives include some fused systems. The 3-trifluoromethylindazol-4-one derived 2-aminobenzamides (Fig. 4b) showed strong binding affinity to heat shock protein 90 (Hsp90) and has recently entered clinical trials as antitumor agents [89]. More recently, 2-trifluoromethylpyrazolo[1,5-a]pyrimidin-7(4H)-ones (Fig. 4c) have been patented as potent activators (openers) of KCNQ2/3 potassium channels [90].

Progressive degenerative osteoarthritis is the most common cause of chronic pain in dogs. Deracoxib (Fig. 5a), a 1,5-diaryl-3-difluoromethylpyrazole derivative, is a moderately potent canine COX-2 inhibitor in the market [91]. Some potent and selective analogues of deracoxib included a 5-methanesulfonylpyridinyl group at N1 [92]. Along these lines, the incorporation of both a cyano group at C-4 and a *cis*-dimethylmorpholine at C-5 of the pyrazole ring increased the *in vitro* and *in vivo* activities in dogs and cats (Fig. 5b, c) [93]. Furthermore, a trifluoromethyl derivative (Fig. 5d) is under clinical evaluation against the same disease [94].

Other biologically active trifluoromethylated pyrazoles and derivatives thereof are shown in Fig. 6. Members of the 5-trifluoromethyl-3*H*-pyrazol-3-ones chemical series (one example is depicted as the hydroxyl tautomer; Fig. 6a) have been shown to be antidiabetic agents. 5-Trifluoromethyl-5-hydroxypyrazolines containing a

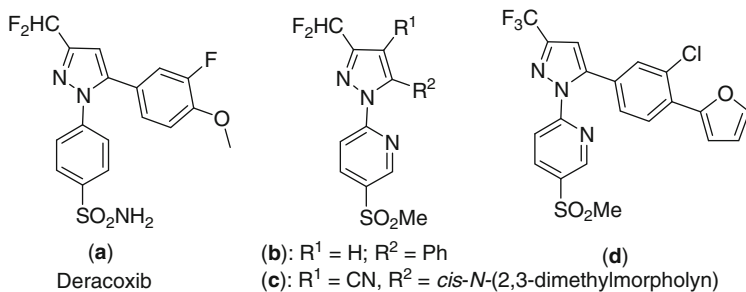


Fig. 5 Canine COX-2 inhibitors

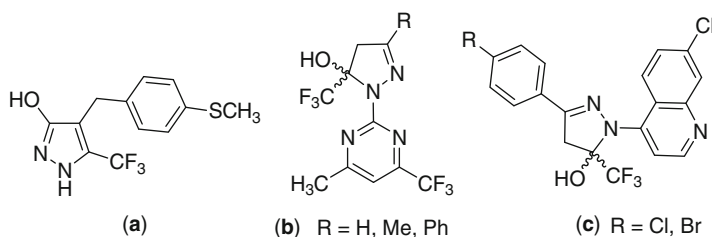


Fig. 6 Antidiabetic agent (a); analgesics (b), and antimalarials (c)

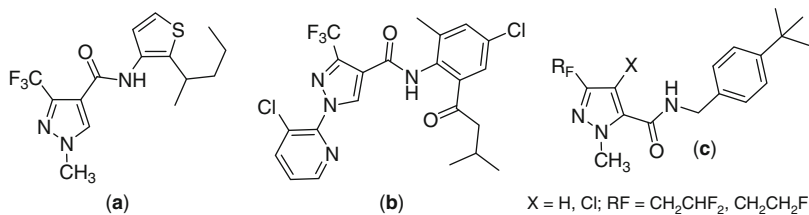


Fig. 7 Fungicide (a), insecticide (b), and acaricides (c)

pyrimidine substituent at $N1$ are potential analgesics and antipyretics (Fig. 6b) [43d]. Analogues of the popular quinoline antimalarial chloroquine, in which the diamino side chain was replaced by pyrazoles and hydroxypyrazolines, showed interesting activities *in vitro* (Fig. 6c) [95].

Fluoro- and fluoroalkylpyrazole templates are also present in important agrochemicals, two examples being the marketed fungicide penthiopyrad [96] (Fig. 7a) and the insecticidal anthranilic diamide (Fig. 7b) [97]. Fustero and co-workers prepared a small set of analogues of the commercially available acaricide tebufenpyrad with several fluorinated side chains at the pyrazole C-3 [98]. Some of these compounds displayed higher acaricidal activity than the parent compound tebufenpyrad (Fig. 7c).

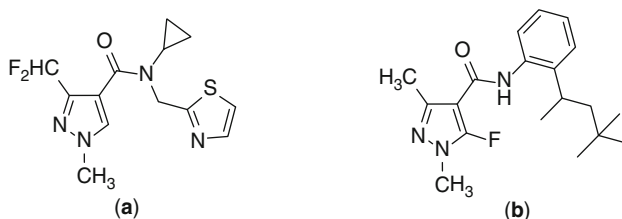


Fig. 8 Fungicide (a), and bactericide (b)

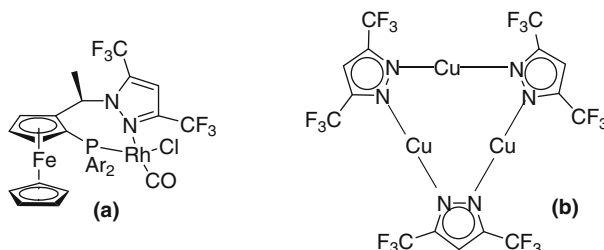


Fig. 9 Complexes with trifluoromethylated pyrazoles

The preparation of a range of 3-difluoromethyl-1-methylpyrazole-4-carboxamides and 5-fluoro-1,3-dimethyl-4-carboxamides and carboxanilides are described in some patents. These compounds display important activities as fungicides (Fig. 8a) and bactericides (Fig. 8b) [99]. Finally, the 3-trifluoromethylthiopyrazole motif is present in some pesticide hydrazone derivatives [100], and oxazolidines bearing a 3-trifluoromethyl-1-methyl-5-(2,2,2-trifluoro)ethoxypyrazole substituent show activity as herbicides [101].

7.3 Ligands in Coordination Chemistry

3-Trifluoromethyl and 3,5-bis(trifluoromethyl)pyrazoles has been widely used as ligands in coordination chemistry. Among them, the pyrazolide anions have emerged as the most versatile ligands in this field [102]. Different research groups have reported the synthesis and structural characterization of complexes of transition metals with trifluoromethylpyrazoles. For instance, Togni and co-workers prepared rhodium complexes with a ferrocenyl ligand in order to reveal the role of electronic effects on the enantioselectivity of the hydroboration reaction (Fig. 9a) [103]. The electron-withdrawing properties of these ligands were exploited by Dias and co-workers in the preparation of stable complexes of ethylene and carbon monoxide with silver and copper tris(pyrazolyl)borate, respectively [104]. Carty and co-workers reported the synthesis and structure of the complex $[(\text{CO})_3\text{Ru}(3,5\text{-(CF}_3)_2\text{pyrazolate}]$ and its use for the chemical vapor deposition (CVD) of ruthenium metal [105].

Moreover, Jones and co-workers prepared a series of 3,5-bis(trifluoromethyl)pyrazolate derivatives of Rh, Ir, Pd, and Pt as potential volatile precursors for the CVD of these metals [106].

Finally, Dias and co-workers carried out a systematic study of trinuclear, dinuclear, and mononuclear complexes of Cu(I) and Ag(I) with fluorinated pyrazole ligands (Fig. 9b) and found that these complexes exhibit bright, tunable luminescence [107]. Due to this behaviour, these complexes were selected as potential candidates for emitting materials in molecular light-emitting devices (LEDs). Fluorinated ligands not only increase the volatility of these ligands but might also improve properties such as thermal and oxidative stability, and reduced concentration quenching of luminescence to metal adducts. Moreover, the trinuclear metal pyrazolates also exhibit interesting π acid/base properties, which are highly dependent on the pyrazole ring substituents and the metal atom. While $\{[3,5-(\text{CH}_3)_2\text{Pz}]\text{Au}\}_3$ has been shown to be a π base, the fluorinated analogue $\{[3,5-(\text{CF}_3)_2\text{Pz}]\text{Au}\}_3$ possesses π acidity [108].

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Fluorinated Imidazoles and Benzimidazoles

Gordon W. Gribble, Sudipta Roy, and Sujata Roy

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Abstract Synthetic approaches towards the preparation of various fluoro-functionalized imidazoles and benzimidazoles are discussed in this chapter.

Keywords Benzimidazole • Fluorination • Fluoroalkylation • Imidazole • Trifluoromethylation

1 Introduction

Imidazoles and benzimidazoles are privileged scaffolds that are present in many biologically active molecules, natural products, pharmaceuticals, and agrochemicals (Figs. 1, 2, 3 and 4) [1, 2]. The imidazole-containing essential amino acid histidine is the precursor of histamine. Histidine and histamine play critical roles in many physiological functions. Anti-histamine drugs (H_1 -receptor antagonists or inverse agonists) are popular allergy medications [e.g. fexofenadine (Allegra),

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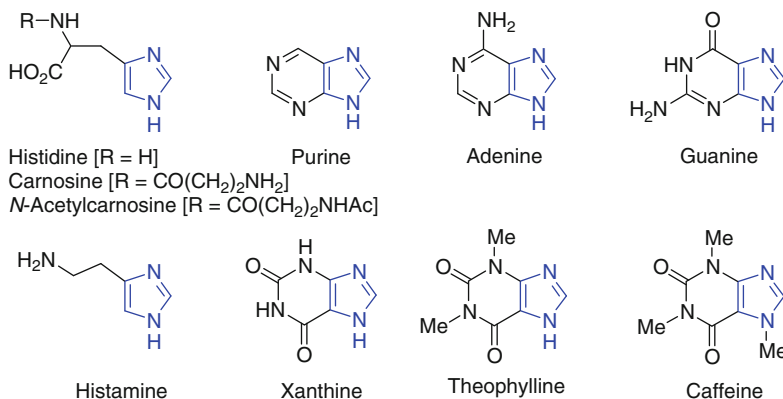


Fig. 1 Naturally-occurring compounds bearing imidazole core

loratadine (Claritin), diphenhydramine (Benadryl), cetirizine (Zyrtec)]. Purines (adenine, guanine), xanthine, theophylline, caffeine, carnosine, and *N*-acetylcarnosine (NAC) have the imidazole nucleus in their skeletons (Fig. 2). Although a large number of pharmaceuticals and agrochemicals contain an imidazole or benzimidazole core, as shown in Figs. 2, 3 and 4, the number of pharmaceuticals and agrochemicals bearing fluorinated imidazoles and benzimidazoles is relatively small (approximately 25–30 % of pharmaceuticals and agrochemicals contain fluorine) [3]. This might be partially attributed to the difficulty in the rapid preparation of a large number of targeted fluorinated imidazole and benzimidazole analogs during the discovery process.

Imidazole-based ligands and *N*-heterocyclic carbenes have shown remarkable catalytic effects on many organic reactions [4]. Fluoroalkyl-derivatized imidazolium-based ionic liquids are becoming increasingly important in the material science area. Besides relative thermal stability and potential use as green solvents, imidazolium ionic liquids are also useful in biphasic reaction catalysis, conductive membranes, dye-sensitized solar cells, atom transfer radical polymerization, and as water purification agents [5]. Furthermore, 2-trifluoromethyl-4,5-dicyanoimidazole lithium salt (LiTDI) shows promising results in rechargeable lithium battery technology [6].

As the most electronegative element, fluorine polarizes the C–F bond which enhances the bond strength (CH₃–F: 109 kcal/mol, Ph–F: 127 kcal/mol vs. CH₃–I: 58 kcal/mol, CH₃–Br: 71 kcal/mol) and decreases bond length (_{sp}³C–F: 1.39 Å, _{sp}²C–F: 1.34 Å vs. _{sp}³C–I: 2.15 Å, _{sp}³C–Br: 1.95 Å and _{sp}³C–H: 1.09 Å, _{sp}²C–H: 1.08 Å) [7]. The effect of fluorine on the physical properties of imidazole is exemplified by the lower pK_a of 2- and 4-fluoroimidazoles (pK_a ~2.4–2.5) compared to imidazole (pK_a ~6.9). Likewise, pK_a of 2- and 4-(difluoromethyl)imidazoles are lower (3.4 and 4.1, respectively) than the pK_a of 2- and 4-methylimidazoles (~7.5–7.9).

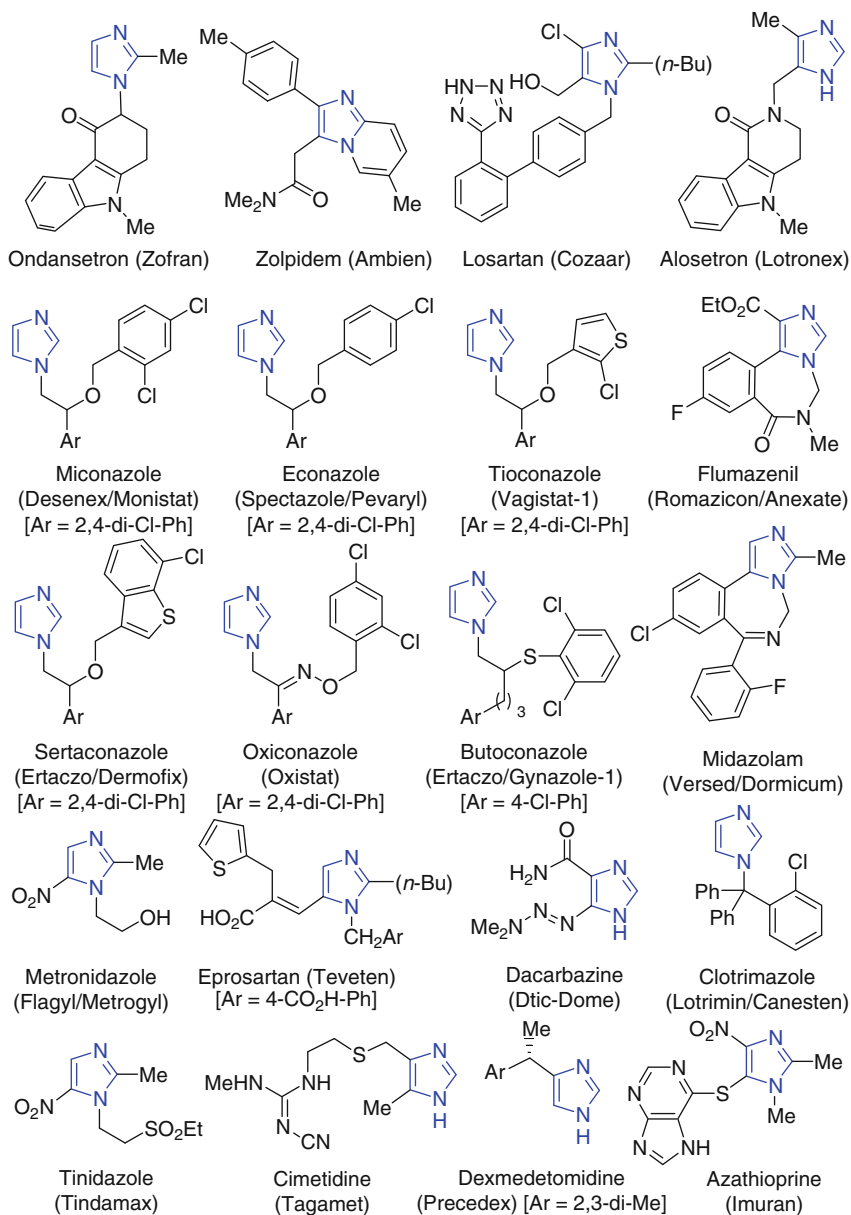


Fig. 2 Representative imidazole-bearing pharmaceuticals

In this chapter, we discuss the various synthetic strategies that allow for the preparation of a wide variety of fluorine-containing imidazoles and benzimidazoles.

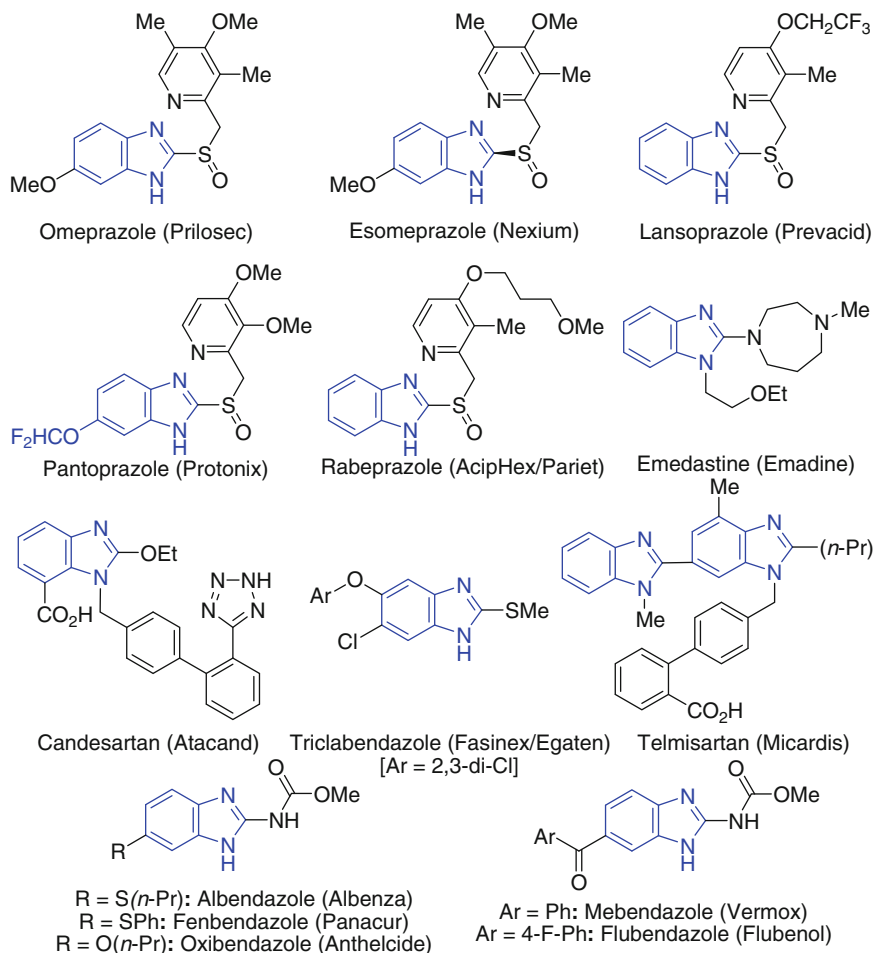


Fig. 3 Representative benzimidazole-bearing pharmaceuticals

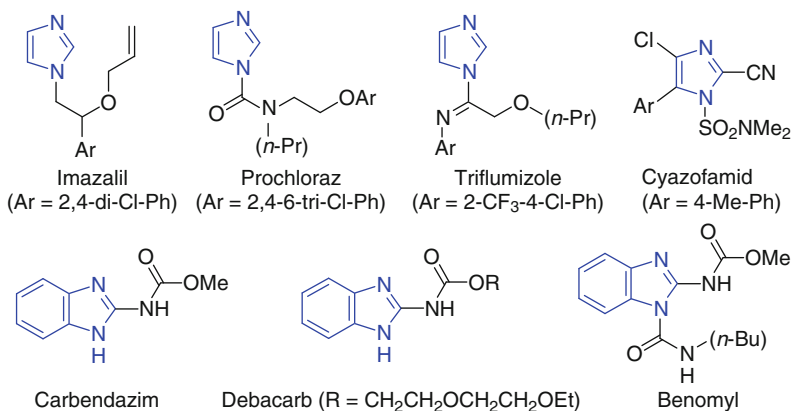
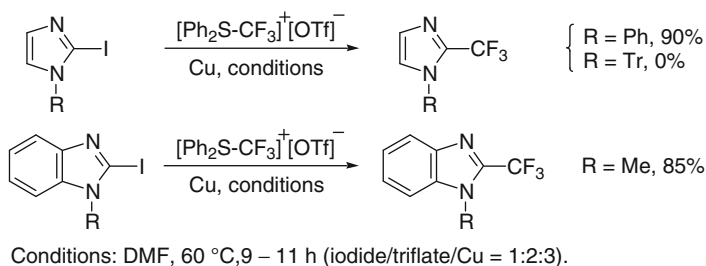


Fig. 4 Representative imidazole/benzimidazole-bearing agrochemicals

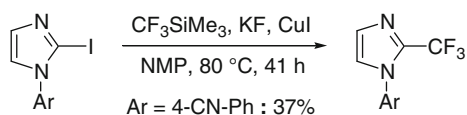
2 Synthesis of 2-Trifluoromethylimidazoles, Benzimidazoles and Related Analogs

The copper-catalyzed trifluoromethylation of *N*-phenyl-2-iodoimidazole and *N*-methyl-2-iodobenzimidazole using *S*-(trifluoromethyl)diphenyl iodonium triflate afforded the corresponding C-2 trifluoromethylated derivatives in 85–90 % yields (Scheme 1) [8]. Interestingly, the trifluoromethylation of *N*-tritylimidazole failed, even at 80 °C, presumably due to the steric effect of the trityl group.



Scheme 1

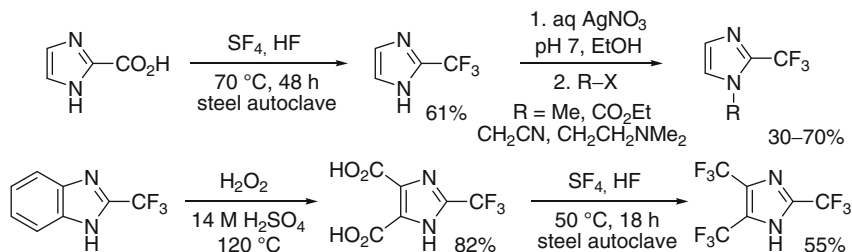
During the preparation of novel imidazoles as potential therapeutics for the treatment of inflammation, Mano and co-workers used Urata-Fuchikami's trifluoromethylation method to convert a 2-iodoimidazole to its trifluoromethylated derivative (Scheme 2) [9]. However, only a moderate yield was obtained for this reaction.



Scheme 2

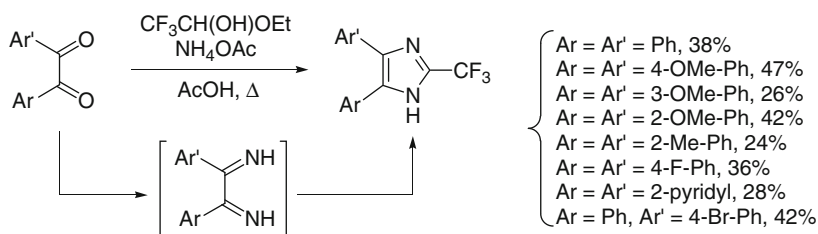
In an early approach to the synthesis of 2-trifluoromethylimidazole, Tatlow and co-workers employed SF₄ for the conversion of imidazole-2-carboxylic acid to *N*-unprotected 2-trifluoromethylimidazole (Scheme 3) [10]. The prerequisite imidazole-2-carboxylic acid was prepared from *N*-benzylimidazole via low-temperature C-2 lithiation using MeLi, followed by quenching with CO₂ and subsequent debenzilation. 2-Trifluoromethylimidazole is prone to undergo hydrolysis upon treatment with aqueous sodium hydroxide to give sodium imidazole-2-carboxylate [11]. Thus, *N*-alkylation of 2-trifluoromethylimidazole was carried out by mixing 2-trifluoromethylimidazole with silver nitrate to quantitatively precipitate the silver salt of 2-trifluoromethylimidazole, which was subsequently treated with alkylating agents, such as bromomethane, ethyl bromoacetate, *N,N*-dimethyl-2-chloroethylamine, and chloroacetonitrile to afford the corresponding *N*-alkyl-2-trifluoromethylimidazoles.

Treatment of 2-trifluoromethylimidazole-4,5-dicarboxylic acid, prepared by the oxidation of 2-trifluoromethylbenzimidazole, with SF_4 –HF also afforded 2,4,5-tris(trifluoromethyl)imidazole in moderate yield. Synthetic manipulations of dicarboxylic acid also gave *N*-methyl-2-(trifluoromethyl)imidazole-4-carboxylic acid [12].



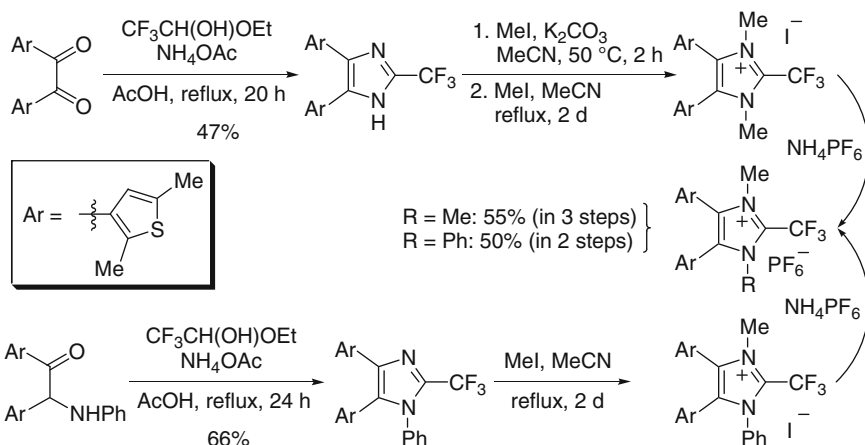
Scheme 3

One of the popular and widely used methods for the synthesis of 2-trifluoromethylimidazole involves the Radziszewski reaction (Debus–Radziszewski reaction) [2a]. Following the Davidson’s modifications (using ammonium acetate in acetic acid instead of ammonia in alcohol) [13a], Lombardino and Wiseman prepared a series of 2-trifluoromethylimidazoles via the condensation of α -dicarbonyl compounds and trifluoroacetaldehyde ethyl hemiacetal (Scheme 4) [13b]. The reaction presumably proceeds via the formation of a diimide intermediate that subsequently undergoes condensation with the aldehyde to afford the final product. An anhydrous condition is highly recommended for better yields of imidazoles.



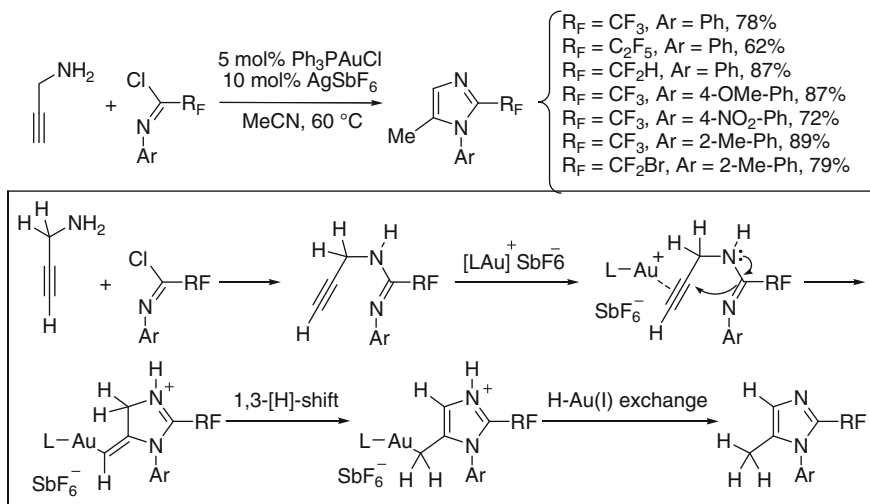
Scheme 4

During photochromic studies of dithienylethene-containing imidazolium derivative, Yam and co-workers prepared 4,5-di(thienyl)-2-trifluoromethylimidazoles and related hexafluorophosphates (Scheme 5) [14]. The condensation of a 1,2-diketone or α -aminoketone with trifluoroacetaldehyde hemiacetal afforded the desired 3,4-disubstituted-2-(trifluoromethyl)imidazoles. The *N*-methylation of the unsubstituted nitrogen(s) followed by treatment with ammonium hexafluorophosphate afforded the corresponding imidazolium salts.



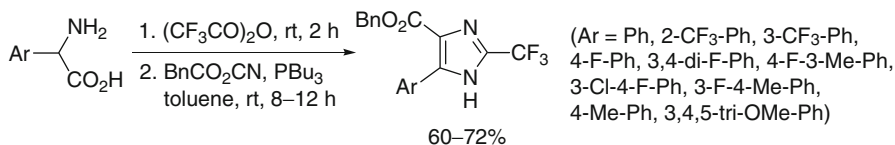
Scheme 5

The Au(I)-catalyzed cyclization of the fluorinated *N*-aryl-*N'*-propargyl amidines afforded *N*-aryl-2-fluoroalkylimidazoles (Scheme 6) [15]. These fluorinated propargyl amidines are unstable under strong basic conditions. The gold-catalyzed 5-exo-dig cyclization of propargyl amidines not only produced the desired imidazoles in excellent yields, but these mild conditions also accommodate various functional groups. Slightly lower yields were obtained for the aryl-amidines bearing an electron-withdrawing group compared to the electron-donating group whereas steric effects did show much influence on the product yields. In this one-pot process, the Au cation coordinates with the alkyne to provide a vinyl-gold intermediate.



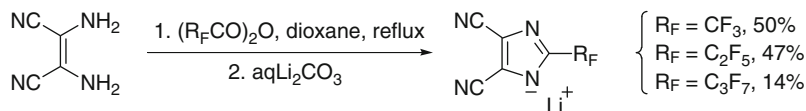
Scheme 6

Using a two-step procedure, Flynn synthesized a variety of benzyl 5-aryl-2-(trifluoromethyl)imidazole-4-carboxylates from the corresponding aryl glycines (Scheme 7) [16].



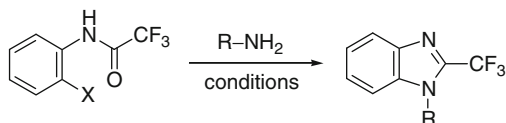
Scheme 7

Three lithium 4,5-dicyano-2-(perfluoroalkyl)imidazoles were prepared by Niedzicki by treating the corresponding imidazole with aqueous lithium carbonate (Scheme 8) [6a]. The prerequisite 4,5-dicyano-2-(perfluoroalkyl)imidazoles were prepared by the reaction of diaminomalononitrile with trifluoroacetic anhydride in refluxing dioxane.



Scheme 8

Ma reported a Cu-catalyzed aryl amination and condensation cascade to prepare 2-trifluoromethylbenzimidazole from 2-halotrifluoroacetanilides (Scheme 9) [17a]. Sterically less hindered primary amines underwent coupling with both electron-rich and electron-deficient 2-iodotrifluoroacetanilides at room temperature to afford the corresponding 2-trifluoromethylbenzimidazoles (Condition A). Although the *ortho*-NHCOCF₃ group significantly promotes the amination reactions [17b], further heating was required for sterically hindered amines to facilitate the intramolecular cyclization of the nascent coupling products to afford 2-trifluoromethylbenzimidazoles (Condition B). In general, heating in acetic acid gave better results for these condensation reactions than directly heating in DMSO. The amination of 2-bromotrifluoroacetanilides with primary amines was also effective at room temperature, presumably due to the same *ortho*-substituent effect, and thus smoothly afforded the corresponding 2-trifluoromethylbenzimidazoles after heating the intermediates in acetic acid (Condition C). Buchwald synthesized *N*-hexyl-2-trifluoromethylbenzimidazole via amination of 2-iodotrifluoroacetanilide with *n*-hexylamine; [18] however, no additional ligand was required to facilitate this transformation (Scheme 9, Condition D).



X = I: R = *n*-Hex, 90% (Condition A) X = Br: R = *n*-Hex, 80% (Condition C)
 X = I: R = allyl, 90% (Condition A) X = Br: R = *c*-Hex, 90% (Condition C)
 X = I: R = (CH₂)₂OH, 92% (Condition A) X = Br: R = (CH₂)₂OH, 90% (Condition C)
 X = I: R = *c*-Hex, 94% (Condition B) X = I: R = *n*-Hex, 86% (Condition D)
 X = I: R = Ph, 74% (Condition B)
 X = I: R = CH(Bn)CO₂Me, 61% (Condition B)

Condition A: 5 mol% CuI, 10 mol% *L*-proline, K₂CO₃ (2 eq), DMSO, rt, 10–24 h.

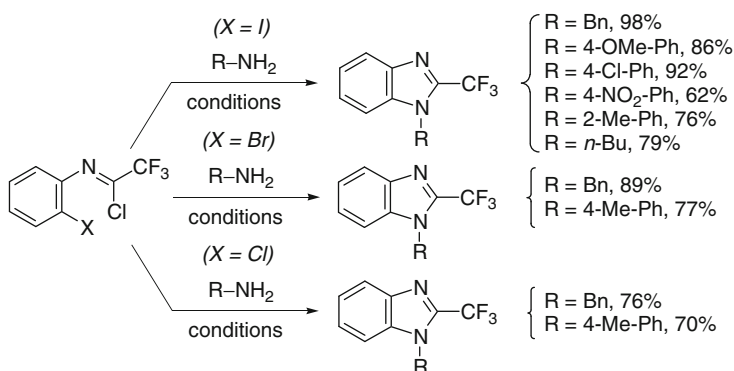
Condition B: i) 5 mol% CuI, 10 mol% *L*-proline, K₂CO₃ (2 eq), DMSO, 25–40 °C, 17–36 h;
ii) 50–70 °C, AcOH, 2–12 h.

Condition C: i) 5 mol% CuI, 10 mol% *L*-proline, K₂CO₃ (2 eq), DMSO, rt, 10–24 h;
ii) 50 °C, AcOH, 1–5 h.

Condition D: i) 5 mol% CuI, Cs₂CO₃ (2 eq), DMF, rt, 18h; ii) AcOH, 50 °C, 2 h.

Scheme 9

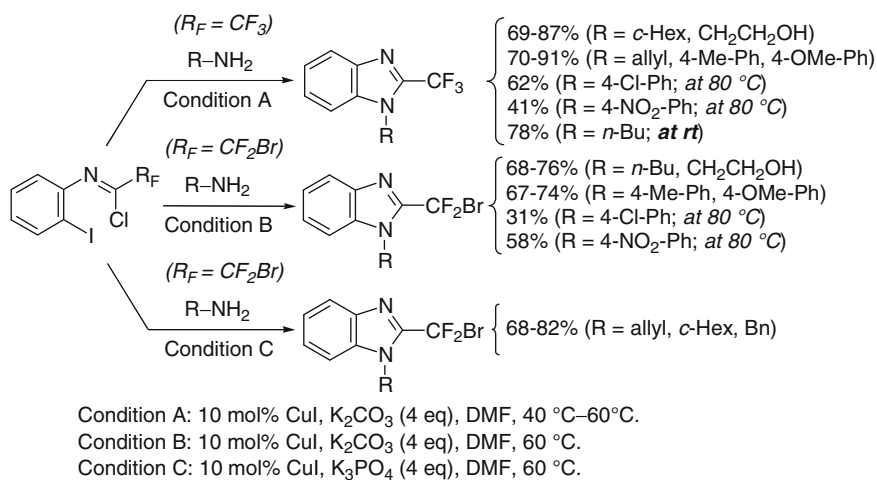
Zhang synthesized 2-trifluoromethylbenzimidazoles via a copper-catalyzed tandem C–N bond forming process (Scheme 10) [19]. Thus, the reaction of *N*-(2-haloaryl)trifluoroacetimidoyl chlorides, prepared from 2-haloanilines and trifluoroacetic acid, with primary amines in the presence of catalytic CuI–TMEDA afforded the corresponding *N*-substituted 2-trifluoromethylbenzimidazoles. The activation of the C–Cl bond by the CF₃ group made these trifluoroacetimidoyl chlorides eager to engage in the double amination reactions with both aliphatic and aromatic amines. In contrast, the reaction of analogous *N*-(2-iodophenyl)trifluoroacetimidoyl chloride with benzylamine failed to yield the corresponding benzimidazole.



Conditions: 10 mol% CuI, 20 mol% TMEDA, Cs₂CO₃ (2 eq), toluene, 110 °C, 8 h.

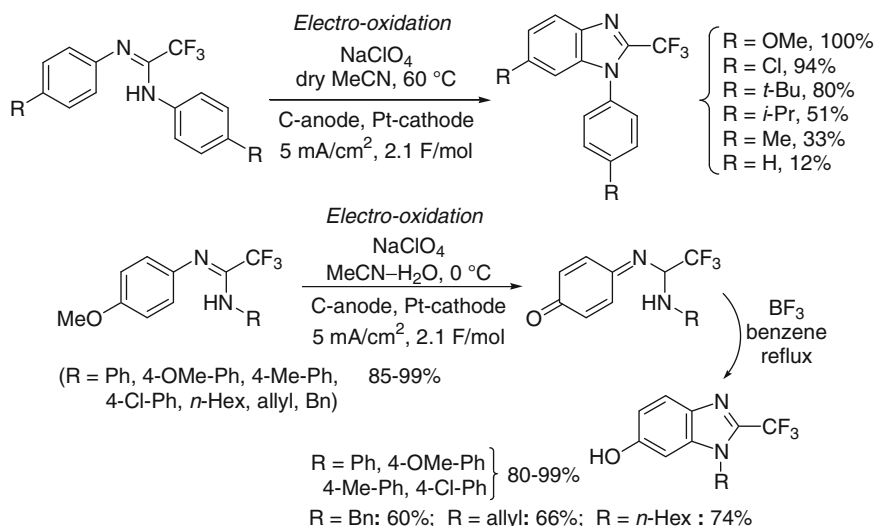
Scheme 10

Using the Cu(I)-catalyzed tandem reactions of imidoyl chlorides with amines, Wu synthesized several 2-fluoroalkylbenzimidazoles (Scheme 11) [20]. K_2CO_3 (or K_3PO_4) was a suitable base for this transformation and no additional ligands were used in these reactions. Both aliphatic and aromatic amines successfully coupled with imidoyl chlorides to afford the corresponding 2-(trifluoromethyl)- and 2-(bromodifluoromethyl)benzimidazoles. Furthermore, *N*-butyl-2-trifluoromethylbenzimidazole was prepared in good yield at room temperature via the coupling of *N*-(2-iodophenyl)trifluoroacetimidoyl chloride and *n*-butylamine. This ligand-free Cu-catalyzed coupling was also effectively used for the preparation of regioisomerically pure 5-nitro- and 6-nitro-2-(bromodifluoromethyl)benzimidazoles.



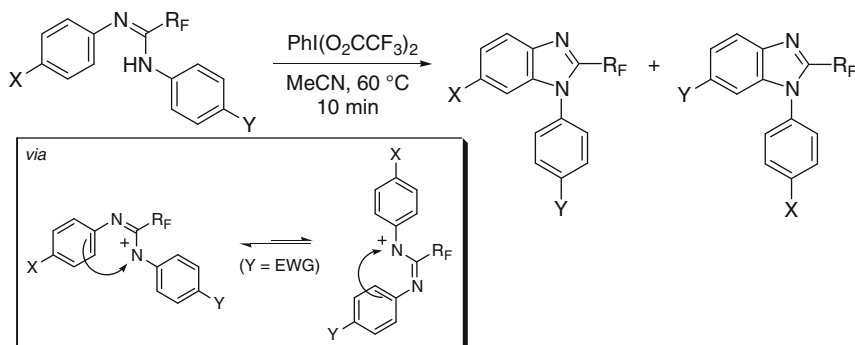
Scheme 11

Uneyama reported the synthesis of 2-trifluoromethylbenzimidazoles via electro-oxidative C–N bond formation in symmetrical imidamides (Scheme 12) [21]. The reactions were conducted in dry acetonitrile and higher temperature generally favored product formation. While the imidamides bearing 4-methoxyphenyl, 4-chlorophenyl, and 4-*tert*-butyl-phenyl substituents gave excellent yields (80–100 %), 4-isopropylphenyl and 4-methylphenyl-containing imidamides afforded lower yields, presumably due to the removal of the benzylic proton from the cation radical; thus resulting in oligomerization or polymerization of the substrates. Related *N,N'*-diphenylimidamides also afforded a low yield (12 %) of the corresponding 2-trifluoromethylbenzimidazole where the substrate predominantly underwent polymerization under the reaction conditions. In contrast to the electro-oxidation of symmetrical imidamides bearing two 4-methoxyphenyl substituents, the electro-oxidation of unsymmetrical *N*-(4-methoxyphenyl)-*N'*-arylimidamides produced complex mixtures of two isomeric benzimidazoles and *p*-benzoquinone imines. Nonetheless, conducting the electro-oxidation in aqueous acetonitrile predominantly afforded the *p*-benzoquinone imines, even with *N*-(4-methoxyphenyl)-*N'*-phenylimidamide. The BF_3 -catalyzed cyclization of *p*-benzoquinone imines afforded the corresponding 6-hydroxy-2-(trifluoromethyl)benzimidazoles.



Scheme 12

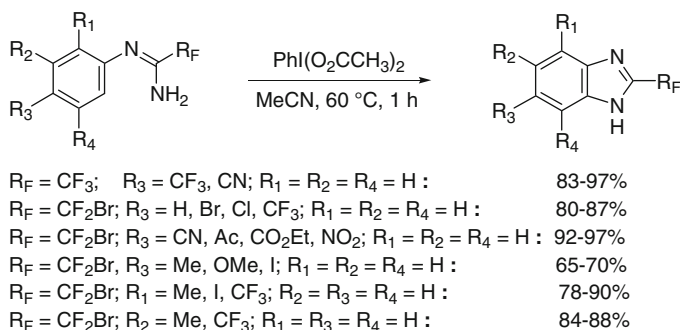
The oxidative cyclization of *N,N'*-diarylimidamides using phenyliodine (III) bis(trifluoroacetate)/[bis(trifluoroacetoxy)iodo]benzene (PIFA/BTI) afforded the corresponding *N*-aryl-2-fluoroalkylbenzimidazoles (Scheme 13) [22a]. Symmetrical *N,N'*-diarylfluoroalkyl ethanimidamides gave the corresponding 2-fluoroalkylbenzimidazoles in moderate to good yields (Table 1, entries 1,2,4), except for the imidamides bearing a nitro group in both aryl rings (entry 3). For unsymmetrical imidamides, the cyclization of the nitrenium ion intermediate generally occurred through the relatively electron-rich benzene ring (entries 5–12). Later, these researchers also reported the phenyliodine (III) diacetate/(diacetoxy)iodo)benzene (PIDA/DIB) mediated oxidative cyclization of *N*-aryl amidines to afford the 2-fluoroalkylbenzimidazoles (Scheme 14) [22b]. The *N*-arylfluoroalkylacetamidines were obtained from the corresponding imidoyl chlorides using ammonia. The *N*-phenylamidines, bearing substituents at the *ortho* and *para* position of the benzene ring, gave the corresponding benzimidazoles in good yields. However, the amidines, bearing a meta-substituted benzene ring produced an



Scheme 13

Table 1 Synthesis of *N*-aryl-2-fluoroalkylbenzimidazole from imidamides

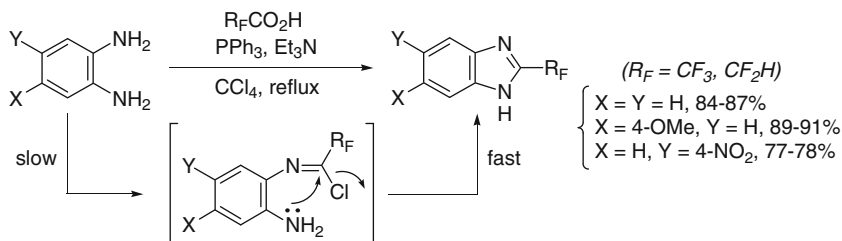
Entry	R _F	X	Y	6-X product (%)	6-X/6-Y ^a
1	CF ₃	H	H	83	–
2	CF ₃	Cl	Cl	90	–
3	CF ₃	NO ₂	NO ₂	0	–
4	CF ₂ Br	H	H	62	–
5	CF ₂ Br	H	NO ₂	87	>99:1
6	CF ₂ Br	H	CO ₂ Et	83	>99:1
7	CF ₂ Br	H	COMe	78	>99:1
8	CF ₂ Br	H	Cl	69	1.44:1
9	CF ₂ Br	H	Br	63	1.27:1
10	CF ₂ Br	H	I	83	1:1.2
11	CF ₂ Br	H	Me	73	1:6.7
12	CF ₂ Br	H	OMe	54	<1:99

^aDetermined by ¹⁹F NMR**Scheme 14**

inseparable mixture of 5(6)-substituted (major) and 4(7)-substituted (minor; steric effect) regioisomers under similar conditions.

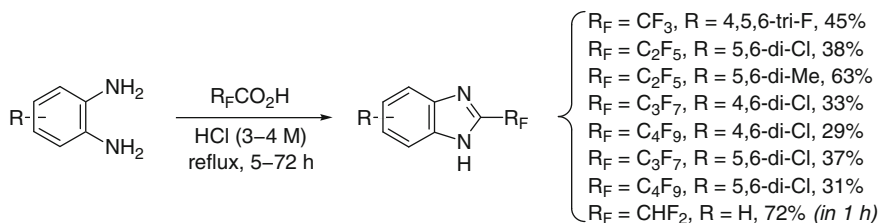
The reaction of *o*-phenylenediamine with trifluoroacetic acid and difluoroacetic acid afforded 2-(trifluoromethyl)- and 2-difluoromethylbenzimidazoles, respectively (Scheme 15) [23]. In the presence of excess triethylamine, the nucleophilic attack of the *ortho*-amino group to the electrophilic imidoyl chloride, formed in situ, afforded the 2-fluoroalkylimidazoles. In general, the electronic properties of the substituents on the benzene ring determine the regioisomeric outcome of the benzimidazoles in this one-pot process. Thus, an electron-donating methoxy group increases the electron density and nucleophilicity of the *para*-amino group in *o*-phenylenediamine and facilitates the formation of imidoyl chloride at the *para*-position of the methoxy group leading eventually to the formation of the 6-methoxy regioisomer. In contrast, an electron-withdrawing nitro group decreases the electron density and nucleophilicity of the *para*-amino group in *o*-phenylenediamine and, thus, formation of

imidoyl chloride occurs through the nucleophilic attack of the other amino group which is responsible for the formation of 5-nitro regioisomer. The position of the methoxy and nitro substituents was further confirmed by X-ray crystallography.



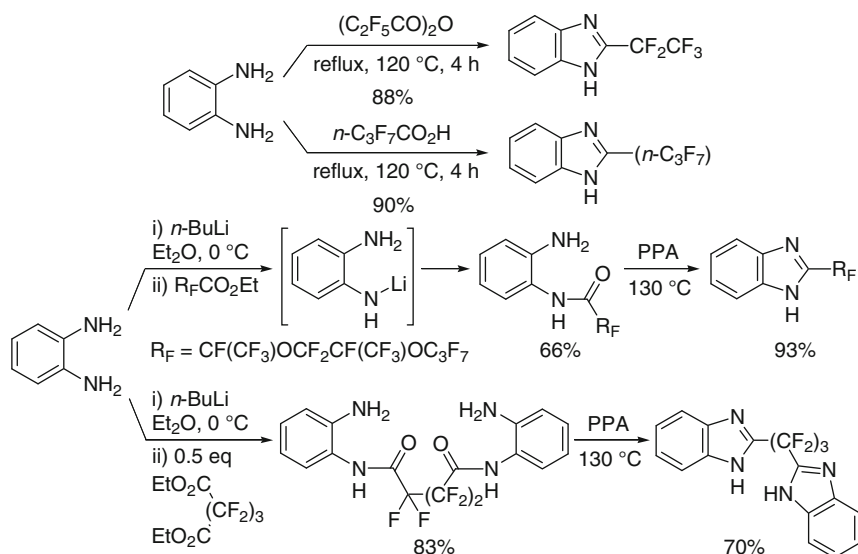
Scheme 15

Kazimierczuk and co-workers prepared several 2-(polyfluoroalkyl)benzimidazoles from *o*-phenylenediamines using the corresponding polyfluoroacetic acid (Scheme 16) [24]. Likewise, the reaction of *o*-phenylenediamine with difluoroacetic acid provided 2-(difluoromethyl)benzimidazole in 72 % yield [25]. Several other research groups utilized similar conditions to prepare the targeted 2-(trifluoromethyl)benzimidazoles [26].



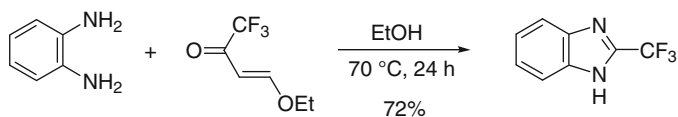
Scheme 16

Eapen and Tamborski prepared few 2-perfluoroalkylbenzimidazoles from *o*-phenylenediamine (Scheme 17) [27]. While 2-pentafluoroethyl- and 2-heptafluoropropylbenzimidazole were prepared by heating *o*-phenylenediamine with the corresponding acid anhydride and carboxylic acids, respectively, a benzimidazole bearing a perfluoroalkyl ether at C-2 was prepared in a two-step procedure via a *N*-monoacyl derivatives of *o*-phenylenediamine. Likewise, a bis(benzimidazole) was prepared by the condensation of *o*-phenylenediamine with 0.5 equivalent of diethyl 2,2,3,3,4,4-hexafluoropentanedioate.



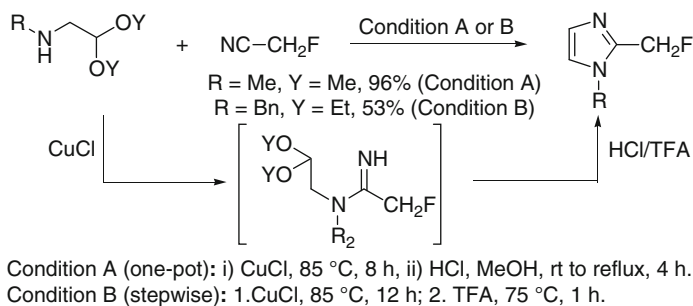
Scheme 17

A new strategy for the synthesis of 2-trifluoromethylbenzimidazole was reported by Zhu using the reaction of *o*-phenylenediamine and 4-ethoxy-1,1,1-trifluoro-3-butene-2-one (Scheme 18) [28]. The desired 2-trifluoromethylbenzimidazole was obtained in 72 % yield along with a small amount (5 %) of imidazole. A benzo[*b*] [1, 4]diazepine intermediate was proposed for this transformation.



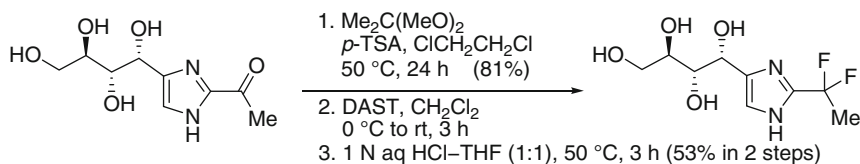
Scheme 18

Frutos prepared 2-fluoromethylimidazoles via the cyclization of the amidines formed by the Cu(I)-promoted addition of α -amino acetals to fluoroacetonitrile (Scheme 19) [29]. The reactions were performed either stepwise or in a one-pot fashion (depending upon the removal of Cu salts before or after the cyclization) in which the amidine formation was carried out in the absence of any solvent followed by the cyclization using TFA or HCl–MeOH. Thus, the addition of (methylamino) acetaldehyde dimethyl acetal and (benzylamino)acetaldehyde diethyl acetal with fluoroacetonitrile followed by cyclization afforded the corresponding 2-(fluoro-methyl)imidazoles in 96 % and 53 % yields, respectively.



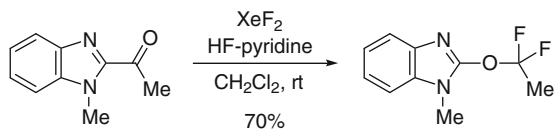
Scheme 19

During the synthesis of sphingosine-1-phosphate lyase (S1PL) inhibitor for the treatment of autoimmune disorders, Bagdanoff and co-workers prepared the α,α -difluoro analog of 2-acetyl-4(5)-[1(*R*),2(*S*),3(*R*),4-tetrahydroxybutyl]imidazole (Scheme 20) [30]. Ketalization of the diol using 2,2-dimethoxypropane followed by the treatment of the ketal with DAST and subsequent deprotection afforded the targeted 2-(1,1-difluoroethyl)imidazole derivative.



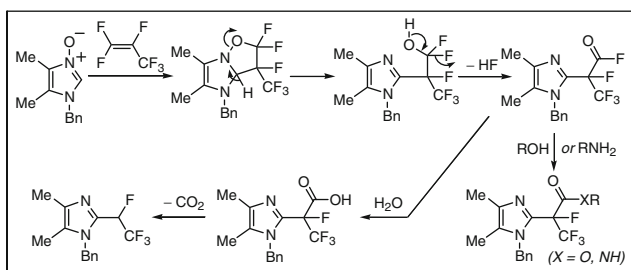
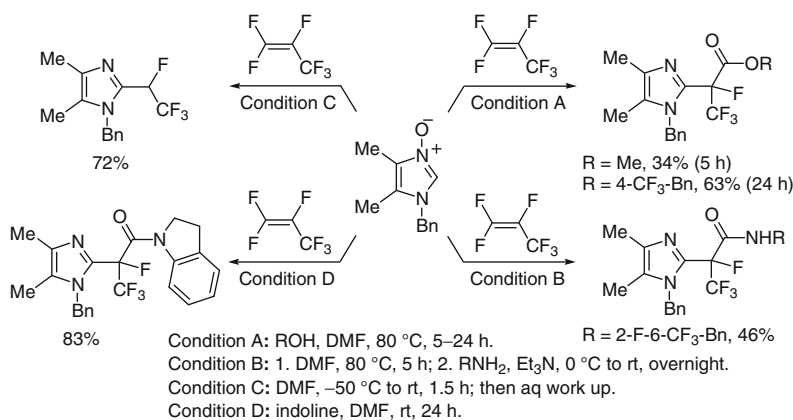
Scheme 20

Horne synthesized *N*-methyl-2-(1,1-difluoroethoxy)benzimidazole via the rearrangement of corresponding 2-acetylbenzimidazole (Scheme 21) [31]. The reaction was carried out at room temperature in the presence of the mild fluorinating agents XeF₂ and HF-pyridine in dichloromethane. Undesired fluorination or the decomposition of the benzimidazole ring did not appear to be problematic under the applied conditions and the desired product was obtained in 70 % yield.



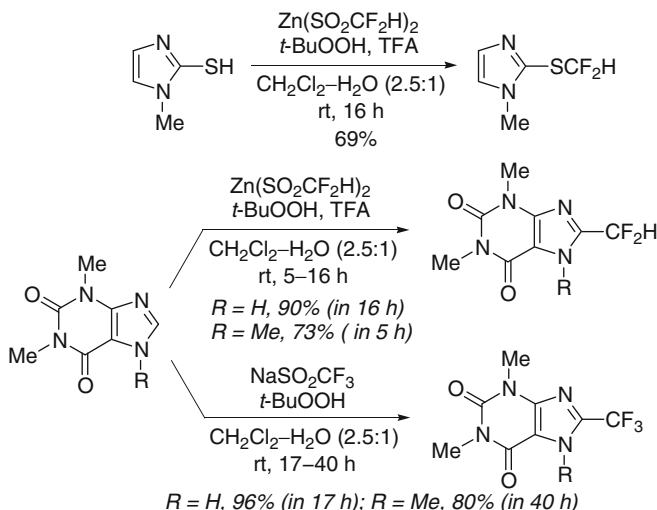
Scheme 21

Loska and Makosza observed that the reaction of 1-benzyl-4,5-dimethylimidazole-3-oxide with hexafluoropropene (HFP) afforded 2-(1,2,2,2-tetrafluoroethyl)imidazole (Scheme 22) [32]. However, 1-benzyl-4,5-dimethylimidazole-3-oxide with HFP in the presence of alcohol afforded the corresponding esters. Although the alcohols, in absence of strong bases, do not react with HFP, the reaction of HFP with primary amines is faster than the imidazole-*N*-oxide. Thus, to circumvent the problematic side-reactions of primary amines with HFP, the amide analogs were prepared in a two-step one-pot procedure. Indoline, an unreactive secondary amine, was used directly in the reaction in the presence of HFP to afford the corresponding amides in high yield. The reaction that was used for the preparation of these unique series of 2-(2-imidazolyl)propionic acid derivatives presumably proceeds via 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition to afford the isoxazolidine adduct. Re-aromatization drives N–O bond cleavage followed by elimination of HF gives the acyl fluoride in situ that undergoes nucleophilic attack by an alcohol or amine to provide the esters or amides. In contrast, the reaction of acyl fluoride with water produces the unstable carboxylic acid that undergoes spontaneous decarboxylation to provide the corresponding 1,2,2,2-tetrafluoroethanes.



Scheme 22

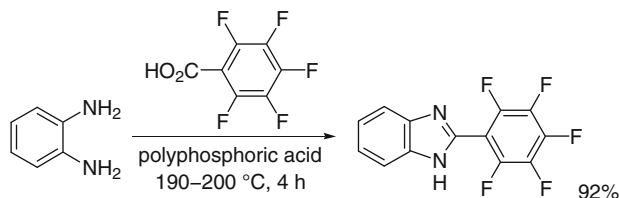
Baran reported the radical difluoromethylation of *N*-methylimidazole-2-thiol using zinc difluoromethanesulfinate [DFMS; Bis(((difluoromethyl)sulfinyl)oxy)zinc] to afford the corresponding difluoromethyl thioether (Scheme 23) [33].



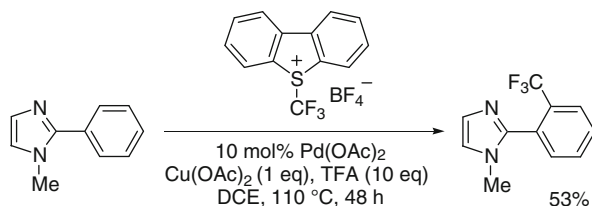
Scheme 23

3 Synthesis of 2-Perfluoroarylimidazoles and Benzimidazoles

Cohen reported the photochemical perfluoroarylation of imidazole with $\text{C}_5\text{F}_5\text{I}$ to afford 2-perfluoroarylimidazole in 8 % yield along with the major 4-perfluoroarylimidazole as the major product (36 % yield) [34]. Eapen and Tamborski prepared 2-(pentafluorophenyl)benzimidazole by the condensation of *o*-phenylenediamine with pentafluorobenzoic acid in the presence of polyphosphoric acid (PPA) (Scheme 24) [27]. Yu reported a trifluoromethylation reaction via C–H activation where a trifluoromethyl group was successfully installed onto the *ortho*-position of the phenyl ring using the directing effect of imidazole (Scheme 25) [35].



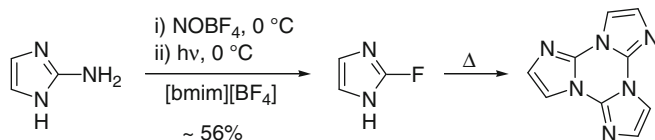
Scheme 24



Scheme 25

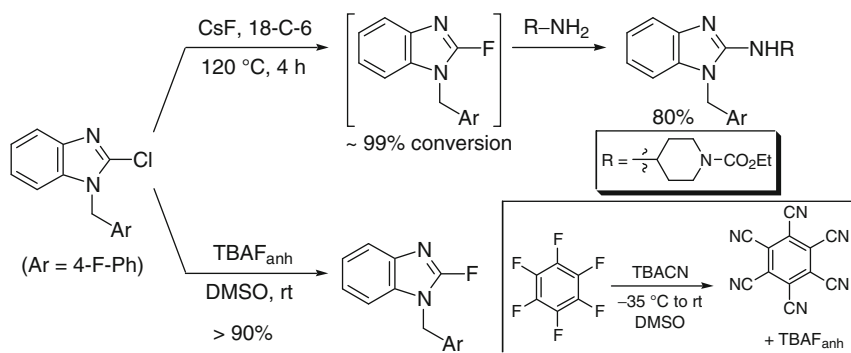
4 Synthesis of 2-Fluoroimidazoles and Benzimidazoles

The Balz–Schiemann reaction is one of the early methods that is still used for the generation of fluoroarenes from the corresponding aryl tetrafluoroborates and hexafluorophosphates [36]. However, the high temperature required for this reaction causes the decomposition of imidazole diazonium fluoroborates. To avoid the thermal decomposition, Kirk and Cohen used photochemical methods to prepare the 2-fluoroimidazoles by selectively activating the diazonium chromophore using UV irradiation that cleaved the C–N bond in diazonium salts [37]. In addition, the formation of the diazonium salt from 2-aminoimidazole and subsequent photochemical fluorodediazoniatio can be done in a one-pot fashion without the isolation of the diazonium salts. However, the nucleophilicity of the solvent is detrimental to the aryl cation generated in situ during this process. In an attempt to increase the yield of 2-fluoroimidazole, Kirk used 1-butyl-3-methylimidazolium tetrafluoroborate (ionic liquid) as the solvent to avoid solvent-related side reactions and to stabilize the charged transition state during the de-diazoniatio (Scheme 26) [38]. Furthermore, NOBF_4 was used for the diazotization reaction to completely eliminate the presence of water in the reaction medium. Notably, 2-fluoroimidazole slowly trimerizes at room temperature and even at 0 °C (stable at –80 °C); however, 2-fluorohistidine is stable at room temperature [37].



Scheme 26

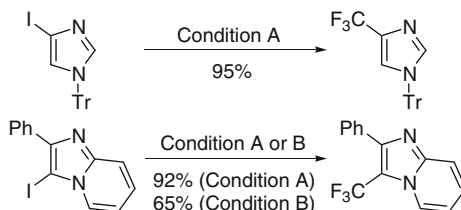
Senanayake used CsF to generate *N*-(4-fluorobenzyl)-2-fluorobenzimidazole in situ from the corresponding 2-chlorobenzimidazole (Scheme 27) [39]. Almost quantitative conversion from chloride to fluoride was observed in 4 h at 120 °C, while TBAF with excess KF provided ~50 % conversion after heating the chloride at 120 °C for 24 h. The so-obtained fluoride was subsequently treated with an appropriate amine to furnish the desired product. Thus, fluoride efficiently promoted the conversion of 2-chlorobenzimidazole to 2-aminobenzimidazole via the highly reactive 2-fluorobenzimidazole intermediate. Although Senanayake noted low conversion for the Halex reaction of *N*-aryl-2-chlorobenzimidazole with TBAF or cyanuric fluoride in refluxing dioxane, Sun and DiMugno were able to obtain >90 % yield of the 2-fluorobenzimidazole in just 30 min after stirring the DMSO solution of *N*-(4-fluorobenzyl)-2-chlorobenzimidazole at room-temperature with TBAF_{anh} [40a]. This “truly” anhydrous TBAF, capable of generating 2-fluorobenzimidazoles under mild conditions, was prepared in situ in polar aprotic solvents (e.g. DMSO, THF, MeCN) by the low-temperature nucleophilic aromatic substitution reaction of hexafluorobenzene with CN^- from tetrabutylammonium cyanide (TBACN) [40b].



Scheme 27

5 Synthesis of 4- and 5-Trifluoromethylimidazoles and Analogs

Using *S*-(trifluoromethyl)diphenyl iodonium triflate, Xiao converted *N*-trityl-4-iodobenzimidazole to the corresponding 4-(trifluoromethyl)imidazole (Scheme 28) [8]. These conditions were suitable for the conversion of 3-iodo-2-phenylimidazo[1,2-*a*]pyridine to its trifluoromethyl derivative, which was isolated in 92 % yield. In contrast, this product was previously produced in only 65 % yield under a $\text{TMSCF}_3\text{-KF-CuI}$ protocol [41].

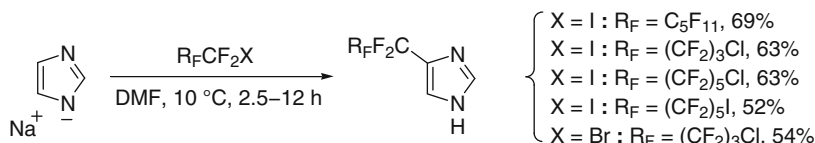


Condition A: $\text{Cu, [Ph}_2\text{S-CF}_3\text{]}^+\text{[OTf]^-}$, DMF, $60\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, 9–11 h (iodide/triflate/Cu = 1:2:3).

Condition B: CuI, TMS-CF_3 , KF, NMP, rt, 24 h.

Scheme 28

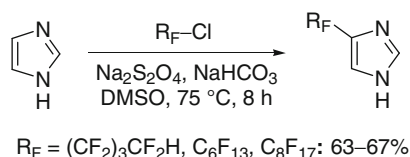
The reaction of sodium imidazolide with fluoroalkyl iodides and bromides afforded the corresponding 4-fluoroalkylimidazoles (Scheme 29) [42]. A decrease in conversion was observed by conducting the reaction in the dark (in comparison to visible light) as well as in the presence of 20 mol% of *p*-DNB or hydroquinone additive. An $\text{S}_{\text{RN}}1$ mechanism was suggested for these conversions due to the known difficulty in displacing the halides of perfluoroalkyl halides by $\text{S}_{\text{N}}2$ or $\text{S}_{\text{N}}1$ processes.



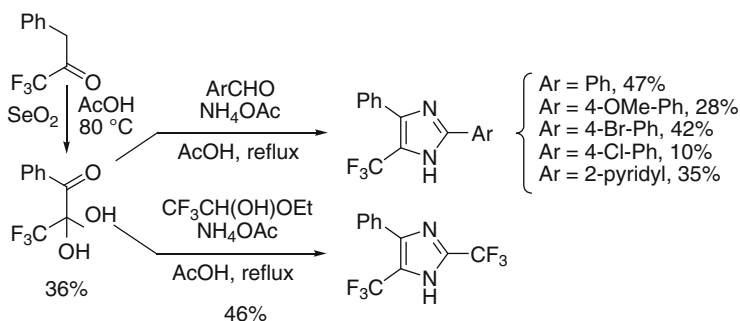
Scheme 29

Reaction of imidazole with per(poly)fluoroalkyl chlorides in the presence of sodium dithionite in DMSO exclusively affords the 4(5)-fluoroalkylimidazoles (Scheme 30) [43]. In general, the electrophilic fluoroalkyl radical (R_F^\cdot) undergoes attachment to the relatively electron-rich position of the imidazole ring. No bis(fluoroalkylation) was observed, presumably due to the electron-density in the mono-fluoroalkylimidazoles.

Scheme 30

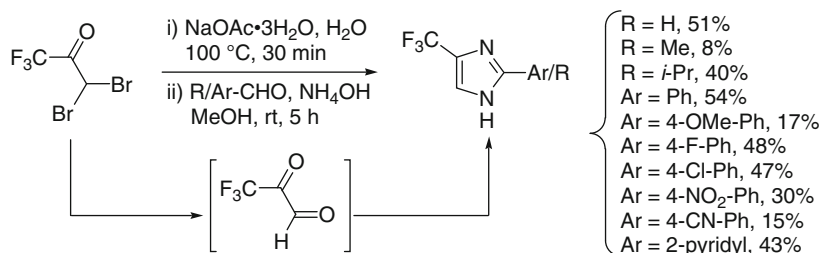


The condensation of 1-phenyl-3,3,3-trifluoro-1,2-propanedione monohydrate with various aldehydes in the presence of ammonium acetate afforded the corresponding 4-phenyl-5-trifluoromethylimidazoles (Scheme 31) [44]. For the preparation of 2,5-bis(trifluoromethyl)imidazoles, trifluoroacetaldehyde ethyl hemiacetal was used in excess instead of the aldehydes. The prerequisite diketone, that was isolated as its monohydrate, was prepared from the corresponding ketone using SeO_2 .



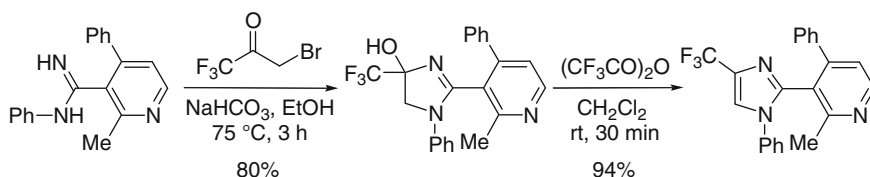
Scheme 31

Baldwin prepared a series of 4(5)-trifluoromethylimidazoles from 3,3-dibromo-1,1,1-trifluoroacetone (Scheme 32) [45]. Hydrolysis of 3,3-dibromo-1,1,1-trifluoroacetone, prepared by bromination of 1,1,1-trifluoroacetone, by aqueous sodium acetate afforded the corresponding glyoxals in situ, which underwent condensation with aldehydes in the presence of ammonia to produce the corresponding trifluoromethylated imidazoles. Matthews and co-workers used this protocol to prepare several 4-trifluoromethylimidazoles, containing an aryl group, such as 2-imidazolyl, 3-pyridyl, 2-thienyl, 3-thienyl, 2-furyl, 5-pyrazolyl, and 4-pyrazolyl, at the C-2 position [46a]. Notably, the treatment of these 4-trifluoromethylimidazoles with aqueous ammonium hydroxide afforded the corresponding nitriles in high yields [46b].



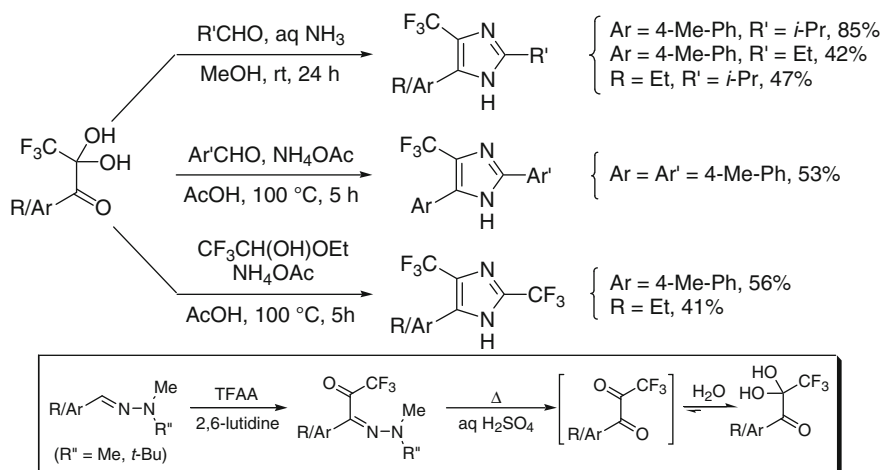
Scheme 32

Lukyanov prepared a 2-(3-pyridyl)-4-(trifluoromethyl)imidazole via the condensation of the corresponding aromatic amidine with 3-bromo-1,1,1-trifluoroacetone followed by TFAA-promoted dehydration (Scheme 33) [47].



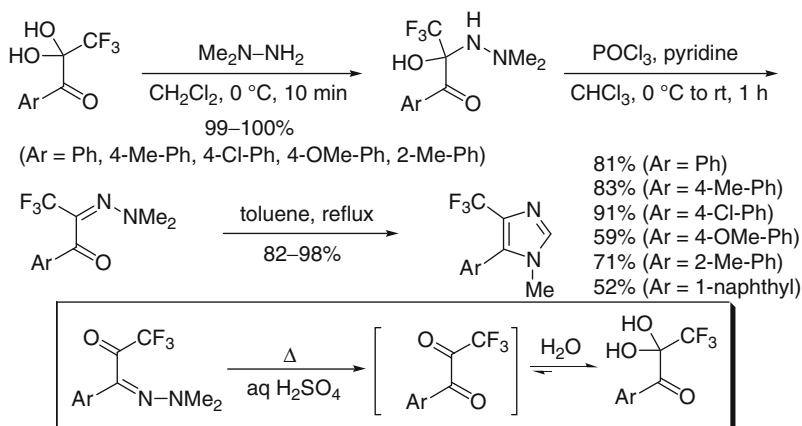
Scheme 33

Using 1,1,1-trifluoro-2,3-alkanediones, obtained as monohydrates from the acidic hydrolysis of 3-(dialkylhydrazino)-1,1,1-trifluoro-2-alkanones, Kamitori reported the synthesis of 4-(trifluoromethyl)imidazoles (Scheme 34) [48]. Two slightly different methods were used to construct the imidazole ring around the diketone skeleton. While the room-temperature reactions of diketones and aliphatic aldehydes in the presence of excess ammonia afforded the 4-(trifluoromethyl)imidazoles, the reactions of diketones with aromatic aldehydes were conducted in hot acetic acid in the presence of excess ammonium acetate. The later protocol was also used for the synthesis of a 2,4-bis(trifluoromethyl)imidazole.



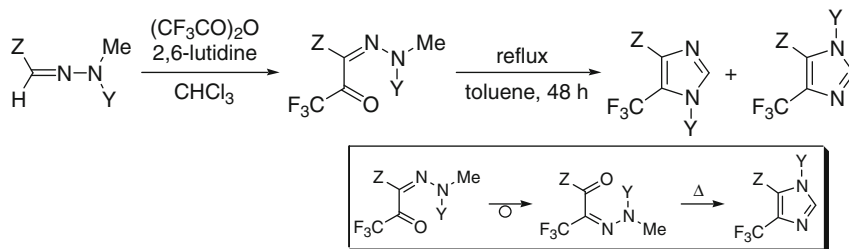
Scheme 34

Hojo reported a selective synthesis of 4-(trifluoromethyl)imidazoles (Scheme 35) [49]. The diketones, prepared from aldehyde dialkyl hydrazones via the hydrolysis of 3-(dialkylhydrazino)-1,1,1-trifluoro-2-alkanone intermediates, were treated with 1,1-dimethylhydrazine to afford the adduct. These adducts were generally unstable even at room temperature and, thus, were immediately dehydrated using POCl_3 -pyridine to afford 3-aryl-1,1,1-trifluoropropane-2-,3-dione-2-dimethylhydrazone. Intramolecular cyclization of these hydrazones in refluxing toluene afforded the desired 4-(trifluoromethyl)imidazoles.



Scheme 35

A novel cyclization of trifluoroacetylated hydrazones, prepared by TFAA treatment of *N,N'*-dialkyl aldehyde hydrazones, was reported by Hojo for the synthesis of 5-trifluoromethylimidazoles (Scheme 36) [50]. Formation of the 4-(trifluoromethyl) isomers was observed in some cases along with the major 5-(trifluoromethyl)imidazole products, presumably due to isomerization of trifluoroacetylated hydrazones (Table 2). This isomerization is suggested to be enhanced in the presence of silica gel and the isomeric trifluoroacetylated hydrazones cyclized to give the 4-CF₃-imidazoles in refluxing toluene (*c.f.* Scheme 35).

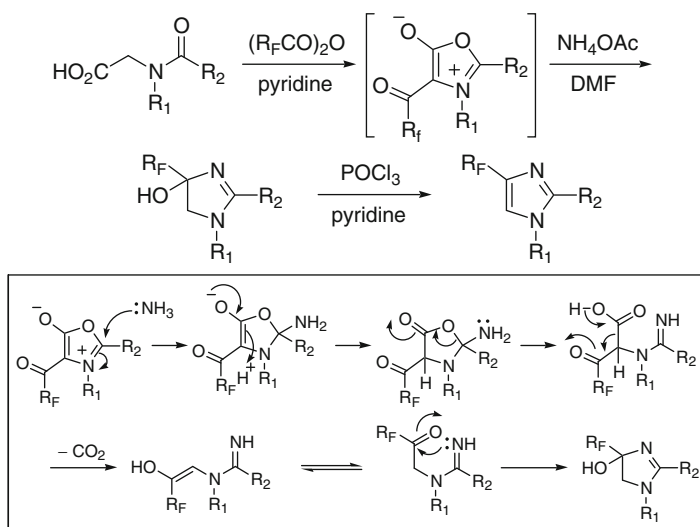


Scheme 36

Table 2 Synthesis of 5-trifluoromethylimidazoles via cyclization of hydrazones

Entry	Y	Z	5-CF ₃ /4-CF ₃ ratio	Isolated yield of 5-CF ₃
1	Me	Ph	93:7	52 %
2	Me	4-OMe-Ph	91:9	63 %
3	Me	4-Cl-Ph	81:19	65 %
4	Me	4-NO ₂ -Ph	75:25	58 %
5	<i>t</i> -Bu	Et	100:0	43 % (in 4 h)
6	<i>t</i> -Bu	<i>n</i> -Pr	100:0	81 % (in 16 h)
7	<i>t</i> -Bu	Bn	100:0	18 % (in 24 h)
8	<i>t</i> -Bu	4-Me-Ph	100:0	99 %
9	Ph	4-Me-Ph	100:0	88 %

Kawase prepared a series of 4-(perfluoroalkyl)imidazoles from the corresponding mesoionic 4-(perfluoroalkyl)-1,3-oxazolium-5-olates (Scheme 37, Table 3) [51]. These stable and isolable 1,3-oxazolium-5-olates can, in turn, be conveniently prepared from *N*-acyl-*N*-alkylglycines using the appropriate acid anhydrides (e.g., trifluoroacetic, pentafluoropropionic, heptafluorobutyric anhydrides). Thus, the preparation of 1,3-oxazolium-5-olates *in situ* from *N*-acyl-*N*-alkylglycines followed by the addition of ammonium acetate efficiently afforded the corresponding 4-(perfluoroalkyl)dihydroimidazoles in a one-pot fashion. The one-pot procedure also gave better yields than the step-wise synthesis of 4-(perfluoroalkyl)dihydroimidazoles from *N*-acyl-*N*-alkylglycines. Dehydration of these dihydroimidazoles by POCl₃-pyridine finally afforded the desired C-4 -perfluoroalkylated imidazoles. The reaction sequence is presumably initiated by nucleophilic attack of ammonia at C-2 of the 1,3-oxazolium-5-olate followed by ring opening due to the extrusion of CO₂ and subsequent intramolecular cyclization.



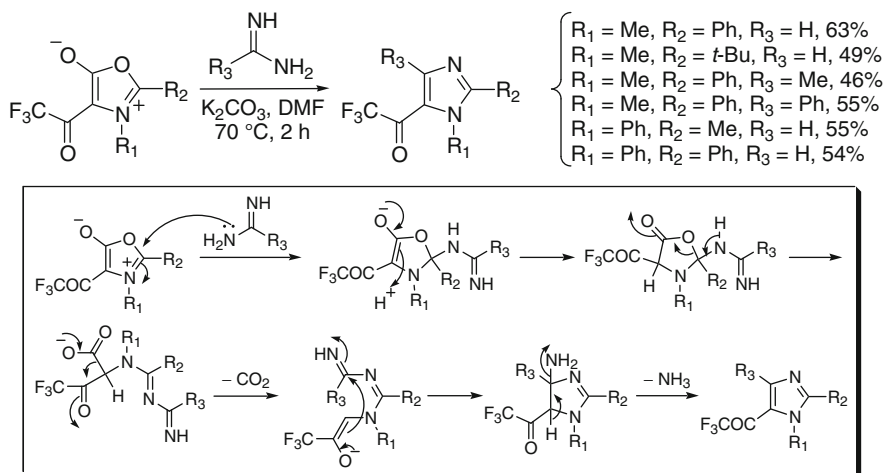
Scheme 37

Table 3 Synthesis of 4-(perfluoroalkyl)imidazoles from 1,3-oxazolium-5-olates

Entry	R _F	R ₁ , R ₂	Dihydroimidazole ^a (%)	Imidazole (%)
1	CF ₃	R ₁ =Me, R ₂ =Ph	92	88
2	CF ₃	R ₁ =Me, R ₂ =Bn	98	91
3	CF ₃	R ₁ =Me, R ₂ = <i>t</i> -Bu	78	88
4	CF ₃	R ₁ =Ph, R ₂ =Ph	84	93
5	CF ₃	R ₁ =Ph, R ₂ =Me	91	96
6	CF ₃	R ₁ =Bn, R ₂ =Ph	89	99
7	CF ₃	R ₁ =Bn, R ₂ =Me	85	94
8	C ₂ F ₅	R ₁ =Me, R ₂ =Ph	93	99
9	C ₃ F ₇	R ₁ =Me, R ₂ =Ph	87	93

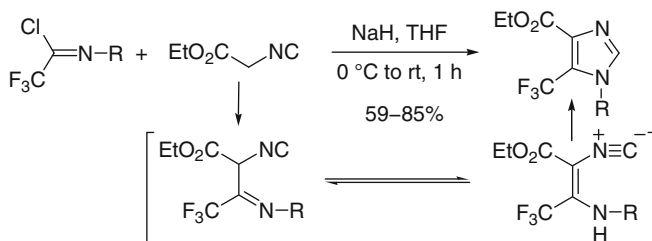
^aYield for one-pot procedure

Reaction of mesoionic 1,3-oxazolium-5-olates with amidines afforded 5-(trifluoroacetyl)imidazoles (Scheme 38) [52]. The mechanism for this novel ring transformation is presumably initiated by the nucleophilic attack of amidines onto C-2 of 1,3-oxazolium-5-olates. Subsequent ring fragmentation followed by decarboxylation and recyclization of the enolate ion with concomitant loss of ammonia afforded 5-trifluoroacetylated imidazoles. Reaction of *N*-benzoyl-*N*-methylglycine with pentafluoropropionic anhydride or heptafluorobutyric anhydride followed by the treatment of the resulting 1,3-oxazolium-5-olates with formamidine hydrochloride also afforded the corresponding 5-perfluoroacylimidazoles in an one-pot fashion.



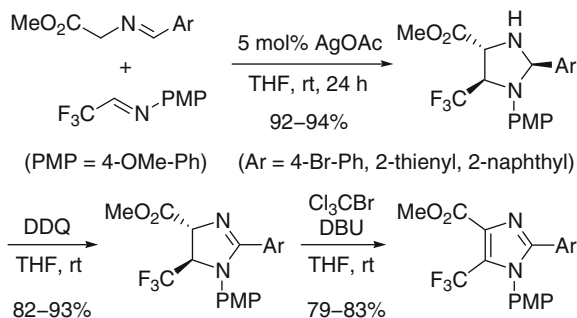
Scheme 38

Yuan described the synthesis of *N*-substituted 5-trifluoromethylimidazole-4-carboxylates via the base-induced cycloaddition of ethyl isocyanoacetates to trifluoroacetimidoyl chlorides followed by aromaticity-driven intramolecular cyclization via 1,1-addition of the amino group to the isocyano functionality (Scheme 39) [53]. A wide variety of 5-trifluoromethylimidazole-4-carboxylates, bearing an alkyl or aryl group at *N*-1, was prepared using this method. Moreover, the electronic nature of the aryl group did not significantly affect the course of reaction.



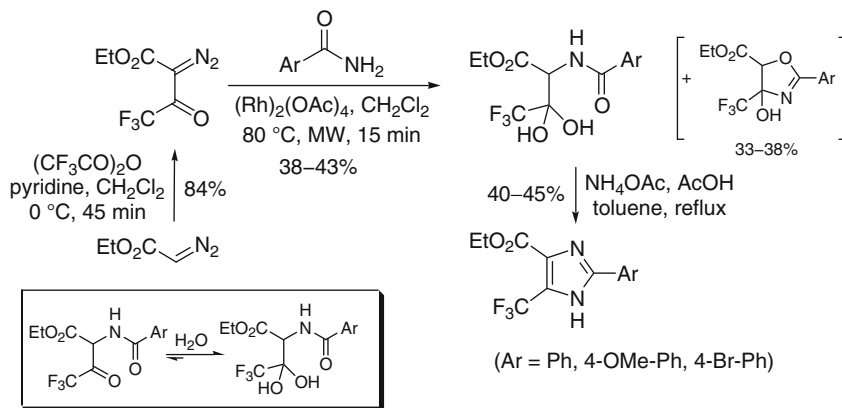
Scheme 39

The Ag(I)-catalyzed 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition of azomethine ylides with trifluoromethylated imines afforded the corresponding 5-(trifluoromethyl)imidazole-4-carboxylates (Scheme 40) [54]. The tetrahydroimidazole cycloadducts were converted to dihydroimidazoles by DDQ oxidation, which in turn were treated with BrCCl_3 in the presence of DBU to afford the corresponding 2-aryl-5-trifluoromethylimidazoles. The azomethine ylides, bearing aryl and heteroaryl groups, successfully participated in this room-temperature cycloaddition, catalyzed by silver acetate.



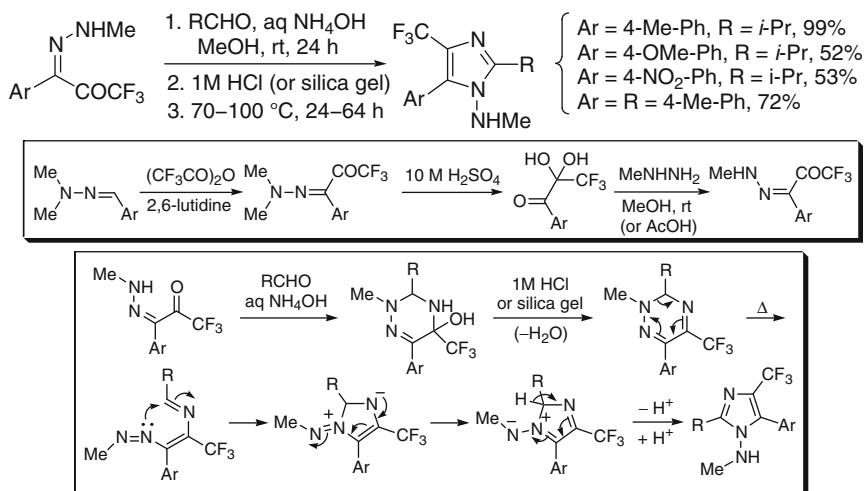
Scheme 40

Moody reported the synthesis of 2-aryl-5-(trifluoromethyl)imidazole-4-carboxylate by the cyclization of the corresponding β -ketoamides in the presence of $\text{NH}_4\text{OH}-\text{AcOH}$ in refluxing toluene (Scheme 41) [55]. The prerequisite β -ketoamides were prepared, in turn, by N–H insertion of rhodium carbenoids to aryl amides. These ketoamides was isolated as their hydrates due to increased electrophilicity of trifluoromethyl ketones. The carbene O–H insertion, followed by in situ cyclization, also produced the oxazolines as the by-products under these Rh-catalyzed conditions.



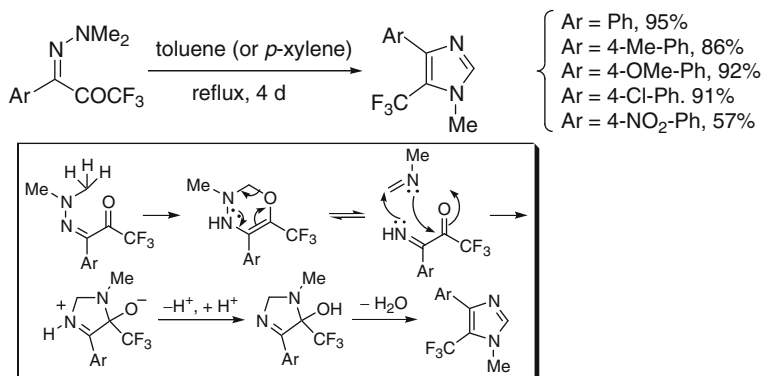
Scheme 41

Reaction of 1,1,1-trifluoroalkane-2,3-dione 3-oximes with aldehydes in the presence of ammonium acetate and subsequent addition of 1N HCl afforded 4-trifluoromethylimidazol-1-ols (Scheme 42) [56]. The prerequisite 1,1,1-trifluoroalkane-2,3-dione 3-oximes were obtained from aldehyde dialkylhydrazones in three steps. Trifluoroacetylation of aldehyde dialkylhydrazones followed by hydrolysis



Scheme 43

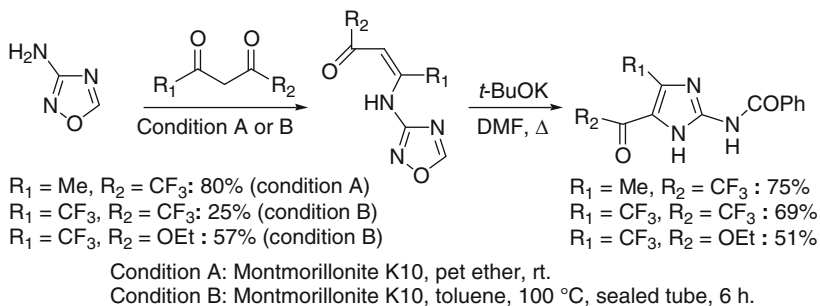
Refluxing 3-aryl-3-dimethylhydrazone- 1,1,1-trifluoro-2-propanones in toluene (or *p*-xylene) afforded 4-aryl-1-methyl-5-trifluoromethylimidazoles via 5-aryl-6-trifluoromethyl-3,6-dihydro-2*H*-[1,3,4]oxadiazine intermediates (Scheme 44) [58]. Retro Diels-Alder reaction of these oxadiazines afforded 3-imino-1,1,1-trifluoro-2-propanones and *N*-methylformimine that underwent cycloaddition to produced betaines. Proton transfer and subsequent dehydration gave the corresponding 5-trifluoromethylimidazoles.



Scheme 44

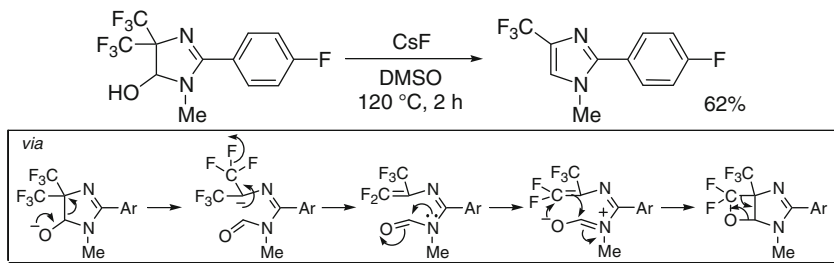
Buscemi prepared trifluoromethylated and trifluoroacetylated 2-(aminobenzoyl) imidazoles via ring rearrangement of 1,2,4-oxadiazole derivatives (Scheme 45) [59]. Condensation of 3-aminooxadiazole with acid anhydrides (or β -keto esters) in the presence of Montmorillonite K10 followed by treatment with potassium

tert-butoxide afforded the corresponding fluoro-functionalized (2-aminobenzyl)imidazoles. Hydrolysis of these (2-aminobenzyl)imidazoles provides the fluorinated 2-aminoimidazoles.

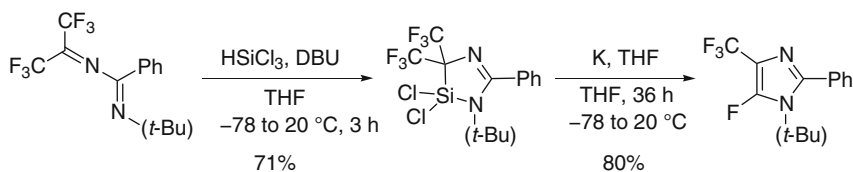


Scheme 45

Li and Boswell observed a base-promoted unusual de-trifluoromethylation of 4,4-bis(trifluoromethyl)-5-hydroxyimidazoline that afforded the corresponding 4-(trifluoromethyl)imidazole (Scheme 46) [60]. Karsch reported the formation of *N*-(*tert*-butyl)-5-fluoro-2-phenyl-4-trifluoromethylimidazole from a silaheterocycle under reductive conditions (Scheme 47) [61]. The silaheterocycle was prepared by [4 + 1]-cycloaddition of 1,3-diazabutadiene with SiCl_3 anion that was generated by the deprotonation of HSiCl_3 by DBU.

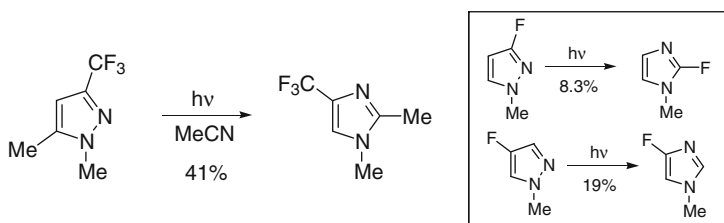


Scheme 46



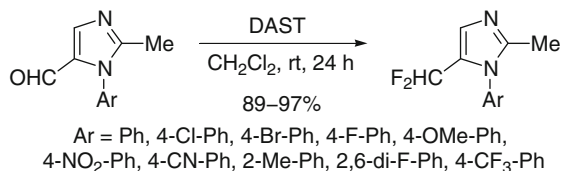
Scheme 47

Barltrop and Day observed that the irradiation of 1,5-dimethyl-3-(trifluoromethyl)pyrazole gave exclusively 1,2-dimethyl-4-(trifluoromethyl)imidazole in 41 % yield (Scheme 48) [62a]. Similar phototranspositions (“nitrogen walk”) of *N*-methyl-3-fluoropyrazoles to *N*-methyl-2-fluoroimidazole and *N*-methyl-4-fluoropyrazoles to *N*-methyl-4-fluoroimidazole were also observed [62b]. A mixture of *N*-methyl-4-fluoroimidazole (23 %) and *N*-methyl-2-fluoroimidazole (~3 %) was obtained in the phototransposition chemistry of *N*-methyl-5-fluoropyrazole.

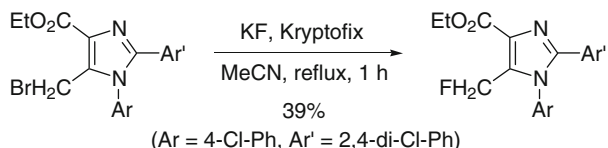


Scheme 48

Ferreira synthesized a series of 5-difluoromethylimidazoles by DAST-treatment of the corresponding 5-formylimidazoles (Scheme 49) [63]. The 5-formylimidazole precursors were obtained from *N*-aryl-amidines and 2-bromomalonaldehyde. Lange converted a 5-bromomethylimidazole to the corresponding 5-fluoromethylimidazole using KF in the presence of the cryptand Kryptofix in refluxing acetonitrile (Scheme 50) [64]. The addition of cryptands boosts the nucleophilicity of fluoride by complexing with the cation. Nevertheless, a low yield was obtained for this transformation.



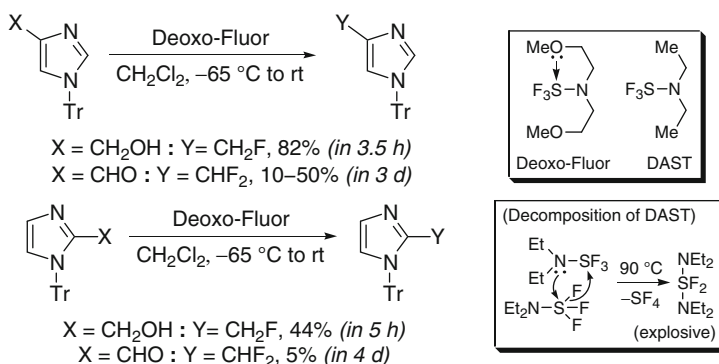
Scheme 49



Scheme 50

Dolensky and Kirk prepared trityl protected 2- and 4-fluoromethylimidazoles via the deoxyfluorination of the corresponding *N*-protected (hydroxymethyl)imidazoles using Deoxo-Fluor (Scheme 51) [65]. Deoxo-Fluor is a safer fluorinating

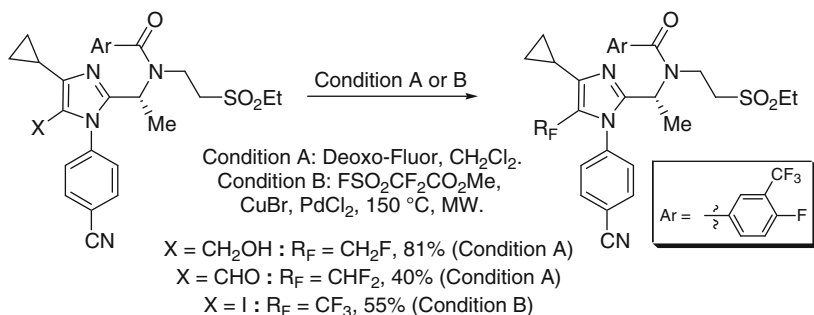
reagent than DAST due to stabilization by methoxy group coordination. While DAST decomposes at 90 °C within 3 h, Deoxo-Fluor decomposes at the same temperature over 25 h. Although 2- and 4-(fluoromethyl)imidazoles are stable compounds, a low yield of the 2-(fluoromethyl)imidazole was obtained due to higher lability of the trityl group in 2-(hydroxymethyl)- and 2-(fluoromethyl)imidazoles under these reaction conditions. However, deoxyfluorination of *N*-unprotected analogs was completely unsuccessful. Deoxyfluorination of 2- and 4-(formyl)imidazoles was also problematic. Inconsistent results were obtained for the deoxyfluorination of *N*-trityl-4-(formyl)imidazole with the yield of *N*-trityl-4-(difluoromethyl)imidazole ranging from 10–50 % along with 9–13 % of recovered aldehyde starting material. Extremely low yield (5 %) of *N*-trityl-2-(difluoromethyl)imidazole [along with 7 % yield of *N*-unprotected 2-(difluoromethyl)imidazole and ~6 % yield of a dimeric compound] from 2-(formyl)imidazole indicates the loss of trityl group under the reaction conditions. Indeed, the trityl groups can be easily removed by AcOH–aq HCl from the aforementioned fluorinated imidazoles, proving the corresponding *N*-unprotected imidazoles in 89–100 % yields.



Scheme 51

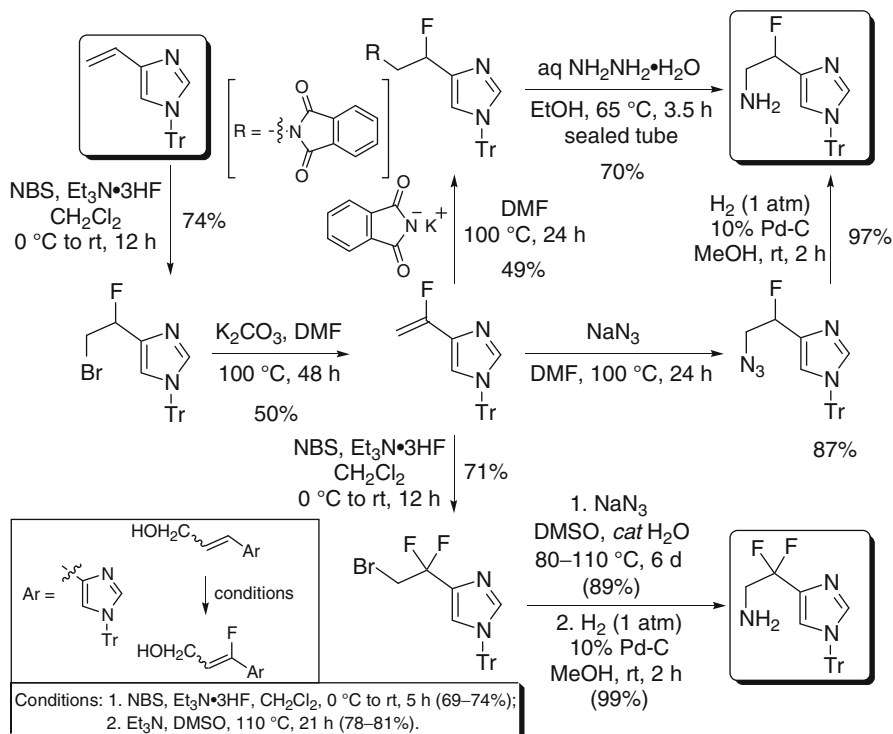
During the investigation of novel imidazole derivatives as potent CXCR3 antagonists, Medina and co-workers generated a short series of C-5 fluoroalkyl derivatives of the parent imidazole (Scheme 52) [66]. While Deoxo-Fluor was used for the preparation of fluoromethyl and difluoromethyl derivatives from the corresponding alcohol and aldehydes, respectively, 5-iodoimidazole was converted to its trifluoromethyl derivative via copper-catalyzed coupling using MFSDA (methyl fluorosulfonyldifluoroacetate).

Starting from *N*-trityl-4-vinylimidazole, Dolensky and Kirk made several fluorinated histamine analogs (Scheme 53) [67]. Bromofluorination of olefin, using an electrophilic Br⁺ source (NBS) and nucleophilic F⁻ source (Et₃N•3HF) gave the bromofluoro product. Elimination of HBr produced the corresponding 4-(1-fluorovinyl)imidazole which was converted to β-fluorohistamine by the treatment of sodium azide followed the reduction of azide to amine. Alternatively, addition of phthalimide to the fluoroolefin followed by deprotection using hydrazine



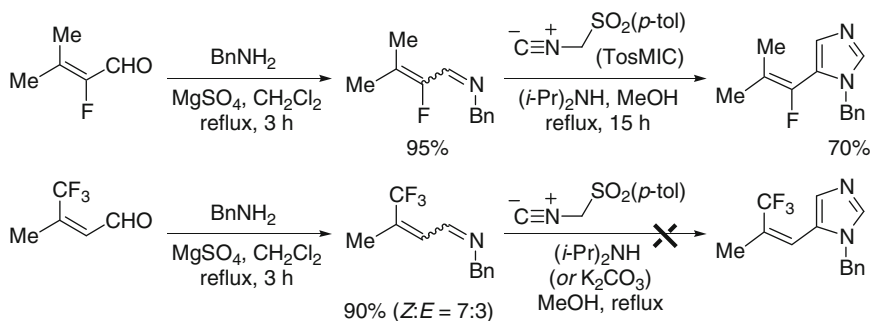
Scheme 52

also furnished the β -fluorohistamine. A second bromofluorination of 4-(1-fluorovinyl)imidazole gave the bromodifluoro adduct which was converted to the β,β -difluorohistamine by the displacement of bromide with sodium azide followed by the reduction using H_2 -Pd/C. Likewise, the addition of an “FBr” equivalent to the double bond of 3-(*N*-trityl-4-imidazolyl)-prop-2-en-1-ol followed by the elimination of HBr gave the corresponding β -fluoro alcohol [68]. This compound was later conveniently converted to β -fluorourocenic acid.



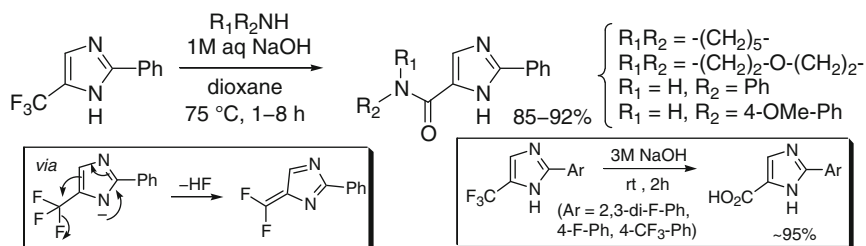
Scheme 53

The condensation of the imine, derived from 2-fluoro-3-methylbut-2-enal and benzylamine, with tosylmethyl isocyanide (TosMIC) produced *N*-benzyl-5-(1-fluoro-2-methylpropenyl)imidazole (Scheme 54) [69]. However, a similar condensation between the imine from 4,4,4-trifluoro-3-methyl-but-2-enal and benzylamine with TosMIC was ineffective, presumably due to the strong-electron withdrawing effect of the CF₃ group which caused unfavorable charge distribution in the α,β-unsaturated system of the imine. This prevents the initial TosMIC attack on the iminic C-position and leads to self-decomposition of TosMIC under the reaction conditions.

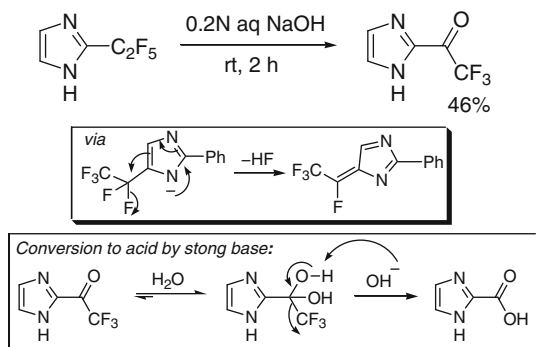


Scheme 54

Conducting the hydrolysis of 4(5)-(trifluoromethyl)imidazoles in the presence of secondary amine, O'Mahony and Pitts prepared the corresponding tertiary amides in the absence of any coupling agents (Scheme 55) [70]. The hydrolysis of both 2- and 4(5)-(trifluoromethyl)imidazoles by aqueous NaOH is known to proceed via electrophilic difluorodiazafulvenes that are produced in situ due to elimination of HF from the trifluoromethylimidazoles. Being much more reactive than the trifluoromethyl group (due to better stabilization of azafulvene by CF₃ than F), the pentafluoroethyl group at C-2 or C-4 of imidazole is converted to the corresponding trifluoroacetyl-imidazoles in almost quantitative yields (96–99 %). Reactions of 2- and 4(5)-(pentafluoroethyl)imidazole with methanolic KOH affords the corresponding ketals in excellent yields (94–99 %). Although treatment of 2-pentafluoroethylimidazole with 1N NaOH at room temperature affords the corresponding carboxylic acid, conducting the hydrolysis in a less basic media (0.2N aqueous NaOH at room temperature) produced 2-(trifluoroacetyl)imidazole in moderate (46 %) yield (Scheme 56).



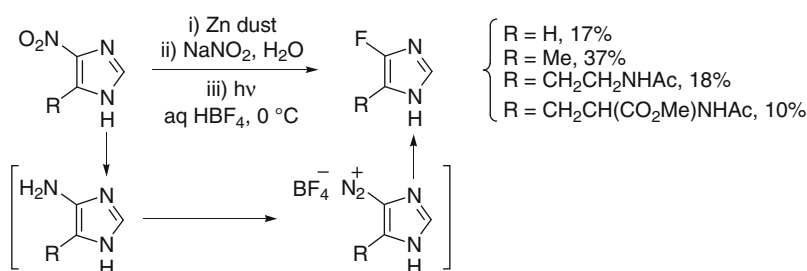
Scheme 55



Scheme 56

6 Synthesis of 4- and 5-Fluoroimidazoles

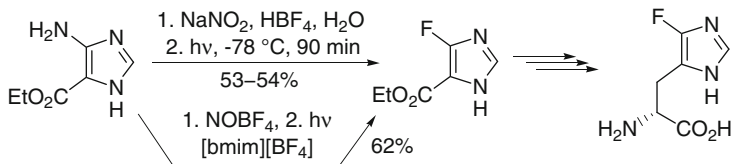
Kirk and Cohen reported the synthesis of 4(5)-fluorohistidine and related compounds from the corresponding 4-nitroimidazole via photolysis of the corresponding diazonium salts (Scheme 57) [71]. Due to the inherent instability of these 4-aminoimidazoles, the amine precursor for the diazonium salts was generated *in situ* by the reduction of the nitro group (4-aminoimidazoles can also be generated *in situ* by the acid-catalyzed deprotection of Boc-protected amines) and immediately diazotized to the corresponding diazonium salts. Thus, the reduction, diazotization, and the final photolysis of the diazonium salts were conveniently carried out in a one-pot fashion in aqueous tetrafluoroboric acid. The desired products were obtained in 10–37 % yields. Brown and co-workers utilized this method for the synthesis of 4-fluoroimidazole from 4-nitroimidazole in 30–40 % yield [72].



Scheme 57

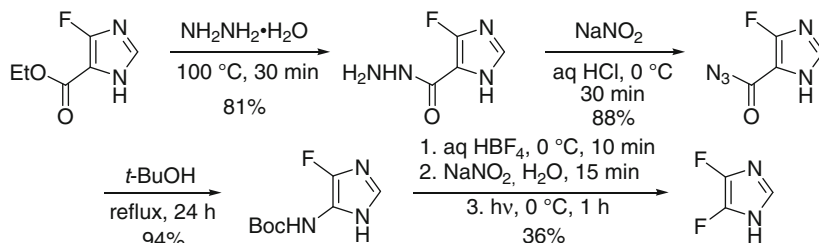
Using the aforementioned Balz-Schiemann reaction as the key step, Kirk reported an enantioselective synthesis of (*S*)-4-fluorohistidine (Scheme 58) [73]. The 4-aminoimidazoles, bearing an electron-withdrawing group (such as carboxylate) at C-5, are generally stable and isolable. Thus, using 4-aminoimidazole-5-carboxylate as the precursor for the diazotization and subsequent photolysis, the corresponding

4-fluoroimidazole was obtained in 53–54 % yield. However, carrying out this reaction sequence in an ionic liquid using NOBF_4 afforded a higher yield of the 4-fluoroimidazole-5-carboxylate [38]. The advantage of these protocols is the one-pot approach (diazotization and photolysis) to the 4(5)-fluoroimidazoles without the isolation of the diazonium salt intermediates. Notably, attempted thermal decomposition of stable diazonium tetrafluoroborate, prepared from ethyl 4-aminoimidazole-5-carboxylate, failed to produce the corresponding 4-fluoroimidazole.



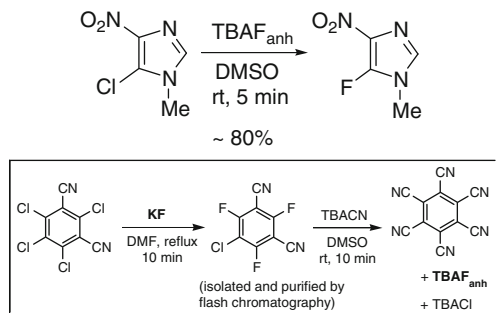
Scheme 58

The synthesis of 4,5-difluoroimidazole has also been described by Kirk using a photochemical Schiemann reaction (Scheme 59) [74]. Curtius rearrangement of the acyl azide, prepared in two steps from ethyl 4-fluoroimidazole-5-carboxylate via hydrazide, afforded the key intermediate Boc-protected 5-fluoroimidazol-4-carboxylate. In situ Boc deprotection followed by diazotization of the amine and photolysis of the diazonium tetrafluoroborate afforded 4,5-difluoroimidazole.



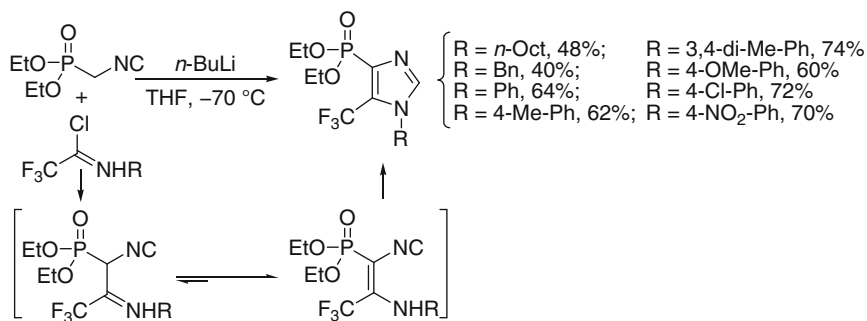
Scheme 59

Sun and DiMugno demonstrated the rapid generation of *N*-methyl-5-fluoro-4-nitroimidazole from the corresponding chloride using “anhydrous” TBAF that was generated in situ from KF by “fluoride relay” (Scheme 60) [75]. In fluoride relay, the reaction of KF with 2,6-dicyano-tetrachlorobenzene transfers the fluoride to the arene that finally produces the “activated” anhydrous tetrabutylammonium fluoride (TBAF) upon the addition of tetrabutylammonium cyanide (>60 % yield from KF). Other polar aprotic solvents, such as THF and acetonitrile, are also effective for this $\text{S}_{\text{N}}\text{Ar}$ fluorination reaction.



Scheme 60

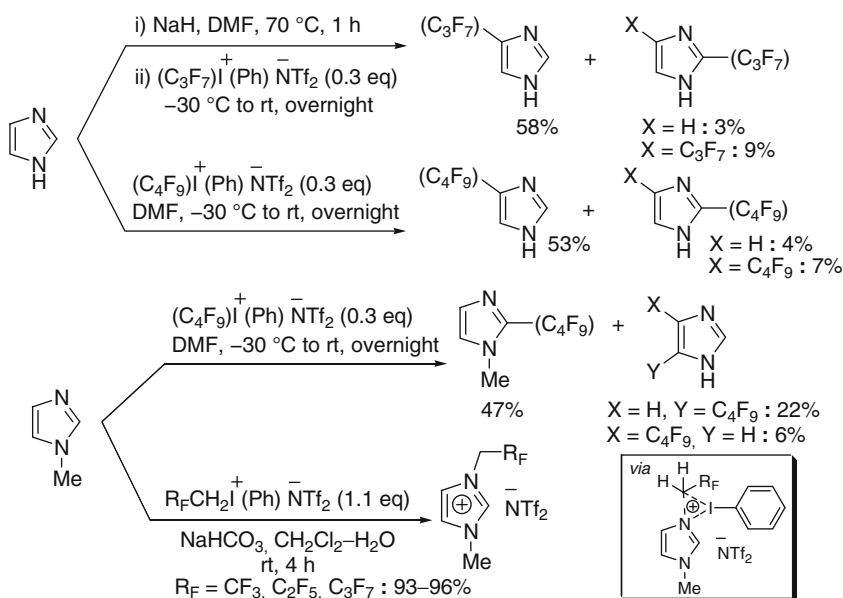
The synthesis of *N*-substituted 5-trifluoromethylimidazole-4-phosphonates was reported by Yuan (Scheme 61) [76]. Addition of lithiated species, derived from diethyl isocyanomethylphosphonate using *n*-BuLi, to *N*-substituted trifluoroacetylmidoyl chloride gave an imine intermediate which underwent intramolecular cyclization to furnish regioselectively the 5-(trifluoromethyl)imidazole-4-phosphonate. The addition of an enamine to the isocyano carbon under these conditions, especially without any catalytic assistance, was driven by aromatization. However, replacement of *n*-BuLi with NaH was ineffective and produced an inseparable complex mixture.



Scheme 61

Using hypervalent iodonium salts, DesMarteau reported regioselective fluoroalkylation of imidazoles (Scheme 62) [77]. Thus, reaction of imidazolyl anion with heptafluoropropylidonium salt gave the 4-(heptafluoropropyl)imidazole as the major product, presumably via a $S_{RN}1$ process. The initial addition of electrophile at C-4 or C-5 of the imidazolyl anion ultimately led to the same intermediate. The nonafluorobutylation of imidazole, even in absence of NaH, also afforded the 4-(nonafluorobutyl)imidazole as the major product. Although initial electrophilic addition at C-5 was favored over C-4 in this case due to resonance, tautomerization of the imidazole-*NH* finally afforded the C-4 substituted product. However, the nonafluorobutylation

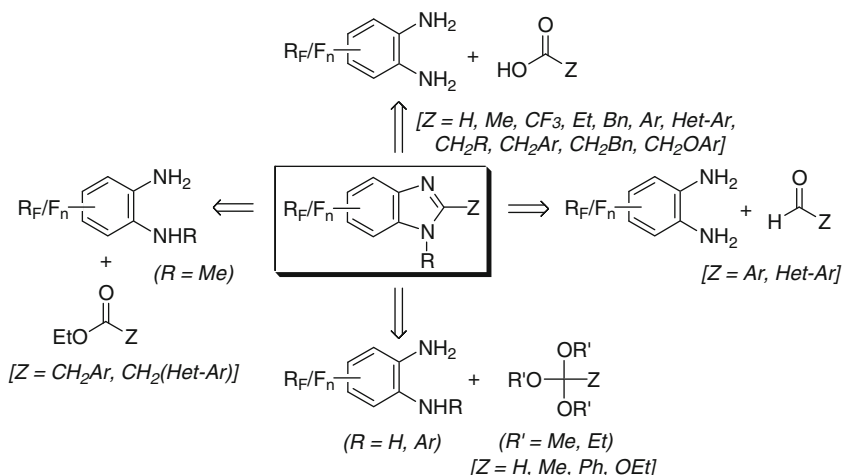
of *N*-methylimidazole under similar conditions (in absence of NaH), produced the corresponding C-2 perfluoroalkylimidazole as the major product. The C-5 substituted product was produced in higher yield than the C-4 substituted product due to the favorable electrophilic attack at C-5 over C-4 of imidazole. The methyl group at *N*-1 also increases the electron density at C-2 and C-5. However, C-2 is sterically less crowded than C-5 due to the presence of lone pair at the adjacent *N*-2 compared to the hydrogen present at C-4. In contrast, the reaction of *N*-methylimidazole with $[R_FCH_2I(Ph)]^+[NTf_2]^-$ promoted the *N'*-*1H*, *1H*-perfluoroalkylation presumably via a S_N2 pathway.



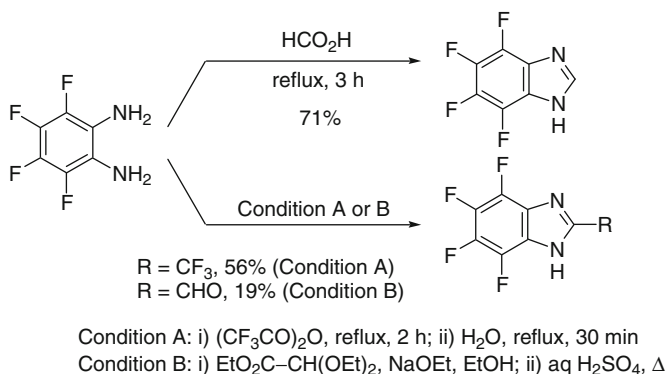
Scheme 62

7 Synthesis of 4,5,6,7-Tetrafluorobenzimidazoles

The common methods for the preparation of benzimidazoles containing fluorine(s) or fluoroalkyl group(s) in the benzenoid ring involve the condensation of pre-decorated 1,2-phenylenediamine with aldehyde, acid, ester or ortho-ester (Scheme 63) [2a]. Thus, condensation of 3,4,5,6-tetrafluoro-1,2-phenylenediamine with formic acid afforded 4,5,6,7-tetrafluoroimidazole in 71 % yield (Scheme 64) [78]. Refluxing the diamine in trifluoroacetic anhydride gave the *N,N'*-bis(trifluoroacetyl) derivative that was subsequently cyclized to the corresponding 2-(trifluoromethyl)imidazole. Likewise, condensation of a diamine with ethyl diethoxyacetate followed by acidic hydrolysis of the diethyl acetal afforded 2-formyl-tetrafluoroimidazole [79].



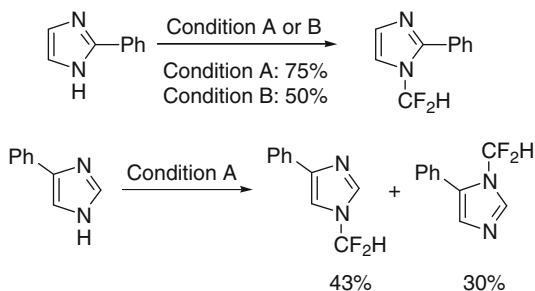
Scheme 63



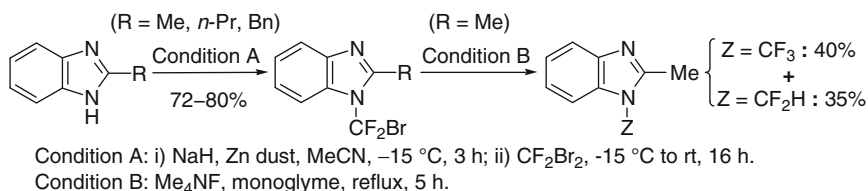
Scheme 64

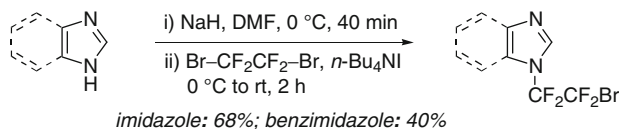
8 Synthesis of *N*-Fluoroalkylimidazoles and Benzimidazoles

Lyga reported *N*-difluoromethylation of 2- and 4-phenylimidazoles (Scheme 65) [80]. While the treatment of 2-phenylimidazole with one-equivalent NaH followed the addition of ClCF_2H afforded the corresponding *N*-difluoromethylated imidazole, the condensation of sodium salt of 4(5)-phenylimidazole with ClCF_2H produced a mixture of two regioisomeric products under similar conditions. Alternatively, heating a mixture of 2-phenylimidazole with methyl chlorodifluoroacetate in the presence of KF also afforded *N*-difluoromethyl-2-phenylimidazole, albeit in a lower yield.

**Scheme 65**

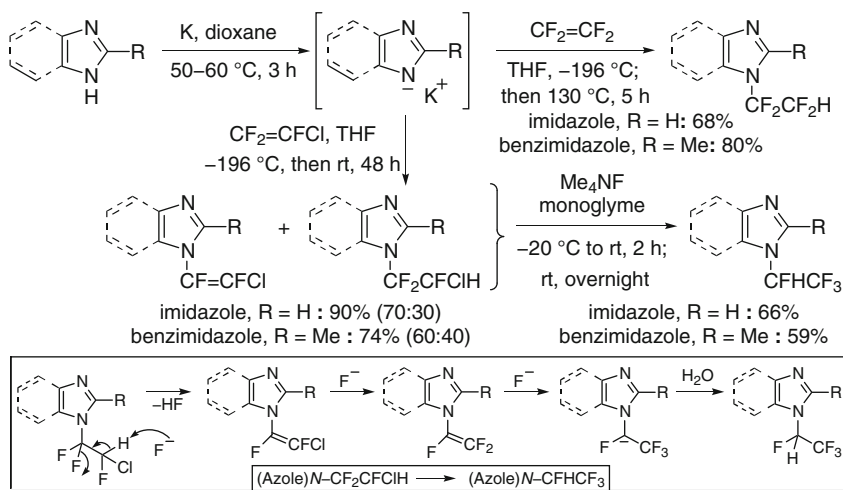
Yagupolskii described the preparation of *N*-bromodifluoromethylated 2-alkylbenzimidazoles via the treatment of sodium salt of benzimidazoles with CF_2Br_2 (Scheme 66) [81]. The presence of Zn dust accelerates these reactions. Refluxing a mixture of *N*-bromodifluoromethyl-2-methylimidazole with tetramethylammonium fluoride afforded a mixture of *N*-trifluoromethylated and *N*-difluoromethylated benzimidazoles. Röschenhaler and Kolomeitsev also reported the room-temperature preparation of *N*-bromodifluoromethylated imidazole, 2-phenylimidazole and 2-methylbenzimidazole from the corresponding potassium salts (prepared by metalation of parent *NH*-azoles by *t*-BuOK in *t*-BuOH) using CF_2Br_2 (in DMF or THF) in 43 %, 71 % and 70 % yields, respectively [82]. Whereas the reaction of *N*-(bromodifluoromethyl)imidazole with SbF_3 (60°C , 24 h) afforded *N*-trifluoromethylimidazole in 30 % yield; the reaction of *N*-(bromodifluoromethyl)imidazole with zinc in aqueous methanol (reflux, 24 h) gave *N*-difluoromethylimidazole 95 % yield. Likewise, *N*-(bromodifluoromethyl)-2-phenylimidazole and *N*-bromodifluoromethyl-2-methylbenzimidazole also afforded the corresponding *N*-difluoromethylated products in 95 % yields under similar conditions. The reactions of sodium salt of imidazole and benzimidazole with $\text{BrCF}_2\text{CF}_2\text{Br}$ in the presence of tetra-*n*-butylammonium iodide afforded the corresponding *N*-(2-bromotetrafluoroethyl)azoles (Scheme 67) [83].

**Scheme 66**



Scheme 67

The addition of $\text{CF}_2=\text{CFCl}$ to the potassium salt of imidazole and 2-methylbenzimidazole followed by warming to room temperature gave the mixture of corresponding *N*-(2-chloro-1,2-difluorovinyl)azoles and *N*-(2-chloro-1,1,2-trifluoroethyl)azoles (Scheme 68) [84]. In contrast, heating the potassium salt of imidazole and 2-methylbenzimidazole with chlorotrifluoroethylene (DMA, reflux, 3 h) afforded only the corresponding *N*-(2-chloro-1,2-difluorovinyl) derivatives in 15 % and 45 % yields, respectively. Treatment of the mixture of *N*-(2-chloro-1,2-difluorovinyl)azoles and *N*-(2-chloro-1,1,2-trifluoroethyl)azoles with tetramethylammonium fluoride afforded corresponding *N*-(1,2,2,2-tetrafluoroethyl)azoles in 66 % and 59 % yields, respectively. In contrast, addition of tetramethylammonium fluoride to *N*-(2-chloro-1,2-difluorovinyl)azoles under similar condition afforded the corresponding *N*-(1,2,2,2-tetrafluoroethyl)azoles in 35 % and 31 % yields, respectively. Likewise, reaction of potassium salt of imidazole and 2-methylbenzimidazole with tetrafluoroethylene afforded the corresponding *N*-(1,1,2,2-tetrafluoroethyl)azoles in 68 % and 80 % yields, respectively.



Scheme 68

In summary, the tactical approaches involved in the synthesis of various fluorinated/fluoroalkylated imidazoles and benzimidazole analogs are discussed in this chapter. A deeper understanding of these synthetic protocols may provide easier access to these molecules, as well as an impetus to the discovery of new fluorinated imidazoles and benzimidazoles in the pharmaceutical and agrochemical industries.

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Chemistry of Fluorinated Oxadiazoles and Thiadiazoles

Andrea Pace, Antonio Palumbo Piccionello, Ivana Pibiri,
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Abstract A literature survey of the chemistry of fluorinated oxadiazoles and thiadiazoles is presented. The core part on synthetic procedures is given by type of heterocycle and includes recent developments up to the end of 2012. Reactivity is discussed when induced by the presence of the fluorinated moiety. Selected examples of bioactive compounds and applications are illustrated.

Keywords Fluorinated azoles • Oxadiazoles • Thiadiazoles • Fluorinated bioactive azoles • Fluorinated materials

1 Introduction

Oxadiazoles and thiadiazoles are a subset of heteroaromatic compounds which are widely applied in many fields, and their chemical and physicochemical properties can be appropriately tuned by the introduction of fluorine or fluorinated groups. This is one of the main reasons of the increasing development of synthetic methodologies leading to targeted fluorinated heterocycles. Additionally, the presence of the fluorinated moiety opens the way to new *fluorine-induced* reactivity with respect to corresponding non-fluorinated systems [1]. Target fluorinated oxadiazoles and thiadiazoles find applications in materials and fluoropolymer science and, in the case of biologically active compounds, their use as agrochemicals or pharmaceuticals is also common. Four types of compounds can be considered under the general classification “fluorinated heterocycles” in this chapter: (i) compounds where the fluorine atom is directly linked to the heterocyclic core; (ii) compounds where the heterocycle is substituted with a mono-, poly- or perfluoroalkyl group; (iii) compounds where the heterocycle is substituted with a mono-, poly- or perfluoroaryl group; (iv) compounds where the fluorine substituent is far from the heterocyclic core. Although the latter category may seem too generally applicable, in several cases the presence of a fluorinated group not directly linked to the heterocyclic core can strongly affect the heterocyclic moiety chemical behaviour. Most of the literature refers to (per)fluoroalkyl and (per)fluoroaryl derivatives and reported examples have been selected on the basis of general interest or major breakthrough. Our efforts have been devoted to present an update until the end of 2012, mainly considering publications appeared in the last two decades. Previous papers have been cited when of general interest for the synthetic approach.

2 Synthetic Routes to Fluorinated Oxadiazoles and Thiadiazoles

2.1 1,2,3-Oxadiazoles

With the exception of mesoionic compounds such as sydnone **1** (Fig. 1) [2], fluorinated 1,2,3-oxadiazole systems are rare and often included as structures in patent's Markush, without sufficient experimental details [3].

Fig. 1 A reported example of fluorinated 1,2,3-oxadiazole system

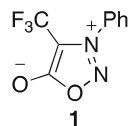
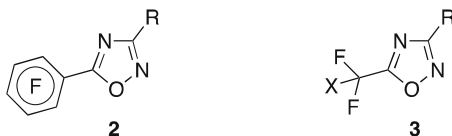


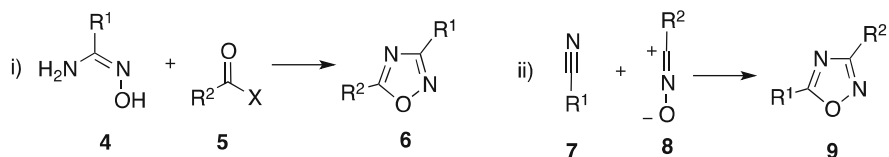
Fig. 2 Examples of 1,2,4-oxadiazole reagents



2.2 1,2,4-Oxadiazoles

Fluorinated 1,2,4-oxadiazoles find their application in both the pharmaceutical industry and materials science. Recently, 3-substituted 5-pentafluorophenyl-1,2,4-oxadiazoles **2** (Fig. 2) have been used as fluorinated oxadiazole arylating reagents (FOXARs) for the attachment of fluorinated moieties to nucleophilic pendants of polymers [4] and macromolecules [5]. Fluorinated 1,2,4-oxadiazoles **3** (Fig. 2) have been employed as reagents to introduce the difluoromethylene moiety into organic compounds [6]. To date, despite the fact that 3- (or 5-) chloro- or bromo- derivatives are known, there is still no literature on the synthesis of 1,2,4-oxadiazoles bearing a fluorine atom directly linked to the oxadiazole ring.

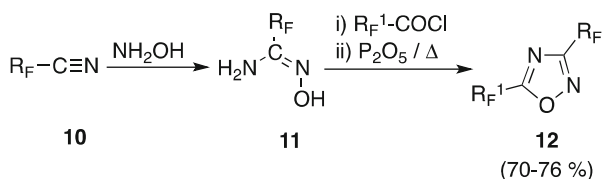
The synthesis of fluorinated oxadiazoles can be achieved from open-chain fluorinated precursors through conventional heterocyclization reactions such as the *amidoxime route* (i in Scheme 1) and the *cycloaddition route* (ii in Scheme 1), both necessitating of a nitrile precursor [7].



Scheme 1 1,2,4-oxadiazole synthesis by (i) the amidoxime route; (ii) the cycloaddition route

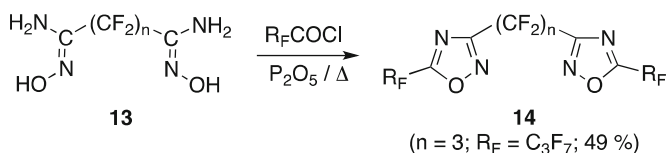
2.2.1 The Amidoxime Route

The historical *amidoxime route* towards 1,2,4-oxadiazoles is still the most represented in the literature also for fluorinated structures. Oxadiazoles **12**, bearing fluorinated groups at both the C(3) and C(5) can be obtained from the appropriate perfluoroalkyl amidoxime **11** and a fluorinated acylating reagent (Scheme 2). Similarly, from suitably fluorinated reagents, one can obtain oxadiazoles bearing the fluorinated group either at the C(3) or at C(5), respectively.



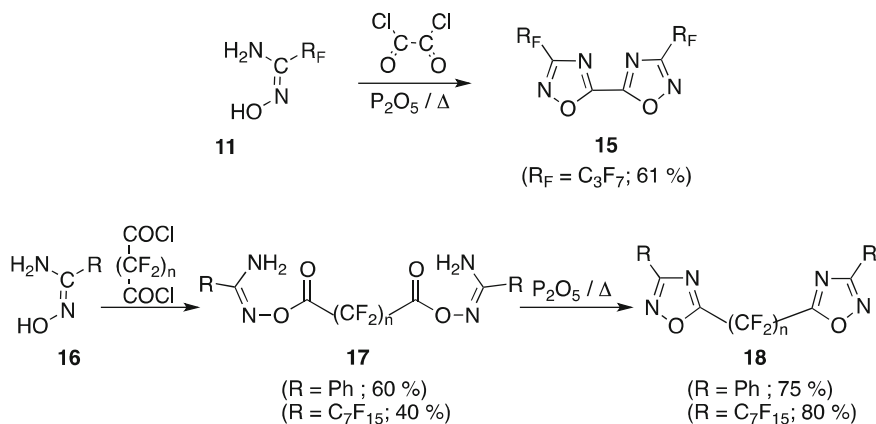
Scheme 2 Synthesis of 1,2,4-oxadiazoles bearing fluorinated groups at both the C(3) and C(5) by the amidoxime route

Pioneering work on this subject [8] reported the preparation of various perfluoro-alkylamidoximes **11** ($\text{R}_F = \text{CF}_3, \text{C}_2\text{F}_5, \text{C}_3\text{F}_7, \text{C}_7\text{F}_{15}$) and their acylation with perfluoro-acylchlorides (R_F^1COCl) followed by cyclodehydration to produce 3,5-bis(perfluoroalkyl)-1,2,4-oxadiazoles **12** either symmetrically ($\text{R}_F = \text{R}_F^1$) or unsymmetrically substituted. By following the same methodology, bis-oxadiazoles **14** ($n=3$) could be obtained (Scheme 3) [8, 9].



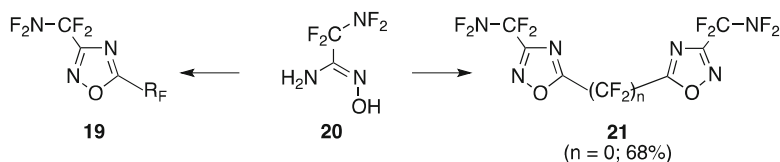
Scheme 3 Synthesis of perfluoroalkylated bis-oxadiazoles **14** by the amidoxime route

Perfluoroalkyl substituted oxadiazoles joined by the annular 5,5'- positions can be obtained by using the appropriate diacyl chloride. For instance, in the reaction of amidoxime **11** with oxalyl chloride, the 5,5'-bis(1,2,4-oxadiazolyl) compound **15** is produced (Scheme 4) [8]. Furthermore, the corresponding O,O'-hexafluoroglutaryl diamidoxime **17** ($n=3$) was isolated in acceptable yields by the reaction of amidoxime **16** and hexafluoroglutaryl chloride [10]. Subsequent dehydration by heating with phosphorus pentoxide gave the corresponding bis-oxadiazole **18** in good yields (Scheme 4).



Scheme 4 Bis-oxadiazoles **15** and **18** obtained by the amidoxime route followed by dehydration step with P_2O_5

Various 5-perfluoroalkyl-3-phenyloxadiazoles have been obtained from the direct reaction of benzamidoxime **16** (R=Ph) with perfluoroacylating reagents [10, 11]. Difluoromalonoyl chloride and benzamidoxime directly gave the bis-oxadiazolyldifluoromethane **18** (n = 1). Similarly, the reaction of difluoroaminodifluoroacetamidoxime **20** with perfluoroalkanoyl chlorides followed by dehydration of the resulting *O*-perfluoroacylamidoximes with P₂O₅ leads to 5-perfluoroalkyl-oxadiazoles **19**. When heating amidoxime **20** with perfluorosuccinic acid and phosphorus pentoxide, the bis-oxadiazole **21** (n = 2) is obtained [12]. The same amidoxime **20** with oxalyl chloride will yield bis-oxadiazole **21** (n = 0) (Scheme 5) [13].

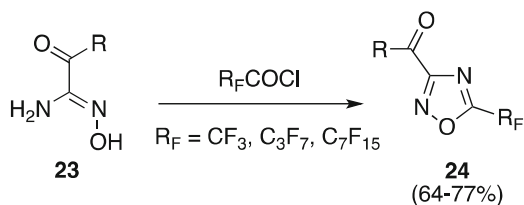
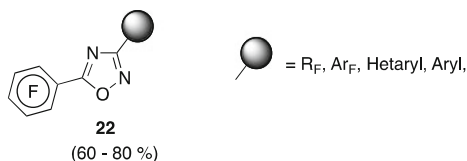


Scheme 5 Synthesis of perfluoroalkyl 1,2,4-oxadiazole **19** and bis-oxadiazole **21**

5-Pentafluorophenyl-oxadiazoles of general formula **22** (Fig. 3) can be obtained directly from the reaction of the corresponding amidoximes and pentafluorobenzoyl chloride in refluxing toluene in the presence of pyridine [14].

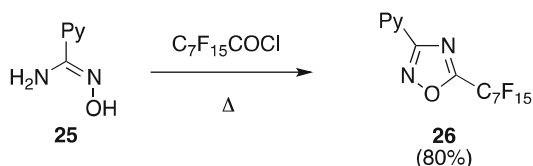
Similarly, 3-benzoyl- **24** (R=Ph) [15] and 3-carboxyethyl-5-perfluoroalkyl-oxadiazole **24** (R=OEt) are prepared from amidoximes (**23**; R=Ph, OEt respectively) and the corresponding perfluoroalkanoyl chlorides (or anhydrides) (Scheme 6).

Fig. 3 Examples of synthetically available FOXARs



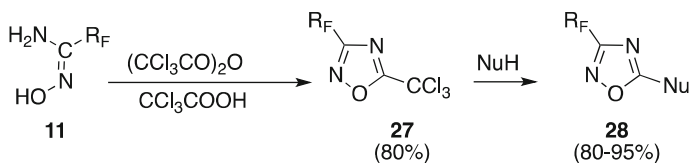
Scheme 6 Synthesis of 5-perfluoroalkyl 1,2,4-oxadiazole **24**

4-(5-Perfluoroheptyl-1,2,4-oxadiazol-3-yl)pyridine or 3-(5-perfluoroheptyl-1,2,4-oxadiazole-3-yl)pyridine **26**, have been obtained directly (in 90 and 70 % yields, respectively) from the acylation reaction of the corresponding nicotyl amidoxime and isonicotyl amidoxime (Scheme 7) [16]. From these derivatives, the corresponding *N*-methyl-pyridinium salts have been prepared for possible applications as Self-Organized Functional Organic Salts (SOFOS) [16].



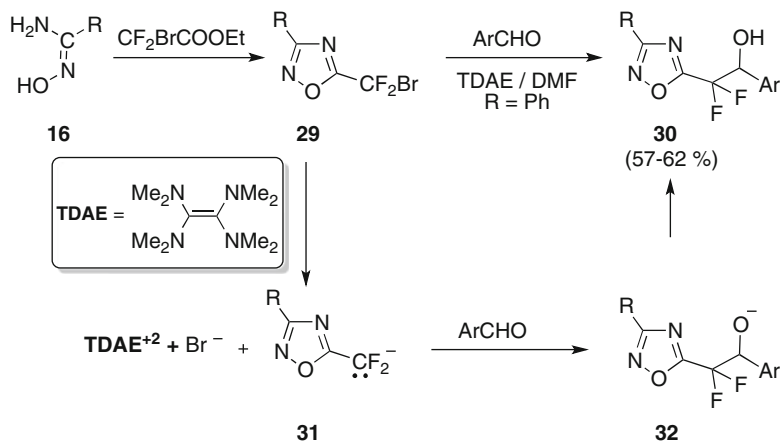
Scheme 7 Synthesis of 3- and 4-(5-perfluoroheptyl-1,2,4-oxadiazol-3-yl)pyridine **26**

The *amidoxime route* has been used for the synthesis of derivatives differently functionalized at C(5). Amidoxime **11** treated with trichloroacetic anhydride in hot trichloroacetic acid, lead to the corresponding 5-trichloromethyl- 1,2,4-oxadiazole **27**. The latter, in the presence of nitrogen nucleophiles (ammonia, primary or secondary amines), undergoes an aminolysis reaction leading to **28** (Scheme 8) [17].



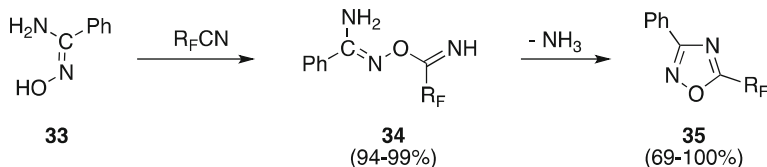
Scheme 8 Synthesis of 5-trichloromethyl- 1,2,4-oxadiazole **27** and its aminolysis leading to **28**

Amidoximes also react with ethyl bromodifluoroacetate to give 5-(bromodifluoromethyl)oxadiazoles **29** [18]. A series of difluoro alcohols such as **30** were obtained by an electron transfer process in the presence of aromatic aldehydes starting from compounds **29** (Scheme 9). The reactions occurs through an initial formation of a red colored charge-transfer complex between TDAE (donor) and bromo derivative **29** (acceptor). A temperature increase from $-20\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ to rt allows to complete an electron transfer process producing difluoromethylene anion **31**, which is stable enough to react with aromatic aldehydes, finally leading to the corresponding alcohols **30** [19].



Scheme 9 Synthesis of 5-(bromodifluoro-methyl)oxadiazoles **29** and difluoro alcohols **30**

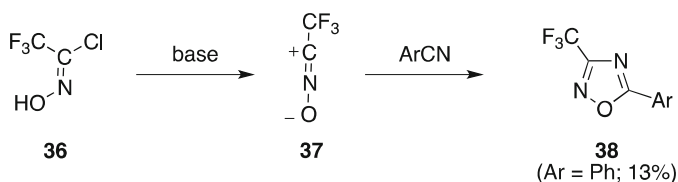
Nitriles themselves can be also used as acylating reagent for amidoximes in some cases. Subsequent heterocyclization involves loss of ammonia in the final step (Scheme 10). For this purpose, the reaction is carried out in the presence of an ammonia acceptor reagent (e. g. the perfluorocarboxylic acid, or an excess of the nitrile). For example, from the reaction of benzamidoxime with perfluoroalkylnitriles, a series of 5-perfluoroalkyl-1,2,4-oxadiazoles **35** can be obtained [20].



Scheme 10 Synthesis of 5-perfluoroalkyl-1,2,4-oxadiazoles **35**

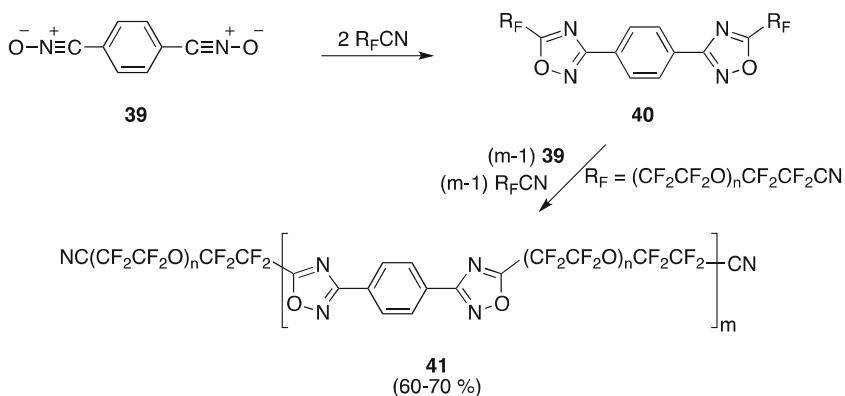
2.2.2 The Cycloaddition Route

Another general approach to the synthesis of fluorinated 1,2,4-oxadiazoles is based on the [3+2] cycloaddition between nitriles and nitrile oxides (each component of the reaction can contain the fluorinated moiety). Cycloaddition of the trifluoroacetone nitrile oxide **37** produced the 3-trifluoromethyl-5-phenyl derivative **38** (Ar=Ph) (Scheme 11) [21]. Unfortunately, aliphatic nitriles such as the butyronitrile do not undergo cycloaddition into the oxadiazole derivative [21].



Scheme 11 Synthesis of 3-trifluoromethyl-5-phenyl derivative **38** by the Cycloaddition Route

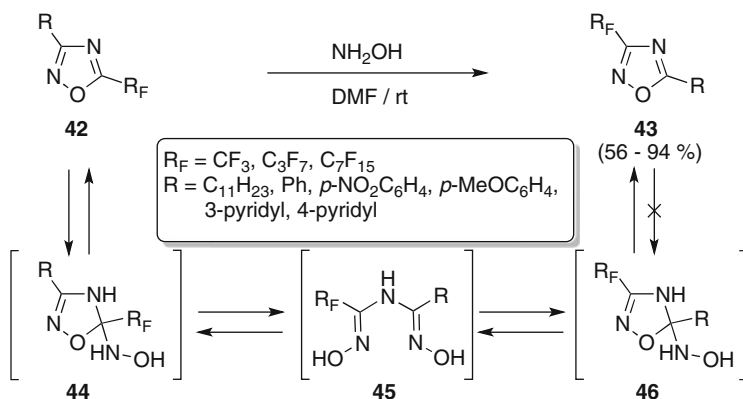
The method involving cycloaddition between nitriles and nitrile oxides has also been employed for the synthesis of complex systems precursors of polymeric materials. For example, terephthalaldinitrile oxide **39** was reacted with $\text{R}_\text{F}\text{CN}$ (Scheme 12) to give representative oxadiazole **40**. In the case of R_F =nitrile-terminated polyperfluoroalkylether chain, the presence of several nitrile pendants as curing sites can lead to further functionalized oligomers **41** [22].



Scheme 12 Synthesis of functionalized oligomers **41**

2.2.3 The Ring-Rearrangement Route

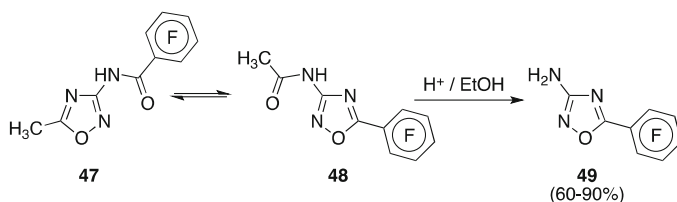
More than a decade from our laboratories demonstrated how heterocyclic rearrangements can be fruitfully implemented for the synthesis of fluorinated heterocycles. ANRORC-like reactions, which consists of the **Addition** of a **Nucleophile** to an electron deficient heterocycle, followed by **Ring-Opening** and **Ring-Closure** steps [23], represent a valuable strategy to transform an easily accessible fluorinated heterocycle into a different one containing the heteroatoms originally belonging to the nucleophilic reagent. The reaction of 5-perfluoroalkyl-1,2,4-oxadiazoles **42** with hydroxylamine in DMF at room temperature gave excellent yields of 3-perfluoroalkyl-1,2,4-oxadiazoles **43**, resulting in a virtual C(5)-C(3) annular switch (Scheme 13) [24].



Scheme 13 ANRORC-like reactions: the C(5)-C(3) annular switch

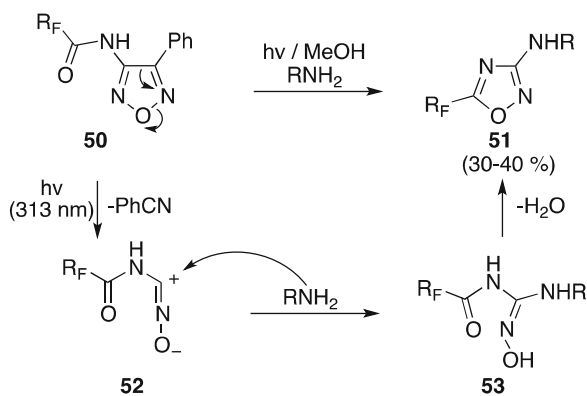
The ring-degenerate ANRORC rearrangement has been successfully applied also for the synthesis of perfluoroalkylated 1,2,4-oxadiazolyl-pyridines **43** ($\text{R}_F = \text{C}_7\text{F}_{15}$; $\text{R} = 3\text{- or }4\text{-pyridyl}$), suitable precursors of the corresponding *N*-methylated salts [16].

The ring-rearrangement approach is an efficient methodology also for the synthesis of 3-amino-5-polyfluoroaryl-1,2,4-oxadiazoles. Following the Boulton-Katritzky rearrangement pattern, the ring-degenerate thermal equilibration of **47** (easily accessible from the reaction of 3-amino-5-methyl-1,2,4-oxadiazole with pentafluorobenzoyl chloride) gave a mixture of both the ring degenerate isomers **47** and **48** in a 80:20 ratio as a result of the electron-withdrawing character of the pentafluorophenyl moiety (Scheme 14) [25]. Interestingly, acidic hydrolysis of this thermally equilibrated mixture gave the expected 3-amino compound **49** in about 60 % yield because of the acid induced shift of the ring-degenerate equilibrium. By the same procedure, different 3-amino-5-polyfluorophenyl-1,2,4-oxadiazoles have also been prepared [25]. These results appear of some significance, since attempts to synthesize the same fluorinated oxadiazoles by conventional procedures (e. g., by the acylcyanamide method) were reported to be unsuccessful.



Scheme 14 The Boulton-Katritzky ring-degenerate thermal equilibration of **47**

Unfortunately, because of the structure-dependent reactivity of 3-acylamino oxadiazoles towards ring- degenerate interconversions, this procedure is not applicable to the synthesis of 5-perfluoroalkyl derivatives [25]. Nevertheless, these compounds can be obtained through photo-induced rearrangements of O-N bond containing azoles [26] involving the photo-fragmentation of 3-perfluoroalkanoylamino furazans **50** at $\lambda=313$ nm in methanol and in the presence of ammonia or primary aliphatic amines giving the corresponding 3-amino- or 3-N-alkylamino-5- perfluoroalkyl-1,2,4-oxadiazoles **51** as a result of the involvement of the added amine in the reaction of photofragmented intermediates (Scheme 15) [27].



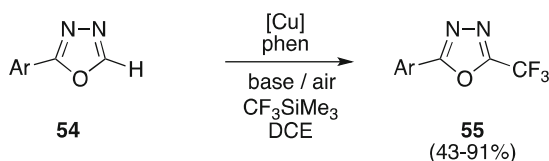
Scheme 15 Synthesis of 3-N-alkylamino-5- perfluoroalkyl-1,2,4-oxadiazoles **51** by photo-fragmentation of 3-perfluoroalkanoylamino furazans **50**

In order to maximize yields, the irradiated solution needs to stand in the dark overnight, to complete the final cyclization step of **53** into **51**. Although yields are not optimal due to the subsequent photoreactivity of compounds **51** at the used irradiation wavelength (see Sect. 2.3.3), this route appears to be the most accessible synthetic method for the synthesis of 3-(alkyl) amino-5-perfluoroalkyl-1,2,4-oxadiazoles.

2.3 1,3,4-Oxadiazoles

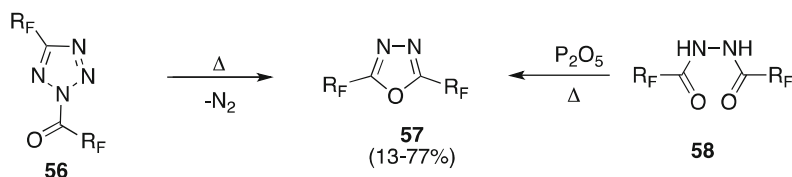
There are several reports in the literature concerning 1,3,4-oxadiazoles bearing a fluorinated group at either or both positions 2 and 5 of the ring. Some trifluoromethyl-1,3,4-oxadiazoles are also commercially available. As for oxadiazoles with a fluorine atom directly bond to the ring, although some patents actually claim such derivatives [28], no description of experimental detail has been reported.

Recently, the direct trifluoromethylation of 1,3,4-oxadiazoles has been achieved by reaction with trifluoromethyltrimethylsilane through direct C-H activation of oxadiazole **54** using copper acetate as catalyst under oxidative conditions (Scheme 16) [29].



Scheme 16 Synthesis of trifluoromethyl-1,3,4-oxadiazole **55** by copper acetate catalysis

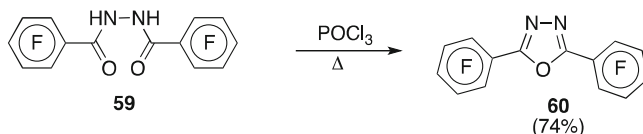
Beside this direct approach, the most widely used methodologies to obtain fluorinated 1,3,4-oxadiazole derivatives are: (i) the cyclodehydration of fluorinated diacylhydrazines **58** (Scheme 17); (ii) the ring-transformation of fluorinated 2-acyltetrazoles **56** (Huisgen reaction) [30] involving the loss of a nitrogen molecule of the acylated tetrazole ring leading to a nitrilimine intermediate which will finally produce 1,3,4-oxadiazoles **57** (Scheme 17). Besides these general methodologies, some syntheses of particular 1,3,4-oxadiazoles through photoinduced ring-rearrangements have been reported as well (see Scheme 26 in Sect. 2.3.3).



Scheme 17 Synthesis of perfluoroalkylated 1,3,4-oxadiazoles **57** by cyclodehydration of fluorinated diacylhydrazines **58** and Huisgen reaction of fluorinated 2-acyltetrazoles **56**

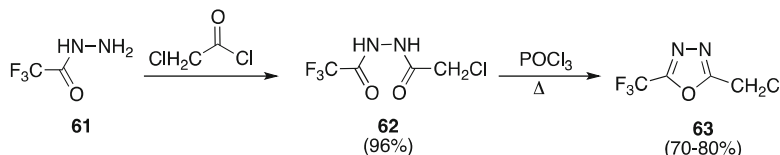
2.3.1 The Diacylhydrazine Route

Historical examples of syntheses by cyclodehydration of bis-perfluoro-acylhydrazines with P_2O_5 were reported by Brown et al. [31] as well as by Chambers and Coffman [32]. By using the same approach, a series of symmetrically and asymmetrically substituted 2,5-bis(polyfluoroaryl)-1,3,4-oxadiazoles **60** can be prepared in excellent yields (Scheme 18) [33].



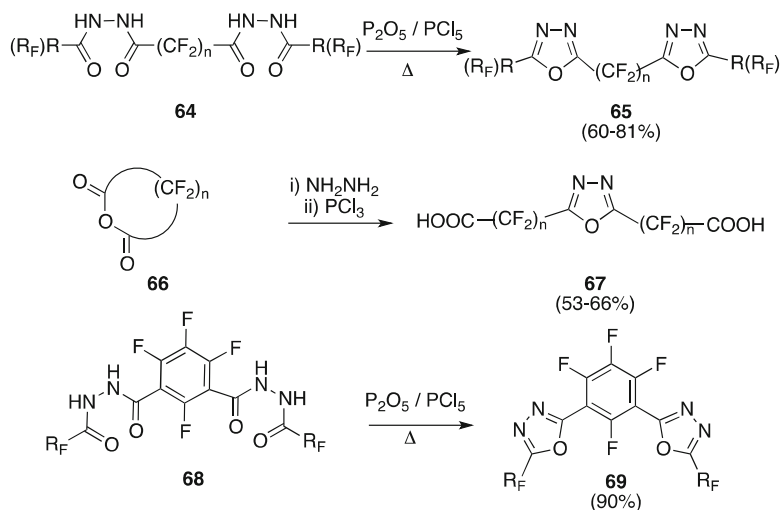
Scheme 18 Synthesis of 2,5-bis(polyfluoroaryl)-1,3,4-oxadiazoles **60** by cyclodehydration of bis-perfluoro-acylhydrazines with P_2O_5

Chloromethyl derivative **63**, a useful precursor for other trifluoromethylated heterocycles [34] can be obtained by reaction of **61** with chloroacetylchloride followed by cyclization of the resulting diacylhydrazide with phosphorus oxychloride **62** (Scheme 19) [35].



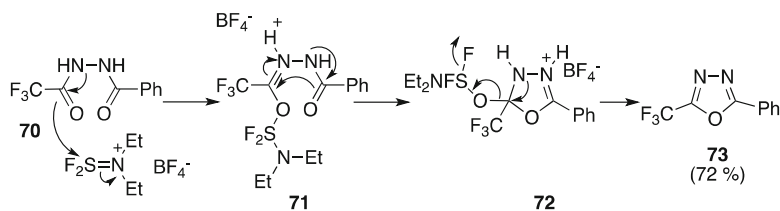
Scheme 19 Synthesis of chloromethyl derivative **63**

An interesting application of the cyclodehydration approach is the synthesis of bis-oxadiazoles **65** by dehydration of bis-diacylhydrazines **64** [36, 37]. Similarly, reaction of perfluoroanhydride **66** leading to **67** is also reported [38]. Bis-oxadiazoles **69**, which have a good thermal stability, are prepared by cyclodehydration of the corresponding tetrafluoroisophthaloyl bis(perfluoroacyl-hydrazines) **68** (Scheme 20) [39].



Scheme 20 Synthesis of bisoxadiazoles **65** and **69** and oxadiazoles **67** by the cyclodehydration approach

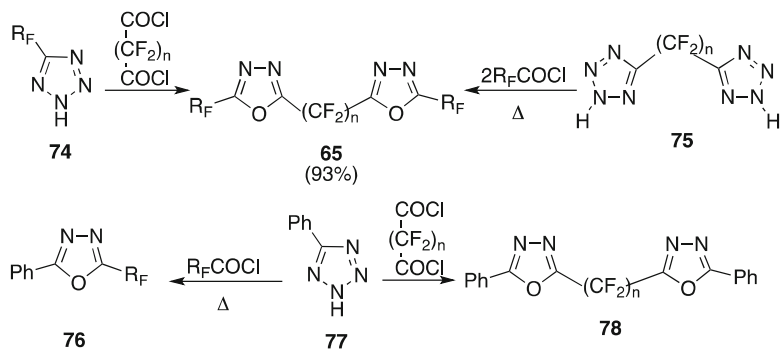
More recently, the synthesis of 1,3,4-oxadiazoles **73**, including fluorinated derivatives, from 1,2-diacylhydrazines was reported by using $[\text{Et}_2\text{NSF}_2]\text{BF}_4$ as a convenient cyclodehydration agent (Scheme 21) [40].



Scheme 21 Synthesis of 1,3,4-oxadiazoles **73** by using $[\text{Et}_2\text{NSF}_2]\text{BF}_4$ as a cyclodehydration agent

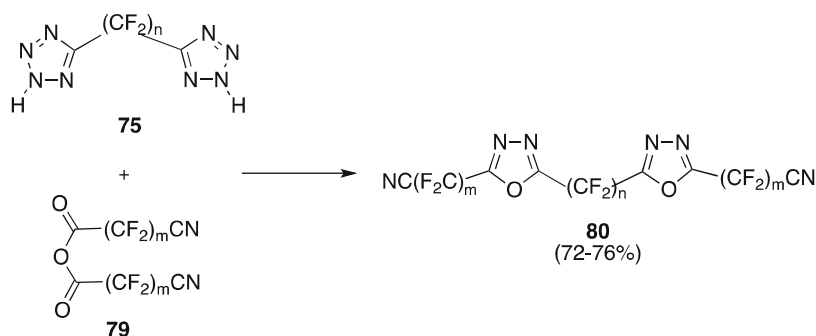
2.3.2 The Acyl-Tetrazole Rearrangement Route

Some of the previously illustrated fluorinated 1,3,4-oxadiazoles, such as **57** ($\text{R}_F = \text{CF}_3, \text{C}_3\text{F}_7$) and **65** ($\text{R} = \text{C}_3\text{F}_7$; $n = 3$), can be alternatively obtained by the Huisgen reaction approach [41]. Both 5-perfluoroalkyl-2-phenyl-1,3,4-oxadiazoles **76** and the diheterocyclic compound 1,3-bis(2-phenyl-1,3,4-oxadiazol-5-yl)hexafluoropropane **78** ($n = 3$) can be obtained by reaction of 5-phenyltetrazole **77** with perfluoroacyl chloride or perfluoroglutaryl chloride respectively (Scheme 22) [10].



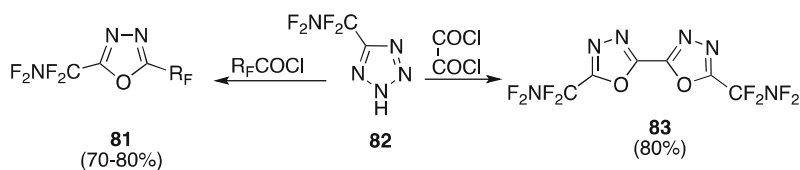
Scheme 22 The Acyl-Tetrazole Rearrangement Route in the synthesis of fluorinated 1,3,4-oxadiazoles **65**, 5-perfluoroalkyl-2-phenyl-1,3,4-oxadiazoles **76** and 1,3-bis(2-phenyl-1,3,4-oxadiazol-5-yl)hexafluoropropane **78**

Bifunctional reagents have been considered for the construction of polymeric structures. The reaction of α,ω -bis(tetrazol-5-yl)perfluoroalkane **75** with ω -cyanoperfluoroanhydrides **79** (at 150 °C) produces bis-oxadiazoles **80** from which further functionalization may be added on the two terminal nitriles (Scheme 23) [42, 43].



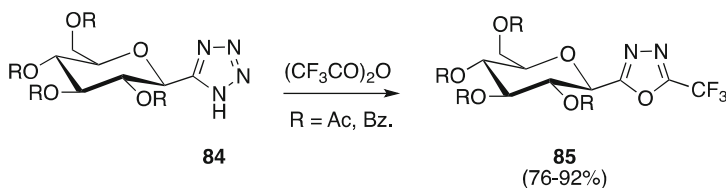
Scheme 23 Bifunctional reagents in the construction of polymeric structures

By the use of the same methodology, the *N,N*-difluoroaminodifluoromethyl-tetrazole **82** reacts with perfluoroacyl chlorides or oxalyl chloride leading to the corresponding oxadiazoles **81** or bis-oxadiazole **83**, respectively (Scheme 24) [13].



Scheme 24 Synthesis of perfluoroalkyl oxadiazoles **81** and bis-oxadiazole **83**

Overall, the *tetrazole transformation* methodology is a quite general approach. Almost any nitrile can be transformed into the corresponding tetrazole precursor which can lead to a perfluoroalkyl-1,3,4-oxadiazole. One example is represented in Scheme 25 for sugar-linked system **85** obtained from the corresponding D-glucose tetrazole derivative (Scheme 25) [44].

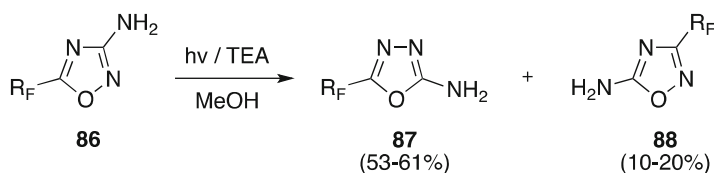


Scheme 25 Sugar-linked system **85** obtained by the *tetrazole transformation* methodology

2.3.3 The Photoinduced Ring-Rearrangement

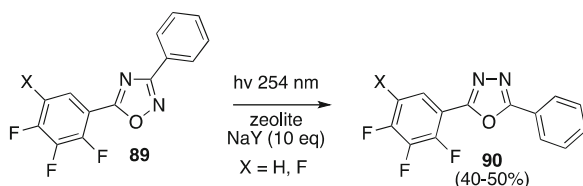
Although simple derivatives such as the 2-amino-5-trifluoromethyl-1,3,4-oxadiazole **87** ($R_F=CF_3$) can be prepared by reaction of trifluoroacetylhydrazine with $BrCN$, an interesting alternative is represented by the photorearrangement of the corresponding 1,2,4-oxadiazoles [26, 45].

As far as functional groups are concerned, in solution this approach is restricted to 1,2,4-oxadiazoles bearing a tautomerizable group at C(3) [7]. For instance, 3-amino-5-perfluoroalkyl-1,2,4-oxadiazoles **86** produced the corresponding 2-amino-5-perfluoroalkyl-1,3,4-oxadiazoles **87** (53–61% of yields) upon UV irradiation at 313 nm in methanol and in the presence of triethylamine (TEA). The reaction followed the typical ring contraction-ring expansion route [46]. In the same reaction, amounts of 5-amino-1,2,4-oxadiazole derivatives **88** are formed also through a competing process following the internal cyclization-isomerization route (Scheme 26) [46].



Scheme 26 Competing photoinduced ring-rearrangement: the ring contraction-ring expansion route and the internal cyclization-isomerization route

Very recent unpublished studies from our laboratories showed also the possibility to exploit the intrazeolite photorearrangement of 1,2,4-oxadiazoles [45] for the preparation of fluorinated diaryl-1,3,4-oxadiazole derivatives **90** (Scheme 27).

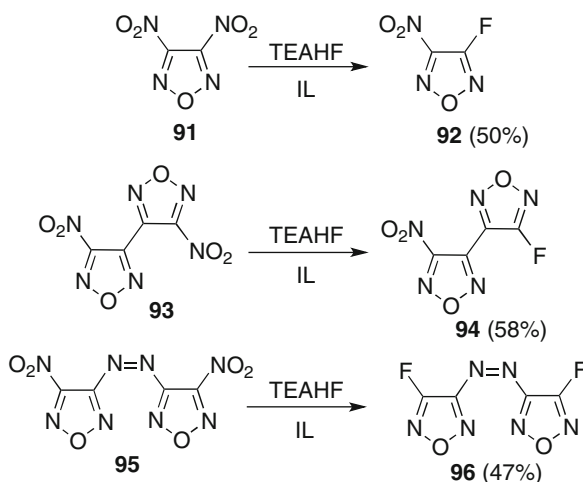


Scheme 27 Intrazeolite photorearrangement of 1,2,4-oxadiazoles

2.4 1,2,5-Oxadiazoles

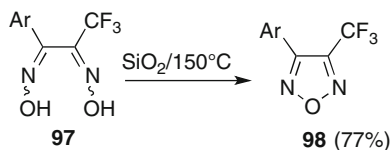
There are not many examples regarding the synthesis of fluorinated 1,2,5-oxadiazole (furazan) systems in the literature. Furazans bearing fluoro atoms were easily obtained by nucleophilic displacement of a nitro group at the furazan ring by using

a fluoride source and a ionic liquid (IL) as a medium [47]. Treatment of dinitro derivatives **91** and **93** with triethylamine hydrofluoride (TEAHF), by using butylmethylimidazolium salts (IL) as solvent, gave monofluorinated furazans **92** and **94** in 50–58 % yields (Scheme 28). Unfortunately, formation of the corresponding difluoro derivatives was observed in traces, with the double substitution of the nitro groups, just obtained in the case of diazo-derivative **96** (47 % yield) from the corresponding dinitro derivative **95**.



Scheme 28 Synthesis of furazans bearing fluoro atoms by nucleophilic displacement in ionic liquids

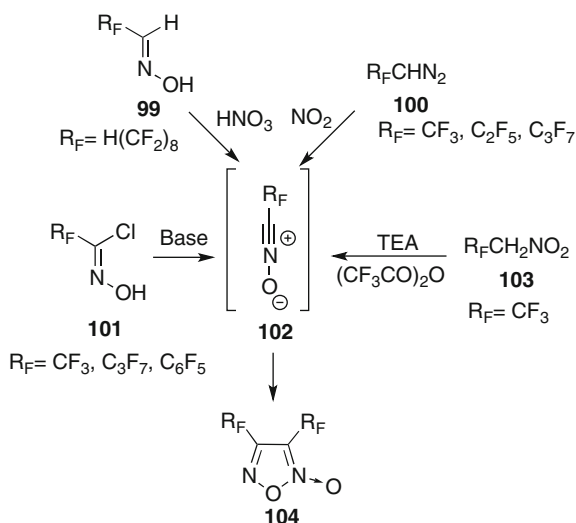
The synthesis of trifluoromethyl furazans **98** was described by Kamitori through the dehydration of dioximes **97** in the presence of silica (Scheme 29) [48]. Since the presence of silica is fundamental for this process, the author suggests that an interaction between the substrate and the silanol groups assists the cyclization reaction. The final products were obtained in higher yields (77 %) in presence of electron-withdrawing *p*-nitrophenyl group which facilitated reaction more effectively than the *p*-tolyl group in favoring the cyclization step.



Scheme 29 Synthesis of trifluoromethyl furazans **98** through the dehydration of dioximes **97** in the presence of silica

Furazan-*N*-oxides (furoxanes) **104** (Scheme 30) are isolated as a result of the nitrile oxide dimerization when chloro-oximes **101** are treated with bases in the absence of dipolarophiles [21, 49, 50]. Oxidation of aldoxime **99** with nitric acid gives furoxan **104** [R_F=H(CF₂)₈] in 50 % yield [51]. Similarly, furoxane **104** (R_F=C₆F₅)

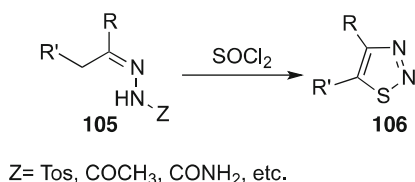
can be also formed from lead tetraacetate oxidation of the pentafluorobenzaldehyde oxime [49]. The involvement of nitrile oxide dimerization has been also suggested in the formation of furoxanes **104** by reaction of perfluoroalkyldiazomethanes **100** ($R_F = \text{CF}_3, \text{C}_2\text{F}_5, \text{C}_3\text{F}_7$) with nitrogen dioxide [52], and in the formation of the 3,4-*bis*(trifluoromethyl) derivative **104** ($R_F = \text{CF}_3$) from the dehydration reaction of trifluoromethylnitromethane **103** with trifluoroacetic anhydride (Scheme 30) [53]. More recently, the unstable trifluoroacetonitrile *N*-oxide molecule, CF_3CNO , has been generated in high yield in the gas phase from the corresponding bromo-oxime [54]. Cold trapping of this molecule followed by slow warming forms the stable bis(trifluoromethyl)furoxan **104** ($R_F = \text{CF}_3$), and the mechanism of the dimerization process to the furoxan ring was studied with density functional theory.



Scheme 30 Synthesis of the 3,4-*bis*(trifluoromethyl) furoxan **104**

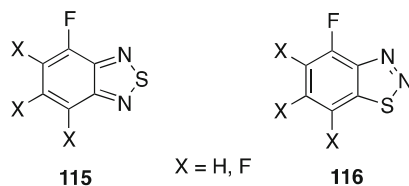
2.5 1,2,3-Thiadiazoles

The synthesis of fluorinated 1,2,3-thiadiazole was not widely investigated and is essentially related to the general scheme of the Hurd-Mori reaction [55], i.e. the treatment of hydrazone derivatives with thionyl chloride (Scheme 31).

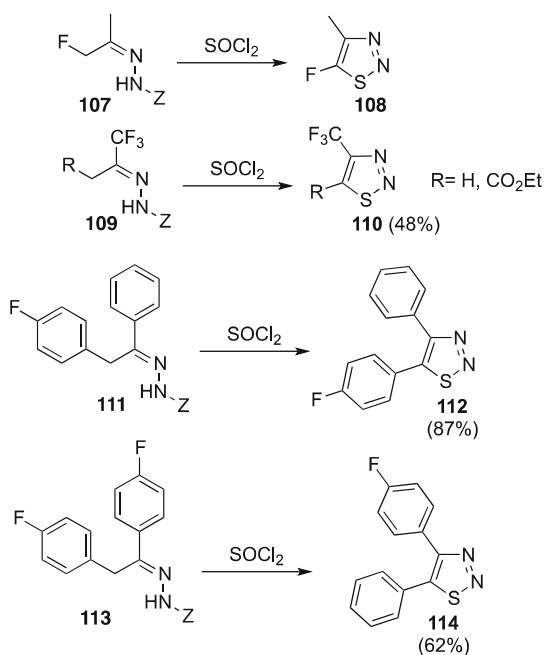


Scheme 31 Hurd-Mori reaction to 1,2,3-thiadiazole

Fig. 4 Structure of fluorinated benzothiadiazoles



By applying this method some representative fluorinated 1,2,3-thiadiazoles were obtained from the corresponding hydrazone derivatives (Scheme 32) [56].

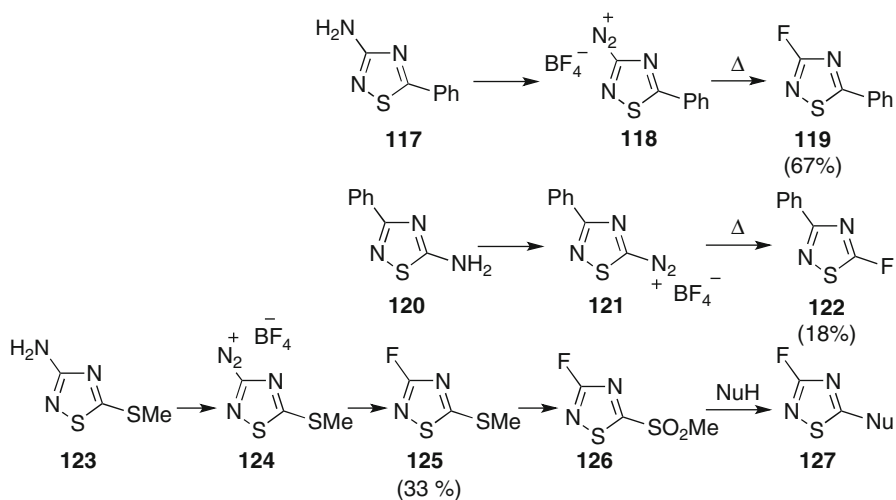


Scheme 32 Synthesis of fluorinated 1,2,3-thiadiazole by the Hurd-Mori reaction

Concerning benzocondensated derivatives, despite the largely cited use of fluorinated 2,1,3-benzothiadiazoles **115** in electronic devices [57], due also to the redox properties and anion stability of 2,1,3-benzothiadiazole systems such as **115** (Fig. 4) [58], the preparation of fluorinated 1,2,3-benzothiadiazoles such as **116** (Fig. 4), used for application as agrochemical, are rarely reported [59].

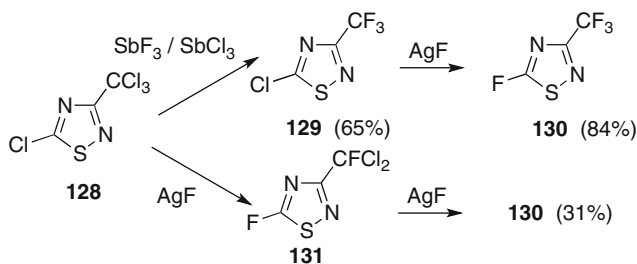
2.6 1,2,4-Thiadiazoles

When aminoderivatives such as **117** or **120** are available, the introduction of a fluorine atom directly bonded to the ring can be achieved by the generally applied decomposition of diazoniumtetrafluoroborates **118** and **121** leading to 3-fluoro-5-phenyl- **119** (67 %) or the regioisomer 5-fluoro-3-phenylthiadiazole **122** (18 %), respectively [60] (Scheme 33). The same methodology has been utilized for the preparation of 3-fluoro-5-methylthiothiadiazole **125** which can be obtained in a 33 % yield [61]. In turn, this 5-methylthio derivative **125** can be oxidized to the 5-sulfonylthiadiazole **126** which is a precursor of a series of compounds of industrial interest (of the general type **127**) obtained through nucleophilic substitution reactions with appropriate reagents (NuH in the Scheme 33).



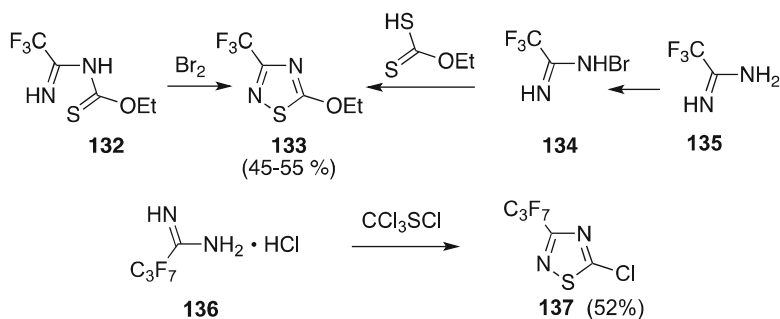
Scheme 33 Introduction of a fluorine atom directly bonded to the 1,2,4-thiadiazole ring

The introduction of fluorine has also been described through nucleophilic substitution or fluorination of functional groups already bonded to the ring. For instance, 5-chloro-3-trichloromethylthiadiazole **128** can be fluorinated with different reagents (Scheme 34) [62]. By the use of the $\text{SbF}_3/\text{SbCl}_3$ fluorinating mixture, only the trichloromethyl group is fluorinated to yield the trifluoromethyl derivative **129**. The annular 5-chloro moiety undergoes substitution and partial fluorination of the 3-trichloromethyl moiety is also observed with AgF. Further reactions of derivatives **129** and **131** with AgF lead to perfluorinated compound **130**.



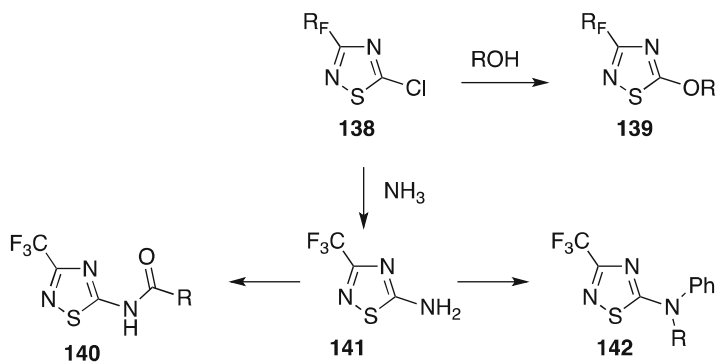
Scheme 34 Introduction of fluorine in 1,2,4-thiadiazole systems through nucleophilic substitution or fluorination of functional groups already bonded to the ring

With regard to the syntheses from fluorinated acyclic precursors, an approach to fluorinated 1,2,4-thiadiazoles utilized the oxidative heterocyclization of fluorinated thioacyl-amidines. For example, trifluoroacetamide and ethyl chlorothiocarbonate will form the open-chain intermediate **132** which, upon oxidation with bromine, leads to 5-ethoxy-3-trifluoromethyl-1,2,4-thiadiazole **133** (Scheme 35) [63]. A direct heterocyclization into the thiadiazole **137** takes place from the reaction of the fluorinated *N*-bromotrifluoroacetamide **134**, prepared by selective bromination of the corresponding trifluoroacetamide **135**, with ethyl xanthate [64]. In addition, the 3-perfluoropropyl-5-chlorothiadiazoole **137** is obtained in 52 % yield from the reaction of heptafluorobutyramidine hydrochloride **136** with trichloromethylsulfenyl chloride in the presence of a base (Scheme 35) [62].



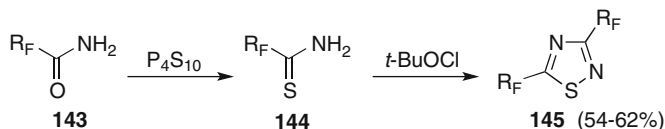
Scheme 35 Synthesis of fluorinated 1,2,4-thiadiazole from fluorinated acyclic precursors

Due to their reactivity towards both O- and N- nucleophiles, 5-chlorothiadiazoole derivatives **138** are used as precursors for the synthesis of various compounds such as **139** [65]. Further reactions of 5-amino-3-trifluoromethyl-1,2,4-thiadiazole **141** into target compounds **140** and **142** are also patented (Scheme 36) [66].



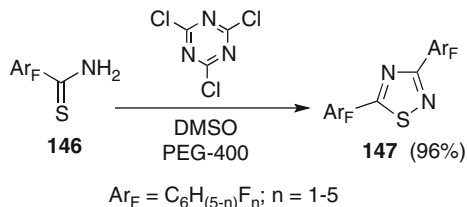
Scheme 36 5-chlorothiadiazoles **138** as precursors for the synthesis of fluorinated 1,2,4-thiadiazoles

Reaction of polyfluoroalkylthioamide **144**, prepared by sulfur insertion on the appropriate polyfluoroalkylcarboxamide, give rise to 1,2,4-thiadiazoles **145** in 54–62% yields (Scheme 37) [67, 68].



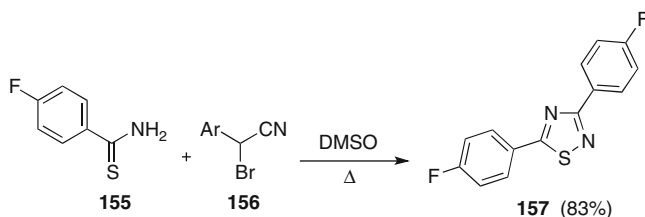
Scheme 37 Synthesis of 3,5-perfluoroalkyl-1,2,4-thiadiazoles **145**

Another convenient strategy for the synthesis of 3,5-diaryl-1,2,4-thiadiazoles is the oxidative dimerization of arylthioamides by using 2,4,6-trichloro-1,3,5-triazine and dimethylsulfoxide in polyethylene glycol 400 (PEG-400) as solvent at ambient temperature. This methodology can be applied to various fluoroarylated systems (Ar_F =mono-, poly-, or perfluorophenyl). The reaction give rise to 4-fluoro substituted derivatives **147** during 8 min in yields of 96 % (Scheme 38) [69]. The same reaction has been recently reported by using 1-butyl-3-methylimidazolium tetrafluoroborate as eco-friendly reaction medium at room temperature [70].



Scheme 38 Synthesis of 3,5-diaryl-1,2,4-thiadiazoles **147** by oxidative dimerization of arylthioamides

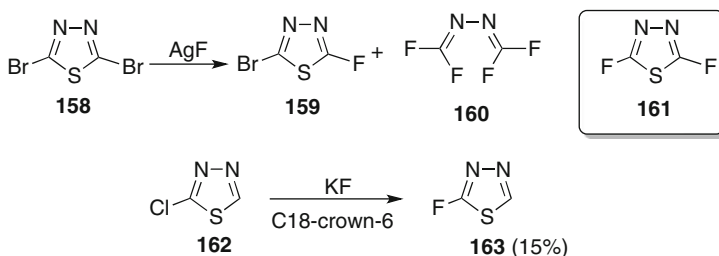
Alternatively, a simple and fast route reported for the preparation of 3,5-bis(fluoroaryl)-1,2,4-thiadiazoles **157**, consists in the reaction of benzothioamides **155** and 2-bromo-2-phenylacetamide derivatives **156** at 60 °C in DMSO (Scheme 41) [74].



Scheme 41 Synthesis of 3,5-bis(fluoroaryl)-1,2,4-thiadiazoles **157**

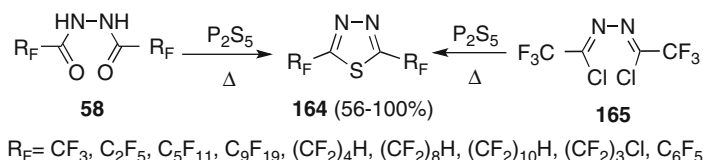
2.7 1,3,4-Thiadiazoles

In the case of 1,3,4-thiadiazoles, a fluorine atom can be directly introduced on the ring through nucleophilic substitution of other halogens. An example of this approach is represented by the reaction of the 2,5-dibromo derivative **158** with AgF, leading to the monofluorinated compound **159** (although in low yield; 16 %) and the perfluorinated open-chain compound **160**. The latter probably originated from the ring-cleavage of the unisolated **161** (Scheme 42) [62], although any attempts to obtain the difluoro derivative **161** through the diazotization of the 2,5-diaminothiadiazoles were unsuccessful. A relatively recent Japanese patent reports the synthesis of a series of derivatives, having the fluorine atom bonded to an annular carbon, through substitution reactions. *Inter alia*, the reaction of 2-chloro-1,3,4-thiadiazole **162** with KF (in the presence of 18-crown-6 ether at 150 °C) leading to the 2-fluoro derivative **163** (15 %) is claimed [75].



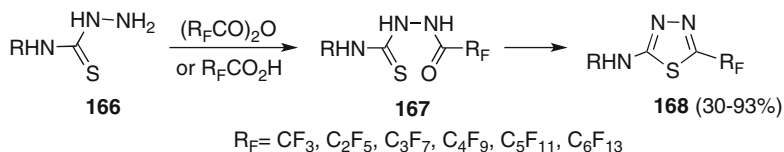
Scheme 42 Introduction of a fluorine atom on the 1,3,4-thiadiazole ring through nucleophilic substitution

In analogy to what was observed in the case of 1,3,4-oxadiazoles, the sulfuration of *N,N'*-diacylhydrazines **58** with P_2S_5 represent a general methodology for the synthesis of 2,5-*bis*(perfluoroalkyl)-1,3,4-thiadiazoles **164** which, in the reported examples, are obtained in 56–75 % yields depending on the nature of R_F (Scheme 43) [32]. Quantitative yields were observed in the synthesis of 2,5-*bis*(trifluoromethyl)-1,3,4-thiadiazoles **164** ($R_F=CF_3$) by the reaction of dichloroazine **165** with P_2S_5 (Scheme 43) [76]. More recently, Lawesson's reagent has been also employed for the obtainment of 2-phenyl-5-trifluoromethyl-1,3,4-thiadiazole in moderate yield (54 %) [77].



Scheme 43 Synthesis of 2,5-*bis*(perfluoroalkyl)-1,3,4-thiadiazoles **164** by sulfuration with P_2S_5

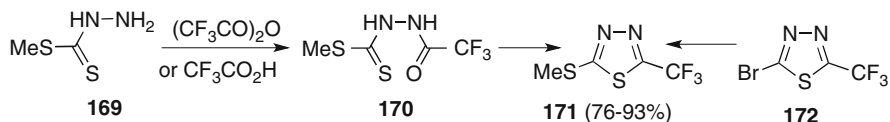
Particular importance has been paid to fluorinated thiadiazoles which contain functionalities such as amino or methylthio groups due to their industrial production. The synthesis of aminothiadiazoles **168** is based on the heterocyclization of acylthiosemicarbazides **167** with yields depending on experimental conditions (Scheme 44). In some cases the heterocyclization into the thiadiazole derivative occurs directly during the acylation reaction. In this manner, the reaction of thiosemicarbazide with trifluoroacetic anhydride lead to the formation of 2-amino-5-trifluoromethylthiadiazole **168** ($R_F=CF_3$, $R=H$) in a 30 % yield [78]. However, reaction carried out in the presence of $POCl_3$ permitted to obtain the yield increased to 93% [79]. Reactions between thiosemicarbazides **166** and trifluoroacetic acid or anhydride in the presence of PPA were also used for the synthesis of 2-amino and 2-methylamino derivatives **168** ($R_F=CF_3$) [80].



Scheme 44 Synthesis of aminothiadiazoles **168** by heterocyclization of acylthiosemicarbazides **167**

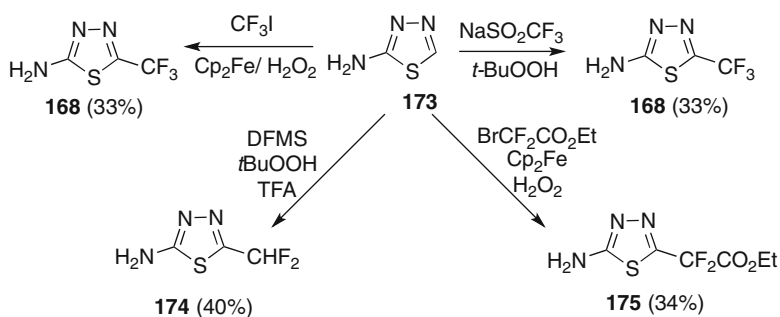
Several patents report the synthesis (or in some cases just a purification methodology) of 2-methylthio-5-trifluoromethyl-1,3,4-thiadiazole **171** which can be prepared through the reaction of **169** with trifluoroacetic acid or anhydride

(Scheme 45) [81]. The same compound **171** can also be obtained from the 2-bromo derivative **172** [82].



Scheme 45 Synthesis of 2-methylthio-5-trifluoromethyl-1,3,4-thiadiazole **171**

Very recently, direct trifluoromethylation of the pre-formed 1,3,4-thiadiazole ring has been reported. In all the cases the trifluoromethyl radical is involved as electrophilic species attacking the ring. Generation of the reactive radical could be achieved from CF_3I in the presence of ferrocene (Cp_2Fe) and hydrogen peroxide [83] or by using $\text{CF}_3\text{SO}_2\text{Na}$ (Langlois reagent) in the presence of *t*-BuOOH [84]. This quite interesting reactivity was just evidenced for the obtention of 2-amino-5-trifluoromethyl-1,3,4-thiadiazole **168** from the corresponding 2-amino derivative **173** and unfortunately in low yields. Similarly, radical fluoroalkylation of amine **173** was also achieved by using the new difluoromethylating agent $\text{Zn}(\text{SO}_2\text{CF}_2\text{H})_2$ (DFMS) [85] or $\text{BrCF}_2\text{CO}_2\text{Et}$ [86] as CF_2R radical sources (Scheme 46).

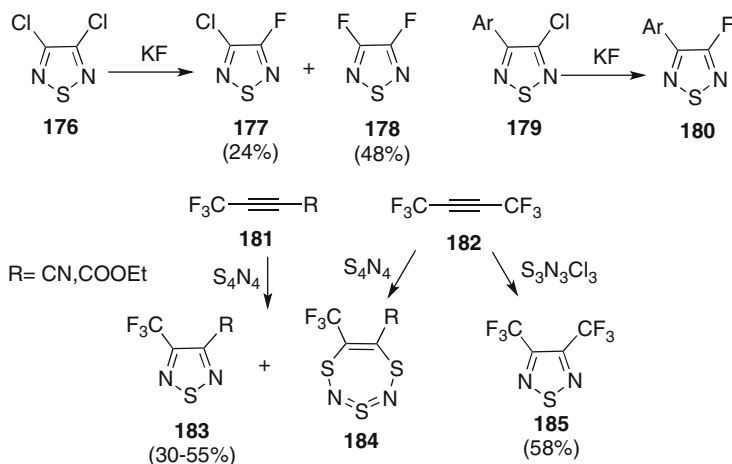


Scheme 46 Synthesis of fluorinated 1,3,4-thiadiazoles by radical fluoroalkylation of amine **173**

2.8 1,2,5-Thiadiazoles

Similarly to other thiadiazoles, the direct introduction of fluorine on the 1,2,5-thiadiazole can be achieved *via* substitution reactions on the corresponding chloro derivatives. Thus, reaction of the commercially available 4,5-dichloro-thiadiazole **176** with KF in sulfolane at 180°C allow to obtain both the monofluoro compound **177** (24%) and difluorothiadiazole **178** (48%) (Scheme 47) [87].

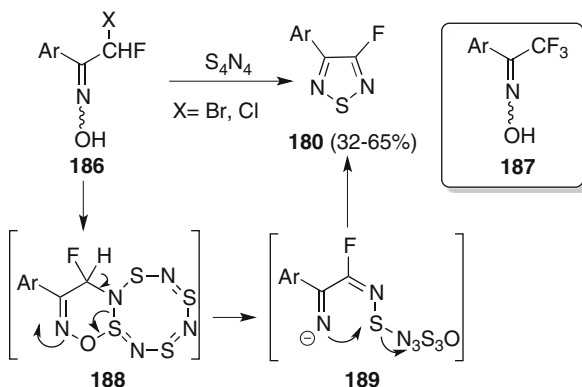
Similarly, 3-aryl-4-fluoro-1,2,5-thiadiazoles **180** have been prepared by treating the corresponding 4-chloro derivatives **179** with KF at high temperatures (Scheme 47) [88]. A synthesis of fluorinated 1,2,5-thiadiazoles from acyclic precursors utilizes the reaction of particular fluorinated substrates with tetrasulfur tetranitride (S_4N_4) in a (3+2) synthetic pattern. For instance, trifluorobutyne nitrile **181** ($R=CN$) and ethyl 4,4,4-trifluoro-2-butyrate **181** ($R=COOEt$) treated with S_4N_4 in dichloromethane at $150^\circ C$ produced trifluoromethyl substituted thiadiazoles **183** (30–55 %) (Scheme 47)[89]. Interestingly, the reaction was accompanied by the formation of trithiadiazepine **184**. In the case of the reaction with hexafluorobutyne **182**, only the corresponding trithiadiazepine derivative **184** ($R=CF_3$) was isolated, although the authors assumed that the *bis*(trifluoromethyl)thiadiazole **185** was formed also and lost during the reaction work-up because of its volatility. The formation of **185** was claimed in 58 % yield from the reaction of hexafluorobutyne **182** with the more electrophilic trithiazyl trichloride ($S_3N_3Cl_3$) reagent.[90] In this case, the addition of two NSCl moieties to the triple bond and the loss of SCl_2 during the heterocyclization is suggested. The same *bis*(trifluoromethyl) derivative **185** had been suggested to be involved in the reaction of **182** with thiazyl fluoride (NSF) [91]. Bis(trifluoromethyl)thiadiazole **185** was also obtained from the photochemical decomposition of bis(trifluoromethyl)-1,3,2-dithiazol-2-yl radical [92].



Scheme 47 Synthesis of fluorinated 1,2,5-thiadiazole by direct introduction of fluorine on the ring through nucleophilic substitution or starting from fluorinated acyclic precursors

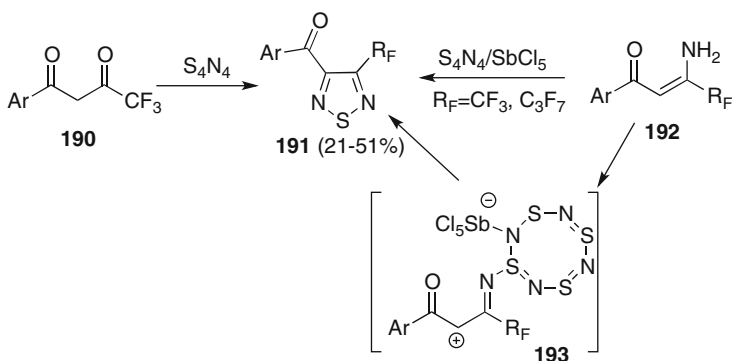
Cyclization with tetrasulfur tetranitride has been employed with the 1-aryl-2,2-dihaloethanone oximes **186**. From the reaction carried out in refluxing dioxane, 3-aryl-4-fluorothiadiazoles **180** have been obtained in fair yields (32–65%) and

the mechanistic aspects which involve the species **188** have been discussed (Scheme 48) [93]. It has to be noted that the same reaction performed on 1-aryl-2,2,2-trifluoroethanone oximes **187** does not result in cyclization to thiadiazole [94].



Scheme 48 Mechanistic aspects of the synthesis of fluorinated 1,2,5-thiadiazole by cyclization with tetrasulfur tetranitride

The reaction of benzyl ketones with tetrasulfur tetranitride provided a method for the synthesis of 3,4-diaryl- and 3-alkyl-4-aryl-1,2,5-thiadiazoles [95]. Similarly, in the case of fluorinated substrates, 3-aryl-4-trifluoromethylthiadiazoles **191** have been obtained in 40–50 % yields from the reaction of aroyltrifluoroacetylmethanes **190** with S_4N_4 in refluxing toluene [96]. Enaminones **192** have also been utilized as suitable substrates for the cyclization into 1,2,5-thiadiazoles **191** (21–51 %) [97]. The reaction has been realized using $S_4N_4/SbCl_5$ complex in toluene at 100°C and **193** as a key intermediate has been suggested (Scheme 49).

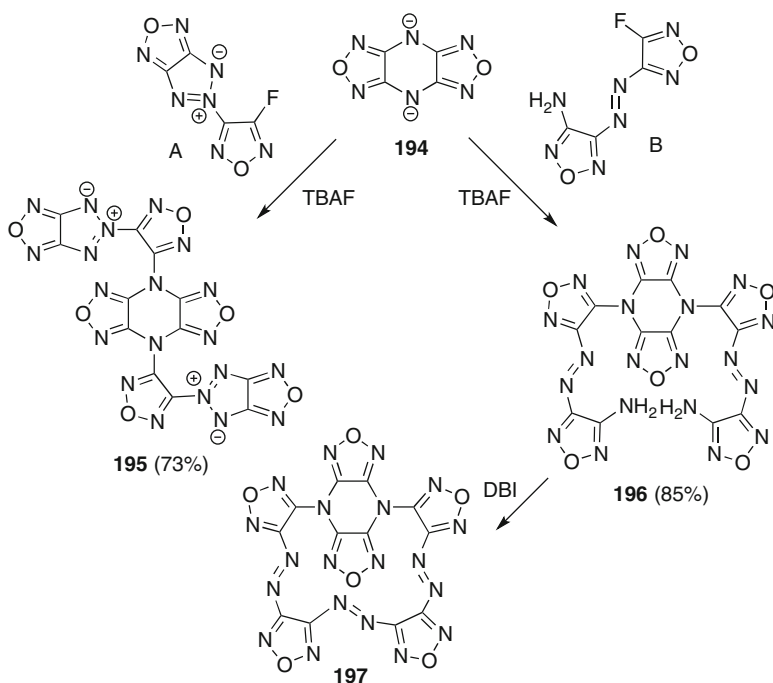


Scheme 49 Synthesis of 3-aryl-4-trifluoromethylthiadiazoles **191**

3 Fluorine-Induced Reactivity of Fluorinated Oxadiazoles and Thiadiazoles

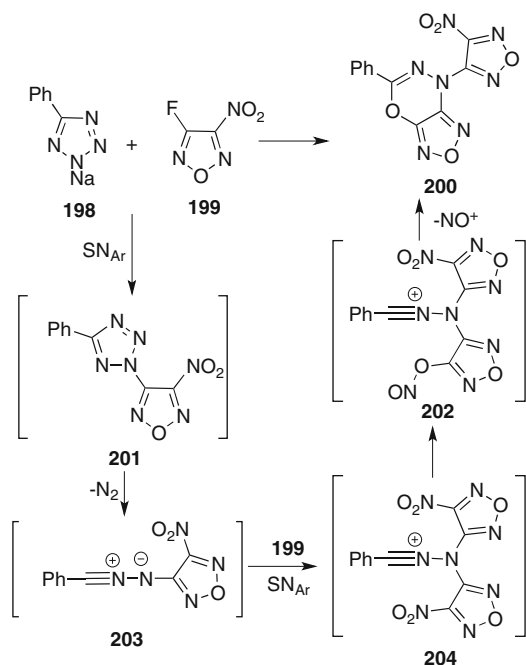
3.1 Ring-Fluorinated Derivatives

Few examples are reported in the literature regarding the reactivity of fluorinated 1,2,5-oxadiazoles. As for many azoles, the nucleophilic substitution of a fluorine atom is relatively easy and provided high yields. Fluorofurazans **A** react with bisfurazanopyrazine dianion **194** yielding a disubstituted compound **195** (73 %) containing two tris (furazanyl)-amino moieties [98]. The same reaction performed on fluoro-derivative **B** gave compound **196** (85 %), the precursor of macrocycle **197** synthesised by oxidative cyclization with dibromoisocyanurate (DBI) (Scheme 50).



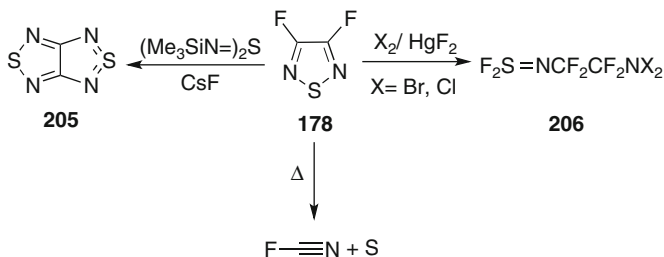
Scheme 50 Reactivity of fluorinated 1,2,5-oxadiazoles: the nucleophilic substitution of a fluorine atom

Displacement of fluoride from furazan **199** is the initial step of a new ring cleavage/ring closure reactions of tetrazole which provides a route to the new furazano[3,4-e]-1-oxa-3,4-diazine system **200** [99]. Interestingly, the nucleophilic substitution on a second molecule of fluorinated furazan **199** is one of the key steps of the suggested mechanism outlined in Scheme 51.



Scheme 51 Suggested mechanism for a route to furazano[3,4-e]-1-oxa-3,4-diazine system **200**

Concerning the reactivity of fluorinated 1,2,5-thiadiazoles, the only reported examples are related to the 3,4-difluoro-1,2,5-thiadiazole **178**. This compound shows nucleophilic displacement by fluoride ion-induced condensation with $(\text{Me}_3\text{SiN}=\text{})_2\text{S}$, giving [1, 2, 5]thiadiazolo[3,4-c][1, 2, 5]thiadiazole **205** in 62 % yield [100]. Electrochemical generation of **205** radical anion might be of interest to materials science as a building block for molecular ion-based conductors and/or magnets. Ring-opening reactions of **178** were performed with molecular chlorine and/or bromine in the presence of HgF_2 giving open-chain compounds $\text{F}_2\text{S}=\text{NCF}_2\text{CF}_2\text{NX}_2$ **206** ($\text{X}=\text{Cl}, \text{Br}$) (Scheme 52) [101].

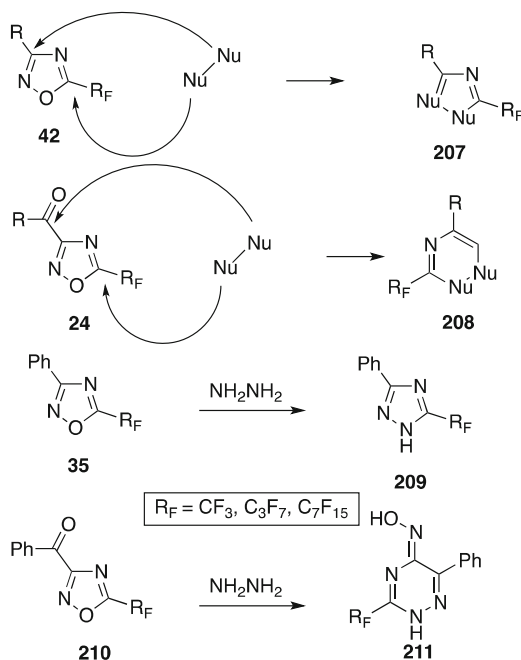


Scheme 52 Ring-opening reactions of **178**

The gas-phase generation and spectroscopic identification of nitrile sulfides by thermolysis of 1,2,5-thiadiazole precursors was attempted, but in all cases the thiadiazoles were found to produce sulfur and the corresponding nitrile [102]. Interestingly, compound **178** was indicated as the most stable derivative, giving not decomposition up to 900 °C.

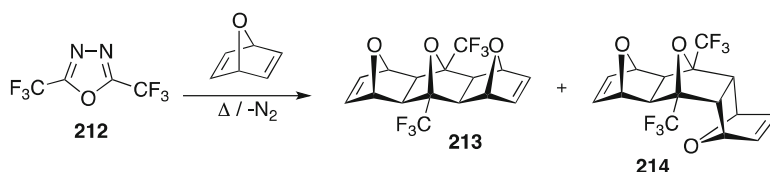
3.2 Ring-Fluoroalkylated Derivatives

The C(5) position is the most electrophilic site of the heterocycle in perfluoroalkyl-1,2,4-oxadiazoles due to the electron-withdrawing effect of both O(1) and N(4) [7]. In the presence of a perfluoroalkyl group linked at the C(5) of the oxadiazole the first step of the addition of a nucleophile–ring opening–ring closure (ANRORC) reaction of 5-perfluoroalkyl-1,2,4-oxadiazoles is strongly favoured (Scheme 53). Depending on the nature of the 3-substituent, the cyclization step of the open-chain intermediate can involve either the C(3) or an electrophilic site of the original C(3)-linked side-chain, leading to other five- **207** or six-membered ring **208** heterocycles, respectively [15, 16, 24, 103, 104]. Besides ring-degenerate rearrangement leading to regioisomeric 1,2,4-oxadiazoles (Scheme 13 in Sect. 2.2.3), this ANRORC reactivity has been exploited for the synthesis of fluorinated triazoles **209** and triazines **211** (Scheme 53) [103].



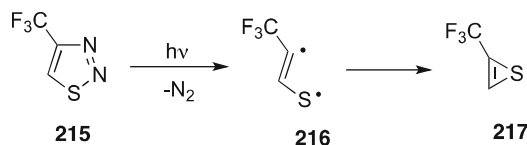
Scheme 53 The ANRORC reactivity in the synthesis of fluorinated triazoles **209** and triazines **211**

The reaction of the 2,5-bis-trifluoromethyl-1,3,4-oxadiazole **212** with oxanorbornene derivatives has been recently re-evaluated for its stereoselectivity aspects, through a combination of experimental and computational studies [105]. In particular, the theoretical model was able to explain the origin of stereoselectivity towards the bent product **214** caused by repulsive lone pair interactions between oxygen bridges in the transition state of the 1,3-dipolar addition (Scheme 54).



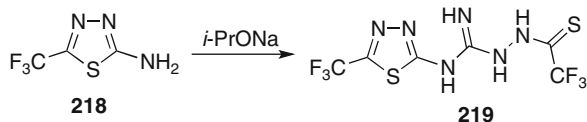
Scheme 54 Stereoselectivity towards the bent product **214** in the reaction of the 2,5-bis-trifluoromethyl-1,3,4-oxadiazole **212** with oxanorbornene derivatives

An interesting photochemical ring contraction has been reported for trifluoromethylated 1,2,3-thiadiazoles. Thiirene **217** was obtained by the argon matrix photolysis at 265 nm of 1,2,3-thiadiazoles **215** at 8 K. Interestingly, trifluoromethyl group exert a stabilizing effect on the highly unstable 4π -electron ring system (Scheme 55) [56b].



Scheme 55 Thiirene **217** by photochemical ring contraction of trifluoromethylated 1,2,3-thiadiazoles

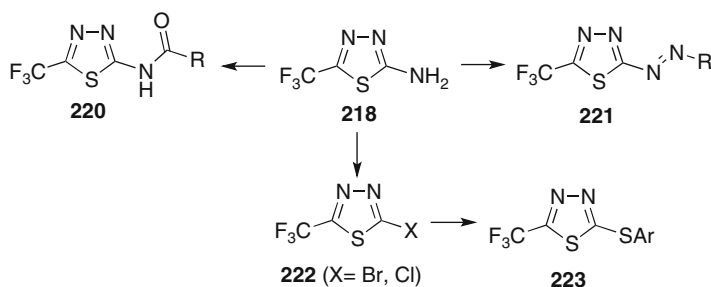
Regarding the reactivity of fluorinated 1,3,4-thiadiazoles, rare examples of peculiar reaction due to the presence of fluorinated moieties are reported in the literature, and all involve the thiadiazole ring-opening. Beside the above discussed obtainment of perfluorinated open-chain compound **160**[62] the only example is related to the treatment 2-amino-5-trifluoromethyl-1,3,4-thiadiazole **218** with an alcoholate, causing dimerization with opening of a thiadiazole ring and formation of **219** in 34 % yield (Scheme 56) [106].



Scheme 56 Reactivity of fluorinated 1,3,4-thiadiazoles: dimerization with opening of a thiadiazole ring and formation of **219**

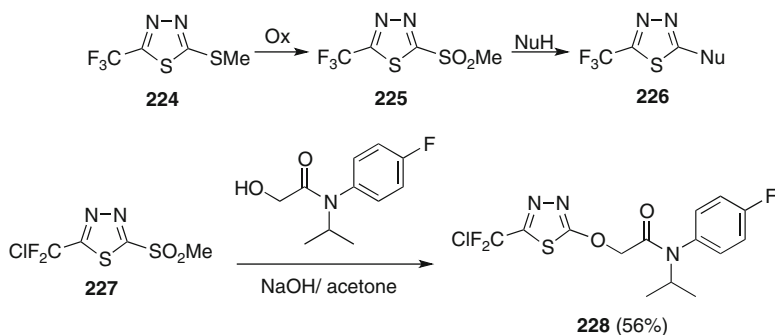
On the other hand, reactivity of other functionalities linked to the thiadiazole ring is not affected by the presence of fluorinated moieties, therefore fluorinated 1,3,4-thiadiazoles behave as unfluorinated congeners. Also in this case, particular attention to fluorinated thiadiazoles which contain amino or methylthio groups has been given, due to their industrial importance.

It is worth noting that 2-amino-5-trifluoromethylthiadiazole **218** is a commercial product which is widely employed to link the fluorinated thiadiazole to several targets through its amino group by means, for example, of an acylation reaction, as in the case of **220**. Several patents on the synthesis of pharmaceuticals and agrochemicals take advantage of this type of reaction [107]. In some cases, the amino group is involved in a diazotation reaction followed by a coupling reaction (leading to **221**) [108] or a nucleophilic substitution [109]. For example, 2-halo derivatives **222** can be prepared *via* diazonium salts from 2-amino-5-trifluoromethylthiadiazole **218** (Scheme 57) [109]. Also 2-arythio derivatives **223** are obtained through a nucleophilic substitution reaction [110].



Scheme 57 Reactivity of fluorinated thiadiazoles which contain amino groups

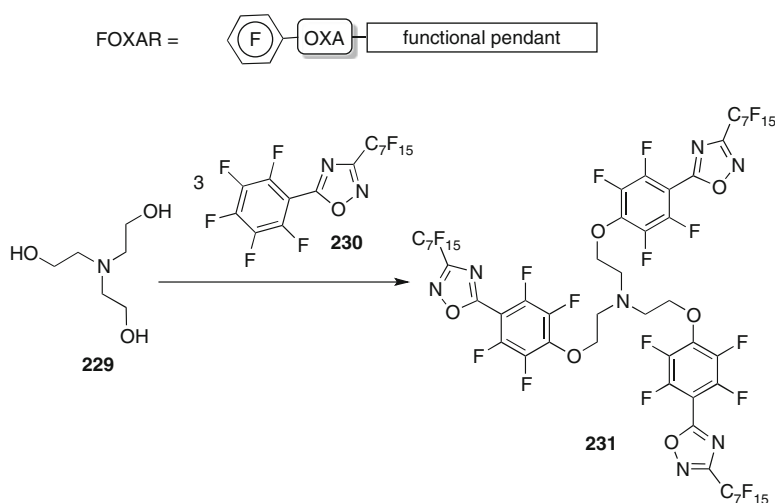
The methylthiothiadiazole **224** can be oxidized easily to the corresponding sulfonyl derivative **225** (Scheme 58). Some patents have also focused on the optimization of this oxidation which usually is carried out with hydrogen peroxide in acetic acid and in the presence of different catalytic species (boric acid, metal salts, etc.) [111]. The importance of this oxidation is related to the possibility to obtain the sulfonyl derivative system, due the ability of such a group to undergo nucleophilic substitution with several nucleophiles (NuH in the Scheme 58). In this way, it is possible to introduce the trifluoromethylthiadiazole moiety into target compounds for potential industrial applications [112]. Similar reactions are reported for the chlorodifluoromethyl derivative **227**, which is used as a precursor for the preparation of herbicides such as **228** [113]. The latter showed very strong preemergent and strong postemergent herbicidal activity.



Scheme 58 Reactivity of fluorinated methylthiothiadiazoles

3.3 Ring-Fluoroarylated Derivatives

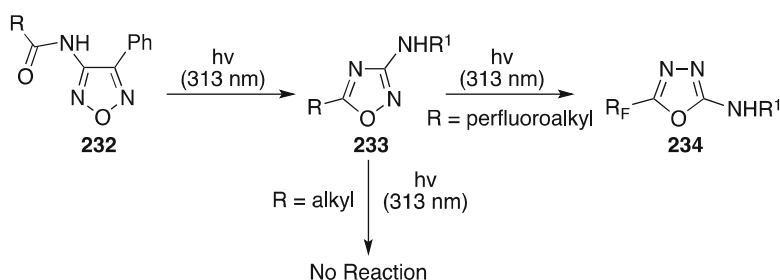
As mentioned above, the 1,2,4-oxadiazole is one of the most electron-withdrawing azole having a very activated C(5) position. In turn, when the electronic demand can be distributed over conjugated aromatic rings, the 1,2,4-oxadiazoles can activate the nucleophilic aromatic substitution. Indeed, 5-fluoroaryl-1,2,4-oxadiazoles are ideal examples for this concept. Due to the electron deficient character of the oxadiazole [which is more evident at the C(5) position], the *p*-fluoro moiety of the pentafluorophenyl ring is activated towards aromatic nucleophilic substitution by nucleophiles such as amines or alkoxides. Such a reactivity has great potential for the development of other synthetic applications and for the functionalization of macromolecules with nucleophilic pendants (Scheme 59) [5, 7]. In fact, a series of variously substituted 5-pentafluorophenyl-1,2,4-oxadiazoles have been used for the arylation of polymers, calixarenes, and tripodal ligands such as highly fluorinated system **231** [5b].



Scheme 59 Fluoroaryl 1,2,4-oxadiazoles in the functionalization of macromolecules with nucleophilic pendants

3.4 Systems Containing Fluorine Far from the Heterocyclic Core

Due to the presence of labile O-N bonds, the furazan system possess also an interesting photochemical reactivity. As discussed previously (Scheme 15 in Sect. 2.2.3 and Scheme 26 in Sect. 2.3.3), 3-perfluoroacylamino-1,2,5-oxadiazoles **50** are useful precursor for the obtainment of fluorinated 3-amino-1,2,4-oxadiazoles [27]. However, differently from non-fluorinated analogues **233** (R=alkyl) which are stable at the irradiation wavelength, perfluoroalkylated 1,2,4-oxadiazoles can undergo a subsequent photorearrangement into the corresponding 1,3,4-oxadiazole system [46]. Due to this peculiar reactivity of fluorinated derivatives, synthesis of fluorinated heterocycles involving photochemical steps must be carefully monitored in order to avoid unwanted reactivity not evidenced in unfluorinated substrates (Scheme 60).



Scheme 60 Photorearrangements in the perfluoroalkylated oxadiazole series

4 Biological Activity of Fluorinated Oxadiazoles and Thiadiazoles

A series of 5-trifluoromethyl-1,2,4-oxadiazoles are patented as potential pesticides [114] and tested for biological activity [115]. More recently, trifluoromethyl-1,2,4-oxadiazole derivatives such as **235** have been evaluated as cannabinoid antagonists [116]. Besides these recent reports, one of the major debated bioactivity concerning fluorinated azoles is the efficiency of PTC124, also known with the name of *Ataluren* **236**, which was claimed to promote the readthrough of nonsense premature stop codons (Fig. 6) [117, 118].

Fluorinated 1,2,5-oxadiazoles have also been considered as important fragments in the field of medicinal chemistry, but only very recently compounds with considerable activity have been discovered. Some fluoroaryl substituted furoxans derivatives (Fig. 7), developed in the frame of SAR studies on *Furoxan*, were reported as inhibitors of thioredoxin glutathione reductase (TGR), with nitric oxide (NO) donor ability, acting as efficacious antischistosomal agents [119]. In particular, compounds **238** and **239** displayed an inhibition activity comparable to that of lead compound,

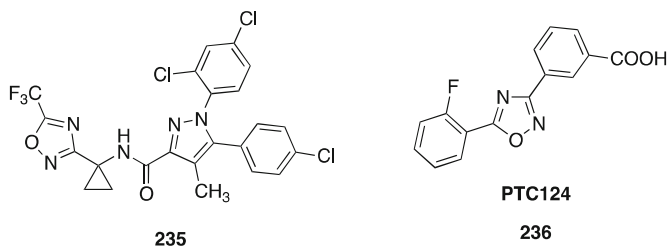


Fig. 6 Examples of fluorinated biologically active 1,2,4-oxadiazoles

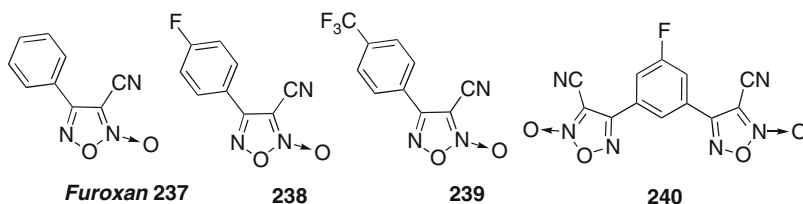
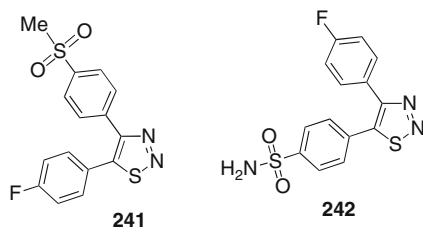


Fig. 7 Examples of fluorinated biologically active 1,2,5-oxadiazoles

Fig. 8 Examples of fluorophenyl thiadiazoles as potential COX-2 inhibitors



while fluorinated bis-furoxan **240** is a better TGR inhibitor than *Furoxan* **237** ($\text{IC}_{50}=0.48 \mu\text{M}$ vs $6.3 \mu\text{M}$) with improved NO donation and ADME (solubility, Caco-2 permeability) properties.

Fluorinated 4,5-diaryl thiadiazoles **241** and **242** were evaluated as cyclooxygenase-2 (COX-2) inhibitors (Fig. 8). They showed good cell viability but poor inhibitor activity [120].

Difluorophenyl derivatives **243** were synthesized and tested in the frame of a SAR study on 1,2,3-Thiadiazole thioacetanilides as HIV non-nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors. They showed the ability to protect MT-4 cells from viral cytopathogenicity in the low-micromolar range, but resulted less active than the chlorinated analogues to be further considered (Fig. 9) [121].

During the discovery of a series of pyrrolidine-2,4-dicarboxylic acid amides, which have 1-(sulfur-containing hetero-aryl)piperazin-4-yl carbonyl as a substituent of the L-prolyl moiety, and are novel and stable DPP-IV inhibitors, the 1,2,4-thiadiazole **244** (Fig. 10) was found to be acceptable in the desired enzyme pocket, but its

Fig. 9 Example of an anti-HIV fluoroarylated thiadiazole

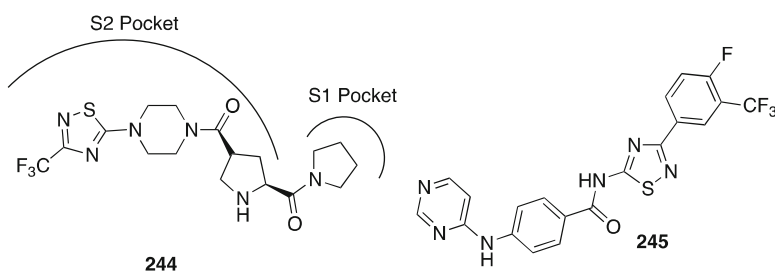
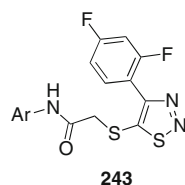


Fig. 10 Examples of fluorinated biologically active 1,2,4-thiadiazoles

inhibitory activity in plasma decreased along with an increase of lipophilicity [122]. In a series of pyrimidine benzamide-based thrombopoietin receptor agonists [123], in which the lead molecule contains a 2-amino-5-unsubstituted thiazole (a group that has been associated with idiosyncratic toxicity), the potential for metabolic oxidation at C-5 of the thiazole, the likely source of toxic metabolites, was removed by substitution at C-5 or by replacing the thiazole with a thiadiazole. In particular, the 4-F-3-CF₃ analog **245** (Fig. 10) is active and only slightly less potent than the corresponding 2-amino-4-arylthiazole lead.

Recently, several fluorinated 1,3,4-thiadiazoles have been considered as Drugs. Through a highthroughput biochemical screening of more than 340,000 synthetic compounds, the thiadiazole derivative **XCT790** (**246** in Fig. 11) has been identified as an estrogen-related receptor α (ERR α)-specific inverse agonist, validating ERR α as a promising therapeutic target in the treatment of metabolic disorders, including diabetes and obesity [124]. This compound could also be used in pathologies such as breast cancer [125], enhancing the efficacy of Fulvestrant **247** – an estrogen receptor antagonist with no agonist effects, already clinically used for the treatment of metastatic breast cancer in postmenopausal women [126]. Moreover, **XCT790** itself is a perspective drug for the treatment of hormone-related tumors such as prostate and breast cancer [127].

A patent from *Janssen Pharmaceutica* disclosed compound **248**, and other trifluoromethyl-1,3,4-thiadiazole derivatives, as fast dissociating dopamine 2 receptor antagonists with a pIC₅₀ value >5.0 when tested for *in vitro* binding affinity for human D2L receptor [128]. Compound **248** should be useful for treating or

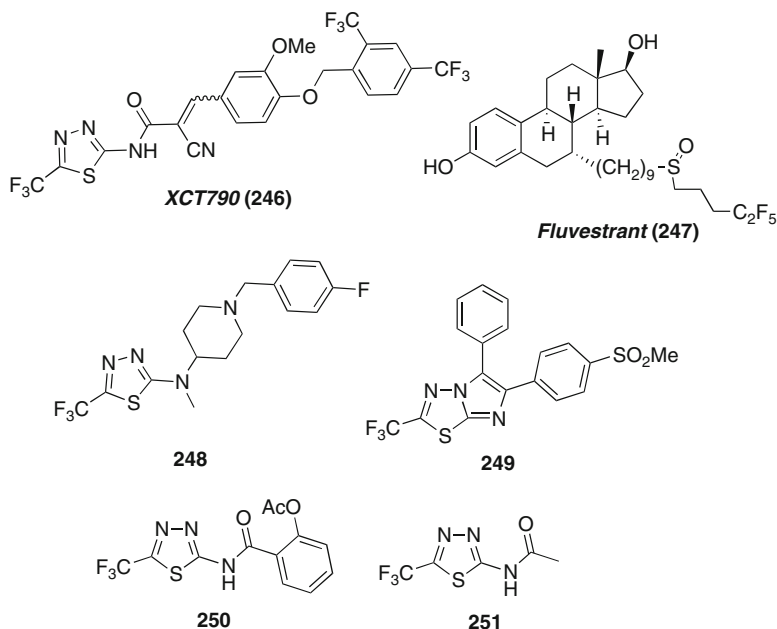
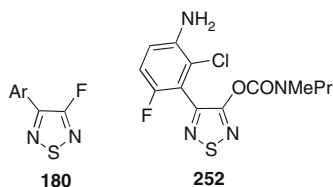


Fig. 11 Examples of fluorinated biologically active 1,3,4-thiadiazoles

preventing central nervous system disorders, for example schizophrenia, by exerting an antipsychotic effect without motor side effects. Also in the field of non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) fluorinated thiadiazoles appear. Compound **249** showed appreciable cyclooxygenase-2 (COX-2) selective inhibitory activity [129]. This compound also exhibited significant *in vivo* anti-inflammatory activity, comparable to that of the reference compound *Celecoxib*. 5-Trifluoromethyl-1,3,4-thiadiazolyl-amide **250** has been considered for anti-parasitic activity against *Sarcocystis neurona* [130], an obligate intracellular parasite that causes equine protozoal myeloencephalitis (EPM), and *Cryptosporidium parvum* [131], responsible for diarrhea in immunocompetent children and adults (cryptosporidiosis). Compound **250** is more active than reference compound nitazoxanide (NTZ) and seems promising for the treatment of both threats. In the field of anti-fungal compound, derivative **251** has been recently highlighted as a chitinase inhibitor for the fungal pathogen *Aspergillus fumigates* [132]. Despite the weak inhibitory activity, it could represent an interesting lead for future inhibitor development.

Regarding biological applications of fluorinated 1,2,5-thiadiazoles, compounds **180** were investigated for their nematocidal activity [88], while compound **252** was highlighted as antiviral agent, showing an EC_{50} of 0.008 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ *in vitro*, protecting HIV-infected MT-4 cells from death [133] (Fig. 12).

Fig. 12 Examples of fluorinated biologically active 1,2,5-thiadiazoles



5 Applications of Fluorinated Oxadiazoles and Thiadiazoles

Potential artificial oxygen carriers, based on new water-soluble fluorinated polymers, were obtained by using FOXARs (see also Scheme 59 in Sect. 3.3) to introduce fluorinated pendants in the α,β -poly(*N*-2-hydroxyethyl)-DL-aspartamide (PHEA) and polyethyleneglycol–PHEA (PHEA–PEG) biocompatible polymers. The introduction of the fluorinated moiety increased the polymer's oxygen-dissolving ability without compromising its biocompatibility which was checked by an *in vitro* viability assay[4].

Fluorinated ionic liquid crystals (ILC) were synthesized by quaternization of pyridyl-1,2,4-oxadiazoles with CH₃I [134]. Interestingly, replacing the rigid perfluoroalkyl moiety with a more disordered alkyl chain resulted in a dramatic change of the salt's physico-chemical properties. In the field of supramolecular interactions involving fluorinated heterocyclic systems, a very recent study was performed on a series of perfluoroalkyl-1,2,4-oxadiazolyl-pyridines as H-bond acceptors in protic ionic liquids [135]. Interestingly, self-assembling capability of 1,3,4-oxadiazoles **256** (Fig. 13) allowed the obtainment of tubular crystals of size controllable through sublimation protocols [136].

Other examples regarding applications of fluorinated oxadiazoles in the field of sensing and optoelectronics are illustrated in Fig. 13. In some cases the luminescent properties of a system can be designed to be a function of a measure such as the concentration of a given species in solution. For example, the fluorescence of the star-shaped molecule similar to **253** (Fig. 13) is self-quenched by the tertiary amino moiety of its core and is strongly dependant on the medium's acidity [5b]. Additionally, the derivative **253** has been recently developed as fluorescent sensor for mercuric ion in aqueous media [137]. Starburst oxadiazole **254** is a precursor of dendritic emitter [138]. Finally, compound **255** represents the simplest oligomer of highly fluorinated polyarylene systems with fluoride anion sensing ability [139].

The application of fluorinated furazan is rather limited for synthesis and reactivity. Most studied derivative is 3-amino-4-trifluoromethyl-1,2,5-oxadiazole, which is commercially available. Nevertheless, in recent years, some perspective applications have been envisaged. In the agrochemical field a large library (more than 300 derivatives) of *N*-(4-trifluoromethyl-1,2,5-oxadiazol-3-yl)benzamides **257** has been prepared and considered for herbicidal activity [140], while 1-(4-fluoro-1,2,5-oxadiazol-3-yl)pyrazole derivatives **258** were claimed as herbicides and plant growth regulators (Fig. 14) [141].

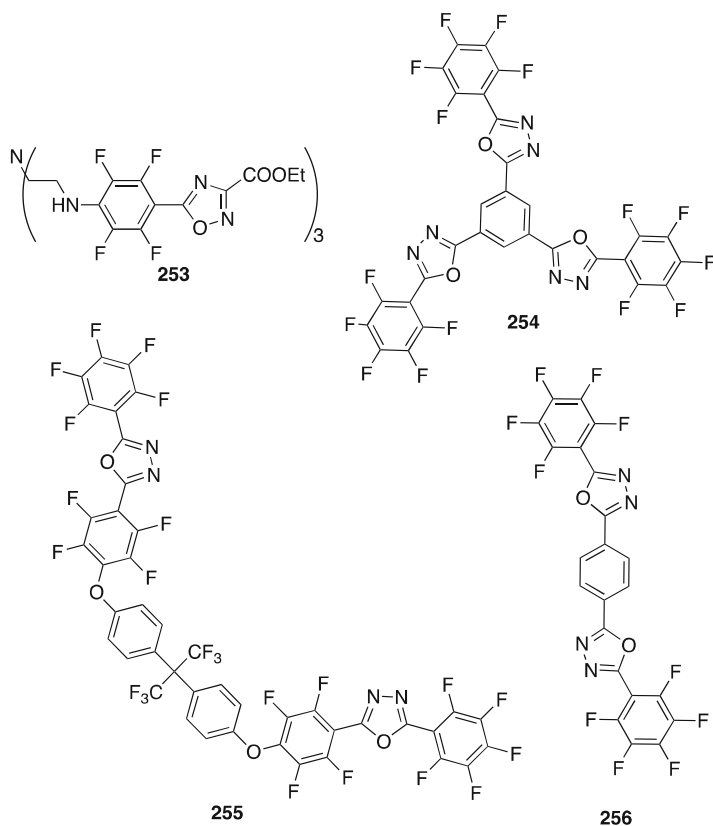
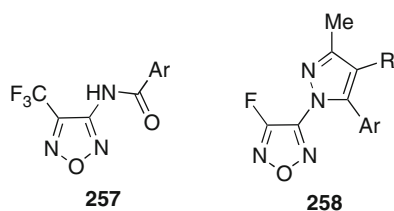


Fig. 13 Examples of fluorinated oxadiazoles for sensing and optoelectronics

Fig. 14 Examples of fluorinated 1,2,5-oxadiazoles agrochemicals



Many fluorinated thiadiazoles have been applied as agrochemicals. For instance, thiadiazole **259** is an antidote for acetanilide herbicides, protecting sorghum and wheat against phytotoxicity without affecting green foxtail control by these herbicides (Fig. 15) [142].

As outlined above, fluorinated 1,3,4-thiadiazoles are widespread applied in many fields as agrochemicals, drugs and materials. It is noteworthy that in the agrochemical field some 1,3,4-thiadiazole derivatives have reached the market, in particular, *Flufenacet* **260** and *Thiazafuron* **261** (Fig. 16).

Fig. 15 A fluorinated 1,2,3-thiadiazole herbicide

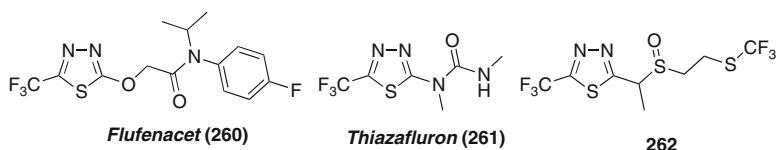
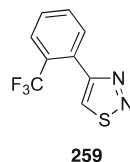


Fig. 16 Examples of commercial fluorinated 1,3,4-thiadiazole agrochemicals

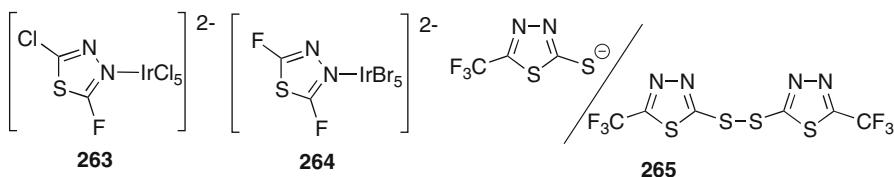


Fig. 17 Examples of fluorinated 1,3,4-thiadiazoles applied in materials science

Flufenacet (brand names: Artist®, Axiom®, Cadou®, Define®, Liberator®, Radius®, Tiara®, Terano®) was introduced by Bayer AG and is an oxyacetanilide herbicide applied before crops have emerged [143]. Is an inhibitor of cell division acting on very-long-chain-fatty-acid (VLCFA) synthesis. Applied for crop protection (Corn, Rice, Wheat, Potatoes, Soybeans) presents a spectrum of activity on infesting annual grasses like *Alopecurus myosuroides*, *Apera spica-venti*, *Digitaria spp.*, *Echinochloa crus-galli*, *Poa annua*, *Setaria spp.*

Thiazafurion (other names: Erbotan® GS 29696, Thiazfluron) is an herbicide introduced by Ciba-Geigy AG [144]. *Thiazafurion* is believed to be obsolete for use as pesticides is one of 320 pesticides to be withdrawn in July 2003. Recently, other trifluoromethyl-1,3,4-thiadiazole derivatives such as **262** (Fig. 16) have been claimed useful for fighting or controlling invertebrate pests in agricultural as well as veterinary applications [145].

In the field of materials for photography, metal complexes containing fluoro-thiadiazoles as monodentate ligand have been used. Emulsion layer contains Ag halide and the iridium complex **263** provides high-speed development method with high-quality images free from pressure-derived fogs [146], while the emulsion containing the iridium complex **264** showed high sensitivity and contrast, preventing reciprocity law failure in broader exposure range (Fig. 17) [147].

Also in the field of reagents for materials characterization fluorinated 1,3,4-thiadiazoles have found some applications. In fact, the couple 5-trifluoromethyl-2-mercapto-1,3,4-thiadiazolate/5,5'-bis(2-trifluoromethyl-1,3,4-thiadiazole) disulfide **265** was employed as organic redox couple in nonaqueous media to perform capacitance measurements through Electrochemical Impedance Spectroscopy (EIS) on semiconductive materials (Fig. 17) [148].

6 Concluding Remarks

Due to the peculiar features introduced by fluorinated moieties, the synthesis, the reactivity, and the application of fluorinated oxadiazoles and thiadiazoles still are challenging research topics. Therefore, the updated synthetic guidelines reported in this chapter will represent a useful tool for both the experienced synthetic chemists and those willing to embrace the study of fluorinated azoles. For this reason, it is the authors' opinion that synthetic information organized by kind of heterocycle is better approached by the reader for faster consultation. On the other hand, reactivity has been presented by focusing on the type and position of the fluorinated moiety, in the attempt to provide general concepts transferable also to other heterocyclic systems. Finally, examples of fluorinated oxadiazoles and thiadiazoles used in materials chemistry or as bioactive compounds have been briefly illustrated to suggest the potential application of newly synthesized compounds.

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Fluorinated Oxazoles, Thiazoles and Selenazoles

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Abstract This chapter provides information about the methods of synthesis, chemical properties and applications of fluorine-containing oxazoles, thiazoles and selenazoles and their benzo analogues.

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1 Fluorinated Oxazoles and Benzoxazoles

1.1 Methods of Synthesis

The methods for preparation of oxazoles and benzoxazoles may be subdivided into two synthetic approaches:

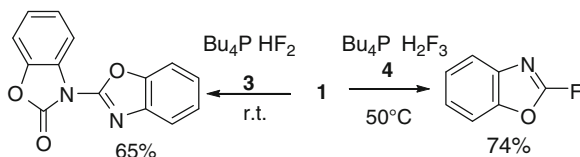
1. Incorporation of fluorine atom or fluoroalkyl groups.
2. Synthesis from fluorine-containing acyclic fragments.

1.1.1 Incorporation of Fluorine Atom and Fluoroalkyl Groups into Heterocycle

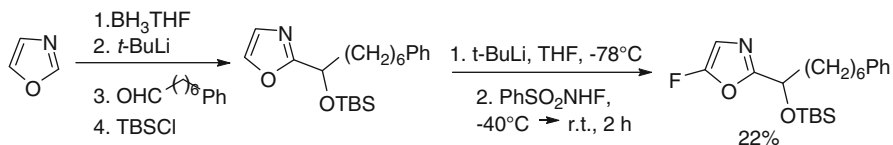
Only two examples of the fluorine atom incorporation into position 2 of benzoxazole *via* nucleophilic substitution of the chlorine atom are known. Thus, the reaction of 2-chlorobenzoxazole (**1**) with KF in the presence of catalytic amounts of 18-crown-6 (15–25 h at 110–120 °C) gave 2-fluorobenzoxazole (**2**) in 45–65 % yield [1].



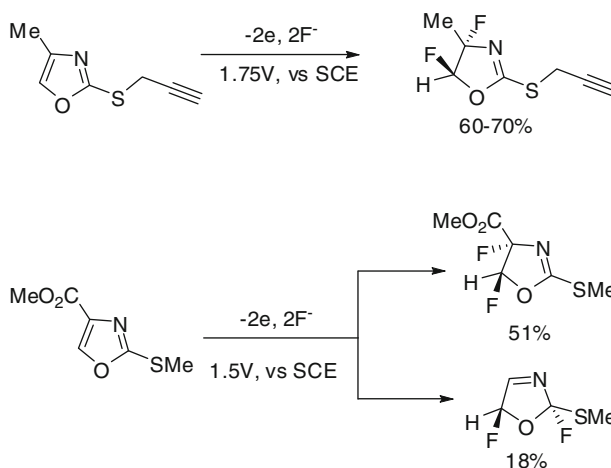
Fluorination of various chlorinated N-heterocycles with tetrabutylphosphonium hydrogendifluoride (**3**) or dihydrogentrifluoride (**4**) proceeded readily to give 2-fluorobenzoxazole (**2**) in high yields under mild conditions. Treatment of 2-chlorobenzoxazole (**1**) with **3** at 50 °C gave the 2-fluoro derivative, but a run at room temperature resulted in the formation of 1-(2-benzoxazolyl)benzoxazolone. It appears that 2-chlorobenzoxazole was partly converted to the 2-fluoro derivative that promptly underwent hydrolysis and homocoupling or reacted with the starting substrate during working-up [2].



Fluorine atom can be incorporated into oxazole core *via* the selective C(5) lithiation of 2-substituted oxazole followed by treatment of electrophile, – N-fluorobenzenesulfonimide [3, 4]:

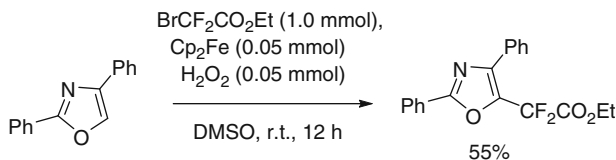


Electrochemical fluorination of 4-methyl-2-(propargylthio)oxazoles has been successfully carried out using $\text{Et}_4\text{NF} \cdot n\text{HF}$ ($n=4, 5$) as the supporting electrolyte and fluoride source to provide the corresponding 4,5-difluoro-4-methyl-2-propargylthio-2-oxazolines, and fluorination did not take place at the sulfur atom. In the case of electrochemical fluorination of 4-methoxycarbonyl-2-(methylthio)oxazole, 2,5-difluoro-3-oxazoline derivative was formed in addition to a 4,5-difluoro-2-oxazoline [5].

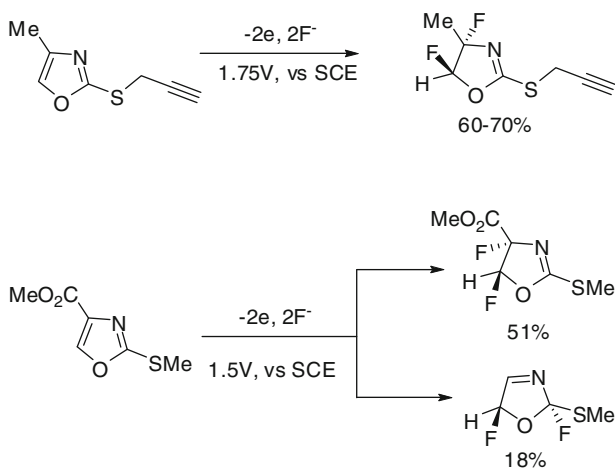


It is known that the radical trifluoromethylation of various benzene derivatives and five- and six-membered heteroaromatic compounds by CF_3I was successfully achieved using the Fenton reagent comprising of FeSO_4 or ferrocene (Cp_2Fe) and H_2O_2 as a catalyst in dimethylsulfoxide (DMSO) [6, 7]. The Fenton reagent generates an electrophilic ethoxycarbonyldifluoromethyl radical from $\text{BrCF}_2\text{CO}_2\text{Et}$ in DMSO. As a result efficient direct ethoxycarbonyldifluoromethylation of various aromatic compounds takes place. An electrophilic character of this radical is owing to the electron-withdrawing nature of fluorine atom and ethoxycarbonyl group. Thus, 2,4-diphenyloxazole gave selectively in this reaction ethyl (2,4-diphenyloxazol-5-yl)difluoroacetate despite the presence of the

phenyl group at the 4-position. This orientation can be explained in terms of the trend of the electrophilic substitution of oxazoles [8]. The mechanism of this process is represented below [8].

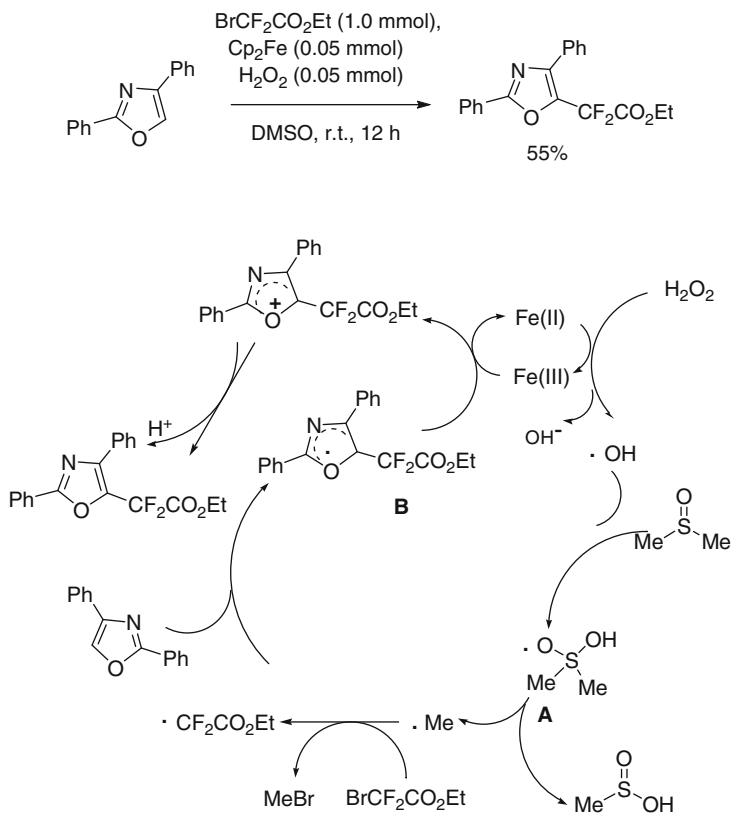


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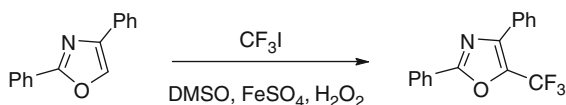


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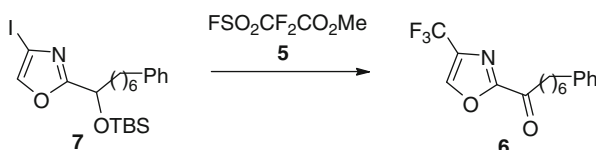
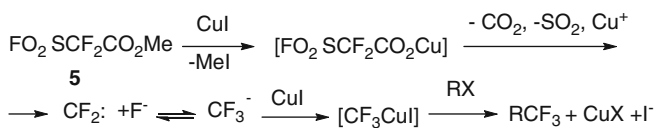


CF_3I behaves in similar manner under these conditions by generating the electrophilic trifluoromethyl radical [7]. Therefore, direct trifluoromethylation is simple and promising approach to be used as an industrial process.



Another reagent, methyl fluorosulphonyldifluoroacetate (**5**), is used as the source of trifluoromethyl group and replaces the halogen in aryl, alkenyl, and alkyl halides in the presence of copper(I) iodide [9]. Compound **5** is easy to handle liquid and can be readily obtained from the corresponding acid fluoride, which is a starting material for producing the commercial ion-exchange resins, Nafion H[®]. Treatment of **5** with aryl, alkenyl, and alkyl halide in DMF in the presence of catalytic amounts of copper(I) iodide (12 mol %) at 60–80 °C during 2–6 h gave

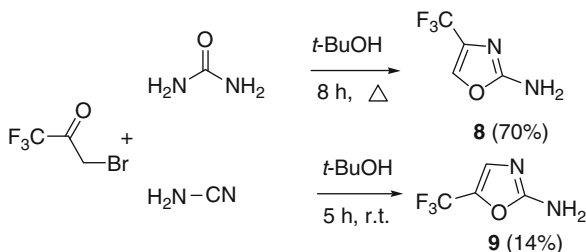
the corresponding trifluoromethyl derivatives in good yields with simultaneous elimination of SO₂, CO₂, and methyl halide. The possible mechanism of the reaction is shown below. The trifluoromethyl derivative **6** was prepared from iodide **7** using this method [4, 10, 11].



1.1.2 Synthesis of Fluoroalkyloxazoles and Fluoroalkylbenzoxazoles from Fluorine-Containing Acyclic Fragments

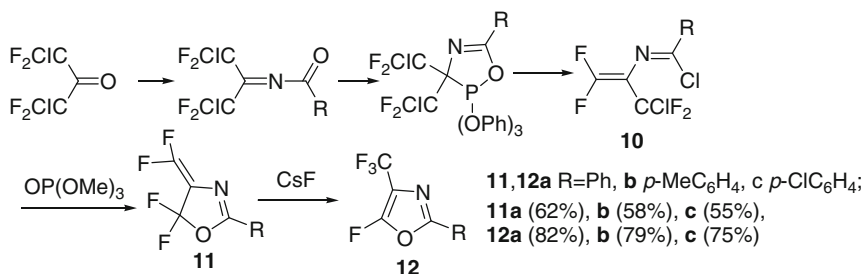
1.1.2.1 Synthesis of Fluoroalkyloxazoles

Condensation with the appropriate components is widely represented in literature approach to fluoroalkyl derivatives of oxazole. Fluoroalkyloxazoles are of interest due to their application as surface modifiers of hydrophilic polymers, polymeric films for second-order non-linear optics, effective herbicides, body-membrane penetration enhancers, and intermediates for the synthesis of unnatural α -amino acids [12]. Thus, the syntheses of the trifluoromethylated 2-aminoxazoles **8** and **9** were performed by reacting commercially available trifluorobromoacetone with five equivalents of urea or cyanamide in refluxing *tert*-butanol to afford the corresponding 4- and 5-trifluoromethyl-2-aminoxazoles in 70 % and 14 % yields, respectively [13, 14].

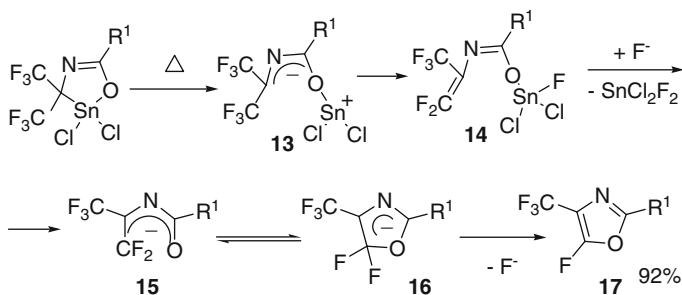


An interesting example of application of 1,3-dichloro-1,1,3,3-tetrafluoroacetone was given in the work [15]. Using this compound *N*-(1-chlorodifluoromethyl)l-2,

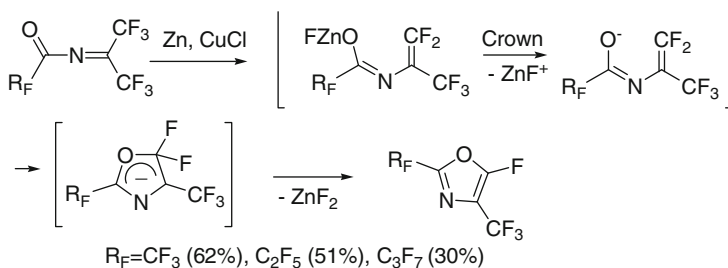
2-difluorovinyl]imidoyl chlorides **10** were prepared. Heating of **10** with trimethyl phosphate yields 5,5-difluoro-4-difluoromethyliden-2-oxazolines **11**. In the presence of cesium fluoride the latter rearranged to 5-fluoro-4-trifluoromethyl-oxazoles **12**.



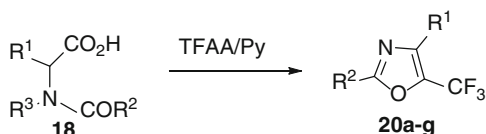
Similarly, heterodienes of $[(\text{CF}_3)_2=\text{N}-\text{C}(\text{R}^1)=\text{O}]$ type react with tin(II) compounds [tin(II) chloride, stannocene etc.] to give [4 + 1] cycloadducts. The cycloaddition process causes an “umpolung” at the carbon atom which two trifluoromethyl groups are attached to. This is the precondition for the controlled, stepwise elimination of fluoride from one of trifluoromethyl groups. Therefore, trifluoromethyl-substituted tin heterocycles are useful building blocks for the synthesis of fluoro- and trifluoromethyl-substituted compounds [16–21]. The reaction sequence starts from heterocycle opening with formation of zwitter-ion **13**. The second stage is the migration of fluorine atom to tin (**13** → **14**). The splitting of the Sn-X bond (**14** → **15**) induced by fluoride ion allows the formation of heteropentadienide anion which undergoes electrocyclization and fluoride ion elimination leading to the aromatization.



5-Fluoro-2-perfluoroalkyl-4-(trifluoromethyl)oxazoles were formed by reduction of perfluoroacylimines with some metals. The reaction is promoted by catalytic amounts of CuI salts and crown ethers. Among the metals (magnesium, tin, aluminum, and zinc) only zinc and tin exerted as a defluorinating effect. The best yields of oxazoles were attained in the presence of zinc [22, 23]. A similar single electron transfer mechanism was described for cyclization of other hexafluoroacetone imines with metals. The role of crown ether is apparently reduced to the assistance in the elimination of ZnF^+ with formation of O-anion, which results in the intramolecular cyclization to oxazoles.

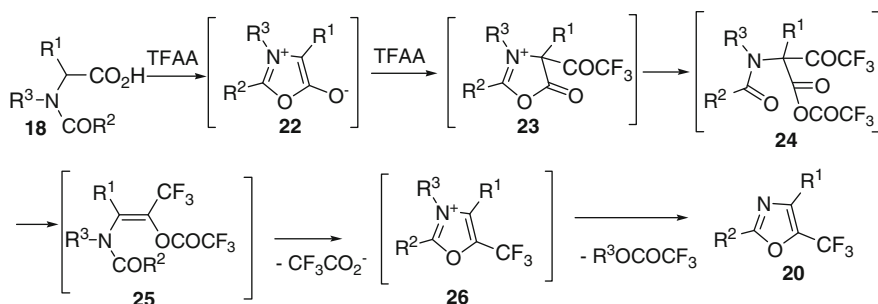


Perfluoroalkanoic anhydrides can be used as another source of fluoroalkyl substituents in the formed oxazole nucleus. For example, the reaction of *N*-acyl-*N*-alkyl- α -amino acids (**18**) or *N*-acylprolines (**19**) with trifluoroacetic anhydride in the presence of pyridine (under Dakin-West reaction conditions) [24] affords 5-trifluoromethyloxazoles (**20** or **21**) in good yields [25, 26] (best yields are observed for $R^3 = Bn$).



- a** $R^1 = Bn$, $R^2 = Ph$, $R^3 = Me$ (88%); **b** $R^1 = Bn$, $R^2 = Ph$, $R^3 = Ph$ (83%);
c $R^1 = Bn$, $R^2 = -Ph$, $R^3 = tPr$ (61%); **d** $R^1 = Bn$, $R^2 = Ph$, $R^3 = Bn$ (92%);
e $R^1 = Bn$, $R^2 = t-Bu$, $R^3 = Bn$ (88%); **f** $R^1 = Bn$, $R^2 = PhCH=CMe$,
 $R^3 = Bn$ (46%); **g** $R^1 = Ph$, $R^2 = Ph$, $R^3 = Bn$ (92%)

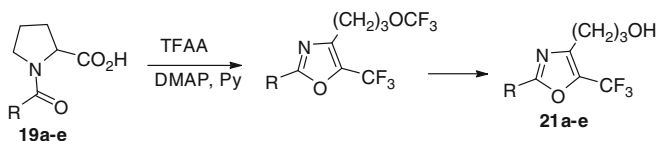
The proposed reaction mechanism involves formation of mesoionic 1,3-oxazolium-5-olate **22** through the cyclodehydration of **18** by TFAA. The intermediate **22** undergoes trifluoroacetylation followed by decarboxylation to give enol trifluoroacetate (**25**). Cyclization of **25** leads to oxazolium salt (**26**). If the R^3 group of **25** is easily removable, the reaction could proceed efficiently. This is the reason why *N*-benzyl derivatives are the best substrates for this transformation.



$R^1 = Bn, Ph, Me, s-Bu$; $R^2 = Ph, t-Bu, PhCH=CMe, 2-Thienyl$, $R_3 = Me, Et, t-Bu$ [13-20%, Bn 80-90%]

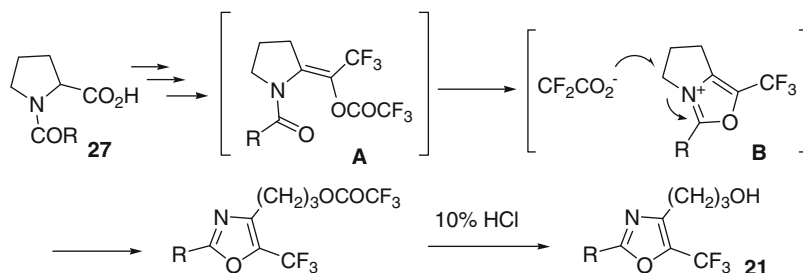
2,4-Diphenyl-5-pentafluoroethyl- and 5-heptafluoropropylloxazoles were obtained in high yields (92 % and 98 %, correspondingly) when pentafluoropropionic and heptafluorobutyric anhydride were used instead of TFAA. Similar reaction

of *N*-acylprolines **19** with TFAA in the presence of pyridine resulted in the formation of 5-trifluoromethyloxazoles **21a-e** in good yields.

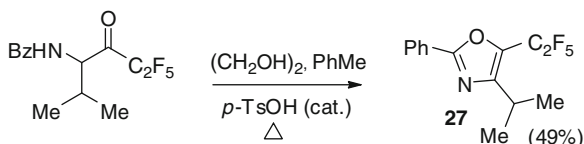


21a R=*t*-Bu (87%), **b** Ph (61%), **c** 4-MeOC₆H₄ (81%), **d** 4-ClC₆H₄ (46%), **e** PhCH=CMe (65%)

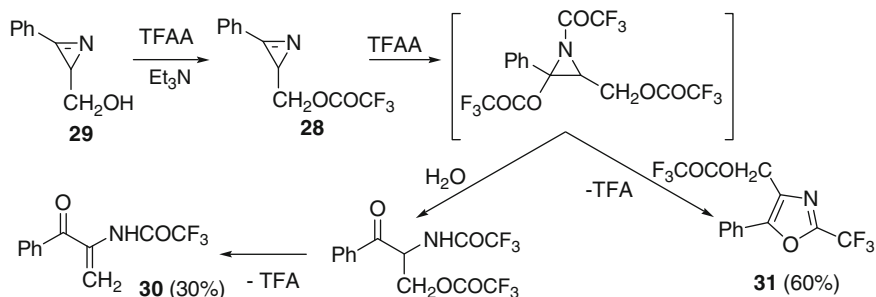
In case of *N*-acylprolines **19**, the key intermediate of reaction (**A**) was isolated. A similar mechanism has been postulated in the Dakin-West reaction. The cleavage of N-C bond of the intermediate (**B**) readily occurs upon the attack of the trifluoroacetate anion because of the hindered 5-5 bicyclic system.



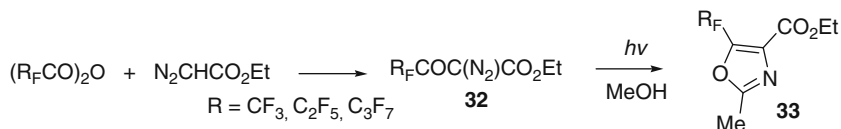
The Dakin-West reaction was successfully implemented for preparation of pentafluoroethyloxazole in the presence of *p*-TsOH [27].



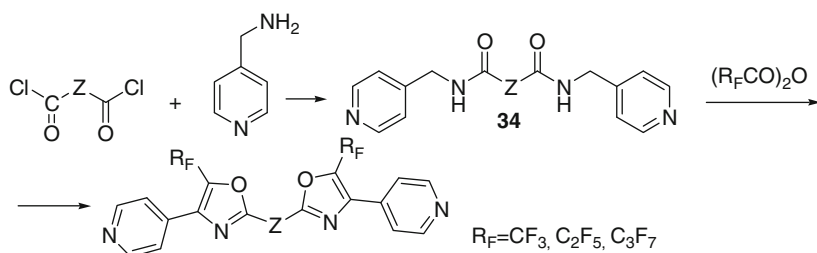
Attempts to prepare 3-phenyl-2H-azirine-2-methanol trifluoroacetate (**28**) by treating hydroxymethyl derivative **29** with TFAA and triethylamine produced 1-phenyl-2-(trifluoroacetylamino)prop-2-en-1-one (**30**, 30 %) and 2-trifluoromethyl-4-trifluoroacetoxymethyl-5-phenyloxazole (**31**, 60 %) [28].



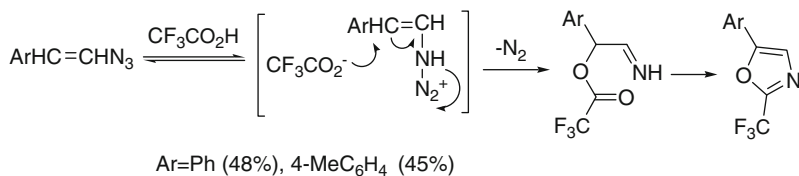
Perfluoroacylated diazoacetic esters **32** were generated by acylation of ethyl diazoacetate with perfluorinated acid anhydrides. These intermediates were cyclized into ethyl 2-methyl-5-perfluoroalkyloxazole-4-carboxylates **33** in 60–70 % yield during irradiation (Hanau TQ 81, 70 W) [29].



A series of bispyridinium compounds containing the 5-perfluoroalkyl-substituted oxazole fragment were synthesized by a short sequence of reactions from symmetric diamides. All compounds were tested for their antiproliferative activity against HT-29, a cell line derived from a human colon adenocarcinoma, and their inhibitory activity against choline kinase (ChoK), a novel anticancer molecular target already in clinical trials. Most of the analyzed compounds showed good antiproliferative activities in the micromolar range with the identification of promising lead molecules as a new family of potential inhibitors of ChoK. The treatment of symmetric diamides **34** (easily prepared from the corresponding dicarboxylic acid chloride) with perfluoroalkyl anhydrides (bearing three, five, or seven fluorine) in dry toluene in the presence of pyridine provided 5,5'-bisperfluoroalkyl-2,2'-bisoxazoles in low (41 %) to excellent (94 %) yields. Three different linkers Z (*p*-biphenylene, *p*-C₆H₄C(CF₃)₂C₆H₄-*p*, *p*-phenylene) were used [30, 31].

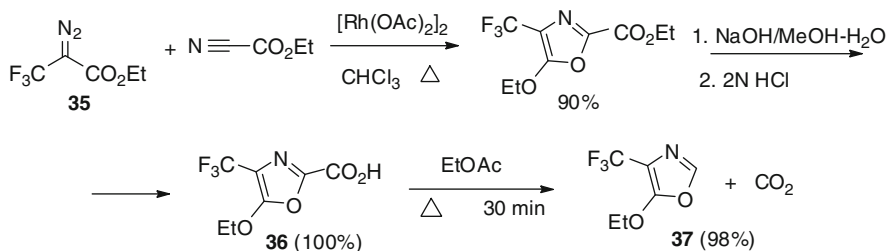


The reaction of β -azidostyrene with trifluoroacetic acid gave 5-phenyl-2-(trifluoromethyl)oxazole *via* attack of halogenoacetate anion on a benzylic carbocation or a conjugate acid of the azide [32].

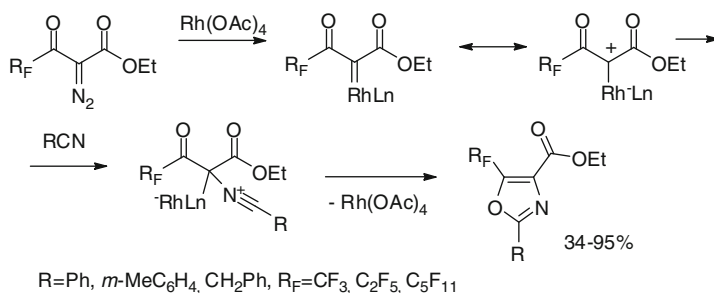


Although the electronic properties of the cyano group of ethyl cyanofornate might have been considerably altered by its direct connection to the ethoxycarbonyl

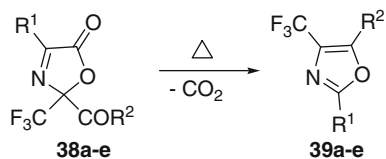
group, the rhodium catalyzed reaction of the CF_3 -containing diazo compound **35** with ethyl cyanoformate proceeded readily and afforded the expected oxazole product in good yield. Under these conditions ethyl 2-diazoacetate (obtained by the reaction of ethyl fluoroalkylacetoacetate with perfluoroalkanesulfonyl azide or tosyl azide) reacted readily also with other nitriles to give a series of 5-fluoroalkyl substituted 1,3-oxazoles in fair to good yields [33–36].



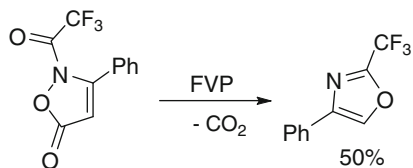
To account for formation of the desired 5-fluoroalkyl oxazoles, the more nucleophilic fluoroalkylated carbonyl group should participate in cyclization rather than the ester group. The mechanism of this reaction is outlined below. As a key intermediate rhodium carbenoid is formed [34].



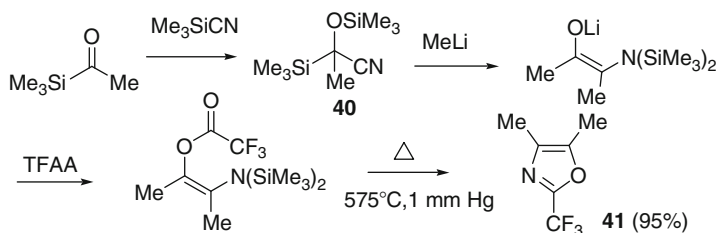
The original method for the synthesis of trifluoromethyl-substituted oxazoles is based on the transformation of acyloxazolin-5-ones. Thus, 2-acyl-2-trifluoromethyl- Δ^3 -oxazolin-5-ones **38** undergo cycloelimination of CO_2 on heating at 200–230 °C to yield trisubstituted oxazoles **39**. In this case substituents at positions 2 and 4 of the oxazole ring are formally interchanged [37]. Flash vacuum pyrolysis (540–600 °C/0.01 mm Hg) of N-trifluoroacetylloxazole-5-one also leads to 2-trifluoromethyloxazole [38].



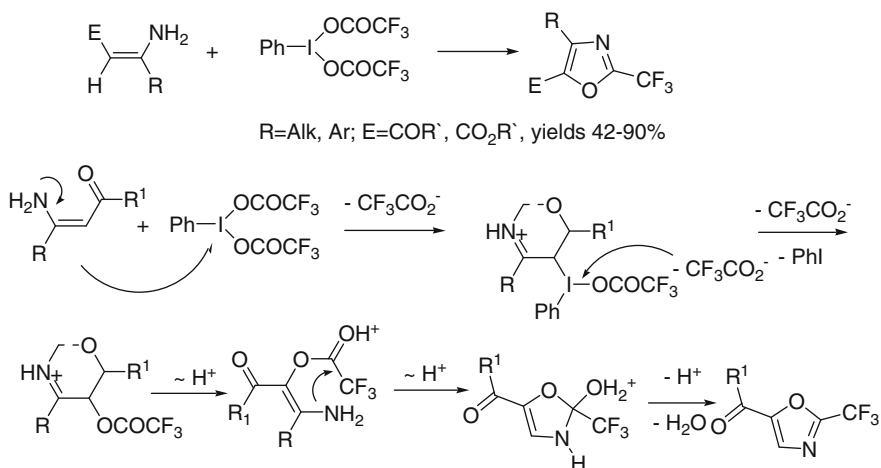
- a** $\text{R}^1=\text{R}^2=\text{Me}$ (94%); **b** $\text{R}^1=\text{Ph}$, $\text{R}^2=\text{OMe}$ (47%); **c** $\text{R}^1=\text{CH}_2\text{CHMe}_2$, $\text{R}^2=\text{OMe}$ (51%);
d $\text{R}^1=\text{CH}_2\text{CHMe}_2$, $\text{R}^2=\text{OMe}$ (51%); **e** $\text{R}^1=\text{Me}$, $\text{R}^2=p\text{-NO}_2\text{C}_6\text{H}_4$ (61%)



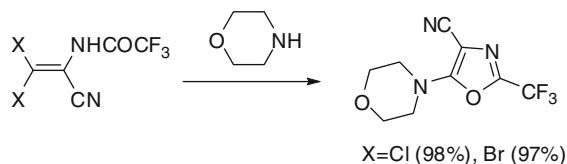
Sequential addition of methyl lithium and trifluoroacetic anhydride to O-trimethylsilyl acetyltrimethylsilane cyanohydrin (**40**) affords β-trifluoroacetoxy-N,N-bis(trimethylsilyl)enamines which cyclize to 2-trifluoromethyl-4,5-dimethyloxazole (**41**) under thermolysis [39, 40].



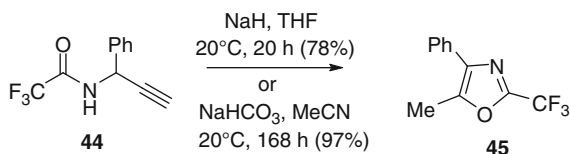
Treatment of β-monosubstituted enamines with phenyliodolyl bis(trifluoroacetate) (PIFA) was found to give a variety of 4,5-disubstituted 2-(trifluoromethyl)oxazoles in good yields [41]. This approach allows the incorporation of the trifluoromethyl moiety of PIFA into the final products, which presumably takes place via the oxidative β-trifluoroacetoxylation of the enamine substrates followed by subsequent intramolecular cyclization.



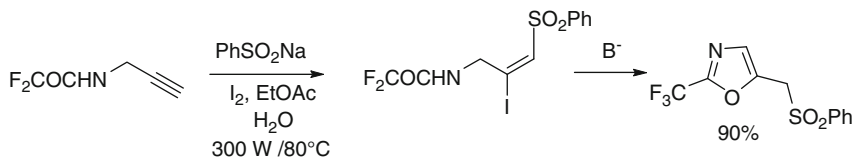
Reaction of 2-trifluoroacetyl-amino-3,3-dihaloacrylonitriles with morpholine gave 2-trifluoromethyl-5-morpholinoxazole 4-carbonitiles in almost quantitative yields under mild conditions [42]:



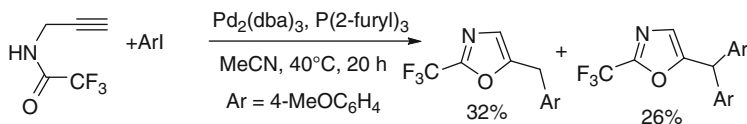
Base-induced cyclization of 2,2,2-trifluoro-N-(1-phenylprop-2-ynyl)acetamide (**44**) in the presence of NaH or NaHCO₃ gives the corresponding 2-trifluoromethyloxazole **45** in 78 % and 97 % yields, correspondingly [43].



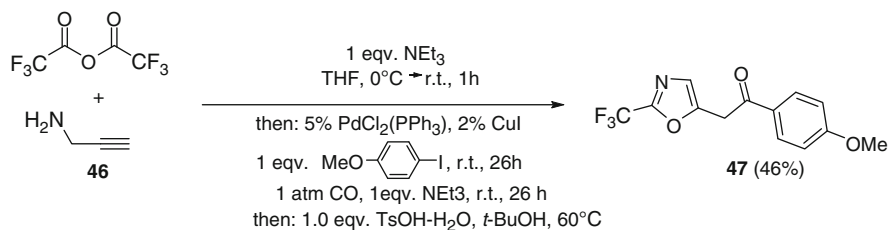
Other methods of converting propargylamides to oxazoles are also known. Thus, N-trifluoroacetylpropargylamines have been regioselectively converted to (*E*)-iodo(vinyl)sulfones which, in turn, were converted to 2-trifluoromethyl-5-substituted oxazoles by the base treatment [44].



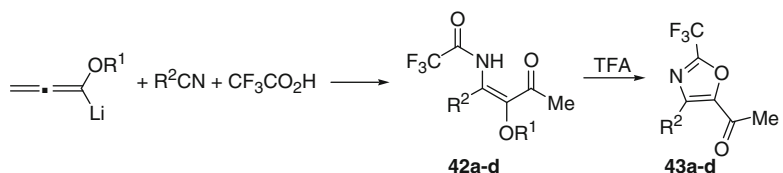
2,5-Disubstituted oxazoles have been prepared also through the reaction of *N*-propargylamides with aryl iodides in the presence of Pd₂(dba)₃, tri(2-furyl) phosphine, and NaOBu^t. The reaction appears to proceed through a palladium-catalyzed coupling step followed by the *in situ* cyclization of the resultant coupling product [45].



Acylation of propargylamine (**46**) with trifluoroacetic anhydride followed by carbonylative alkylation of *p*-iodoanisole and subsequent TsOH-catalyzed cyclization gave rise to the formation of the oxazole derivative **47** in moderate yield, yet in one-pot fashion [46].

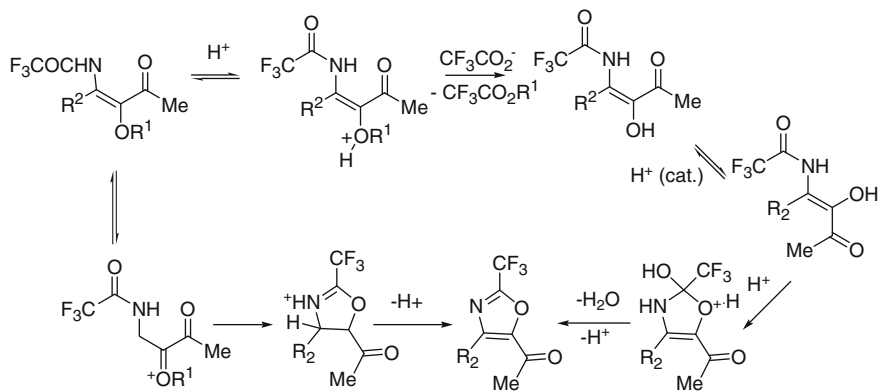


Lithiated alkoxyallenes, nitriles, and TFA have been employed as precursors in a three-component reaction leading to highly substituted enamides **42a–d**. Upon treatment with trifluoroacetic acid, these enamides could be easily cyclized to 2-trifluoromethyl-5-acetyloxazole derivatives **43a–d** [47]. Two most probable pathways for oxazole formation from enamides were proposed.



a $\text{R}^1=\text{Bn}$, $\text{R}^2=\text{Ph}$ (74%); **b** $\text{R}^1=4\text{-MeC}_6\text{H}_3\text{CH}_2$, $\text{R}^2=\text{Ph}$ (53%);

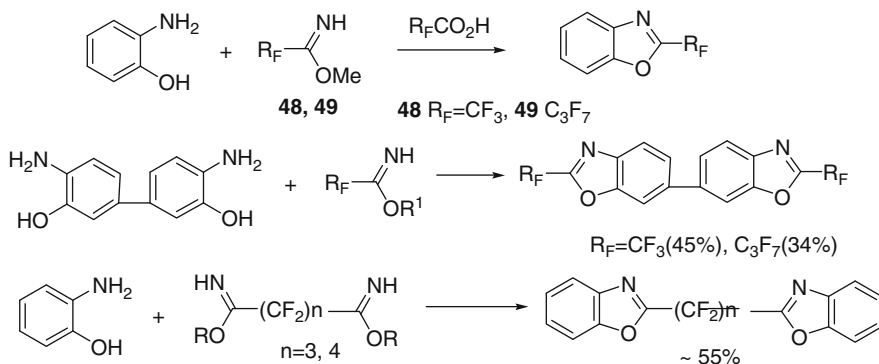
c $\text{R}^1=\text{TMSE}$, $\text{R}^2=t\text{-Bu}$ (60%); **d** $\text{R}^1=\text{TMSE}$, $\text{R}^2=\text{Ph}$ (98%); $\text{TMSE} = 2\text{-}(\text{trimethylsilyl})\text{ethyl}$



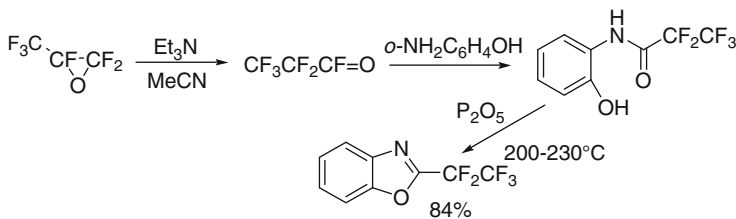
1.1.2.2 Synthesis of Fluoroalkyl Benzoxazoles

Almost all syntheses of fluoroalkylated benzoxazoles are based on the use of *ortho*-aminophenols. Thus, condensation of perfluoroalkanoic acid imidates with *o*-aminophenol is a convenient method for preparation of 2-perfluoroalkyl-substituted benzoxazoles. 2-Trifluoromethyl- and 2-(perfluoropropyl)benzoxazoles can be synthesized by heating at 100°C in dry dioxane, but the yield of benzoxazoles does not exceed 35–40%. The best results are obtained by reaction of *o*-aminophenol with

the imidates **48** and **49** in the presence of equimolecular quantity of trifluoroacetic or perfluorobutyric acids, respectively, at room temperature [48]. Bisaminophenol gave similarly the corresponding 6,6'-di-(2-perfluoroalkyl)benzoxazole. Imidates of perfluorinated dicarboxylic acids permit preparation of α,ω -di(benzoxazole-2-yl)perfluoroalkanes [49].

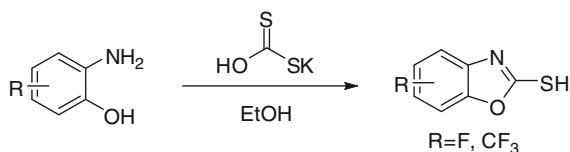


Utilizing the high reactivity of hexafluoro-1,2-epoxypropane (HFPO, hexafluoropropylene oxide), several new benzoannulated compounds containing CF_3 and C_2F_5 groups were prepared. For example, treating of 2-aminophenol with HFPO/ Et_3N followed by dehydration gave 2-(pentafluoroethyl)benzoxazole in high yield [50].

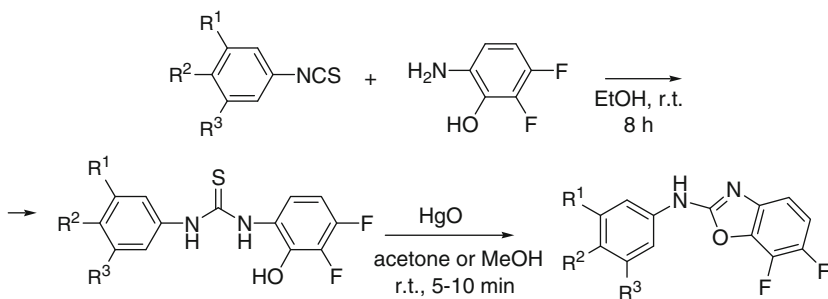


1.1.2.3 Synthesis of Benzoxazoles with Fluorinated Benzene Ring

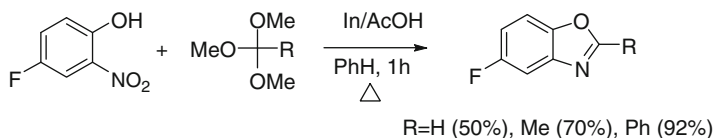
Fluorine-containing *ortho*-aminophenols or their precursors are commonly used for the preparation of fluorinated benzoxazoles. For example, F- and CF_3 -containing *ortho*-aminophenols were cyclized by potassium xanthogenate to give 2-mercaptobenzoxazoles [51].



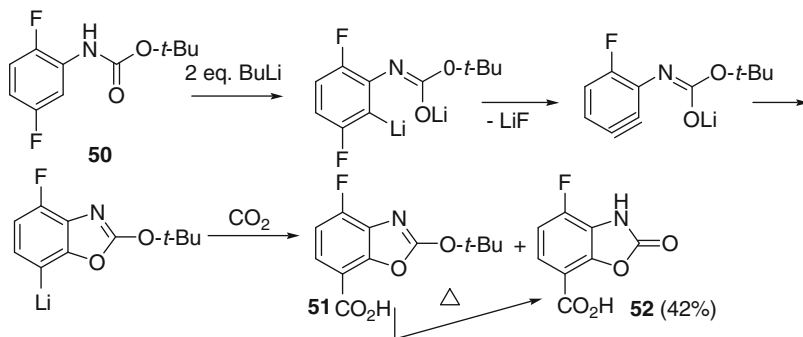
Difluoro-*ortho*-aminophenols in reaction with aryl isothiocyanates gave the corresponding difluoro-substituted 2-(phenylamino)benzoxazoles [52].



Ortho-nitrophenols can be used instead of *ortho*-aminophenols [53]. One-pot reduction-triggered heterocyclizations of 2-nitrophenols leads to benzoxazoles. For example, 2-nitrophenols reacted with orthoesters using indium/AcOH system in benzene at reflux to give the corresponding benzoxazoles in excellent yields within 1 h.

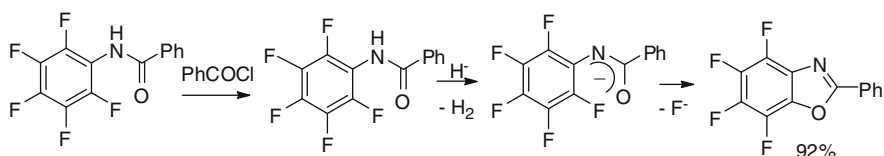


Original method of benzoxazole synthesis starting from 2,5-difluoroaniline is based on the aryne mechanism [54]. Boc-protected difluoroaniline **50** undergoes base-induced aryne formation via *ortho* directed lithiation. Subsequent intramolecular cyclization produced a mixture of benzoxazole derivatives **51** and **52**, which could be converted into **52** exclusively by heating.

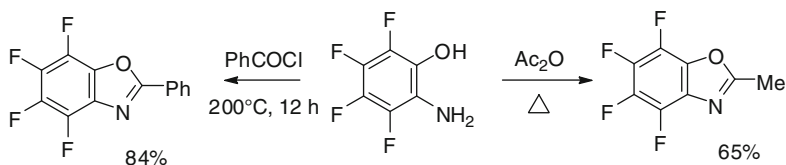


The use of perfluoroanilines for the synthesis of benzoxazoles having fully fluorinated benzene ring was demonstrated [55]. Pentafluoroaniline has amine nitrogen

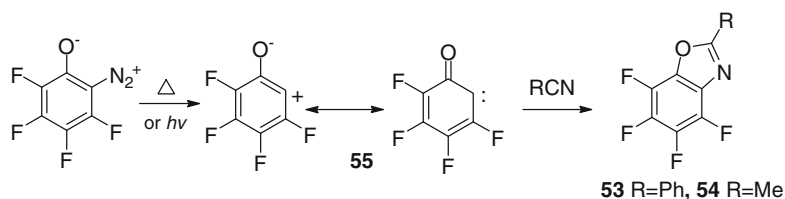
atom much less nucleophilic than ordinary anilines. Nevertheless, corresponding amides can be prepared by acylation with various acyl halides in the presence of pyridine or aqueous alkali generally in a good yield. The carbonyl oxygen of these amides acts as internal nucleophile at the cyclization step. Upon reflux in the presence of sodium hydride in DMF such benzamide gave strongly fluorescent 4,5,6,7-tetrafluoro-2-phenylbenzoxazole, presumably by the nucleophilic substitution of the *ortho*-fluorine.



Tetrafluorobenzoxazoles may also be obtained from 2-aminotetrafluorophenol and benzoyl chloride or acetic anhydride [55].



Thermal decomposition of 2-diazotetrafluorobenzene 1-oxide in benzonitrile or acetonitrile yields the corresponding 4,5,6,7-tetrafluorobenzoxazoles **53**, **54**. The formation of the intermediate **55** under thermal conditions is confirmed by decomposition of the diazooxide in the presence of dipolarophiles [56].

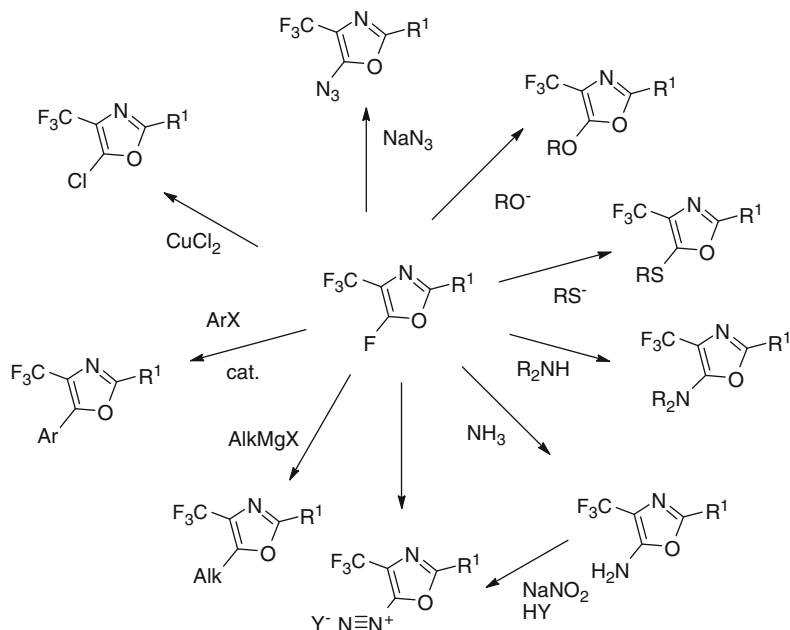


1.2 Chemical Properties

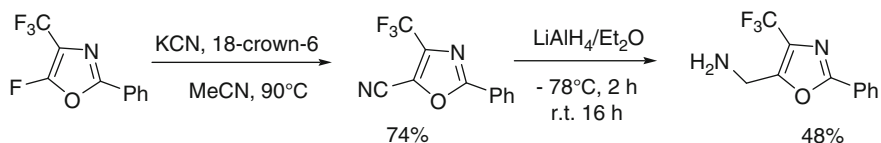
1.2.1 Chemical Properties of Fluorinated Oxazoles and Benzoxazoles

The 5-fluoro-4-(trifluoromethyl)oxazoles are able to participate in nucleophilic substitution of fluorine by a wide range of various nucleophiles. CF_3 group being electron-withdrawing substituent facilitates nucleophilic substitution in position 5

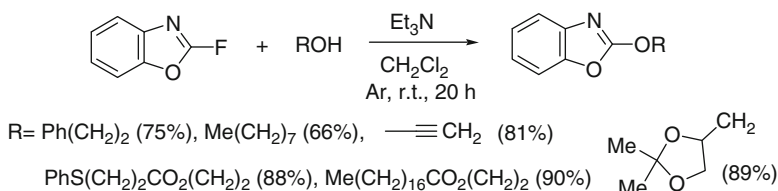
whereas usually nucleophilic substitution proceeds more easily in position 2 of 1,3-azoles [16, 17].



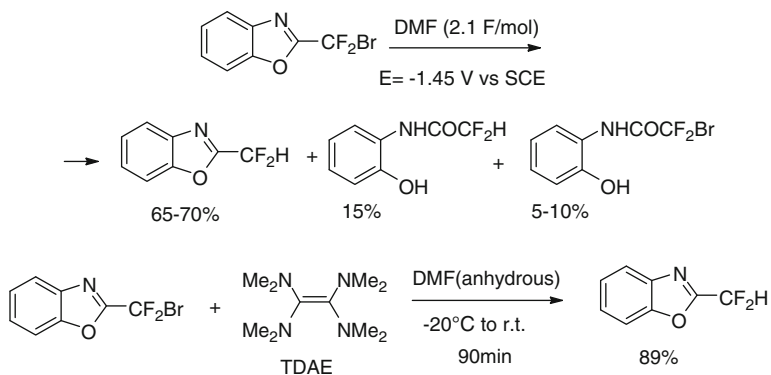
5-Aminomethyl-4-trifluoromethyl-2-phenyloxazole was obtained by reaction of 5-fluoro-4-(trifluoromethyl)oxazole with cyanide anion followed by reduction with LiAlH_4 [57].



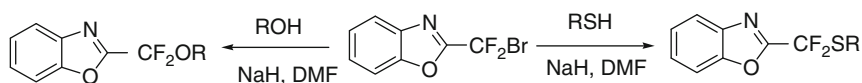
It was also found that 2-fluorobenzoxazole reacted readily with various primary alcohols in the presence of triethylamine to give the corresponding 2-alkyloxybenzoxazoles in good yields. This reaction provides a convenient method for the preparation of 2-alkyloxybenzoxazoles under mild conditions [1].


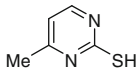


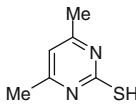


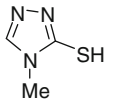
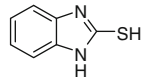


The electrochemical reduction of a series of bromodifluoromethyl benzoxazoles was used to prepare new fluorine-containing compounds which are active against HIV [58]. Tetrakis(dimethylamino)ethylene was also found to be an efficient reductant for this aim [59].



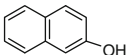
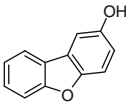
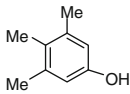
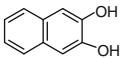
The displacement of bromine atom of the CF_2Br group does not occur by a simple S_N2 mechanism due to the presence of the alpha fluorine atoms. Instead, it proceeds by $S_{RN}1$ mechanism involving a SET chain process. Thus, the reaction of the CF_2Br group is limited to nucleophiles that can react by such $S_{RN}1$ mechanism, for example, substitution with thiols gave the corresponding sulfides. It was found that sodium phenolate reacts with CF_2Br much more slowly than sodium benzenethiolate; however, after 24 h at room temperature, the reaction was complete, and the desired product was isolated in 70 % yield.



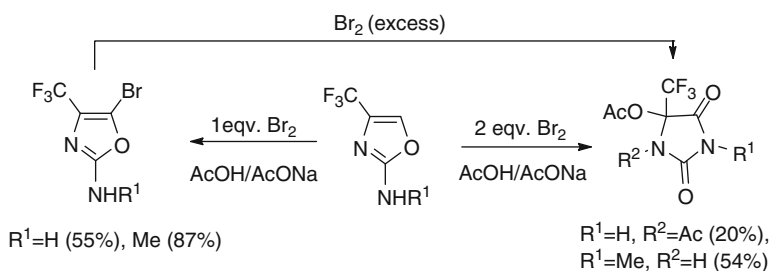
RXH	Yield, %	RXH	Yield, %	RXH	Yield, %
	84		62		76
	82		74		65
	51		72		59

(continued)

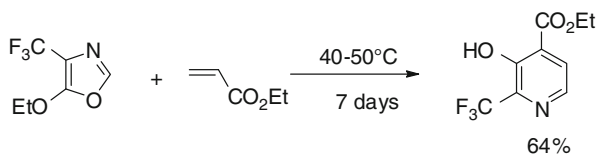
(continued)

RXH	Yield, %	RXH	Yield, %	RXH	Yield, %
PhSH	86	PhOH	70		42
	44		47		28

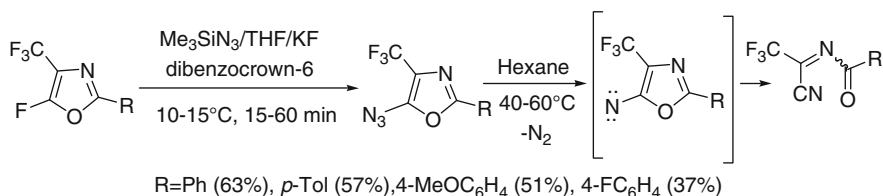
All the transformations of fluorinated oxazoles and benzoxazoles presented above were connected with the nucleophilic substitution of fluoride or halide. However it is a whole series of changes stipulated by substitution, opening, transformation and recyclyzation reactions of heterocyclic ring. Thus, bromination of 2-amino-4-trifluoromethyloxazoles in acetic acid gave initially 5-bromo-oxazoles, which were further transformed to 5-acetoxyhydantoines. The rearrangement took place mainly during 5-halogenation of the oxazoles when one equivalent bromine was used and proceeded in high yield with two equivalent bromine [60].



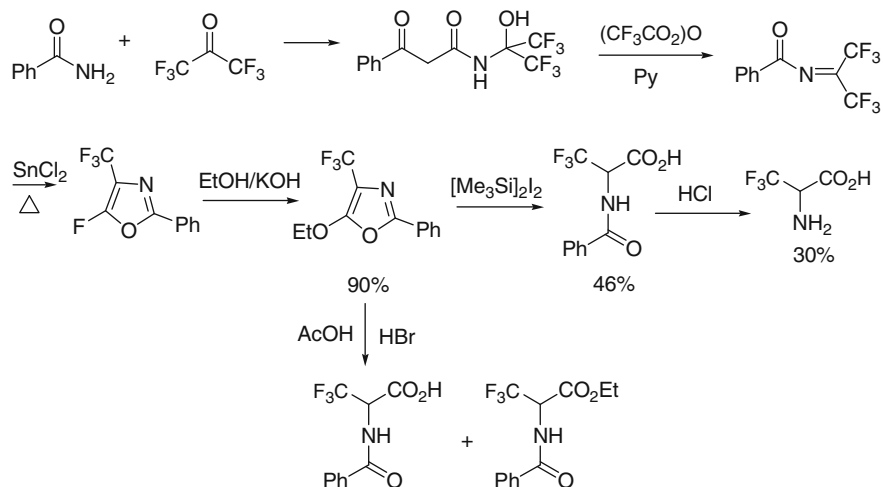
The use of the CF₃-substituted oxazole as an aza-diene for a Diels-Alder reaction was briefly examined. Thus, prolonged heating of the mixture of 5-ethoxy-4-trifluoromethyloxazole and an excess of acrylic acid afforded the CF₃-substituted pyridine derivative in reasonable yield [61]. However, cycloaddition with other olefins, such as ethyl acrylate, N-phenylmaleimide, 2,5-dihydrofuran, maleic anhydride, and 2-buten-4-olide did not take place to any appreciable extent presumably because of the deactivation of the oxazole ring by a strongly electron-withdrawing CF₃ group.



5-Azido-4-trifluoromethyloxazoles are thermolabile molecules and decomposed already at room temperature to give 4-cyano-4-trifluoromethyl-1-oxa-3-azabuta-1,3-diene [18, 62].

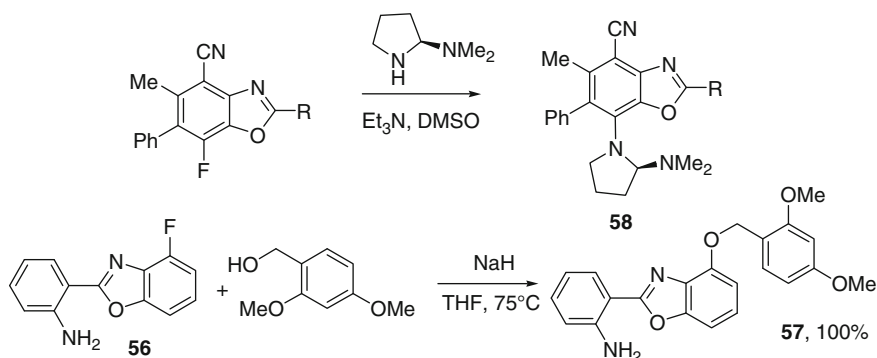


The opening of the fluorine-substituted oxazoles may be used for the synthesis of some important fluorinated compounds. Thus, a new synthesis of 3,3,3-trifluoroalanine starting from hexafluoroacetone is described.



1.2.2 Chemical Properties of Fluorinated Benzoxazoles

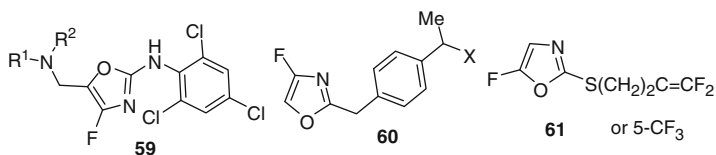
Direct S_NAr substitution using non-activated aryl fluorides can be viewed as an acceptable strategy affording from moderate to excellent yields of the substituted product [63]. However, there are no earlier data of direct S_NAr on benzoxazoles with any substitution at any position of the benzene ring, probably because of the fact that benzoxazoles can be readily undergo ring-opening under basic conditions to afford the corresponding amidophenol precursors [64]. However, recently several examples of nucleophilic fluorine substitution in the benzene ring of fluorobenzoxazoles were found. Thus, the interaction of 4-fluorobenzoxazole **58** with 2,4-dimethoxybenzylalcohol in the presence of NaH gave the product of substitution **57** in quantitative yield [65]. Nucleophilic substitution was used also for the synthesis of potent inhibitor of *Candida* species **57** [66, 67].



1.3 Applications

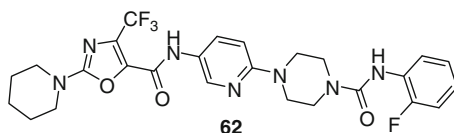
Some of 4-fluorooxazole derivatives exhibited high biological activity and represented as potent drug. Thus, the pharmaceutical compositions containing 2-amino-4-fluorooxazoles derivatives (for example, **59**) are antagonists of the corticotrophin releasing factor receptor (“CRF receptor”) and are used for the treatment of depression, anxiety, affective disorders, feeding disorders, post-traumatic stress disorder, headache, drug addiction, inflammatory disorders, drug or alcohol withdrawal symptoms and other conditions the treatment of which can be effected by the antagonism of CRF-1 receptor [68].

(4-Fluorooxazol-2-yl)phenethyl derivatives (**60**) are useful in the treatment of pathologies depending on the chemotactic activation of neutrophils and monocytes induced by the fraction C5a of the complement. In particular, the compounds of the invention are useful in the treatment of autoimmune hemolytic anemia, psoriasis, bullous pemphigoid, rheumatoid arthritis, ulcerative colitis, acute respiratory distress syndrome, idiopathic fibrosis, glomerulonephritis, and in prevention and treatment of injury caused by ischemia and reperfusion [69]. The 5-fluoro(trifluoromethyl)-2-mercaptooxazole derivatives (**61**) and compositions containing them have nematocidal, insecticidal and acaricidal activity [70].



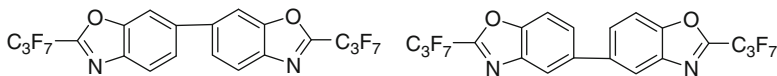
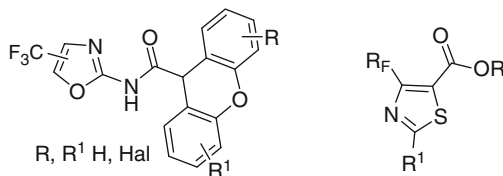
Oxazole derivative **62** and its pharmaceutical compositions are a novel diacylglycerol acetyltransferase (“DGAT”) inhibitors which are used for treating or

preventing a cardiovascular disease, a metabolic disorder, obesity-related disorder, diabetes, dyslipidemia, a diabetic complication, impaired glucose tolerance or impaired fasting glucose [71].

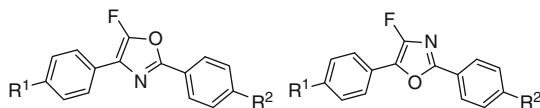


Fluorinated 9*H*-xanthene-9-carboxylic acid oxazol-2-ylamides have been used as pharmacological tools for the study of the physiological roles mediated by mGlu1 receptors [13] and for treating a disease or a condition selected from the group of Alzheimer's disease, hereditary cerebral hemorrhage with amyloidosis, cerebral amyloid angiopathy, a prion-mediated disease, inclusion body myositis, stroke, multiple sclerosis and Down's Syndrome [72]

Derivatives of 2-substituted perfluoroalkyl-5-oxazolecarboxylic acid have been found effective in reducing herbicidal injury to crop plants caused by thio-carbamate and acetanilide herbicides, and especially in reducing herbicidal injury to rice, sorghum or wheat crops, especially rice and sorghum, caused by triallate, alachlor and butachlor herbicides [73]. 2,2'-Bis(heptafluoropropyl)-5,5'- [74] and -6,6'-bibenzoxazoles [75] are suitable for use as antiplasticizers.



The 4- and 5-fluorooxazole derivatives have also the potential technical application. Thus, it has been found that some fluorinated oxazoles, even when admixed in small amount, have a favorable effect on the properties of liquid-crystalline mixtures [76].



2 Fluoro-, Fluoroalkylthiazoles, selenazoles, and benzothiazoles

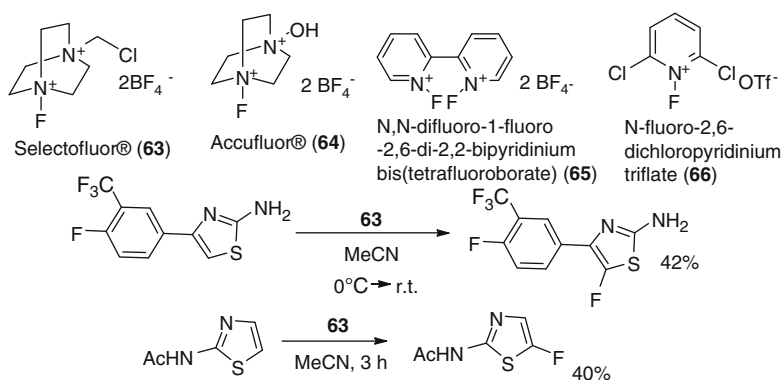
2.1 Method of Synthesis Fluoro- and Fluoro-alkylthiazoles and Selenazoles

Similarly to synthesis of fluorinated oxazoles the methods of preparation of fluorine-containing thiazoles may be subdivided into two synthetic approaches: incorporation of fluorine atom or fluoroalkyl groups in thiazole structure, and the synthesis based on fluorinated building blocks.

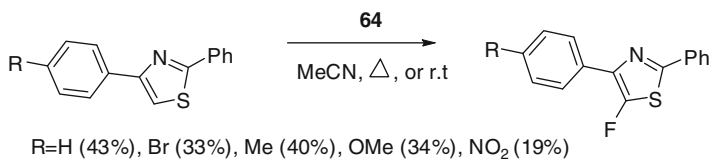
2.1.1 The Synthesis of Fluorinated Thiazoles and -Selenazoles

2.1.1.1 Incorporation of Fluorine Groups into Thiazoles and Selenazoles

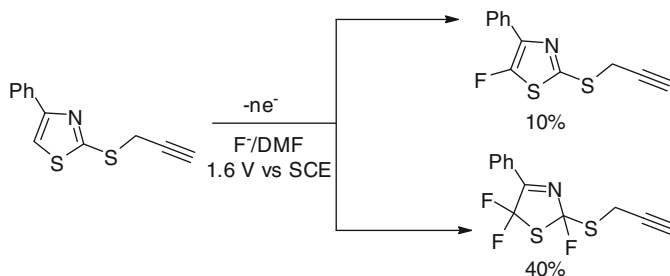
Direct electrophilic introduction of fluorine atom into the thiazole ring is a widely used approach. Various commercially available fluorinating agents can be used for this aim [77]. Thus, the fluorination with the Selectofluor® (**63**) of 3-amino-4-aryl- [78] and 2-acetylaminothiazoles [79] proceeds in 5-positions in the moderate yields.



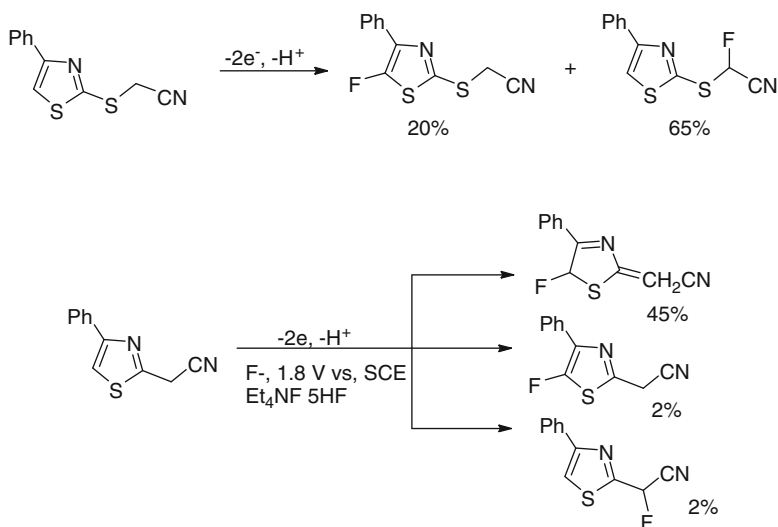
However, Selectofluor® was not as effective as Accufluor® (**64**) for the fluorination of 2,4-diarylthiazoles since it gave admixture of the 5-chlorothiazole that was difficult to remove [77]. Fluorination of this diaryl system with **64** occurred selectively at the 5-position of the thiazole; however, as the reaction could not be driven to completion, the yields were low to moderate (19–43 %) [77]. Other N–F reagents were also examined to improve the effectiveness of fluorination reaction and eliminate the formation of the chlorinated byproducts. Compared to **63**, only a small amount of fluorination occurred when diarylthiazole was reacted under similar conditions with N,N-difluoro-2,2-bipyridinium bis(tetrafluoroborate) (**65**) or with 1-fluoro-2,6-dichloropyridinium triflate (**66**) [77].



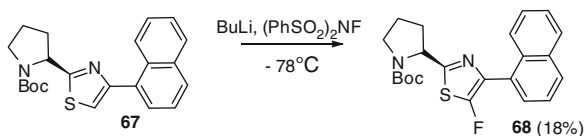
The anodic fluorination of 2-thiazolyl sulfides was successfully carried out to provide the corresponding 5-fluorothiazole and 2,5,5-trifluorothiazoline derivatives [80].



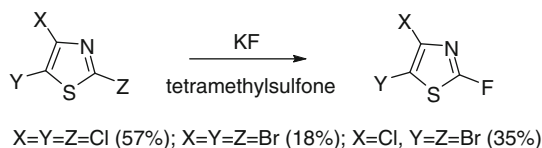
The selectivity of anodic fluorination changed in case of electron-withdrawing substituents. For example, 2-thiazolylcyanomethyl sulfide afforded 5-fluorothiazole and the product of fluorination on methylene group. Electrochemical fluorination of (4-arylthiazol-2-yl)acetonitriles afforded the corresponding (4-aryl-5-fluoro-5*H*-thiazol-2-ylidene)acetonitriles as main products in addition to (4-aryl-5-fluorothiazol-2-yl)acetonitriles and (4-arylthiazol-2-yl)fluoroacetonitriles [81].



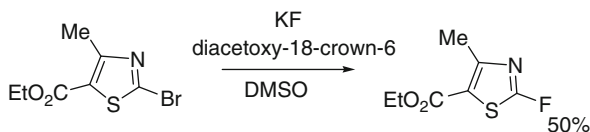
Deprotonation of naphthyl thiazole **67** with BuLi followed by treatment with $(\text{PhSO}_2)_2\text{NF}$ yielded the fluorinated derivative **68** in low yield [82]:



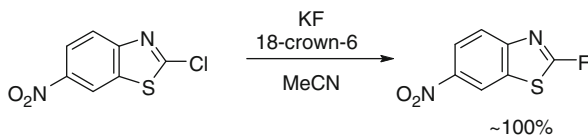
Nucleophilic substitution is an alternative method of fluorine atom incorporation into the thiazole ring. Thus, displacement of the 2-halogen atoms in polyhalogenated thiazoles by fluorine was accomplished utilizing dry potassium fluoride in tetramethylenesulfone at 130°C to yield 2-fluoro derivatives [83]:



In case of reaction of ethyl 2-bromo-4-methylthiazole-5-carboxylates with potassium fluoride the substitution was facilitated by crown ether [84].

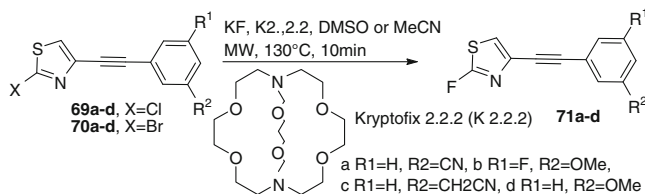


2-Fluoro-6-nitrobenzothiazole was prepared in almost quantitative yield by reaction of 2-chloro compound with anhydrous potassium fluoride in MeCN in the presence of 18-crown-6 [85].

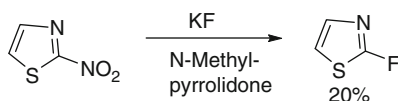


By treating bromides **70a–d** with a potassium fluoride-Kryptofix 2.2.2 (K 2.2.2) complex in DMSO under microwave irradiation (30 W, 130°C , 8–15 min), the respective 2-fluoro compounds **71a–d** were obtained in 24–43 % yield. When the 2-chloro precursors **69a–d** were treated similarly, the yields of fluorination products were dramatically improved, reaching 78 % in the case of **71c**. By contrast, only negligible product amount (yield < 5 %) was detected when the iodo precursor was submitted to nucleophilic fluorination [86, 87]. These results confirmed

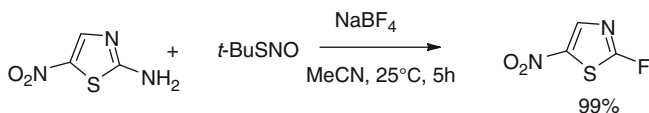
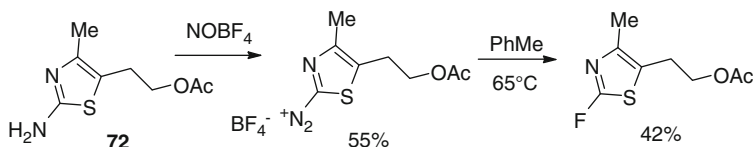
previous observations on leaving group ability in the nucleophilic fluorination of simpler 2-halothiazoles [87].



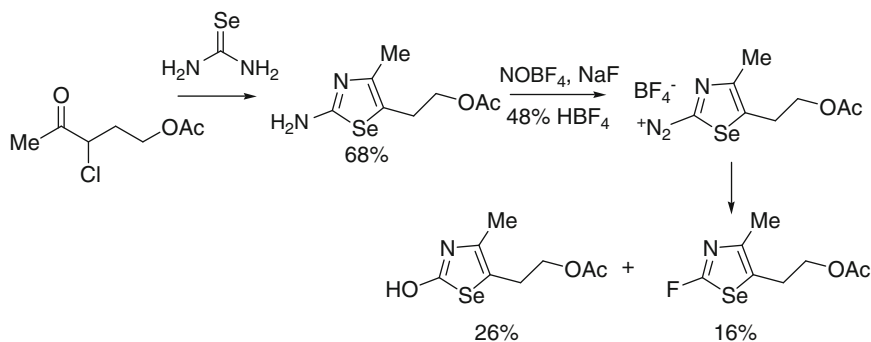
Nitro group can be also used as leaving group, thus, 2-fluorothiazole has been synthesized from the corresponding nitro derivatives by treatment with fluoride ion in N-methyl-2-pyrrolidone, however, the yield was only 20 % [88]:



Diazotization of 2-aminothiazole **72** with NOBF₄ followed by pyrolysis of diazonium tetrafluoroborate gave 5-acetoxy-2-fluoro-4-methylthiazole [89] in 42 % yield. Similarly, 2-amino-5-nitrothiazole reacted readily with *t*-butyl thionitrite or *t*-butyl thionitrate in the presence of sodium tetrafluoroborate to afford the corresponding fluorine derivative in good yield [90, 91].

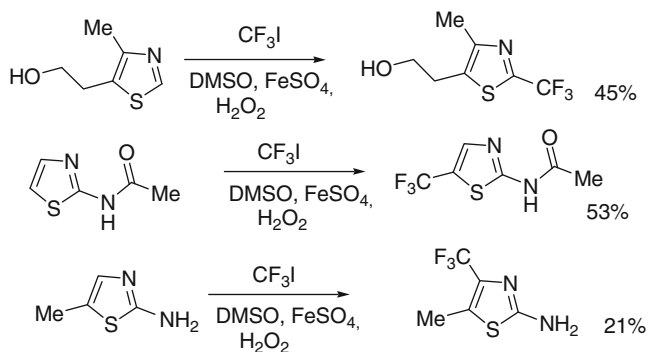


In contrast to oxazoles and thiazoles the information about fluoroselenazoles is almost absent. There is only one publication dealing with these compounds [92]. Diazotization of 5-(acetoxyethyl)-2-amino-4-methylselenazole with nitrosonium borofluoride in the presence of NaF in HF solution furnishes the corresponding diazoselenazole and the 2-hydroxycompound. Despite low yields, this was the first example of Schiemann reaction used successfully for 2-aminoselenazoles. Earlier it was reported [93] that Schiemann reaction of 2-aminoselenazoles had failed completely, elemental selenium being obtained as only isolatable product.

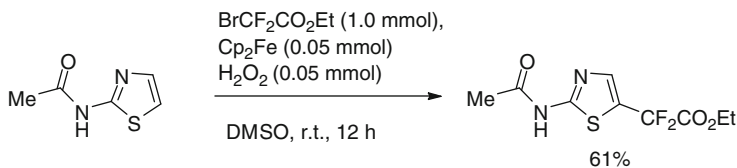


2.1.1.2 Syntheses of Fluoroalkylated Thiazoles

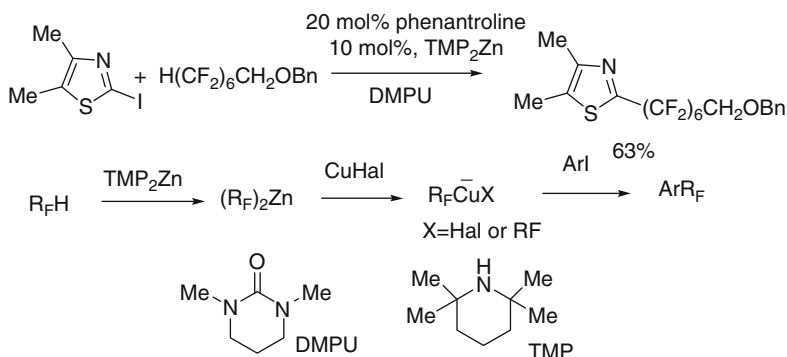
A radical trifluoromethylation is widely used for incorporation of CF_3 group into thiazole ring. This is simple and therefore promising procedure as an industrial process. Trifluoromethyl radical has electrophilic nature and can be readily generated from various sources. For example, the reaction of thiazoles with CF_3I is carried out in the presence of Fe (II), H_2O_2 and DMSO under mild conditions [7]. In this case usual orientation of electrophilic substitution was observed.



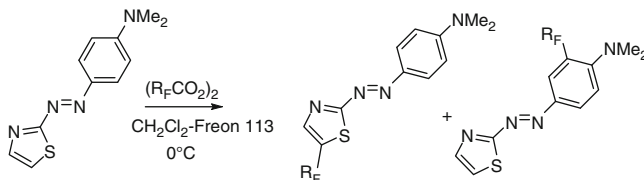
Ethoxycarbonyldifluoromethyl radical generated from $\text{BrCF}_2\text{CO}_2\text{Et}$ using the Fenton reagent in DMSO efficiently reacted with various aromatic compounds including thiazoles [8].



Readily available 1*H*-perfluoroalkanes can also be used for radical alkylation. This method employs, for example, thiazolyl iodide and 1*H*-perfluoroalkane reagents, DMPU solvent, TMP_2Zn base, and a copper chloride/phenanthroline catalyst [8]. The reaction mechanism includes deprotonation of 1*H*-perfluoroalkanes with TMP_2Zn to afford bis(perfluoroalkyl)zinc species. Subsequent transmetalation with copper halide produces a mixture of anionic Cu species that reacts with aryl iodides (including thiazoles), either directly or via a neutral perfluoroalkyl compound, to give the coupling product.



Perfluoroalkylated thiazole azo compounds were prepared by the reaction with bis(perfluoroalkanyl)peroxides. Thus, the reaction of 4-(2-thiazolyazo)-*N,N*-dimethylaniline with bis(trifluoroacetyl)peroxide gave an inseparable mixture of 5-trifluoromethyl- and 2-trifluoromethyl-substituted products in 6:4 ratio in 9 % yield [94].

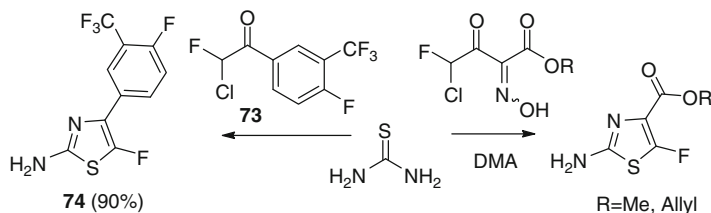


2.1.2 Syntheses of Fluorinated Thiazoles and Benzothiazoles Using Fluorinated Building Blocks

2.1.2.1 Syntheses of the Fluorothiazoles

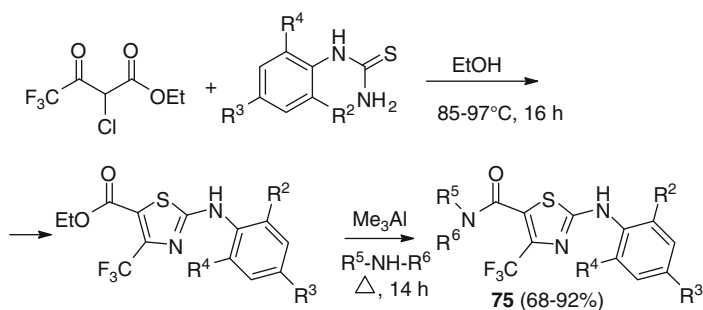
Condensation of α -fluoro- α -chlorocarbonyl compounds with thiourea is the only known approach to the synthesis of 2-amino-5-fluorothiazole derivatives [82, 95, 96]. This methodology was used for the synthesis of the precursors of cephalosporin derivatives containing the fluorothiazole fragment [95, 96]. Analogously the

interaction of the ketone **73** with thiourea gives 4-aryl-substituted 5-fluorothiazole **74** in high yield [82].

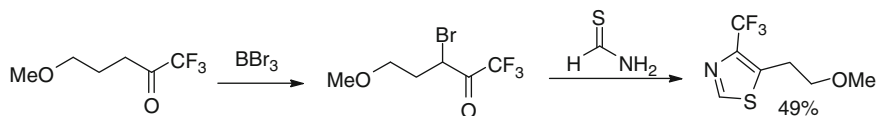


2.1.1.2 Syntheses of the Fluoroalkyl-thiazoles and -benzothiazoles

The fluoroalkylthiazoles and -benzothiazoles generally are synthesized from fluorine-containing acyclic fragments. 2-Arylamino-5-(N,N-dialkylcarbamoyl)-4-(trifluoromethyl)thiazoles **75** represent a novel class of high-affinity corticotrophin releasing factor-1 receptor (CRF₁R) antagonists which are prepared in three steps from commercially available starting materials in good overall yields. The corresponding aminothiazole was assembled by condensation of ethyl 2-chloro-4,4,4-trifluoro-3-oxobutyrates with aryl thioureas [97].

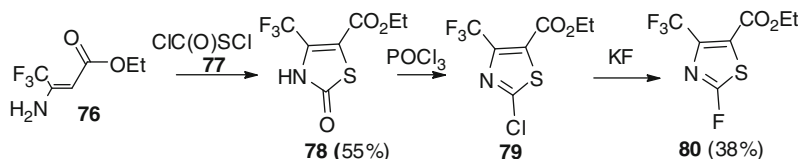


Thioformamide is utilized for the synthesis of 2-unsubstituted 5-trifluoromethylthiazoles. Thus, 5-methoxy-1,1,1-trifluoro-2-pentanone gave 5-(methoxyethyl)-4-trifluoromethylthiazole in reasonable total yield on bromination with BBr_3 followed by treatment with thioformamide [89].

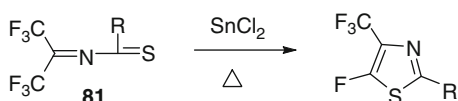


The reaction of ethyl 3-amino-4,4,4-trifluoroacrylate (**76**) with chlorocarbonyl-sulfonyl chloride (**77**) afforded 2,3-dihydro-2-oxo-3-trifluoromethyl-5-thiazolecarboxylate (**78**). The 2-chloro derivative **79** was obtained by treatment of

78 with POCl_3 . Nucleophilic displacement of chlorine with KF gives ethyl 2-fluoro-4-(trifluoromethyl)-5-thiazolecarboxylate (**80**) in moderate yield [98].

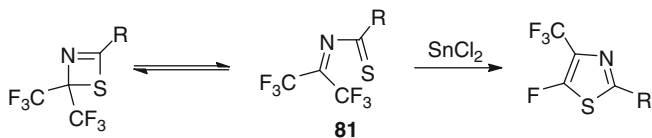


The methods allowing to synthesize the thiazoles containing simultaneously fluorine atom and the trifluoromethyl group are known. Thus, heterodienes of type $[(\text{CF}_3)_2\text{N}=\text{C}(\text{R}^1)=\text{S}]$ (**81**) react with tin(II) compounds [SnCl_2 , stannocene etc.] to give [4 + 1] cycloadducts and finally to give, by thermolysis, the corresponding thiazoles under the mechanism described above for the oxazole [17, 21].

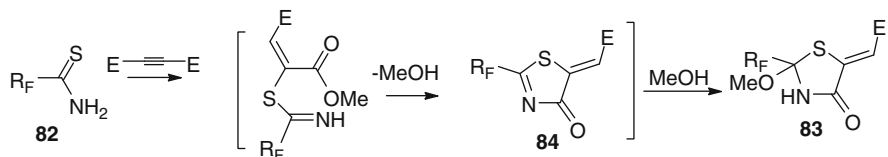


$\text{X}=\text{S}$ $\text{R}=\text{Ph}$ (51%), $p\text{-Me-C}_6\text{H}_4$ (60%)

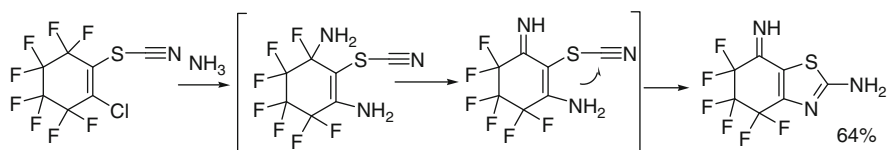
4,4-Bis(trifluoromethyl)-2H-1,3-thiazete undergoes tautomerization into 4,4-bis(trifluoromethyl)-1-thia-3-aza-1,3-butadiene **81** at 80 °C. In presence of equimolecular amount of anhydrous SnCl_2 **81** gave 2-aryl-5-fluoro-4-trifluoromethylthiazole by formal removal of F_2 [16].



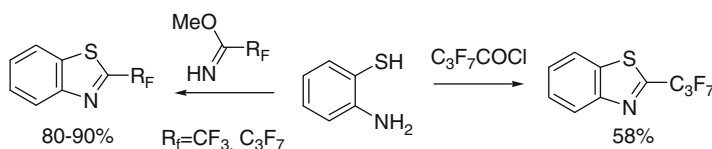
Primary thioamides (**82**) easily react with dimethyl acetylenedicarboxylate (DMAD) to give 2-methoxy-5-methoxycarbonylmethylene-2-polyfluoroalkyl-1,3-thiazolidin-4-ones (**83**). The formation of these compounds is a result of methanol addition to the $\text{C}=\text{N}$ bond of intermediates **84**. The increasing activity of the $\text{C}=\text{N}$ bond in compounds **84** is induced by polyfluoroalkyl substituent [99].



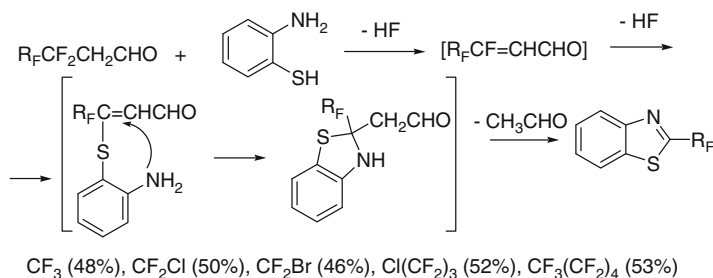
The reaction of ammonia with 2-chloroperfluoro-1-cyclohexene-1-thiocyanate leads to 2-amino-7-iminoperfluoro-4,5,6-dihydrobenzo-1,3-thiazole due to intramolecular Thorpe type heterocyclization [100].



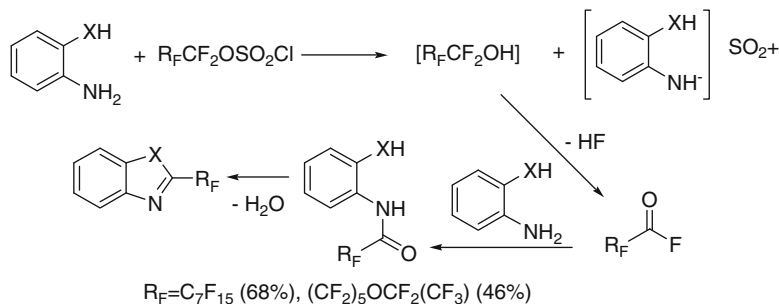
2-Perfluoroalkylbenzothiazoles can be synthesized from *ortho*-aminothiophenols and various perfluoroalkyl-containing carboxylic acid derivatives such as chlorides, anhydrides, and imidates [101]. For example, S-copper salt of *ortho*-aminobenzenethiol reacted with perfluorobutyryl chloride in benzene to afford 58 % yield of 2-perfluoropropylbenzothiazole [101].



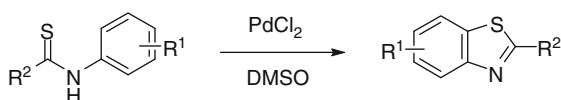
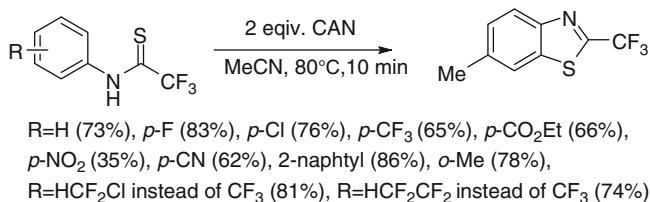
The original method for the preparation of 2-perfluoroalkyl benzothiazoles by reaction of α -perfluoroalkyl aldehydes with 2-aminobenzenethiole includes dehydrofluorination, Michael addition-cyclization followed by elimination of acetaldehyde [102].



Perfluoroalkylated chlorosulfates react readily with the appropriate 2-mercaptoanilines at ambient temperatures. A mixture of heterocyclic compound and its precursor, anilide, is formed as the reaction products [103].

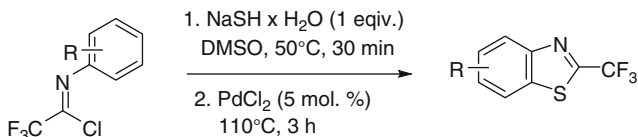


Trifluoromethylated thiobenzanilides are converted efficiently to 2-trifluoromethylbenzothiazoles *via* intramolecular oxidative cyclization under CAN/NaHCO₃ oxidation [104]. The optimized reaction conditions were also evaluated for a range of substituted precursors in the presence of 5 mol % PdCl₂ [57].



R²=CF₃, R¹=*p*-I (83%), *p*-CO₂Et (70%), *p*-CN (60%), *p*-NO₂ (55%),
o-OMe (78%), *m*-CF₃ (R=5-CF₃) (61%), R₁=H, R²=C₂F₅ (61%), R²=CF₂Cl (16%)

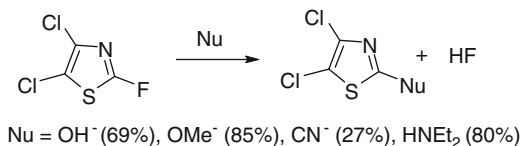
An efficient one-pot method for the synthesis of 2-trifluoromethylbenzothiazoles by the treatment of trifluoromethylimidoyl chlorides with sodium hydrosulfide using PdCl₂ as the catalyst is described. The reaction proceeds in DMSO via thiolation/C-H bond functionalization/C-S bond formation in moderate to high yields with good functional group tolerance [57].



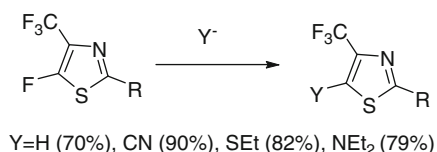
R=H (72%), *p*-OMe (82%), *p*-Me (71%), *p*-NMe₂ (66%), *p*-F (69%),
p-Cl (77%), *p*-Br (67%), *p*-I (43%), *p*-CO₂Et (51%), *o*-F (65%), *o*-Cl (65%),
o-Br (60%), *o*-I (62%), *o*-OMe (74%), naphthyl (69%), *m*-OMe (R=5-OMe) (78%),
m-Me (R=5-Me) (74%), *m*-Cl (R=5-Cl) (66%)

2.2 Chemical Properties

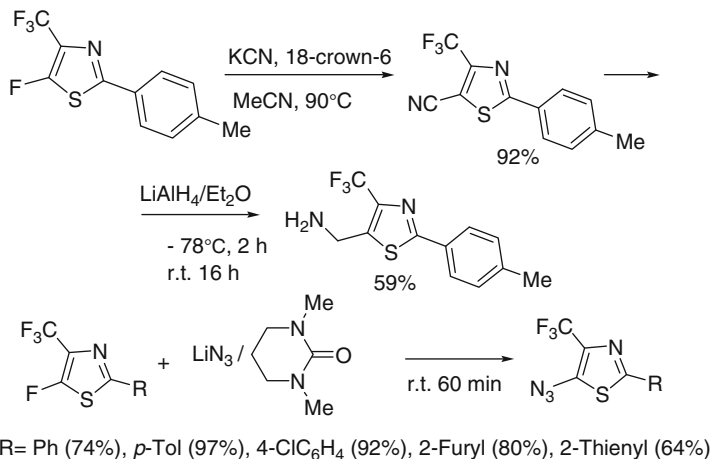
Chemical properties of fluorine-containing thiazoles are represented only by reactions of nucleophilic substitution. Thus, nucleophilic displacement of fluoride ion in 4,5-dichloro-2-fluorothiazole by cyano, hydroxy and methoxy anions as well as by diethylamine produced the respective 2-substituted dichlorothiazoles [83].



2-Substituted thiazoles generally are more active toward nucleophilic substitution than 5-substituted derivatives. However, the presence of electron-withdrawing substituent near them in 4-trifluoromethyl-5-fluorothiazoles facilitates the process of nucleophilic substitution of fluorine atom [21].



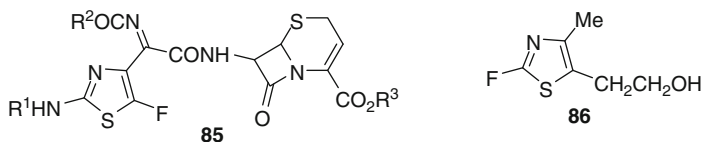
5-Aminomethyl-2-*p*-tolyl-4-trifluoromethylthiazole was obtained from the corresponding 5-fluoro-4-trifluoromethylthiazole by the reaction with potassium cyanide followed by the LiAlH₄ reduction [105]. 5-Azido-4-trifluoromethylthiazoles are obtained from 5-fluoro-4-trifluoromethylthiazoles [105].



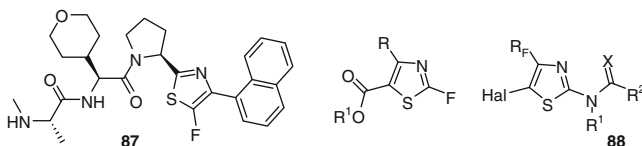
2.3 Applications

The fluoro- and fluoroalkyl-substituted thiazoles and their derivatives can be used as potent agents in the various fields of medicine, biology, and agriculture. Thus, the [¹⁸F] 2-fluoro-1,3-thiazolyl moiety constitutes a new and easily-labeled structural motif for prospective molecular imaging radiotracers [86]. This novel ¹⁸F-labeled thiazole

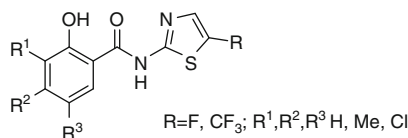
derivative (see compound **71**) is useful for imaging of metabotropic glutamate subtype 5 receptors (mGlu5) in living mammalian brain [105]. 3-Cephem derivatives **85** containing 5-fluorothiazole fragments are active remedies against Gram-negative bacterium (*Escherichia coli*, *Klebsiella*, *Proteus vulgaris*) [19, 20, 34]. The less complex compound **86** also showed antibacterial action against two strains of *Escherichia coli* [89].



2-Amino-5-fluorothiazole represents the activator glucokinase which increases the metabolism of glucose and is used for treatment diabetes II [105]. In addition 5-fluoro substitution of an aminothiazole moiety within a series of thrombopoietin receptor agonists leads to potent agents with an improved hepatic safety profile in rodent toxicology studies [78]. A series of inhibitor of apoptosis antagonists is based on thiazole amide isosteres. These compounds were tested for binding to the XIAP-BIR3 and ML-IAP BIR using a fluorescence polarization assay. These compounds **87** containing the 5-fluorothiazole fragment are the most potent [82]. 2,4-Disubstituted thiazole-5-carboxylic acids have been found to reduce herbicidal injury of corn, rice and sorghum plants due to the application thereto of acetamide herbicides [106]. The 4-perfluoroalkylthiazole derivatives **88** have insecticidal and acaricidal activity [107].



According to QSAR study of the wide range of compounds, 5-fluoro- and trifluoromethylthiazole derivatives are active against hepatitis B virus replication [3].



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Fluorinated Triazoles and Tetrazoles

Vladimir A. Ostrovskii and Rostislav E. Trifonov

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Abstract The chapter encompasses the synthesis, chemical transformations, properties, and applications of fluorinated monocyclic 1,2,3-, 1,2,4-triazoles and tetrazoles as well as their fused analogs. The heterocycles directly bonded with a fluorine atom (N-F or C-F isomers) as well as trifluoromethyl, perfluoroalkyl, perfluoroaryl, SF₅, NF₂ groups and some other fluorinated fragments were considered.

Keywords Fluorine • Triazole • Tetrazoles • Heterocycle • Synthesis • Application • Biological activity

1 Introduction

Fluorinated polynitrogen heterocycles like 1,2,3-triazoles, 1,2,4-triazoles and tetrazoles differ considerably from the other related heterocyclic systems in the preparation methods and some characteristics. Heterocycles containing three or four endocyclic nitrogen atoms, including one, two, or three N-N bonds combined with a powerful electron-acceptor and energy-consuming substituent like a fluorine atom or perfluoroalkyl groups possess a relatively high enthalpy of formation and notably differ from the other azoles by their chemical properties. Some fluorinated tri- and tetrazoles are well known and find versatile applications [1]. These compounds are widely used in medicine, agriculture, and in material sciences. Thus, several commercially important drugs as well as a lot of bioactive compounds with different types of activity have in their composition fluorinated triazolyl or tetrazolyl groups. Among them there are well-known antidiabetic DPP-IV inhibitors, NK1 receptor antagonist, antifungal agents, herbicides, and some other compounds with useful properties [1–5]. On the other hand these compounds possess a number of unique properties providing a possibility to utilize them in quite different fields of technology. For instance, these compounds are efficient corrosion inhibitors, they can be used as components of energy-rich compounds, ionic liquids, semiconductors, etc. [1, 6]. The applications of fluorinated tri- and tetrazoles will be discussed in more detail in Sect. 6 of this chapter.

Fluorinated derivatives of azoles are known since over half century, the chemical methods of their synthesis and their certain chemical properties are described in many reviews and monographs [1, 6–15]. In general two different ways to incorporate fluorine or perfluoroalkyl groups into a heterocyclic system may be considered:

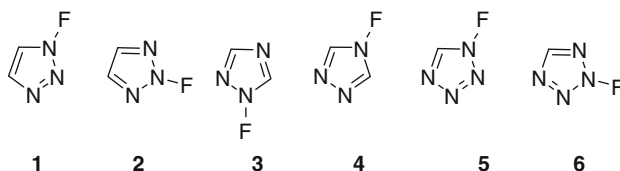
The heterocyclization of fluorine-containing acyclic systems many various types of which are known, or direct introduction of fluorine or a perfluoroalkyl group into existing heterocyclic system [1, 7–15]. So far the problems of the synthesis of highly nitrogenated cyclic systems, especially of 1,2,3-triazoles and tetrazoles have been poorly understood. It should be noted that quite a big number of original publications has appeared in this field within the last decade.

Taking into account the essential difference in the properties and the preparation procedures we consider further in succession compounds having a fluorine atom directly bound to the heterocycle and another fluorine-containing substances, perfluoroalkyl and perfluoroaryl derivatives of 1,2,3-, 1,2,4-triazoles and tetrazoles. The research on the synthesis and the reactivity of tri- and tetrazoles containing as substituents at the endocyclic carbon atom CF_3 or the other perfluoroalkyl groups have been developed since the 1960s. The last decade has been marked with a significant progress in this direction due to some of these compounds have important practical applications. Tri- and tetrazoles containing as substituents perfluoroaryl fragments, SF_3 and NF_2 groups, and also heterocycles involved into fluorobenzo-fused systems are considered separately.

2 Compounds Having Fluorine Bonded Directly to Endocyclic Atoms

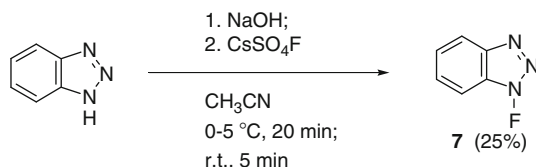
2.1 *N-F Derivatives*

In the case of unsubstituted triazoles and tetrazoles the existence of two isomers is possible for each heterocyclic system. Such derivatives are very different in thermodynamic stability: 1H- and 2H-1,2,3-triazoles and tetrazoles, and also 1H- and 4H-1,2,4-triazoles. By now all parent N-F heterocycles **1–6** remain hypothetical. Among substituted derivatives all known N-F heterocycles are only 1H-isomers.

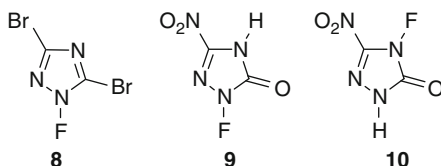


In general the information on the synthesis and properties of the N-fluorinated derivatives of 1,2,3- and 1,2,4-triazoles is very scanty [6]. The data about N-fluorotetrazoles are totally absent today. We discuss below the results of the few publications considering the synthesis of N-fluoro-1,2,3- and 1,2,4-triazoles. This desultory information is difficult to classify since the most of these papers lack any experimental details on the synthesis of the compounds of this type and the proofs confirming the structure.

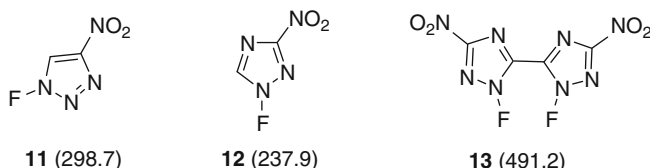
By now the synthesis of 1-fluoro-benzotriazole **7** is well established fact [16]. Gakh et al. carried out a direct replacement of the hydrogen attached to the nitrogen atom of the “pyrrole” type of benzotriazole by the fluorine. For this aim benzotriazole anion was fluorinated with cesium fluorooxysulfate (CEOX). The cesium fluorooxysulfate discovered by Appelman in 1979 is one of the soft and regioselective reagents for anions fluorination. It requires however a cautious handling for it is prone to spontaneous instant decomposition [8, 9].



An example of synthesis of N-fluoro-1,2,4-triazole was described in the patent of Strazdina and Grinstein [6, 17]. Here 1-fluoro-3,5-dibromo-1,2,4-triazole **8** was obtained by treating the heterocyclic substrate with the hypohalous acid or its derivatives at -40 to $+50$ °C in water or an organic solvent in the presence of bases. Langlet and Ostmark in a patent [18] have described the application of isomeric fluoro-triazolones **9**, **10** as components of explosive compositions, but the data on the synthesis of these substances have been not reported.



Miroshnichenko et al. [19] published results on calorimetric investigation of N-F derivatives of various nitroazoles, in particular, of some N-fluoro derivatives of 1,2,3- and 1,2,4-triazoles **11–13** (the values of standard enthalpy of formation ΔH_f° , kJ/mol are given in parentheses). Regretfully, the methods of the synthesis of N-F triazoles and the data confirming their structure and individuality were not reported in this article.

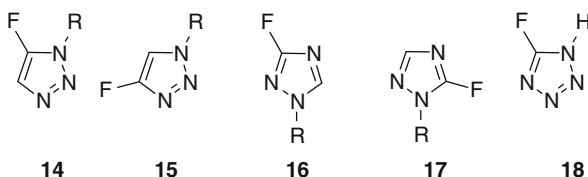


According to theoretical calculations the N-F bond in the molecules of N-fluoro-1,2,4-triazoles is rather strong, in contrast to N-Cl (Br, I) bonds [20]. Therefore, it remains possible to prepare a wide range of thermodynamically stable N-fluoro derivatives of 1,2,4-triazole which may be of a practical importance. Thus, using

ab initio quantum-chemical methods, the structure of salts was investigated that were formed with N-F-1,2,4-triazolium cation and dinitramide anion which might be used for the preparation of exotic energy-rich ionic liquids [21].

2.2 C-F Derivatives

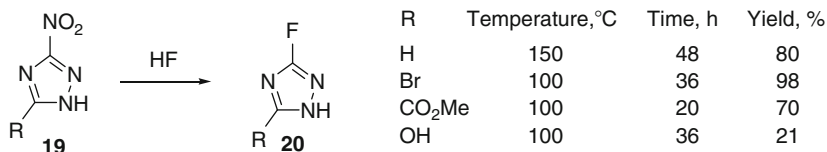
Taking into account that 1,2,3- and 1,2,4-triazole rings contain two carbon atoms, and the tetrazole cycle only a single one, the fluorine atom can be located in two different positions in the isomeric C-F triazoles with nonequivalent substituents **14**–**17** and in a single position in 5-fluorotetrazole **18**. All types of these derivatives are known.



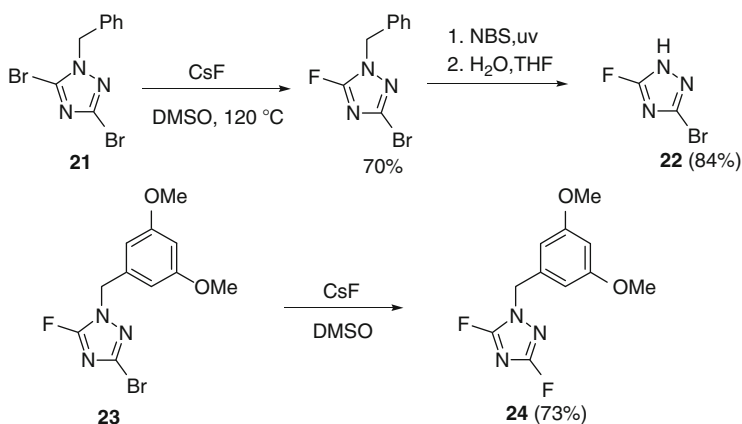
The direct incorporation of a fluorine atom in the ring essentially affects versatile physicochemical and chemical characteristics of the heterocyclic system, in particular, its tautomerism, dipole moment, and the acid-base properties. For instance, tautomeric equilibria involving NH-unsubstituted fluoro derivatives of 1,2,3-triazoles [22, 23], 1,2,4-triazoles [24], and tetrazoles [25–28] were explored in a series of theoretical studies. The acid-base properties of these heterocycles (in particular, the CH-acidity of some among them) were also studied [28–30]. These investigations showed that the fluorine atom attached to the heterocyclic system changed significantly the character of the electron density distribution and consequently the polarity of the heterocycle, strongly increased its acidity and decreased its basicity.

The synthetic procedures for the preparation of C-F derivatives of tri- and tetrazoles are more developed compared to the synthesis of the derivatives with the N-F bond. The preparation methods of C-F derivatives are known not only for 1,2,3- and 1,2,4-triazoles, but also for tetrazoles. The C-F bond is successfully formed by the replacement of hydrogen atom or various “leaving” groups under the action of the fluorination reagents. Along with the above methods diverse versions are applied of 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition of azides to dipolarophiles containing fluorine. Also very useful approach is oxidative cyclization of molecules with the linear structure containing a C-F bond.

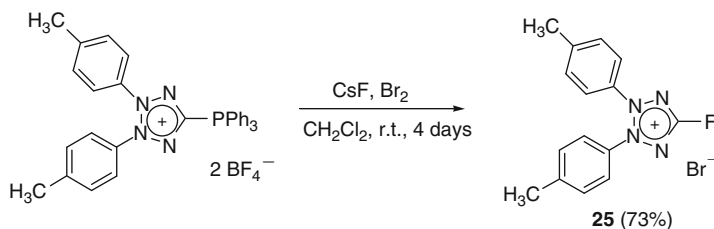
The first report on the preparation of 1,2,4-triazoles fluorinated at the carbon atom of the ring appeared as early as 1973 [31]. In this study the corresponding 3-fluoro-1,2,4-triazoles **20** were obtained in good yields by treatment of 5-R-3-nitro-1,2,4-triazoles **19** with hydrogen fluoride. Nitro group substitution by fluorine under these conditions required a prolonged time (20–48 h) and heating at high temperature (100–150 °C).



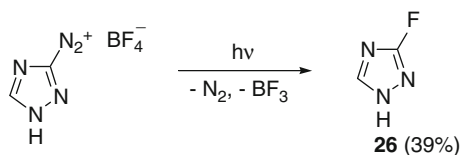
The nucleophilic exchange of one bromine atom in 1-benzyl-3,5-dibromo-1,2,4-triazole **21** with fluorine under the action of CsF followed by the photoinitiated elimination of the benzyl protective group led to the formation of 3-bromo-5-fluoro-1H-1,2,4-triazole **22** in 59 % overall yield. The alkylation of this substrate gave 1-alkyl-3-fluoro-1,2,4-triazoles for the first time. Both bromine atoms were substituted to provide the corresponding difluoro derivative **24** under the same reaction conditions, but using 1-(3,5-dimethoxybenzyl)-3,5-dibromo-1,2,4-triazole **23** as substrate for fluorination [32].



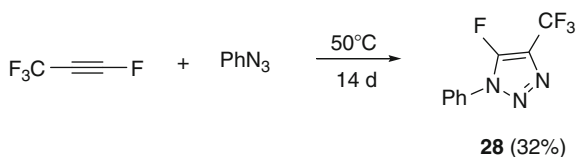
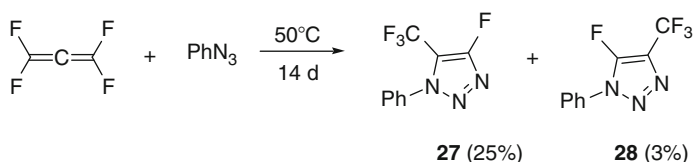
Cesium fluoride was also used in the synthesis of 2,3-di(*p*-tolyl)-5-fluoro-tetrazolium bromide **25** from the corresponding 5-triphenylphosphonium-tetrazolium salt [33].



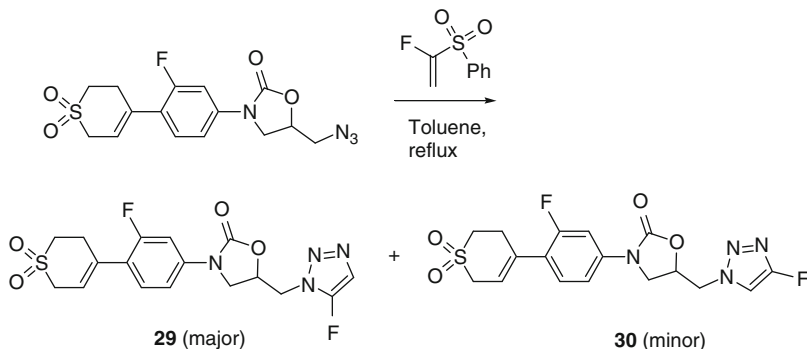
Another example of the direct introduction of the fluorine atom into a heterocycle was demonstrated in [34]. Here 3-fluoro-1,2,4-triazole **26** was obtained by the photochemical decomposition of hetaryldiazonium tetrafluoroborate in solution oversaturated with NaBF₄.



A widely used method of the preparation of versatile 1,2,3-triazoles and tetrazoles consists in the reaction of azides with fluorine-containing compounds with multiple bonds. For example, this approach afforded N-substituted 4(5)-fluoro-1,2,3-triazoles **27**, **28** by the 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition of perfluoropropadiene to phenyl azide [35]. In the course of the reaction a mixture of regioisomeric 1,2,3-triazoles was formed; 1-phenyl-4-fluoro-5-trifluoromethyl-1,2,3-triazole **27** was considerably prevailed. On the contrary, the reaction of phenyl azide with the perfluoropropyne resulted in predominantly the isomer that was minor in the previous scheme.



Reck et al. demonstrated that phenylsulfonic acid was eliminated in course of 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition involving 1-fluoro-1-(phenylsulfonyl)ethylene and (5R)-3-[4-(1,1-dioxo-3,6-dihydro-2H-thiopyran-4-yl)-3-fluorophenyl]-5-(azidomethyl)oxazolidin-2-one. As a result a mixture of regioisomeric 4- and 5-fluoro-1,2,3-triazoles **29**, **30** in 7:1 ratio was formed in 28 % overall yield. Compounds **29**, **30** may be regarded as effective antimicrobial agents [36].

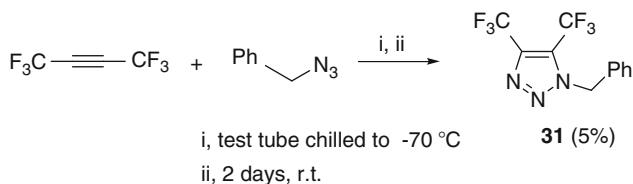


Apparently the simplest 5-fluorotetrazole **18** and its derivatives can be synthesized by the reaction of 2+3 dipolar cycloaddition of azides to cyanogen fluoride or by some other method. Yet we failed to find the mention of such synthesis in available publications. The possibility of this reaction and its mechanism were assessed theoretically [37]. Publications are known where compound **18** is used as a component of the energy-rich compositions [38].

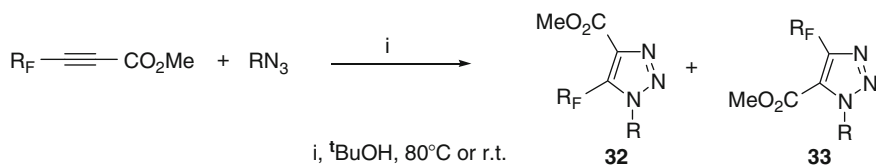
3 Trifluoromethyl and Perfluoroalkyl Derivatives

3.1 1,2,3-Triazoles

The most common synthetic procedure for the preparation of perfluoroalkylated 1,2,3-triazole derivatives is 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition of azides to diverse unsaturated dipolarophiles containing perfluoroalkyl substituents. Thus, in 1966 Carpenter et al. carried out the cycloaddition of benzyl azide to perfluoroalkyl substituted acetylene derivatives leading to the formation of trifluoromethyl-1,2,3-triazolines and 1,2,3-triazoles [39]. In this paper a synthesis of 1-benzyl-4,5-bistrifluoromethyl-1,2,3-triazole **31** from hexafluoro-2-butyne was described.

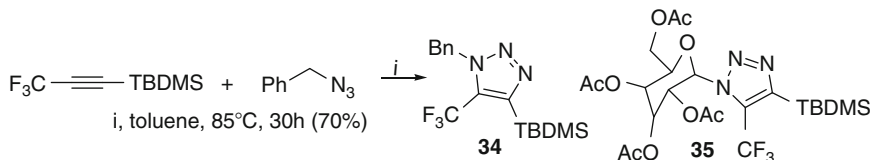


The regioselectivity of 1,3-cycloaddition of benzyl azide to unsymmetrical acetylenes containing CF_3 substituent at one carbon atom of the fragment $\text{C}\equiv\text{C}$ and CO_2Et group at the other carbon was analyzed [40]. The formation of regioisomeric mixtures of 1,2,3-triazoles **32**, **33** was observed. This study was further developed recently. Zhang et al. published the results of a research on the 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition of benzyl azide and some other aryl azides to methyl perfluoroalkylalkynoate. It was shown that the ratio of regioisomers is governed by two factors: the orbital control (the role of the frontier orbitals was established) and also spatial interaction of the perfluoroalkyl and aryl (or benzyl) groups [41].

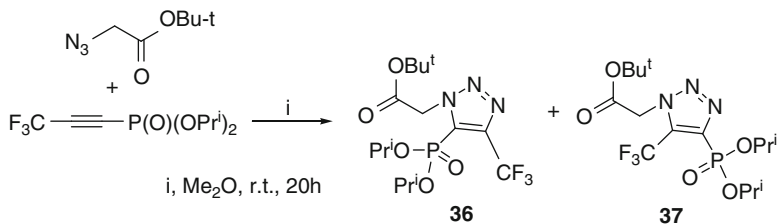


R _F	R	ratio 32:33	Yield,%
CF ₃	C ₆ H ₅ CH ₂	1:0.7	91
C ₂ F ₅	<i>p</i> -MeOC ₆ H ₄ CH ₂	1:0.9	82
C ₃ H ₇	<i>p</i> -MeOC ₆ H ₄ CH ₂	1:1.2	83
CF ₃	C ₆ H ₅	1:2.1	85

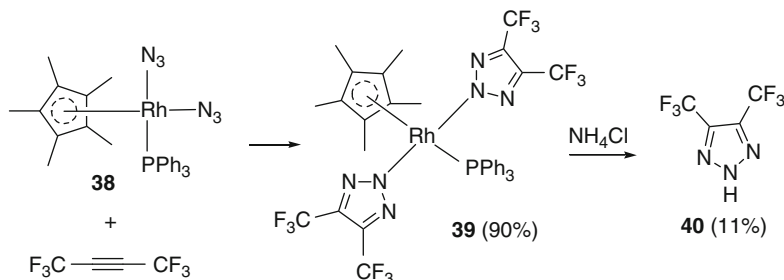
The influence of the steric effects on the regioselectivity of the cycloaddition was studied in detail by an example of the 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition of benzyl azide to trifluoromethylacetylene containing a TBDMS (*tert*-butyldimethylsilyl) protecting group. The regioselective formation in this case of the single isomer of 1,2,3-triazole **34** was explained by the presence in the structure of dipolarophile of a bulky substituent (TBDMS) [42]. Such an approach made it possible to perform a regioselective synthesis of nucleosides analogs containing in their molecular structure a trifluoromethyl-1,2,3-triazolyl fragment **35** [42].



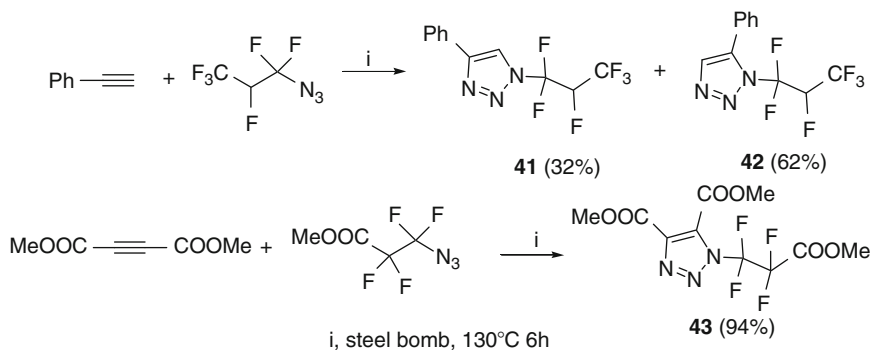
The reaction of *tert*-butyl azidoacetate with diisopropyl-3,3,3-trifluoroprop-1-ynylphosphonate gave regioisomeric diisopropyl(1-*tert*-butoxycarbonylmethyl-4-trifluoromethyl-1H-1,2,3-triazol-5-yl)phosphonate **36** and diisopropyl(1-*tert*-butoxycarbonylmethyl-5-fluoromethyl-1H-1,2,3-triazol-4-yl)phosphonate **37** in 75:25 ratio (90 % overall yield) [43].



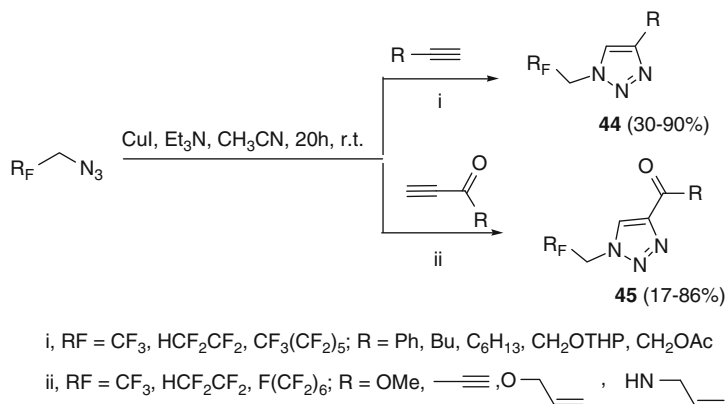
Pentamethylcyclopentadienylrhodium (or iridium) azido complexes **38** react with ditrifluoromethylacetylene to give the corresponding 1,2,3-triazole rhodium complex **39**. Subsequent treatment with NH_4Cl opened the route to free NH-triazole **40** [44].



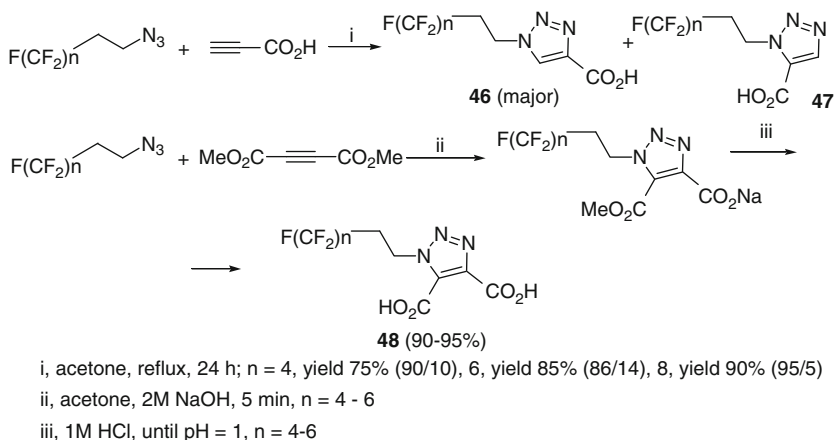
Lermontov et al. reported some successful reactions of two α,α -difluoroazides, namely, 2-hydroperfluoropropyl azide and the methyl ester of 3-azido-perfluoropropanoic acid, with various acetylene compounds, and described some properties of the resulting products [45]. Thus, phenylacetylene reacts with 2-hydroperfluoropropyl azide to give the corresponding 4-phenyl-1-(2H-perfluoropropyl)-1,2,3-triazole **41** and 5-phenyl-1-(2H-perfluoropropyl)-1,2,3-triazole **42** in 1/2 ratio. Disubstituted acetylenes also react with these azides to give the corresponding 1H-1,2,3-triazoles [45]. Thus in the case of triazole **43** the yield is close to the quantitative.



In the paper [46] of Wu, Chen et al. a method for the preparation of the fluoroalkylated 1,4-disubstituted-1,2,3-triazoles by the 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition of fluoroalkylated azides to terminal alkynes in the presence of Cu(I) salt as catalyst at room temperature was described. All these reactions were highly regioselective giving 1,4-disubstituted **44**, **45**, no 1,5-disubstituted products. The structure of key compounds was confirmed both by the NOSEY spectra and an X-ray diffraction study.

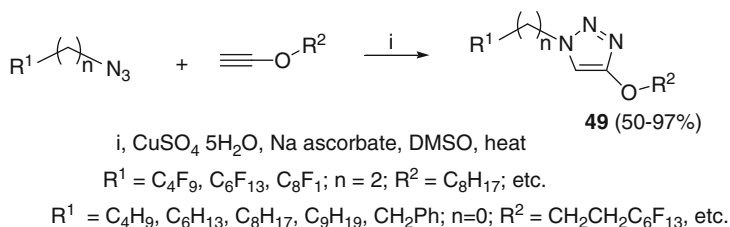


A series of fluoroalkylated amphiphilic 1,2,3-triazoles **46**, **47**, **48** was synthesized by efficient 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition of 2-perfluoroalkylethyl azides and acetylenic acids or esters [47].

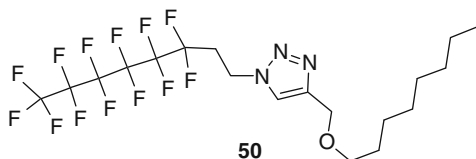


Recently Yi et al. also utilized 2-perfluoroalkylethyl azides as 1,3-dipoles in the 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition to phenyl- or butylacetylenes [48]. As a result in the presence of copper(I) salt the corresponding 1-fluoroalkyl-4-substituted 1,2,3-triazoles were obtained in about 60 % yield. Note that in this case only anti- isomers were obtained: 1-fluoroalkyl-4-aryl- or 1-fluoroalkyl-4-butyl-1,2,3-triazoles. The authors do not explain the high selectivity of the process, although it may be attributed to the steric effect of the bulky substituents (aryl, butyl). Yi et al. note the relatively high efficiency of the fluoroalkyl 1,4-disubstituted-1,2,3-triazoles as catalysts of aldol condensation which may be easily recovered and reused [48]. Read et al. [49] virtually simultaneously with [48] published the results of their proper exploration of the copper salts catalyzed 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition of fluorinated alkyl azides to acetylenes. This research extended the methodology

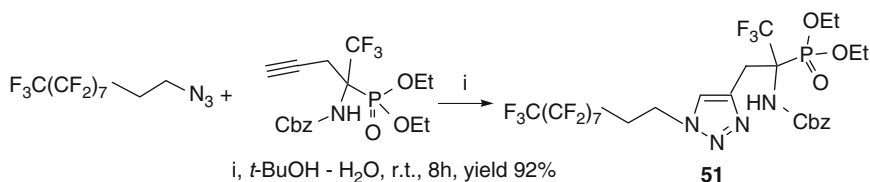
formerly suggested by Wu et al. [46] who were among the first to apply the catalytic system based on Cu(I). It was shown that practically for the generation of the Huisgen-Meldal catalyst the system $\text{CuSO}_4 \cdot 5\text{H}_2\text{O}$ – sodium ascorbate was preferable. Just under these reaction conditions a wide range of 1,2,3-triazoles **49** was obtained having the perfluoroalkyl groups at the atoms in the positions 1 and 4 [49]. It was also shown that the higher rate of the process and the higher yield of cycloaddition products were achieved both in the presence of copper salts and at the microwave acceleration.



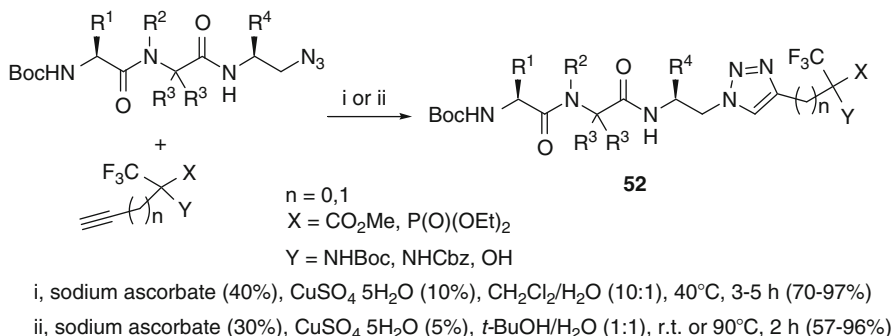
1,3-Dipolar cycloaddition of fluoroalkyl azides to acetylenes in the version of the click-chemistry involving the above mentioned catalytic system ($\text{CuSO}_4 \cdot 5\text{H}_2\text{O}$ – sodium ascorbate) essentially extended the set of the known fluoroalkyl derivatives of 1,2,3-triazole; some 1,2,3-triazole derivatives previously regarded as exotic became relatively accessible. Read et al. recently reported on the results of research of the effect on the *m*-xylene surface tension of the additives of exotic surfactants based on fluoroalkyl derivatives of 1,2,3-triazoles, e.g., compound **50** [50]. The synthesis of fluoroalkyl-1,2,3-triazoles using the above mentioned procedure was also described in the earlier publication of the same team [51].



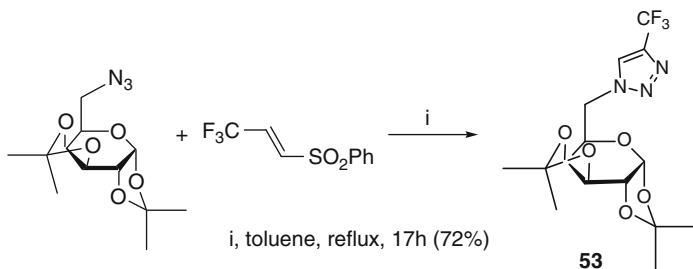
A convenient method for the preparation of 1,2,3-triazole-containing CF_3 - α -aminophosphonates **51** via copper-catalyzed (3+2)-cycloaddition of α - CF_3 - α -aminophosphonates bearing an alkynyl group at the α -carbon atom to different organic azides has been described [52].



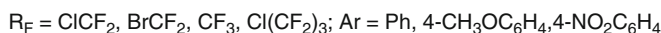
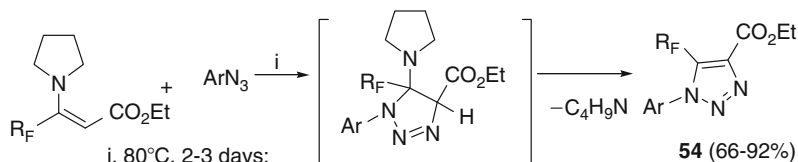
A convenient and simple method for the synthesis based on copper-catalyzed 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition of azidopeptides to acetylenes of tetrapeptide surrogates containing CF₃-alkyl-1,2,3-triazolyl moiety **52** having ester of phosphonates functionalities or have been developed by Nenajdenko et al. [53, 54].



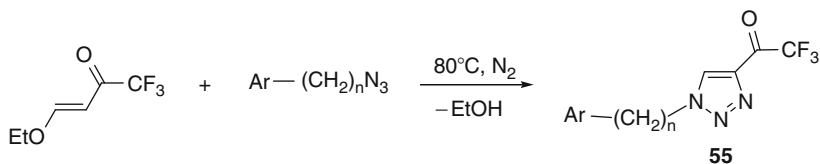
Some approaches to the synthesis of trifluoromethyl-1,2,3-triazoles by the azidation of compounds containing not a triple but a double C=C bond were described. In this case apparently a functional group elimination occurs *in situ* to provide the formation of an additional carbon-carbon bond. For instance, Miethchen et al. described a synthesis of 4-trifluoromethyl-1,2,3-triazole **53** linked to the C⁶-atom of D-galactose and D-altrose. 1,3-Dipolar cycloaddition using the monosaccharide azides and the perfluoroalkyl-substituted phenylvinylsulfones was performed [55, 56].



A number of 5-fluoroalkylated 1H-1,2,3-triazoles **54** was synthesized in good yield by the 100 % regioselective 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition of (*Z*)-ethyl-3-fluoroalkyl-3-pyrrolidino-acrylates with aryl or benzyl azides [57].



1,3-Dipolar cycloaddition of aryl (or benzyl) azides to 1,1,1-trifluoro-4-ethoxy-3-butene-2-one proceeded smoothly by heating without solvent. As a result 1-substituted 4-trifluoroacetyl-1*H*-1,2,3-triazoles **55** were formed regioselectively in good yield [58]. These compounds were readily hydrated at air exposure.

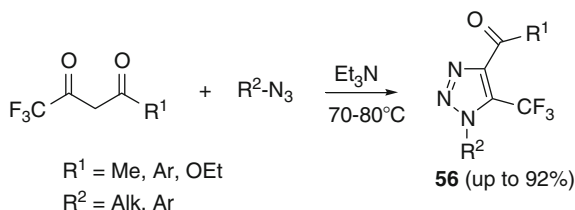


$n=0$; Ar = C₆H₅, 66h, yield 51%; 4-MeC₆H₄, 48h, yield 80%,

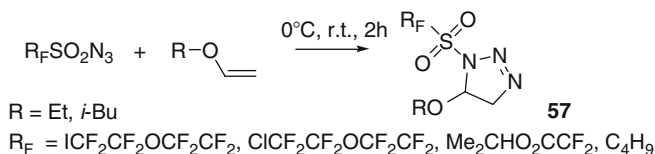
4-NO₂C₆H₄, 66h, yield 78%, 4-ClC₆H₄, 44h, yield 73%, 2-CH₃C₆H₄, 144h, yield 68%.

$n=1$; Ar = C₆H₅, 35h, yield 69%, Ar=4-OMe, 24h, yield 79%; Ar=4-NO₂, 72h, yield 88%.

Recently Nenaidenko et al. carried out reactions of a variety alkyl and aryl azides with 1-trifluoromethylated 1,3-dicarbonyl compounds what lead 100 % regioselectively to a single 4-acyl-5-trifluoromethyl-1,2,3-triazoles **56** isomer in good yields [59]. The reaction represents a general and highly selective method for the synthesis of 1,2,3-triazoles otherwise difficulty available. The observed regioselectivity can be explained by selective enolization of trifluoromethyl ketone fragment to form enolate with double bond conjugated to the CF₃ group.

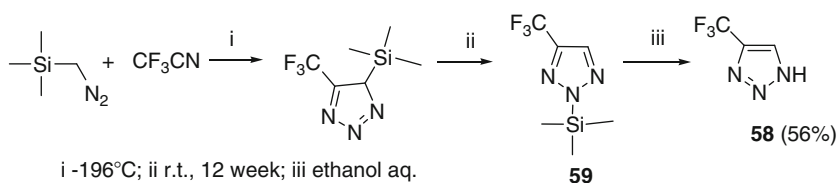


Fluoroalkanesulfonyl azides in reactions with alkenes are more reactive than alkyl azides because of strong electron-acceptor properties of the sulfonyl group. Thus, Zhu, He et al. shown that the reaction of vinyl ethers with 1-fluoroalkanesulfonyl azides proceeded in mild conditions to afford 1-fluoroalkanesulfonyl-5-alkoxy-1,2,3-triazolines in good yields ($\approx 70\%$) [60, 61]. The authors point out that the cycloaddition is extremely regioselective. Only the 5-alkoxy derivative of 1,2,3-triazoline **57** has been obtained, whereas the corresponding 1,4-isomer has not been detected.

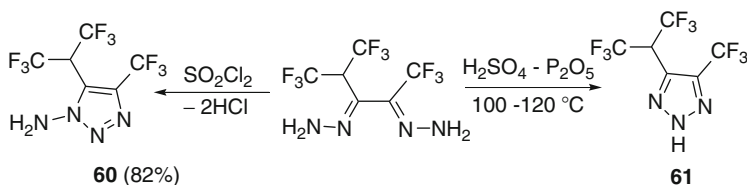


According to Shreeve et al., 4-trifluoromethyl-1,2,3-triazole **58** may be synthesized as a result of 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition of TMSN_3 to trifluoropropyne in the presence of Cu(I) [62]. The synthesis of perfluoroalkyl-1,2,3-triazoles was also described in the earlier cited paper of Taylor et al. [35]. In this study the reaction was investigated between perfluoropropadiene with phenyl azide resulting in regioisomeric 1,2,3-triazole containing at the endocyclic carbon atoms both the fluorine atom and the CF_3 -group.

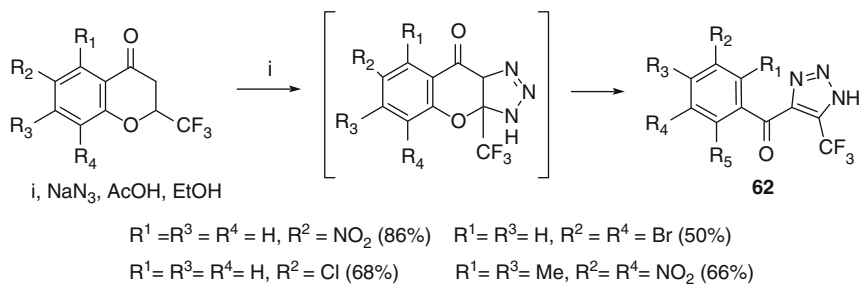
Below we described some other, less wide spread methods as compared to 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition used in the preparation of perfluoroalkyl derivatives of 1,2,3-triazoles. For instance, Haszeldine et al. [63] developed an original method of the synthesis of trifluoromethyl-1,2,3-triazole about 40 years ago. The reaction of diazomethyltrimethylsilane with trifluoroacetonitrile led to the formation of an intermediate adduct rearranged into 2-trimethylsilyl-4-trifluoromethyl-1,2,3-triazole **59**. This compound being treated with aqueous ethanol liberated the trimethylsilane to yield 4-trifluoromethyl-1,2,3-triazole **58**.



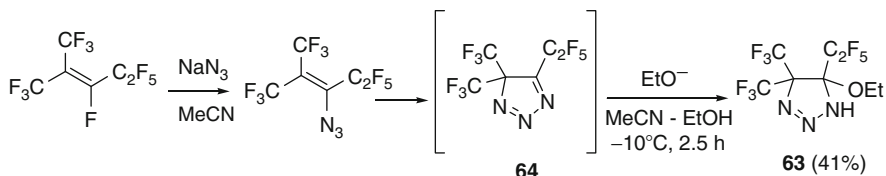
Bargamov and Bargamova reported on new polyfluorinated 1-amino-1,2,3-triazoles **60** which were obtained by oxidation of the bis-hydrazones of aliphatic polyfluorinated α -dicarbonyl compounds with sulfuryl chloride, bromine, or selenium dioxide in an aprotic solvent [64, 65]. In a later article these authors described an oxidation of a dihydrazone of 1,1,1,5,5,5-hexafluoro-4-trifluoromethylpentane-2,3-dione in the presence of the $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4 - \text{P}_2\text{O}_5$ mixture (molar ratio 3:1) to 4-(1,1,1,3,3,3-hexafluoroisopropyl)-5-trifluoromethyl-2H-1,2,3-triazole **61** (no yield was given) [66].



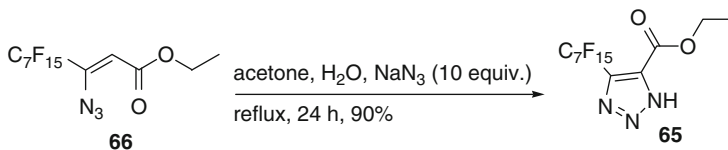
The reactions of 2-trifluoromethylchromones and 2-trifluoromethyl-4H-chromen-4-imines with sodium azide in the presence of acetic acid gave ketone (or imine) derivatives of 5(4)-trifluoromethyl-1,2,3-triazole **62** in high yields [67].



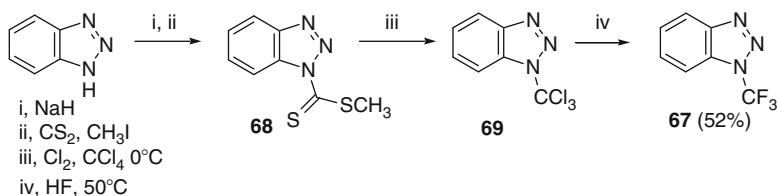
Furin et al. (2001) published a method for the synthesis of 4,4-bis(trifluoromethyl)-5-ethoxy-5-pentafluoroethyl-1,2,3-triazoline **63** based on the electrocyclic cyclization of linear vinyl azide as a precursor [68]. In the first stage of this process the perfluoro-2-methyl-2-pentene reacted with sodium azide in acetonitrile–ethanol mixture at -20°C furnishing the vinyl azide, which at -10°C underwent an intramolecular cyclization into an unstable intermediate **64**. In the presence of ethanol a nucleophilic attack of ethoxy anion on C=N bond of intermediate **63** occurs to form a stable product **64** [68].



Bozkurt et al. demonstrated that 5-(perfluoroheptyl)-3H-1,2,3-triazole-4-carboxylate **65** is formed in a high yield by the intramolecular cyclization of ethyl 3-azido-3-(perfluoroheptyl)propenoate **66** in presence of a significant excess of sodium azide [69].

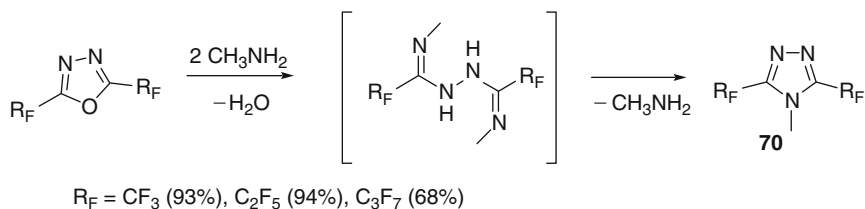


An example of the “direct” incorporation of a perfluoroalkyl group into the structure of an already formed 1,2,3-triazole was given [70]. In this paper a method of synthesis of 1-trifluoromethyl-substituted benzotriazole **67** is described by the chlorination of the corresponding methyl 1-azoledithiocarboxylates **68** followed by the fluorination of the resulting 1-trichloromethyl derivatives **69** using anhydrous HF [70].

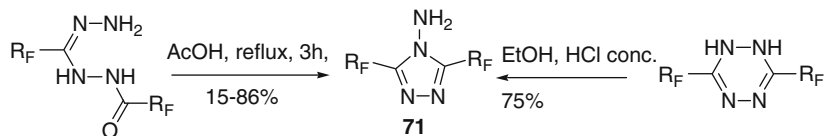


3.2 1,2,4-Triazoles

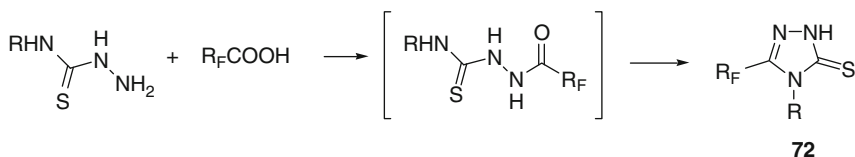
Perfluoroalkyl-1,2,4-triazoles are often formed by rearrangement of other heterocycles or by cyclization of carboxylic acid hydrazides or their analogues. In 1962 Brown and Cheng described for the first time the synthesis of 3,5-bis(perfluoroalkyl)-1,2,4-triazoles **70** by treatment of bis(perfluoroalkyl)-1,3,4-oxadiazoles with methylamine [71]. The method for the synthesis of NH-unsubstituted 3,4-bis(perfluoropropyl)-1,2,4-triazole by the action of P₂O₅ on the corresponding hydrazine was also reported in this paper. Thirty years later Threadgill et al. [72] prepared 3,5-bis(trifluoromethyl)-4-(3-benzyloxypropyl)-4H-1,2,4-triazole by the reaction of 2,5-bis(trifluoromethyl)-1,3,4-oxadiazole with 3-benzyloxypropylamine in methanol (reflux, 9 days).



Brown et al. also suggested a version of the synthesis of 3,5-bis(perfluoroalkyl)-4H-1,2,4-triazoles **71** from perfluoroalkylhydrazides and from bis-(perfluoroalkyl)-1,2-dihydro-1,2,4,5-tetrazines [73].

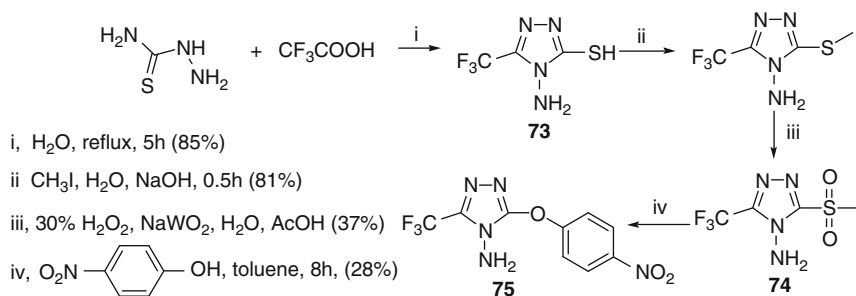


Charushin et al. demonstrated that 4-substituted thiosemicarbazides react with di- and trifluoroacetic acids to give the corresponding 3-fluoroalkyl-4,5-dihydro-1,2,4-triazole-5(1H)-thiones **72** [74].

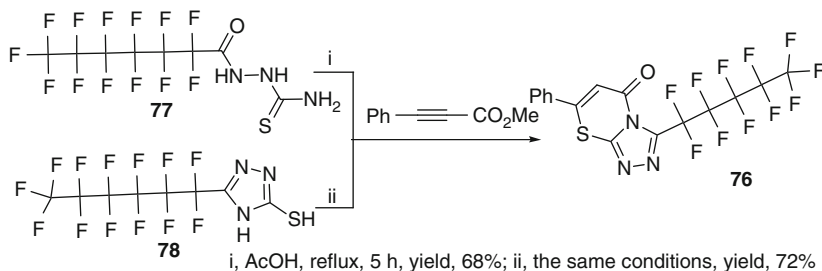


R _F	R	Yield, %	R _F	R	Yield, %
CHF ₂	1-pyrrolidino	36	CF ₃	4-CH ₃ C ₆ H ₄	55
CHF ₂	Ph	45	CF ₃	4-FC ₆ H ₄	88
CF ₃	piperidino	50	CF ₃	Ph	70
CHF ₂	3,4-(MeO) ₂ C ₆ H ₃	35			

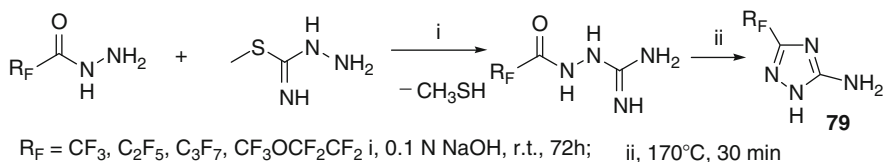
It should be noted that in 1998 El-Sayed and Khodairy recognized that thiones **72** are versatile substrates for the synthesis of fused and spiroheterocyclic systems [75]. Recently Chen et al. synthesized 4-amino-5-(trifluoromethyl)-4H-1,2,4-triazole-3-thiol **73** from thiocarbohydrazide [76]. The latter compound in its turn served as a reagent for the preparation of new functional triazole derivatives **74** and **75** [76].



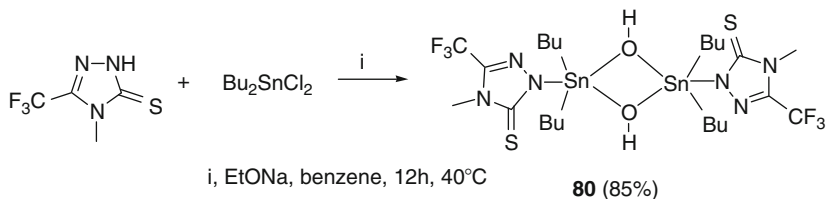
Ivin et al. obtained 3-(perfluorohexyl)-7-phenyl-5H-[1,2,4]triazolo[3,4-b][1,3]thiazin-5-one **76** as a result of a reaction of methyl phenylpropynoate with a linear 1-(perfluoroheptanoyl)thiosemicarbazide **77** or a cyclic 5-(perfluoroheptanoyl)triazole-3-thiol **78**. In both cases the reaction conditions were practically identical, and the yields of compounds containing the trifluorohexyl group in the position 3 of the 1,2,4-triazole ring were comparable [77].



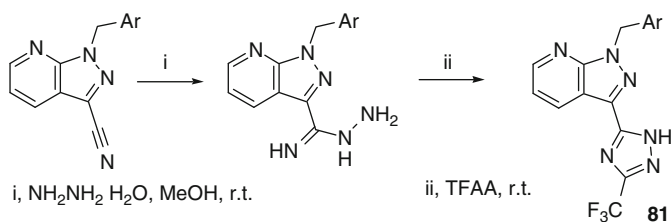
Lopyrev et al. developed an original method for the synthesis of 3-perfluoroalkyl-5-amino-1,2,4-triazoles **79** in nearly quantitative yields based on the cyclization of perfluoroacylaminothiohydrazides that in their turn were obtained in good yields (60–81 %) from hydrazides of perfluorocarboxylic acids and S-methylisothioureia [78].



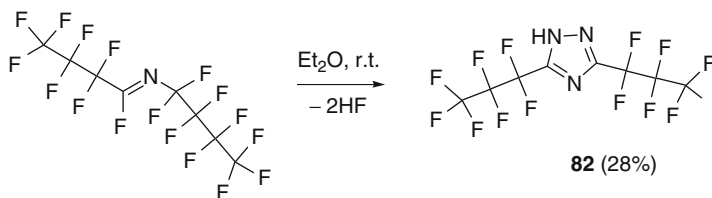
New organotin(IV) compounds with 4-methyl-5-trifluoromethyl-4H-1,2,4-triazoline-3(2H)-thione fragments **80** have been synthesized and characterized [79]. The central tin atoms of complexes is five-coordinated with distorted trigonal bipyramidal geometry.



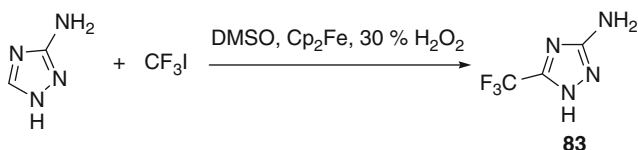
The synthesis of potentially biologically active substances whose structure contained a fragment of 5-trifluoromethyl-1,2,4-triazole linked to pyrazolo- or imidazolopyridine core **81** were presented in the article of Roberts et al. [80]. One of the typical schemes of the synthesis of such compounds includes a hydrazinolysis of the cyano group. Subsequent acylation with trifluoroacetic anhydride (TFAA) followed by the closure of the triazole ring afforded **81** (yields unknown).



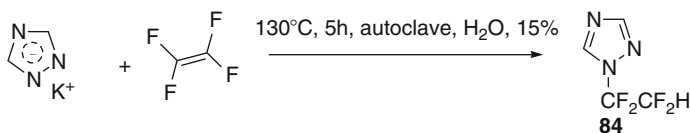
Siedle et al. established that the hydrazinolysis of corresponding fluoroimine occurred via particular mechanism “nucleophilic addition – HF elimination” leading to the formation of 3,5-bis(heptafluoropropyl)-1,2,4-triazole **82** [81].



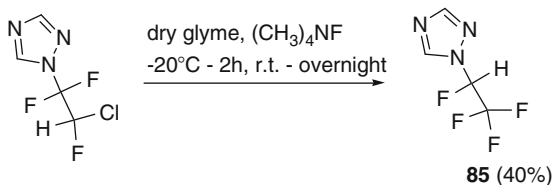
An original procedure of a “direct” incorporation of a trifluoromethyl group into molecules of heteroaromatic substrates was developed by Jamakawa et al. Using this procedure 3-amino-1,2,4-triazole was trifluoromethylated by trifluoromethyl iodide in DMSO in presence of hydrogen peroxide-ferrocene system [82] to obtain 3-amino-5-trifluoromethyl-1,2,4-triazole **83**.



Yagupolskii et al. developed various versions of the alkylation of 1,2,4-triazolate anion with fluoroethylene [83] to form 1-(1,1,2,2-tetrafluoroethyl)-1,2,4-triazole **84** in a low yield.

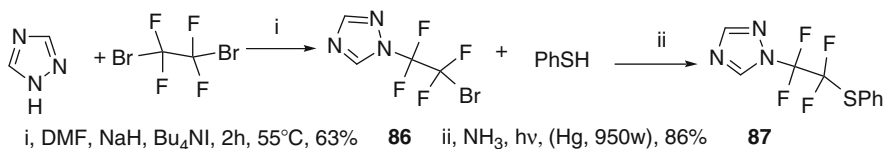


The same authors developed an original method of the synthesis of 1-(1,2,2,2-tetrafluoroethyl)-1,2,4-triazole **85** by treatment of N-(2-chloro-1,1,2-trifluoro)-1,2,4-triazole with tetramethylammonium fluoride [83]. The assumed reaction mechanism consist of several steps. In the first stage elimination of HF and the formation of 2-chloro-1,2-difluoroethylene derivative takes place. Further chlorine atom is replaced by fluorine with the formation of 1,2,2-trifluoroethylene-1,2,4-triazole. Finally addition of HF gave the final product **85**.

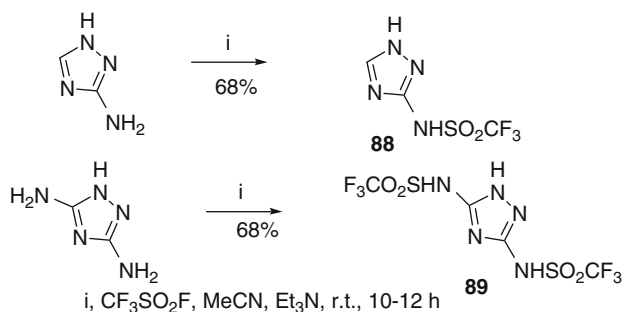


In extension of this study the sodium salt of 1,2,4-triazole was alkylated with 1,2-dibromotetrafluoroethane (Freon 114B2) to obtain N-(2-bromotetrafluoroethyl)-1,2,4-triazole **86**. This compound was then subjected to photoinduced (UV-irradiation)

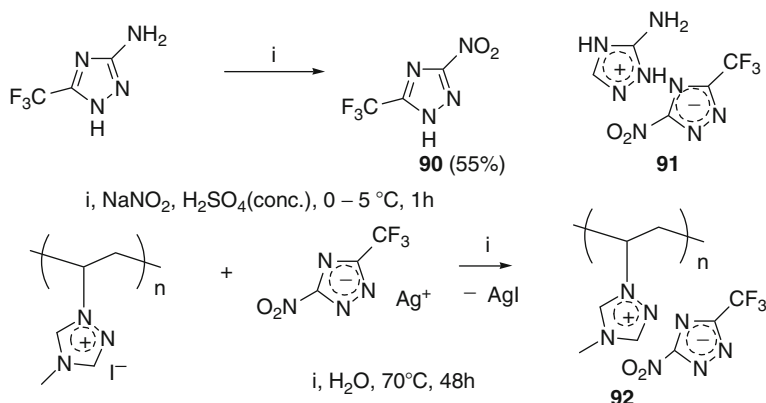
reaction with thiophenol in liquid ammonia. Selective nucleophilic substitution of bromine with thiophenol residue was achieved under these conditions. As a result N-(2-phenylthiotetrafluoroethyl)-1,2,4-triazole **87** was obtained in a high yield [84, 85].



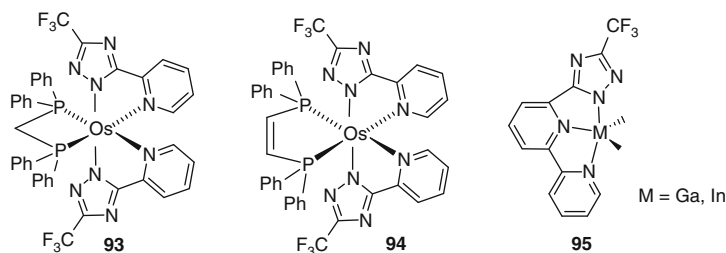
Lately Garg and Shreeve suggested a simple synthesis of trifluoromethanesulfonamide derivatives of 3-amino- and 3,5-diamino-1,2,4-triazoles **88**, **89** from the corresponding aminoazoles and trifluoromethanesulfonyl fluoride [86].



New energetic materials were prepared from by perfluoroalkyl-1,2,4-triazoles. For instance, Shreeve et al. obtained 3-nitro-5-trifluoromethyl-1,2,4-triazole **90** by the diazotization of 3-amino-5-trifluoromethyl-1,2,4-triazole in the concentrated sulfuric acid [87]. In its turn 3-amino-1,2,4-triazole and 3-nitro-5-trifluoromethyl-1,2,4-triazole were used in the preparation of energetic 3-amino-1,2,4-triazolium 3-nitro-5-trifluoromethyl-1,2,4-triazolate **91**. Energetic polymeric material **92** was synthesized containing in the monomer unit ions of 3-nitro-5-trifluoromethyl-1,2,4-triazolate. The yield of polymer is unknown [88].



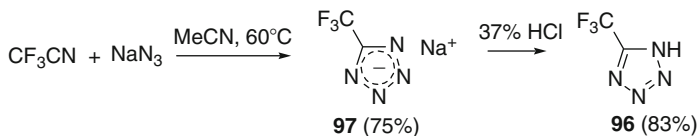
The perfluoro-1,2,4-triazoles are known to be effective ligands. For instance, a number of charge neutral Os(II) pyridyl-1,2,4-triazolate complexes with either bis(diphenylphosphino)methane **93** or *cis*-1,2-bis(diphenylphosphino)ethene **94** chelates were synthesized, and their structural, electrochemical, photophysical properties and thermodynamic relationships were established [89, 90]. Chi, Carty et al. synthesized 6-(3-trifluoromethyl-1,2,4-triazolyl)-2,2'-bipyridine and built up on this basis tridentate 6-azolyl-2,2'-bipyridine chelate complex compounds of Ga and In **95** [91].



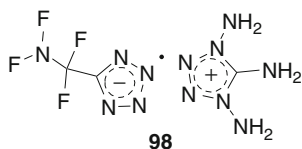
Among trifluoromethyl-derivatives of 1,2,4-triazole, an efficient inhibitors of dipeptidyl peptidase IV (sitagliptin and its derivatives) have been found (see Sect. 6.1).

3.3 Tetrazoles

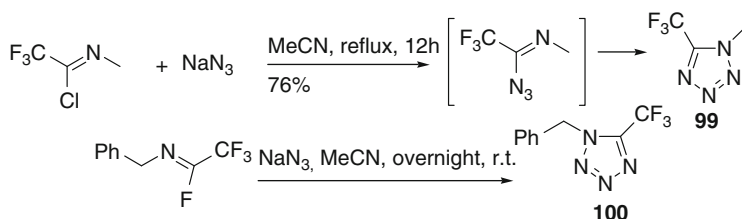
5-Trifluoromethyltetrazole **96** – the simplest of tetrazoles containing a perfluoroalkyl substituent – was prepared for the first time by Norris in 1962 by the cycloaddition of the azide-anion to the trifluoroacetonitrile [92]. This reaction occurred with a considerable heat evolution. The conversion of corresponding anion **97** into the neutral form required the use of concentrated mineral acids due to the relatively high NH-acidity of tetrazole **96** (pK_{BH^+} 1.1) [28, 93]. It was shown later that the 5-trifluoromethyltetrazole **96** could be obtained reacting CF_3CN with coordinated azides similarly to the synthesis of 4,5-bistrifluoromethyl-1,2,3-triazole **40** [44].



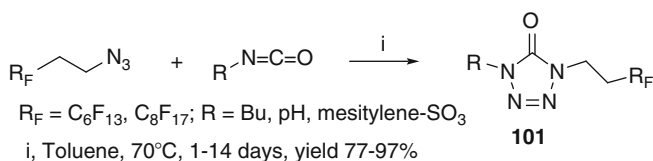
To explore the properties of some energetic salts **98**, in a series of publications Shreeve et al. described the procedure of the synthesis of NH-5-difluoroaminodifluoromethyltetrazole by same manner for which $\text{F}_2\text{NCF}_2\text{CN}$ was used as a precursor [94].



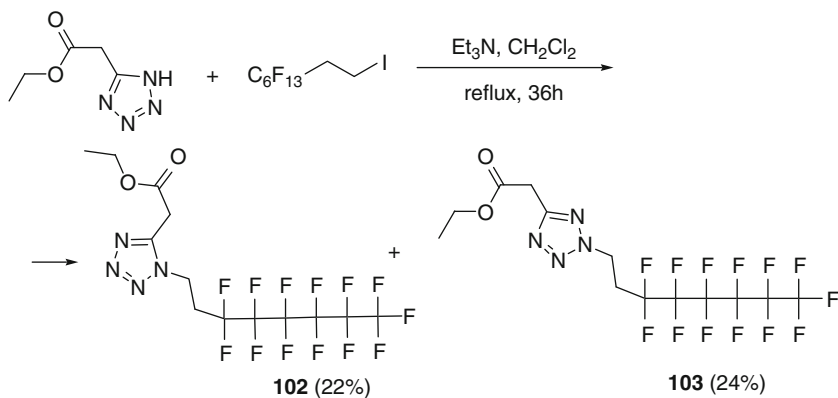
The 1-substituted 5-trifluoromethyltetrazoles may be also obtained by the azidation of imidoyl halides. For instance, the nucleophilic substitution of the chlorine for the azide group in the N-methylimidoyl chloride provided the corresponding imidoyl azide (azidoazomethine), which suffered a cyclization into 1-methyl-5-trifluoromethyltetrazole **99** [95]. Carpenter et al. synthesized 1-benzyl-5-trifluoromethyltetrazole **100** by replacing the fluorine atom in N-benzyltrifluoroacetimidoyl fluoride by an azide group followed by electrocyclic cyclization of the intermediate imidoyl azide (azidoazomethine). The yield of purified product **100** is unknown [39].



1,3-Dipolar cycloaddition of perfluoroalkylethyl azides to isocyanates afforded 1-perfluoroalkyl-4-(*n*-Bu, phenyl or mesitylsulfonyl) tetrazol-5-ones **101** in good yields [96].

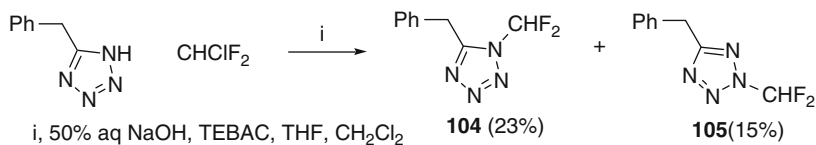


The synthesis of surfactants in the series of fluoroalkyltetrazoles **102**, **103** and the study of their effect on the surface tension of *m*-xylene was described by Read et al. [50, 97].

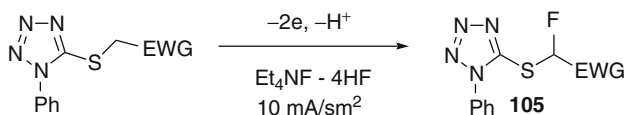


The synthesis of N-fluoroalkyltetrazoles may be carried out also by the alkylation of the corresponding NH-unsubstituted tetrazoles. Jończyk et al. showed that 5-benzyl-1H-tetrazole reacted with chlorodifluoromethane in the presence of

concentrated aqueous sodium hydroxide and a catalyst, benzyltriethylammonium chloride (TEBAC), in THF with the formation of regioisomeric N-difluoromethyl substituted derivatives **104**, **105** [98].

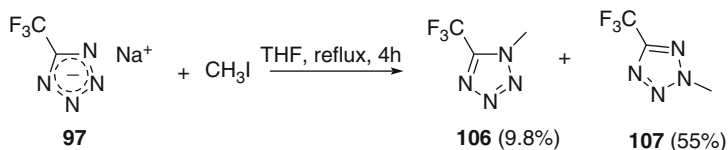


An interesting approach to the synthesis of tetrazoles with fluorine atoms in the side chain was suggested by Fuchigami et al. who performed an anodic monofluorination of 1-substituted 5-tetrazolyl sulfides containing an α -electron-withdrawing group (EWG) leading to the formation of the corresponding C-F derivatives **105** [99].

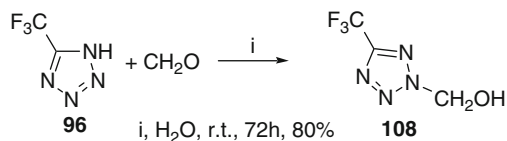


EWG, Solvent, Yield, %: Ph, DME, 38; CO₂Et, MeCN, 46; CN, MeCN, 20

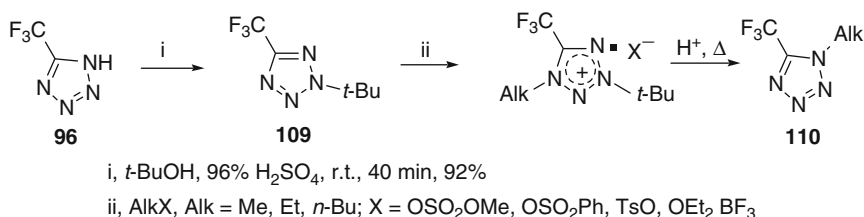
Norris in his pioneering article described also some chemical transformations of 5-trifluoromethyltetrazole **96** [92]. For instance, the alkylation of anion **97** with methyl iodide resulted in regioisomeric N-methyl-5-trifluoromethyltetrazoles **106**, **107** with 2-methyl isomer **107** prevailing. Also a direct halogenation was performed of the 5-trifluoromethyltetrazole sodium salt with the molecular chlorine furnishing the N-chloroderivative of 5-trifluoromethyltetrazole that was found an explosive extremely dangerous at handling [92].



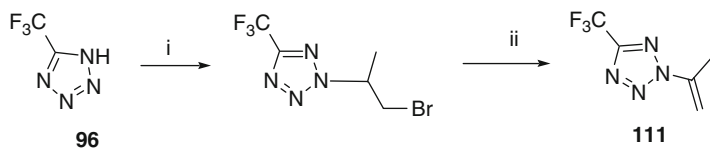
The high regioselectivity of tetrazolate **97** alkylation in the environment of aqueous acetone giving predominantly the 2H-isomer was later noted also by Spear et al. [100]. 5-Trifluoromethyltetrazole **96** slowly reacts with formaldehyde in water solution at pH 5 giving 2-hydroxymethyl-5-trifluoromethyltetrazole **108** [101]. Later the role of the electronic effects of the substituents at the endocyclic carbon of the tetrazole, and also the influence of the solvation effects on the alkylation regioselectivity of tetrazoles was treated in detail in quite a number of theoretic and experimental publications [28, 102].



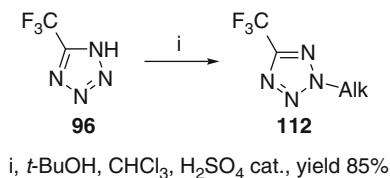
Uncompromising regioselectivity of exhaustive alkylation of 2-substituted 5-trifluoromethyltetrazoles was exploited in a recently developed elegant procedure for the synthesis of 1-alkyltetrazoles starting from *N*-unsubstituted ones. This three-step reaction sequence utilizing an N²-regioselective *t*-butylation (the product is compound **109**) in the first step, was reported to provide isomerically pure products **110** in high to nearly quantitative yields [103, 104].



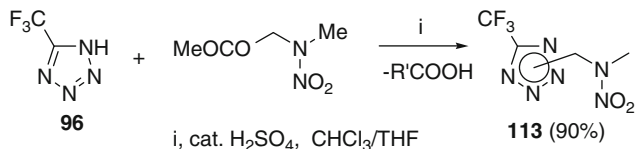
2-(1-Methylvinyl)-5-trifluoromethyltetrazole **111** was obtained by the regioselective alkylation of 5-trifluoromethyltetrazole with 3-bromopropene in sulfuric acid followed by dehydrohalogenation of the intermediate products [105].



Generally, alcohols, readily generating carbenium cations in the presence of acidic catalysts, were found to react with *NH*-unsubstituted 5-trifluoromethyltetrazole **96** yielding N²-alkylated products **112** [28, 103]. The reaction can be carried out in neutral organic solvents (chloroform, dichloromethane, acetonitrile, nitromethane) in the presence of catalytic amounts of sulfuric or *p*-toluenesulfonic acids as well as Lewis acids like boron trifluoride etherate or zinc triflate.



Alkylation of 5-trifluoromethyltetrazole **96** with esters of 2-nitro-2-azapropanol in the presence of catalytic amounts of sulfuric acid was described [106]. Here the regioselectivity of the process was not assessed and a mixture of 1- and 2-alkyltetrazoles **113** (the ratio is unknown) was obtained.

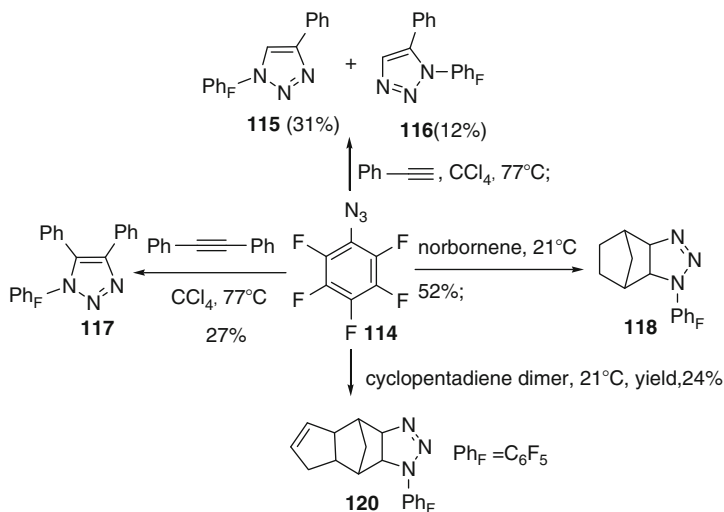


Gaponik et al. found that the NH-unsubstituted 5-trifluoromethyltetrazole in the systems containing transition metal salts formed water-soluble polymeric complexes [107].

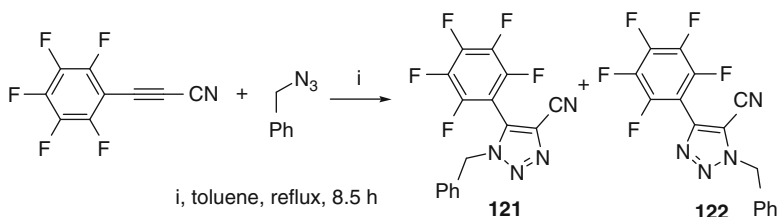
4 Perfluoroaryl and Fluorobenzo-Fused Heterocycles

4.1 1,2,3-Triazoles

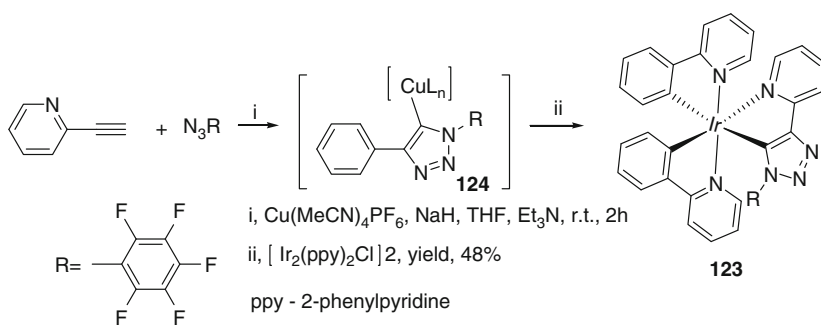
Banks and Prakash were first to demonstrate the wide opportunities of the 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition of 1-azido-2,3,4,5,6-pentafluorobenzene **114** to acetylenes as the general method of the synthesis of 1,2,3-triazoles **115–120** containing a perfluorophenyl group at the endocyclic nitrogen atom [108].



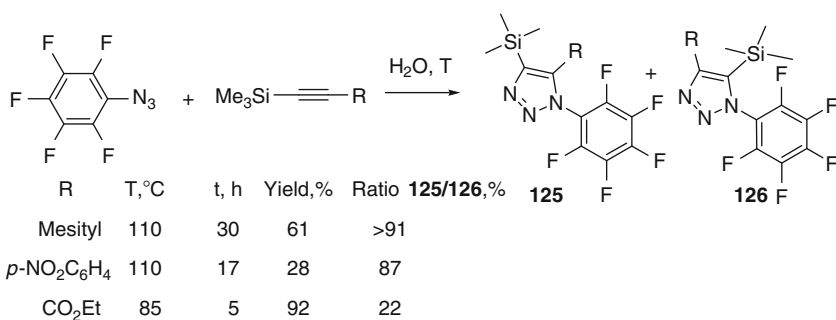
1,3-Dipolar cycloaddition of benzyl azide to 3-(2,3,4,5,6-pentafluorophenyl) propynenitrile resulted in the formation of isomeric 1,2,3-triazoles **121**, **122** in 17 and 61 % yield respectively [109].



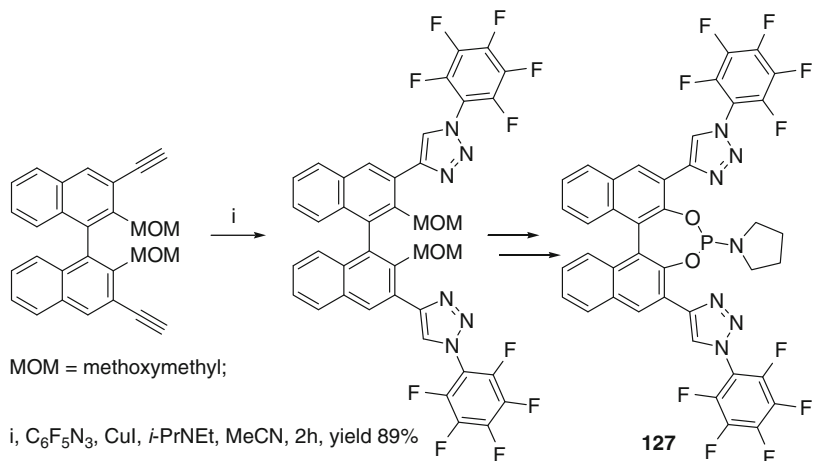
Swager et al. synthesized various Ir(III) complexes **123**, among them complexes containing a perfluoroaryl substituent [110]. The method of building up these structures is underlain by the “click-reaction” leading to the formation of the corresponding Cu(I)-triazolide intermediate **124**.



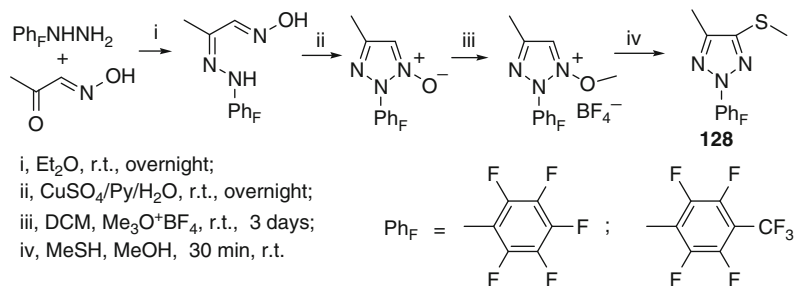
Schubert et al. subjected to a systematic examination reactions of 1,3-[3+2]-cycloaddition of substituted aromatic azides to trimethylsilylacetylenes in water affording regioisomeric 1,2,3-triazoles, in particular, those containing a perfluoroaryl substituent at endocyclic atoms of the heterocycle **125**, **126** [111].



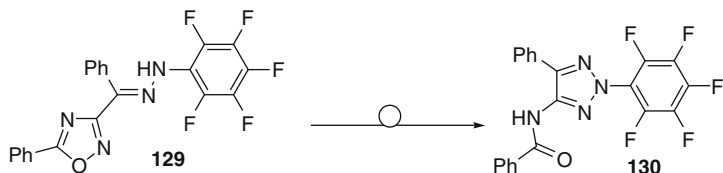
Recently, a number of chiral phosphoramidite ligands **127** containing 1,2,3-triazole ring at the 3,3'-positions of the binol scaffold were synthesized by McErlean et al. [112].



O'Mahony et al. [113] advanced an alternative version of cyclization resulting in perfluoroaryl-1,2,3-triazoles. These authors demonstrated that 2-(2,3,4,5,6-pentafluorophenyl)-4-methyl-5-methylthio-1,2,3-triazole **128** obtained by this procedure (yield is unknown) possessed considerable pesticide activity.

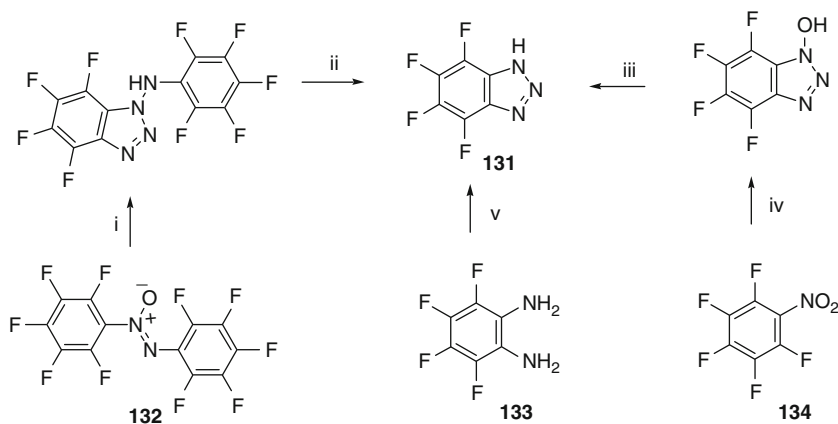


The paper of Frenna, Spinelli et al. contained data on the kinetics of the rearrangement of 3-benzoyl-5-phenyl-1,2,4-oxadiazole **129** into the corresponding 2-aryltriazoles **130** (Boulton–Katritzky reaction) [114].



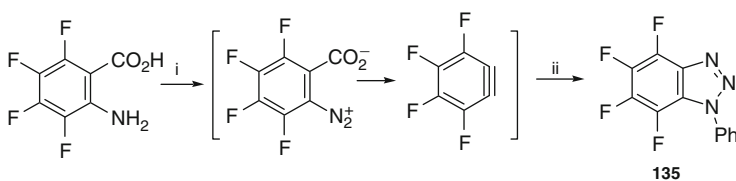
Haszeldine in 1970 developed several routes for the synthesis of perfluorobenzofused 1,2,3-triazole **131** from decafluoroazoxybenzene **132**, tetrafluoro-*o*-phenylenediamine **133**, and 2,3,4,5,6-pentafluoronitrobenzene **134** [115]. More than a quarter of a century later Heaton et al. suggested a similar version of the synthesis

of tetrafluorobenzotriazole **131** from 1,2,3,4-tetrafluoro-5,6-dinitrobenzene and 3,4,5,6-tetrafluoro-1,2-phenylenediamine that were regarded as versatile semiproducts in the synthesis of various tetrafluorobenzoheterocycles [116].



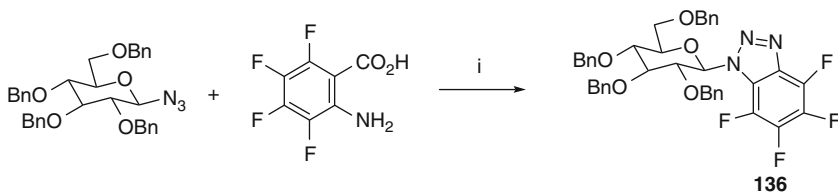
i, $\text{NH}_2\text{NH}_2 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$, EtOH, yield, 28%; ii, HI, yield, 22%; iii, HI, almost 100%;
 iv, $\text{NH}_2\text{NH}_2 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$, EtOH, yield, 14%; v, HNO_2 , yield, 84%

The synthesis of 1-phenyl-4,5,6,7-tetrafluorobenzotriazole **135** from tetrafluoroanthranilic acid through tetrafluorodehydrobenzene as intermediate is described by Yakobson et al. in 1967 [117].



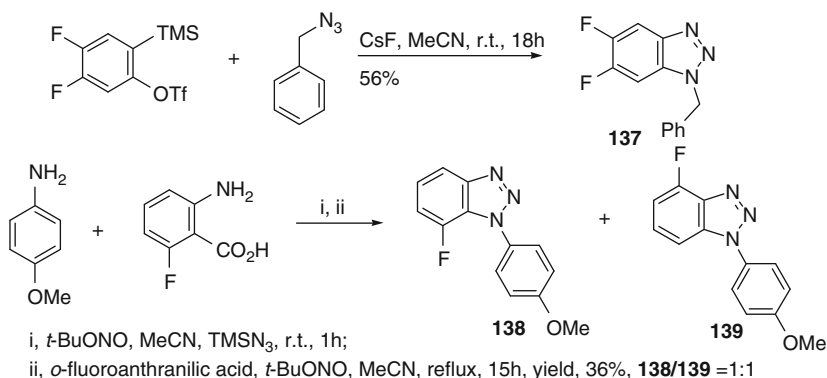
i, BuONO, CH_2Cl_2 , 2h, reflux ii, $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{N}_3$, acetone, yield 35%

Williams et al. reports that 1-(2,3,4,5-tetra-O-benzyl- β -D-glucosyl)-3,4,5,6-tetrafluoro-1-H-benzo[d][1,2,3]-triazole **136** can be prepared from available anomeric azide and 2-amino-3,4,5,6-tetrafluorobenzoic acid through “click” methodology [118].

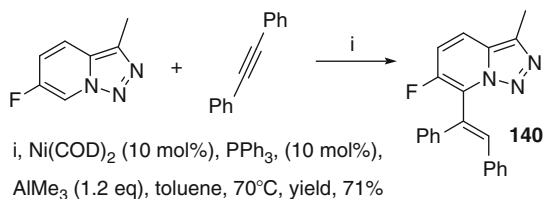


i, 1 equiv. azide, 3 equiv. of anthranilic acid, dioxane, 5 equiv. isoamil nitrite (CH_2Cl_2), 30 min, reflux under N_2 , yield 42%

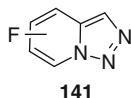
Recently “click-chemistry” approach to the preparation of fluorobenzo-fused 1,2,3-triazole **137** was demonstrated in the paper of Larock et al. [119]. Zhang and Moses developed a special version of one-pot “click-chemistry” for the preparation of monofluoro derivatives of benzotriazole **138**, **139** from *p*-methoxyaniline and *o*-fluoroanthranilic acid with two *in situ* generated intermediates: *p*-methoxyphenyl azide and fluorobenzene [120].



Driver et al. explored the Ni-catalyzed C7-alkenylation of 6-fluorotriazolopyridine with diphenylacetylene applying bis-(1,5-cyclooctadiene)nickel(0) (Ni(COD)₂) leading to the formation of fluorobenzotriazole **140** [121]. It was underlined in the article that the crucial importance for the high conversion of the reagents and the sufficient yields of the alkenylation products had the selection of the Lewis acid which was AlMe₃ in this study.

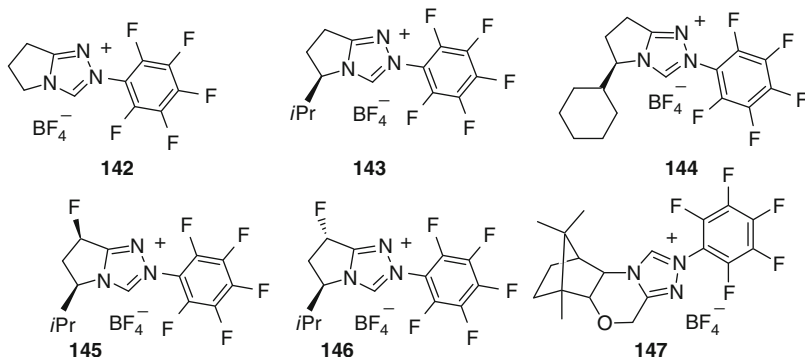


Some isomers of fluorobenzotriazoles are capable of ring-chain rearrangements with the opening of the triazole ring. Elguero, Alkorta et al. performed a quantum-chemical investigation of the ring-chain isomerization of fluoro derivatives of 1,2,3-triazolopyridines **141** [122].

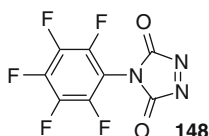


4.2 1,2,4-Triazoles

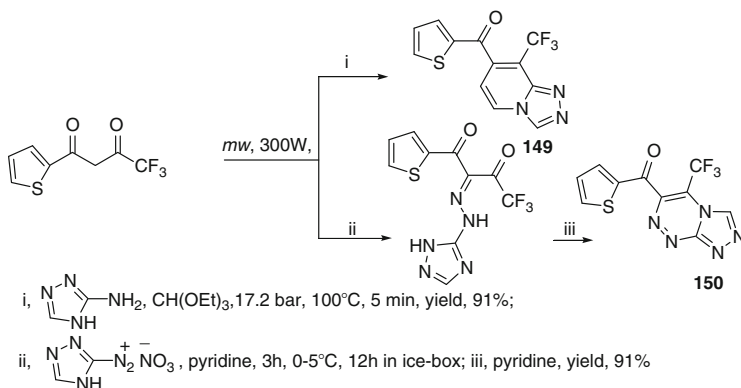
Efficient enantioselective catalysts of various organic reactions were found among pentafluoroaryl-1,2,4-triazoles. Tetrafluoroborates of 2-(2,3,4,5,6-pentafluorophenyl)-1,2,4-triazolium **142–147** are practically useful compounds. The synthesis and application examples of these catalysts are presented in the series of publications [123–129].



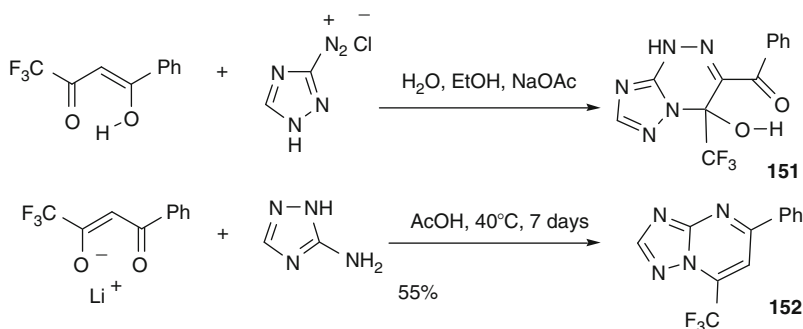
As it was shown by Golding et al., 4-(2,3,4,5,6-pentafluorophenyl)-1,2,4-triazoline-3,5-dione **148** belonging to perfluoroaryl-1,2,4-triazoles is an efficient reagent for trapping volatile organic compounds (VOCs) included in the list of the most important environmental pollutants [130].



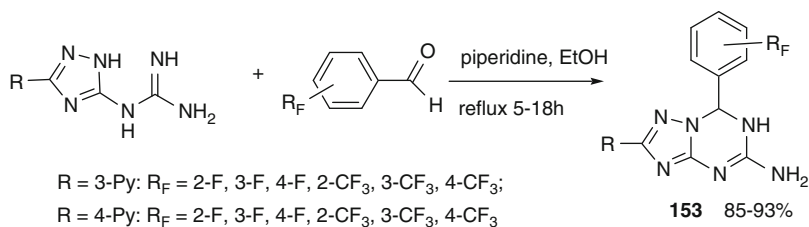
Shaaban showed the possibility to obtain under the microwave irradiation fused systems, 1,2,4-triazolo[1,5-a]pyrimidine **149** and 1,2,4-triazolo[3,4-c][1,2,4]triazine **150**, containing a trifluoromethyl group as a substituent in the six-membered ring [131].



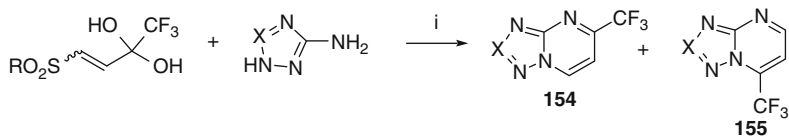
Saloutin, Chupakhin et al. applied a related condensation involving 1,2,4-triazolyldiazonium resulting in the formation of 6-benzoyl-7-hydroxy-7-trifluoromethyl-4,7-dihydro[1,2,4]triazolo[5,1-c][1,2,4]triazine **151** (59 %) [132]. Rusinov et al. reported on another successful example of this reaction involving lithium β -diketonates and 3-amino-1,2,4-triazole and affording 7-fluoromethyl-1,2,4-triazolo[1,5-a]pyrimidine **152** [133].



Dolzhenko et al. synthesized 12 new fluorinated 7-aryl-2-pyridyl-6,7-dihydro[1,2,4]triazolo[1,5-a][1,3,5]triazin-5-amines **153** via three-step procedure starting from (iso)nicotinic hydrazides [134].



Nenajdenko et al. obtained regioisomeric 5- CF_3 or 7- CF_3 triazolopyrimidines **154**, **155** by the reaction of 1,1,1-trifluoro-4-sulfonyl-but-3-ene-2,2-diol with 3-amino-1,2,4-triazole [135].

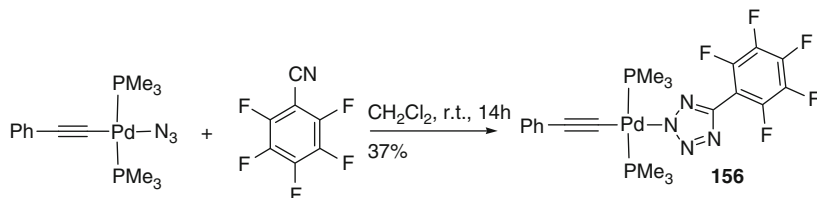


R = Ph, Me; i, reflux: H_2O , or AcOH, or MeCN, yield, 70-90%

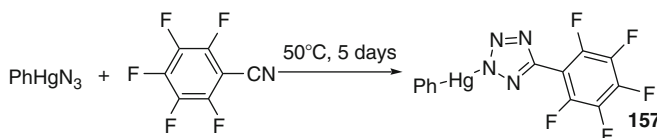
X = HC, MeC, CF_3C , (1-Ad)C, t-BuC , PhC, 4-MeOC $_6$ H $_4$ C, 4-ClC $_6$ H $_4$ C, 2-BrC $_6$ H $_4$ C, MeO $_2$ CC

4.3 Tetrazoles

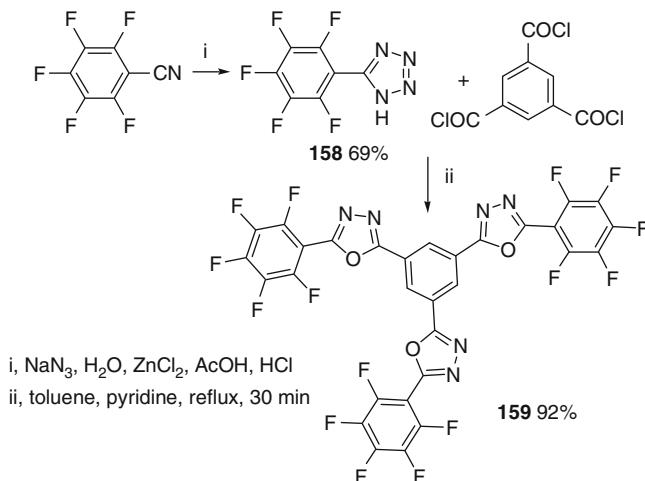
Kim et al. showed that 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition of alkynyl Pd(II) azido complexes to perfluorobenzonitrile proceeded at room temperature affording the corresponding N-coordinated tetrazolato compound (*trans*-[Pd(C≡CPh)(N₄C-C₆F₅)(PMe₃)₂]) **156** [136].



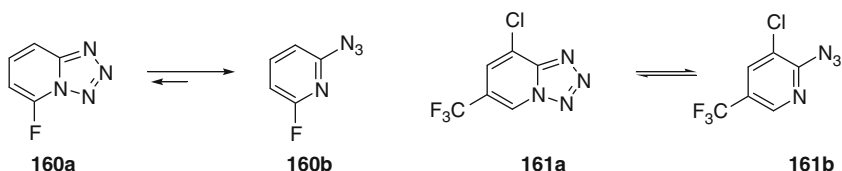
Klapötke et al. obtained recently by the intermolecular 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition of organomercury(II) azide to pentafluorocyanobenzene the corresponding (5-pentafluorophenyl-2H-tetrazol-2-yl)phenylmercury **157** (yield is unknown) [137].



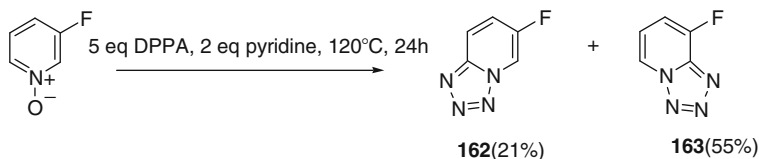
The synthetic methods and photoluminescent properties of new dendrimers with an electron-deficient fluorinated starburst oxadiazole core were discussed in the publication of Chen, Fan et al. [138]. Here in the first, key stage the 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition occurred of 2,3,4,5,6-pentafluorobenzonitrile to NaN₃ along the known procedure (Demko-Sharpless) giving 5-(perfluorophenyl)-1H-tetrazole **158**. In the next stage 5-(perfluorophenyl)-1H-tetrazole was acylated by benzene-1,3,5-tricarbonyl trichloride to obtain 1,3,5-(5-perfluorophenyl-1,3,4-oxadiazol-2-yl)benzene **159**.



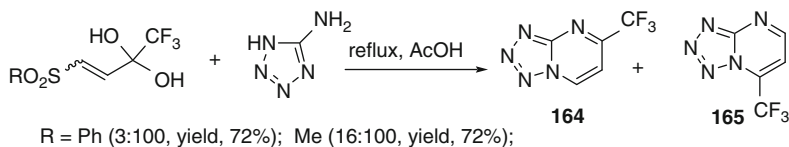
The fused tetrazoles are prone to ring-chain isomerism. Cmoch and Korczak investigated the azido-tetrazole equilibrium between two fluorine-containing tetrazoles: 6-fluorotetrazolopyridine **160** and 6-trifluoromethyl-8-chlorotetrazolopyridine **161** [139]. It turned out that the equilibrium in the case of compound **160** is completely shifted to the side of azide **160b**, whereas for compound **161** the NMR spectra showed the presence of both tetrazole **161a** and azide **161b** forms.



Keith (2006) developed an original one-stage solvent-free method of preparation of fluorine-containing tetrazolo[1,5-a]pyridines **162**, **163** forming in a plausible yield from the corresponding pyridine N-oxide and activated diphenylphosphorazidate (DPPA) in the presence of pyridine [140]. In this case the azido-tetrazole equilibrium is virtually totally shifted to the ring form.



In the above cited paper [135] it was also reported that the reaction of 1,1,1-trifluoro-4-sulfonylbut-3-ene-2,2-diol with 5-aminotetrazole furnished regioisomeric 5-CF₃ or 7-CF₃ tetrazolopyrimidines **164**, **165**. It was also shown that the ratio of the regioisomers (at equal overall yield of the products) was governed by the nature of the substituent R in the 1,1,1-trifluoro-4-sulfonylbut-3-ene-2,2-diol.

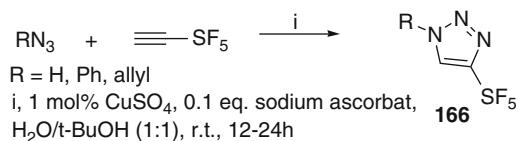


5 Other Types of Perfluorinated Substituents

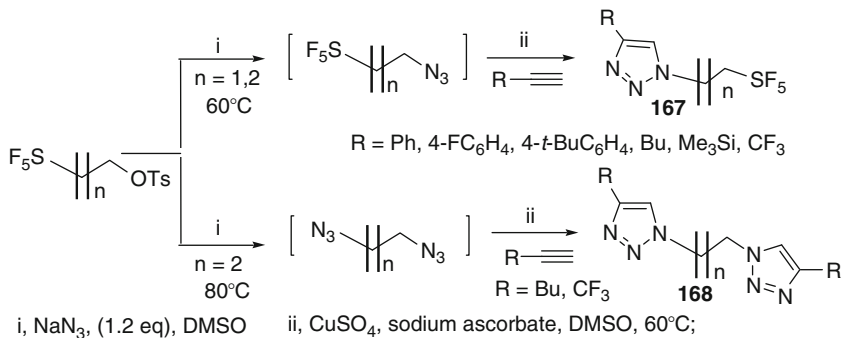
5.1 SF₅ Derivatives

Pentafluorosulfonyl (SF₅) group is interesting as a stable moiety bearing simultaneously five fluorine atoms. In recent reviews [141, 142] it was stressed that this group is now widely applied in the organic synthesis and in industry. 1,2,3-Triazoles

containing the SF₅ group attached to the endocyclic carbon atoms became recently more accessible. A number of publications describes the acceleration of the 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition with the use of the catalytic system based on Cu(I) generated *in situ* from CuSO₄ and sodium ascorbate. This procedure made it possible to obtain in relatively mild conditions a series of 1-R-4-pentafluorosulfanyl-1,2,3-triazoles **166** in “good yield” [62, 143].



It should be noted that the recent advances in the chemistry of trifluoromethyl- and pentafluorosulfanyl derivatives of tri- and tetrazole favor the applied studies of these unique objects of the chemistry of the fluoro-containing heterocycles. Thus a significant attention is paid to 1,2,3-triazoles and tetrazoles containing a pentafluorosulfanyl group. The introduction of this group into the heterocycle provides a possibility to prepare energetic compounds of high density [142]. Shreeve et al. investigated the 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition of alkyl azides containing a terminal pentafluorosulfanyl group to substituted acetylenes [144].

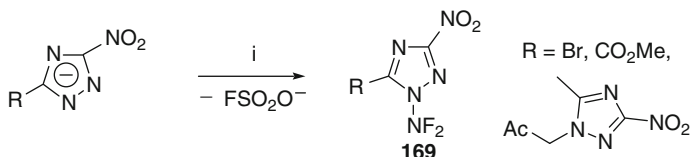


In this case the yield of pentafluorosulfanylalkyl-4-R-1,2,3-triazoles **167** crucially depends on the ratio of the initial reagents and on the reaction temperature. At the excess of the sodium azide and at a high temperature the replacing azidation occurs of both the tosyl and the pentafluorosulfanyl groups giving the corresponding diazide and further bis-1,2,3-triazoles **168** in good yields [144].

5.2 NF₂ Derivatives

Tri- and tetrazoles containing an NF₂ group at the endocyclic nitrogen or carbon atoms belong to an exotic group of highly energetic compounds. The combination in the same molecule of the polynitrogen heterocyclic ring and the electron-acceptor

difluoroamine group enhanced the energy potential of these molecules. The prospect of application of the difluoroamino derivatives of 1,2,4-triazole as components of energetic ionic liquids was estimated by the *ab initio* quantum-chemical calculations [21]. In the evaluation of the application prospects of the N-difluoroazoles their high sensitivity to explosive decomposition caused by various effects (impact, friction, electric discharge, fire beam) should be taken into consideration [94, 145, 146]. In an original article Shevelev et al. [147] reported on the preparation of NF_2 derivatives of 3-nitro-1,2,4-triazole **169** by the action of O-fluorosulfonyl-N,N-difluorohydroxylamine ($\text{F}_2\text{NOSO}_2\text{F}$) on NH-form of the corresponding 1,2,4-triazoles.



i, $\text{F}_2\text{NOSO}_2\text{F}$, PTC: polyester PEG-400, NaHCO_3 aq, yield, 22-50%

6 Applications

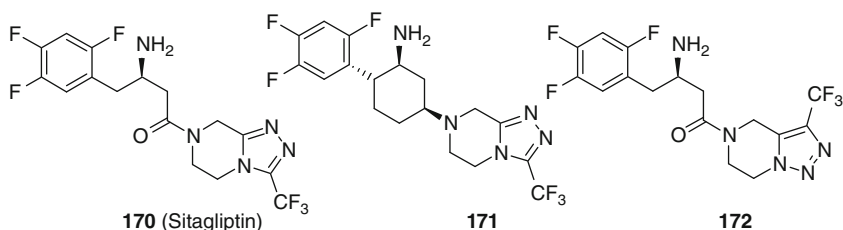
6.1 Medicine and Medicinal Chemistry

The medicinal applications of fluorinated tri- and tetrazoles grow steadily [148]. Some compounds containing in their molecular structure these heterocycles are included in the list of highly efficient modern drugs [149]. Many among fluorinated tri- and tetrazoles are regarded as promising antidiabetic, cardiological, fungicidal, antibacterial, and antiviral pharmaceuticals, drugs for the treatment of the central nervous system, etc. We give below some examples of these compounds exhibiting versatile kinds of biological activity.

6.1.1 Antidiabetics

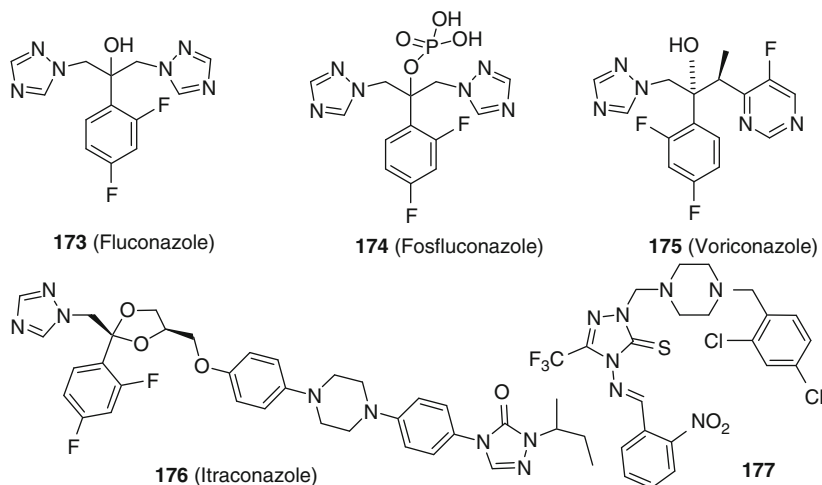
Sitagliptin **170**, the first inhibitor of dipeptidyl peptidase IV (DPP-4) approved by the FDA for the treatment of type 2 diabetes, has a trifluorophenyl group linked to a β -amino butanoyl moiety coupled to a triazolopiperazine [150, 151]. Many publications appeared treating the problem of the synthesis of this compound and its derivatives. For instance, a scheme of asymmetric synthesis of the sitagliptin phosphate from the precursor, α,β -enamine amide, is given in [152]. A wide search for effective antidiabetic agents was performed among the homologues of this compound; therewith the varied structural parameter was the substituent in the phenyl ring [153] and also the substituents in the piperazine fragment [154]. Biftu et al. based on the data of XRD analysis and computer simulation proposed a structure and

synthesized a new analogous compound **171** that also proved to be an efficient inhibitor of DPP-4 ($IC_{50}=21$ nM), showed high activity *in vivo* and possessed a feasible pharmacokinetic profile [155]. Note an interesting study of Chen et al. who synthesized and tested the biological activity of a series of Sitagliptin analogs in whose molecules the fragment of 3-trifluoromethyl-1,2,4-triazolopiperidine was replaced by 4R-1,2,3-triazolopiperidine moiety. The highest biological activity was found in compound **172** [156].



6.1.2 Fungicides

The following fluoroaryl derivatives of 1,2,4-triazole belong to the third generation fungicides: Fluconazole **173**, Fosfluconazole (prodrug) **174**, Voriconazole (UK 109496) **175**, Itraconazole **176** [4]. All these compounds are the inhibitors of the fungal cytochrome P450 enzyme 14α -demethylase. Recently results were published of the investigation of the fungicidal activity of the derivatives of 3-trifluoromethyl-1,2,4-triazole-5-thione: one among these substances, **177**, exhibited a high activity [157]. At present the research is carried out on the preparation of active pharmaceutical ingredients of new fungicides, Fluconazole analogs, containing alongside the 1,2,4-triazole ring fluoropyrimidine, tetrazole, and also the other heterocyclic fragments [158].

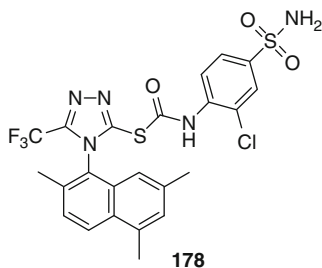


6.1.3 Antibacterials

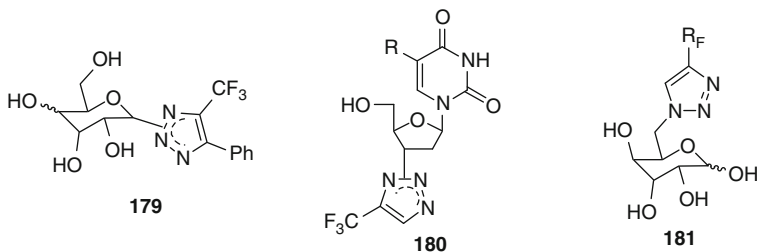
Faidallah et al. showed that the derivatives of 3,5-di(trifluoromethyl)-1,2,4-triazolesulfonyl urea and thiourea exhibited a pronounced antimicrobial action [159]. McGeary et al. established a considerable inhibitory activity of 4-methyl-5-(trifluoromethyl)-4H-1,2,4-triazole-3-thiol and its derivatives with respect to β -lactamases [160].

6.1.4 Antiviral Agents

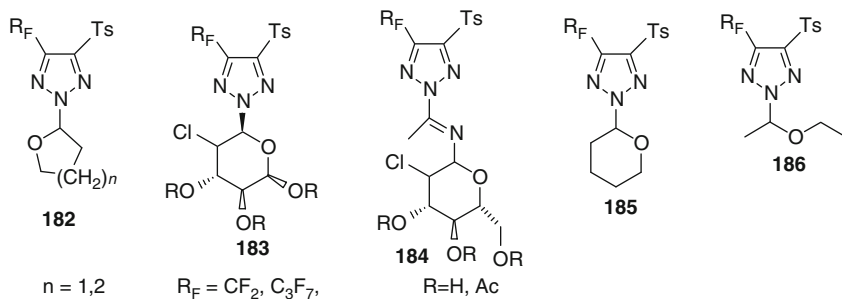
Girardet et al. synthesized and investigated the anti-HIV-1 activity of the derivatives of 3-trifluoromethyl-1,2,4-triazole-5-thiol **178** [161]. The anti-HIV action of compound **178** proved to be comparable with that of the efficient protease inhibitor Efavirenz. The authors of the article noted that the compound exhibited single-digit nanomolar activity against the Y188L mutant, with no cytotoxicity.



Known publications were cited in [162] concerning the structures of 1,2,3-triazole analogs of nucleosides containing a polyfluoroalkyl substituent in the heterocyclic core **179–181**.

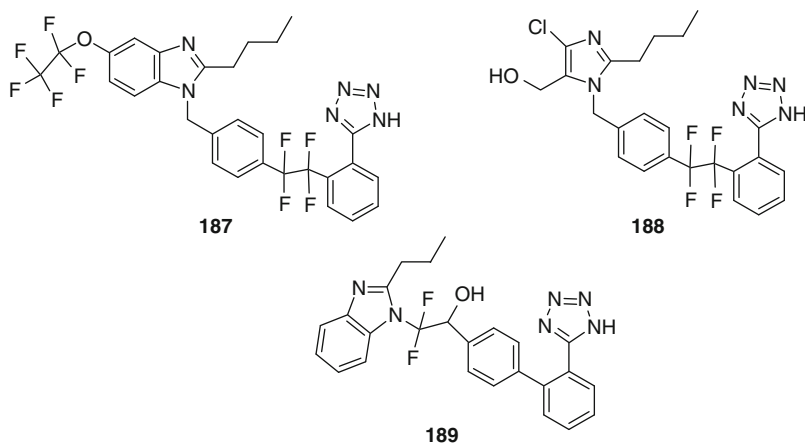


Nucleoside mimetics, N^2 -substituted derivatives of 4-tosyl-5-polyfluoroalkyl-1,2,3-triazoles containing fragments of 3-chlorotetrahydrofuran, 3-chloro-tetrahydropyran, tetrahydropyran, dihydrofuran, dihydropyran, or acyclic substituents, were also studied **182–186** [162]. It was demonstrated that some among the studied compounds exhibit a pronounced anti-Epstein-Barr virus (EBV) activity.



6.1.5 Hypotensive Drugs

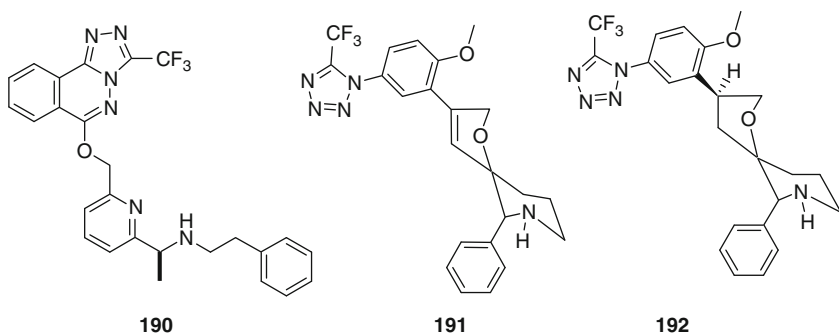
Angiotensin II receptor antagonist like Losartan and its analogs retain strong positions on the pharmaceutical market of the hypotensive drugs [158]. Yagupolskii et al. have synthesized two fluorine-containing Losartan analogs with fluoroalkyl substituents **187–189**, whose pharmacological activity is expected to be high [163].



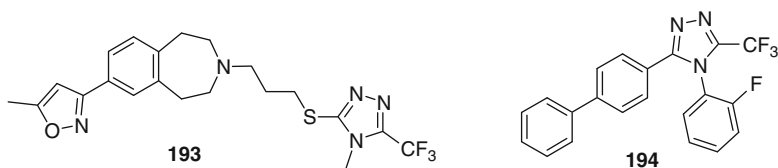
6.1.6 CNS Therapy

Lebsack et al. produced a series of 1,2,3-triazolo[3,4-a]phthalazine derivatives, in particular, containing a trifluoromethyl substituent in the fused 1,2,4-triazole ring **190**, as high-affinity ligands to the $\alpha_2\delta$ -1 subunit of voltage gated calcium channel [164]. These compounds are interesting as anticonvulsant drugs. The work of Williams et al. [165] consisted in the synthesis and the study of the biological activity of new antidepressants, 3-styryl[4.5]-spiroether and [4.5]-spiroether neurokinin-1 (NK1) antagonists **191**, **192**, containing in the molecular structure

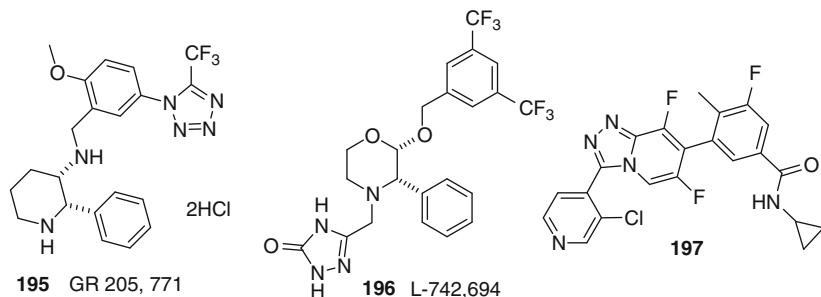
trifluoromethyltetrazol-1-yl fragment. The research concerning the pursuit of promising neurokinin-1 (NK1) antagonists, containing fluorinated tri- and tetrazoles is continued [166].



1,2,4-Triazol-3-yl-thiopropyl-tetrahydrobenzazepine **193** whose structure includes a nonfused 1,2,4-triazole-3-trifluoromethyl-5-thiol fragment separated by an alkyl bridge from the benzazepine framework was found to be a potent and selective dopamine D₃ receptor antagonist [167]. Sugane et al. established the high biological activity *in vitro* of new glycine transporter 1 (GlyT1) inhibitors 3-biphenyl-4-yl-4-(2-fluorophenyl)-5-R-4H-1,2,4-triazole, in particular, of compound **194** [168].

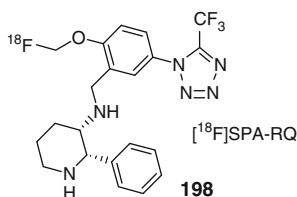


Below two structural formulas of potent, orally active, long-acting morpholine acetal human NK-1 receptor antagonists **195**, **196**, are given. These compounds are tested as efficient drugs for the treatment of the Alzheimer disease [169]. The fluorine-containing biaryl-triazolopyridine **197** is tried as a potent and selective p38 α inhibitor for stress relief [170].



6.1.7 Imaging Agents

One of the modern ways of CNS disorders diagnostics depends on the development of new radiolabeled NK1 receptor antagonists. Some examples of fluorine-18 labeling compounds are known [171, 172], effective radioligands for imaging brain neurokinin type-1 (NK1) receptors in clinical research and drug discovery with positron emission tomography, like [^{18}F]SPA-RQ **198**.



6.2 Light-Emitting Diodes

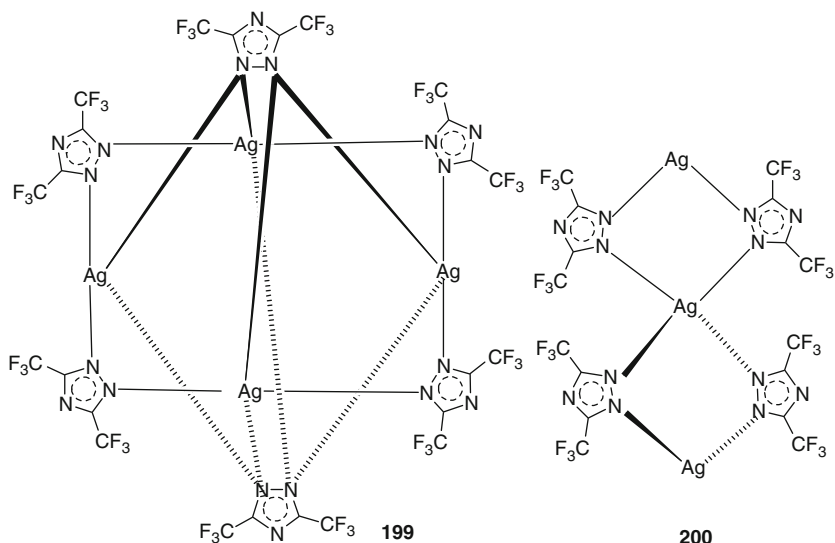
Some complex compounds of fluorinated tri- and tetrazoles possess interesting photo- and electroluminescent properties. We have given above formulas of **93**, **94**, representatives of a new series of charge neutral Os (II) pyridyl 3-trifluoromethyl-1,2,4-triazolate complexes with either bis(diphenylphosphino)methane or cis-1,2-bis(diphenylphosphino)ethene chelates. Their structural, electrochemical, photophysical properties and thermodynamic relationship were established [89, 90]. It was demonstrated that such coordination compounds can be used in the production of highly efficient white [173], blue [174], orange, and red organic light-emitting diodes (LEDs) [175].

The photo- and electroluminescence properties of a series of novel, heteroleptic, *mer*-cyclometallated iridium complexes have been fine-tuned from green to blue by changing the substituents on the 3-trifluoromethyl-1,2,4-triazolylpyridyl ring of the ligand [176, 177]. Chi, Chou, Wu et al. synthesized Ir(III) emissive complexes with 5-pyridyl-3-trifluoromethyl-1,2,4-triazole ligand which might be used in white OLEDs technologies [178].

6.3 Sorbents, Ion Liquids, and Surfactants

Omary et al. have demonstrated that fluorinated metal-organic frameworks (FMOFs) **199**, **200** are highly hydrophobic porous materials with a high capacity and affinity to $\text{C}_6\text{-C}_8$ hydrocarbons of oil components [179]. FMOFs exhibits reversible adsorption with a high capacity for *n*-hexane, cyclohexane, benzene, toluene, and *p*-xylene, with no detectable water adsorption even at near 100 % relative humidity drastically outperforming activated carbon and zeolite porous materials. The results suggest

great promise for FMOFs in applications like removal of organic pollutants from oil spills or ambient humid air, hydrocarbon storage and transportation, water purification, *etc.* under practical working conditions



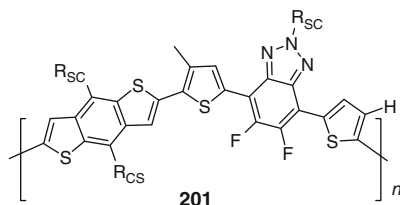
Read et al. synthesized surface-active derivatives of 1,2,3-triazole **49**, **50** containing at the nitrogen atom perfluoroalkyl (lipophilic) substituents, and at the carbon atom perfluoroalkoxy or alkoxy (hydrophilic) groups. It is significant that the surfactant properties of these compounds can be purposefully regulated varying the length of the fluoroalkyl chain [49, 50].

The ionic liquids formed by the 1,2,4-triazolium cation and dinitramide anion as well as charge-diffuse tetrazolium cation with a variety of substituents coupled with various (usually oxygen containing) anions have been studied by *ab initio* quantum chemistry calculations [21, 180].

6.4 Ion and Electron Conductors

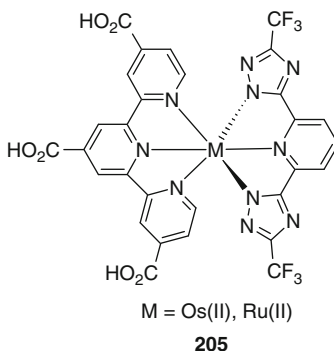
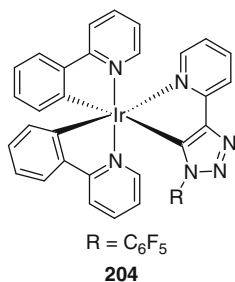
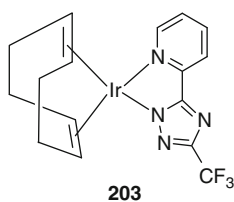
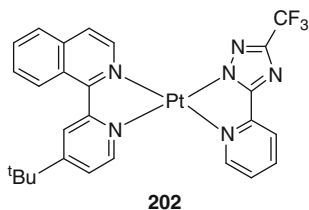
We cited above the study of Boskurt et al. who synthesized 5-(perfluoroheptyl)-3H-1,2,3-triazole-4-carboxylate **65** [69]. They also reported on the effect of the proton conductivity observed in the solutions of organic electrolytes with the additives of this fluoroalkylated 1,2,3-triazole. Recent research advances on conjugated polymers for photovoltaic devices have focused on creating low band gap materials, but a suitable band gap is only one of many performance criteria required for a successful conjugated polymer [181]. This work focuses on the design of two medium band gap copolymers for the use in photovoltaic cells which are designed to possess a high hole mobility, low highest occupied molecular orbital and lowest

unoccupied molecular orbital energy levels. The resulting fluorinated polymer **201** is a viable candidate for the use in highly efficient tandem cells. It also highlights other performance criteria which contribute to high photovoltaic efficiency, besides a low band gap.



6.5 Ligands

Some fluorine-containing tri- and tetrazoles behave as polidentate ligands and form stable complex compounds with various metal ions. The coordination compounds of Os(II), Ir(III), Ga(III), In(III), Ag(I), Sn(IV) with 5-pyridyl-2-yl-3-trifluoromethyl-1,2,4-triazole ligands we have already mentioned.



Let us cite some other characteristic examples. Thus, based on 5-(6-methylpyridin-2-yl)-3-trifluoromethyl-1,2,4-triazole ligand platinum(II) complexes **202** were synthesized with spatially encumbered chelates, and their photophysical properties were also studied [182]. Compound **202** was found to be weakly emissive in both

Table 1 1,2,4-triazolium salts as catalysts of enantioselective reactions

Catalysts	Reaction (synthesis)	References
142	Macrocyclization of α,γ -dialdehydes	[123]
	Nucleophilic carbyne-catalyzed redox azidation of epoxyaldehydes	[124]
144	Synthesis of <i>trans</i> - γ -lactams; the most efficient <i>trans</i> - γ -lactam synthesis has been achieved using cyclohexyl-substituted carbyne precursor	[129]
145	The asymmetric intermolecular Stetter reaction was investigated	[125]
147	Enantioselective N-heterocyclic carbene-catalyzed Michael addition reactions to α,β -unsaturated aldehydes by redox oxidation	[126]
	Asymmetric intramolecular Stetter reaction	[127]

fluid and solid states at room temperature. Exotic coordination compounds are also known prepared from the mentioned bidentate ligands and the isoelectronic system Ir(I) **203** with distorted square-planar geometry [183]. Here the lowest absorption band consists of increased triplet $d\pi \rightarrow \pi$ transitions of Ir (I) atom. Later Swager et al. obtained heteroleptic tris-cyclometallated Ir(III) complexes **204** based on 2-(1-perfluorophenyl-1,2,3-triazol-4-yl)pyridine [110]. Complex compounds **205** formed by two tridentate ligands coordinated to Os(II) or Ru(II) interesting as components of dye-sensitized solar cells (DSCs), were recently prepared by Chou et al. [184].

6.6 Organic Catalysis

Chiral N-pentafluorophenyl 1,2,4-triazolium salts (triazolium bicyclic catalysts) had been found to significantly influence reaction yields and enantiomeric ratios. The examples of the application of triazolium bicyclic catalysts **142**, **144**, **145**, **147** whose structures we have already mentioned are listed in Table 1.

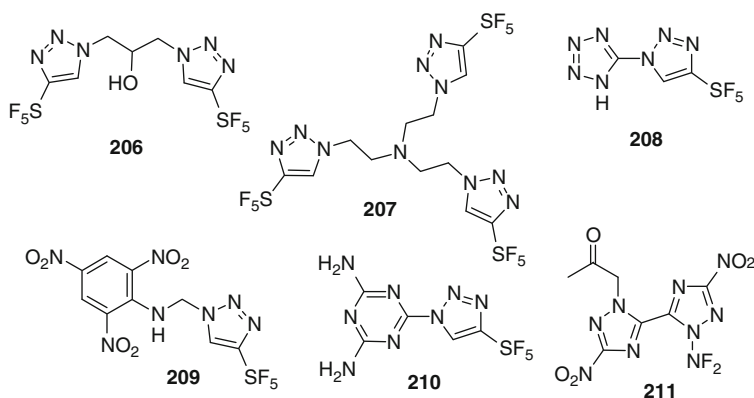
6.7 Energetic Compounds

The burning of the energetic compositions containing organofluorine derivatives affords products with relatively small molecular mass which favors the operating characteristics. Owing to these and many other useful properties the fluorine-containing heterocyclic compounds, first of all tri- and tetrazoles, are traditionally attractive energetic substances.

Klapotke et al. described the energetic properties of sodium 5-trifluoromethyltetrazolate, sodium 5-pentafluoroethyltetrazolate, and sodium 5-heptafluoropropyltetrazolate [185]. Based on DSC-thermograms the authors concluded that the 5-perfluoroalkyl-tetrazole salts are thermally and thermodynamically stable energy-rich substances. It was also indicated that the sodium salts of 5-perfluoroalkyltetrazoles showed

relatively low sensitivity to impact and friction. The other publications of this scientific team reported on the calcium salts of 5-perfluoroalkylated tetrazoles as components of ternary mixtures with magnesium and Viton [186], and also on pyrolants containing magnesium and guanidinium 5-(perfluoropropyl)-5H-tetrazolate and ammonium 5-(perfluoropropyl)-H-tetrazolate [187]. The subject of the energy-rich salts formed from nitro-1,2,4-triazol-5-one, 5-nitroaminotetrazole, and other nitro-substituted azoles, among them energetic polymer salts from 1-vinyl-1,2,4-triazole derivatives, was treated in a series of Shreeve et al. publications that we cited before [62, 86–88, 94]. The data on enthalpy of formation, density, detonation velocity (calculated value), and on the other parameters were published making it possible to regard these salts as interesting components of explosive compositions. As promising components of explosive compositions trifluoromethyl- or pentafluorosulfanyl-substituted poly-1,2,3-triazole compounds should be mentioned. Below are given the formulas of some representative of pentafluorosulfanyl derivatives of tri- and tetrazoles **206–210**. It is noteworthy that the introduction of the SF₅ group into the 1,2,3-triazole ring results in energetic compounds of high density (1.83–1.90 g/cm³) [142, 188], the most important quality for the energy-rich compounds and materials.

Let us turn again to the pioneering publication of Shevelev et al. [147] that has announced the synthesis of N-difluoroazoles, the representatives of the new series of N-substituted azole. Focusing our attention on NF₂ derivative of 3-nitro-1,2,3-triazole containing the NF₂ group **211**, it may be stated that this extraordinary molecule may be regarded as a precursor of the hypothetical substance possessing exclusively high detonation parameters. Presumably, due to the high sensitivity to the mechanical treatment (impact, friction) similar compounds are very dangerous in handling.



7 Conclusions

The analysis of the literature published within the last decade easily demonstrates the essential intensification of applied research in the field of fluorinated derivatives of tri- and tetrazoles. The especially intensive development is observed in the

directions of creating new biologically active substances based on the mentioned compounds, light-emitting diodes, polymer materials, sorbents, catalysts of chemical processes. The appearance of original and refinement of the known approaches to the synthesis of fluorine-containing tri- and tetrazoles is a natural response to these demands. It is easy to forecast in the near future a significant success in this field of the chemistry of fluorine-containing heterocyclic compounds.

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1,2-Bis(Hetaryl)Perfluorocyclopentenes as Unique Thermally Irreversible Photochromes. Synthesis and Structural Singularities

M.M. Krayushkin and M.A. Kalik

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Abstract The review considers the synthesis and structures of photochromic products, in which hetaryl substituents are separated by the central 1,2-perfluorocyclopentene moiety. It was also briefly presented main methods for synthesis of octafluorocyclopentene and its reactivity. Among methods used for the synthesis of the photochromes, the reactions of lithium derivatives of thiophene, benzothiophene, and other heterocyclic compounds with octafluorocyclopentene, 1,2-dichlorohexafluorocyclopentene, and their analogues are described. Another general method for the synthesis of dihetarylethenes, considered in the review, is based on the McMurry reaction involving the initial

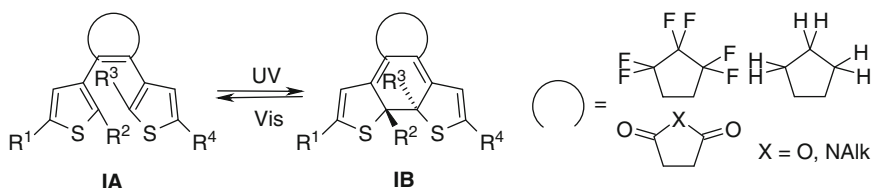
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synthesis of 1,5-diketone by acylation of the corresponding heterocyclic compound with perfluoroglutaryl dichloride followed by the cyclization of the diketone in the presence of metallic titanium or its salts. The review also summarizes the results of X-ray diffraction studies of some 1,2-dihetarylperfluorocyclopentenes.

Keywords Octafluorocyclopentene • Dihetarylethenes • Dithienylethenes • Photochromes • Synthesis • X-ray-structures

1 Introduction

As revealed in the late 1980s, photochromic dihetarylethenes (DHE) **I** (often named in literature as diarylethenes) have a unique property, namely, in the absence of photoirradiation, their initial **IA** and cyclized **IB** forms are stable, in the most part of cases, up to decomposition temperatures [1–4].



This singularity certainly attracted attention of researchers in the field of nonlinear optics and optical switchers and resulted in a burst of publications related to problems of information recording and storage [5–13]. Permanent interest in photochromes **I** stirred up by prospects of developing multilayer optical discs [14–18] is retained nowadays.

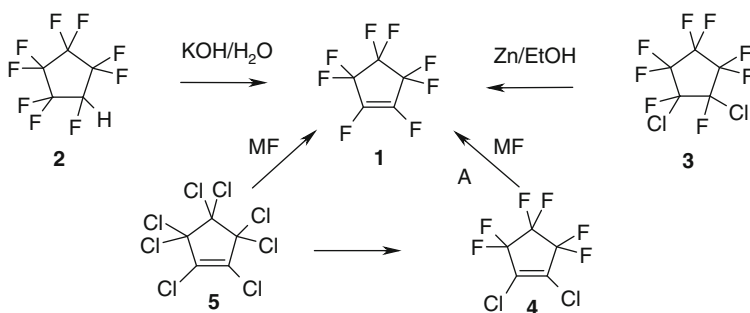
It is important to emphasize that many representatives of these photochromes also possess high fatigue resistance. Among such compounds, organic molecules containing a perfluorocyclopentene backbone have recently been recognized as one of the most attractive units for the applications to optoelectronic devices due to a successful combination of such exploitation properties as chemical stability, solubility in organic solvents, compatibility with polymers for the preparation of registration media, a substantial difference in positions of absorption bands of the initial and cyclic forms, a possibility of non-destructive information reading using photoluminescence of one of the forms [19, 20], etc.

The synthesis and structures of the photochromic products in which the hetaryl substituents are separated by the central 1, 2-perfluorocyclopentene fragment are described in the present review. The first section briefly presents the main methods for the synthesis of perfluorocyclopentene and its reactivity that predetermines methods for the synthesis of photochromic dihetarylethenes. The second section directly deals with the methods for the synthesis of these photochromes, and specific features of their structures are described in the third section. The photochromic properties of the products, for minor exceptions, are not considered.

2 Synthesis and Chemical Properties of Octafluorocyclopentene (OFCP)

2.1 Synthesis of Octafluorocyclopentene

At present 1,2,3,3,4,4,5,5-octafluorocyclopentene (OFCP, **1**) is a commercially available product, which is mainly prepared by the dehydrofluorination of nano-fluorocyclopentane **2** in water in the presence of solid KOH [21], dechlorination of 1,2-dichlorooctafluorocyclopentane **3** with zinc in boiling EtOH (i-PrOH-AcOH) [21, 22], and fluorination of 1,2-dichlorohexafluorocyclopentene **4** or perchlorocyclopentene **5** with alkaline metal fluorides (KF, CsF) in various solvents (DMF, N-methylpyrrolidone, alkyl sulfoxides, sulfolanes, etc.) [23–25] (Scheme 1). The improved variant [26, 27] of the most popular method A in Scheme 1 produces OFCP of high purity (up to 99.99 %) in high yields (90.4 %) [28] from various fluoro-chlorosubstituted cyclopentenes or their mixtures. A series of Japanese reviews [29–31] is devoted to problems of improvement of the technology of its production, further use, and influence on the environment.

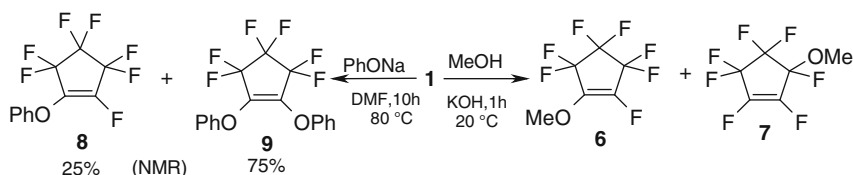


Scheme 1

2.2 Reactivity of Perfluorocyclopentene

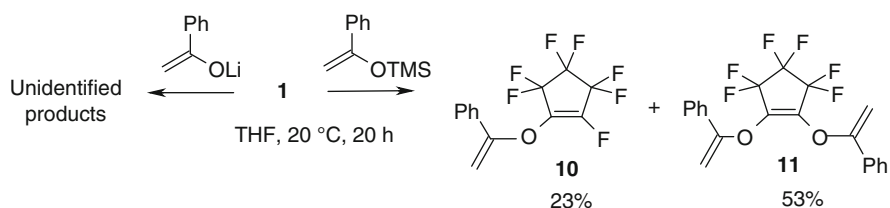
Some characteristic reactions of OFCP, including those used for the synthesis of photochromic DHE, are considered below. Octafluorocyclopentene, like the most part of other fluorinated olefins, is a pronounced electrophile characterized by the interaction with various nucleophiles according to the addition–elimination type reactions. For selected reports on the reaction of perfluorocyclopentene **1** or the 1,2-dichloroanalog with O,N,S,P-nucleophiles, see [32, p. 4222 and references cited therein].

The reactions of cyclyene **1** with alcohols or alkoxides leading, as a rule, to products with substituents at the double bond are studied most completely. However, there are described examples where the fluorine atoms in the allyl positions of cyclopentene were involved in the S_N2 type reaction [33, 34]. For instance, OFCP reacts with methanol (1 equiv) in the presence of KOH to form 1-methoxy-substituted isomer **6** as the major product and 4 % of heptafluoro-3-methoxycyclopentene **7** [33] (Scheme 2). The process can be directed towards the formation of bis(vicinal)-substituted compounds along with the monoalkoxy products by the variation of conditions [35, 36]. For example, OFCP and sodium phenoxide generate both **8** and **9** in a ratio of 1:3 [36]. The reaction of OFCP with bisphenols in the presence of NEt_3 gave the whole class of polyethers containing both aromatic and perfluorocyclopentene rings [36].



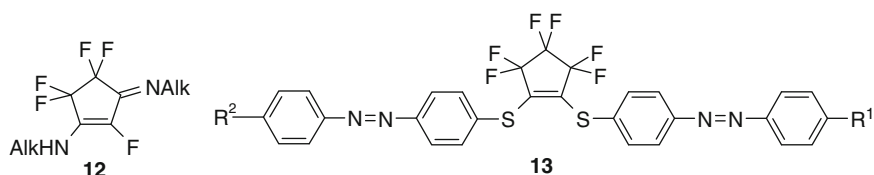
Scheme 2

The reaction of **1** with the lithium derivative of acetophenone affords unidentified products, whereas the reaction with trimethylsilyl enol gave the expected substances **10** and **11** in an approximate ratio of 1:2 [37] (Scheme 3).

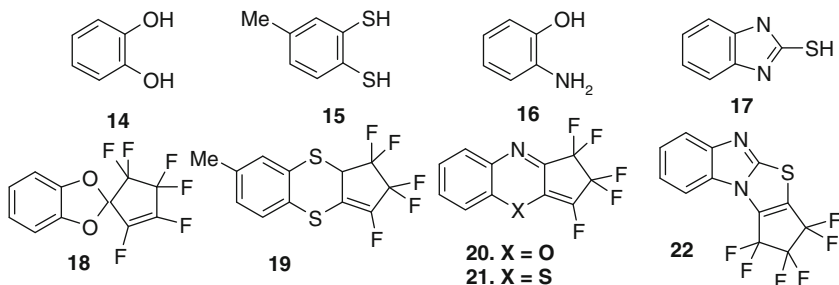


Scheme 3

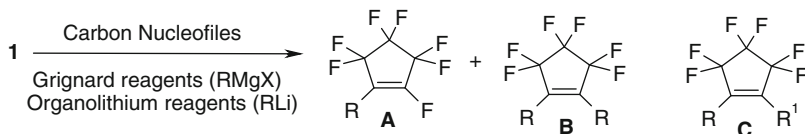
The reactions of OFCP with methylamine and ethylamine include both the addition–elimination reactions at the double bond and the simultaneous formation of products **12** with the imine fragments (100 % yield for $Alk=Me$ and 72 % for $Alk=Et$) [38]. The formation of azochromophores **13** with the perfluorocyclopentene bridge, including the reaction of substance **4** with thiols as the first stage, was described in [39].



This direction is reasonably continued by the studies that described the reactions of OFCP with difunctional nucleophiles **14–17**. Under mild conditions, these reactions were found to give a range of heterocycles with the perfluorocyclopentene fragment **18–22**, respectively, generally in good yields [40].



Naturally, the reactions of OFCP accompanied by the formation of C-C bonds are most similar to the methods of preparation of photochromes described in Sect. 3. The treatment of **1** with organolithium reagents gave the corresponding symmetrical **disubstituted** perfluorocyclopentenes **B** (Scheme 4) in good to high yields.

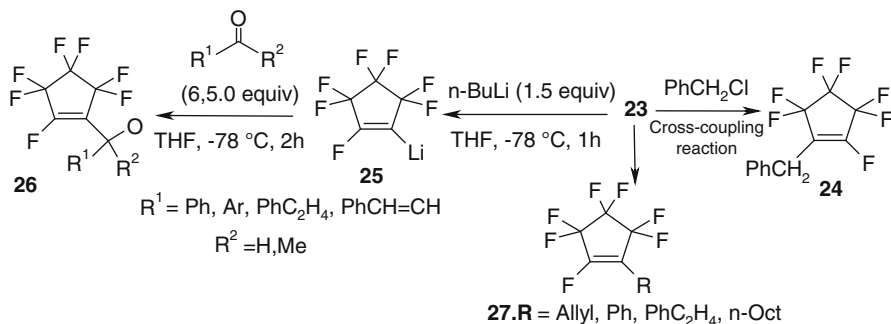


Scheme 4

The reaction with the Grignard reagents led to the **monosubstituted** perfluorocyclopentenes **A**, which were subjected to the further nucleophilic substitution reaction using another Grignard or aryllithium reagents to obtain unsymmetrical disubstituted perfluorocyclopentenes **C** in high yields [41].

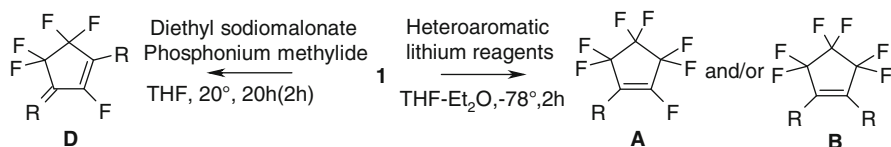
The preparation of perfluorocyclopentenylmetal species and their cross-coupling reaction with **electrophiles** as remarkable accesses to versatile perfluorocyclopentene derivatives are described in [32]. The authors demonstrated that the treatment of perfluorocyclopentene with bis(tributylstannyl)cyanocuprate in THF at $-78\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 1 h gave perfluorocyclopentenylstannane **23** in good yield. The product successfully enters the cross-coupling reaction with benzyl chloride to give the benzyl derivative **24** in good yield.

The reaction of fluorinated vinylstannane **23** with *n*-BuLi in THF at $-78\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 1 h followed by the addition of carbonyl compounds afforded the corresponding allyl alcohols **26** in good yields (Scheme 5). On the other hand, the Pd(0)-catalyzed cross-coupling reaction of perfluorocyclopentenylstannane **23** with benzyl chloroformate in THF at reflux for 2 h proceeded smoothly to form the decarbonylated coupling product **27** in high yield.



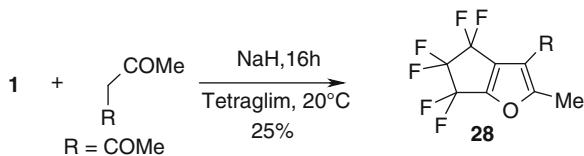
Scheme 5

The reactions of perfluorocyclopentene with various carbon nucleophiles, namely, heteroaromatic lithium reagents, enolate and phosphonium ylide, leading to the C-C-addition products are described in [37]. It was shown that the addition of the heteroaromatic lithium reagents to a THF solution of perfluorocyclopentene **1** provided preferentially the corresponding monosubstituted products **A**, while an opposite order of addition efficiently gave the 1, 2-disubstituted products **B** in good to excellent yields. Both mono- (**A**) and disubstituted (**B**) products were obtained in yields from moderate (20–30 %) to quantitative depending on the nature of HetLi-reactant, -{Het-2(3)-furyl, 2(3)-thienyl, 1-methylpyrryl, benzofuryl, benzothienyl, 1-methylindolyl}, ratio of reagents and reaction conditions [37]. The reaction of **1** with an excess (4,4–6,6 equiv.) of sodium malonate at 20 °C or phosphonium ylide also proceeded smoothly to form the 1, 3-disubstituted product **D** in high yield (81 %) (Scheme 6).



Scheme 6

Note that, as shown in [42], the reactions of OFCP with enolate anions, being acetylacetone and ethyl acetoacetate derivatives that can be considered as dinucleophiles, afford furans **28** (Scheme 7).



Scheme 7

On the whole, the materials of this brief section indicate that octafluorocyclopentene is an accessible (for at least research purposes) product, whose reactivity was studied in rather detail. The variation of the reaction conditions makes it possible to obtain the diverse mono- and disubstituted derivatives of this product containing substituents both at the double bond of cyclene and in the allyl positions.

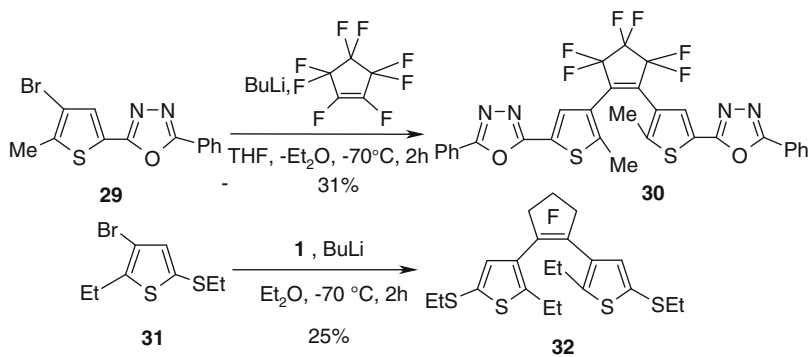
3 Synthesis of Dihetarylethenes with Perfluorocyclopentene Bridge

3.1 Reactions of Lithium Derivatives of Thiophene with Octafluorocyclopentene

The main method for the preparation of perfluorocyclopentene DHE used in the majority of studies is the reaction of the lithium derivatives of thiophene with octafluorocyclopentene [43–45, 41]. The photochromic products are thus “assembled” from the components indifferent to butyllithium or the molecule backbone is formed for further functionalization. This approach allows one to synthesize both symmetrical and unsymmetrical photochromes.

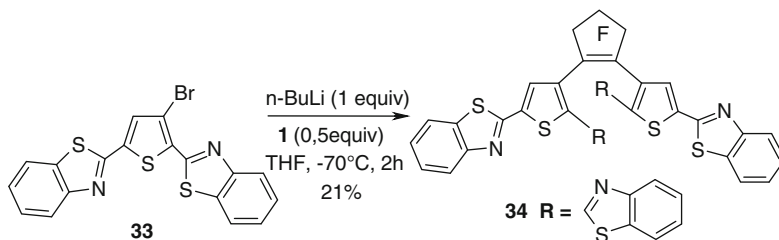
3.1.1 Symmetrical and Unsymmetrical DTE

Typical syntheses of the symmetrical products are demonstrated in Scheme 8. The treatment of bromides **29** and **31** with butyllithium, under standard conditions, in the presence of perfluorocyclopentene affords photochromes **30** [46] and **32** [44].



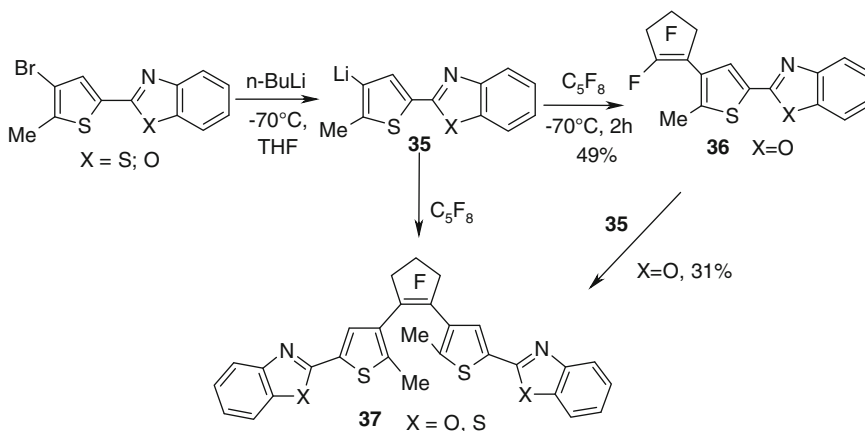
Scheme 8

Even thienyl bromide **33** with the electron-withdrawing and fairly bulky benzothiazole fragments enters the reaction to form the photochromic product **34** (Scheme 9) [47]. As a rule, the yields of the symmetrical photochromes are 30–50 %.



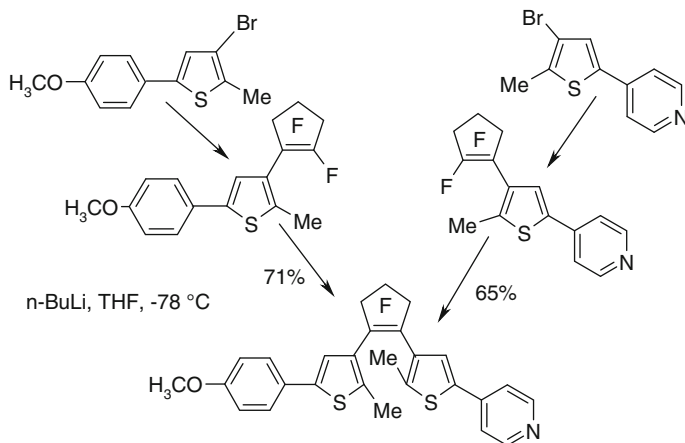
Scheme 9

The reaction of the lithium derivatives of thiophene with **1** can be accompanied by the formation of the products of substitution of only one fluorine atom at the double bond of cyclene. For example, photochrome **37** was synthesized (Scheme 10) either in one stage with a twofold excess of the lithium derivative **35** over perfluorocyclopentene or in two stages with the preliminary isolation of monofluoride **36** [46].



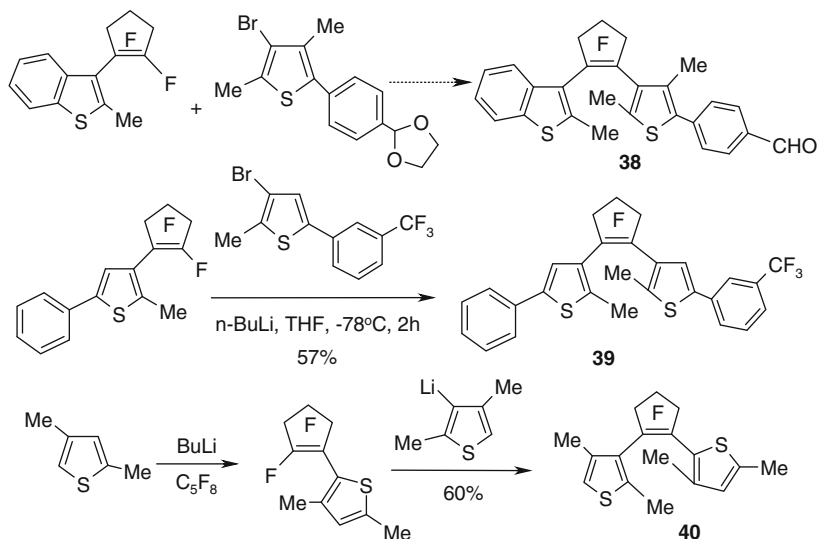
Scheme 10

It is noteworthy that the monosubstitution products can be isolated and involved in further transformations leading to photochromes of unsymmetrical structure as it shown on Scheme 11 [48].



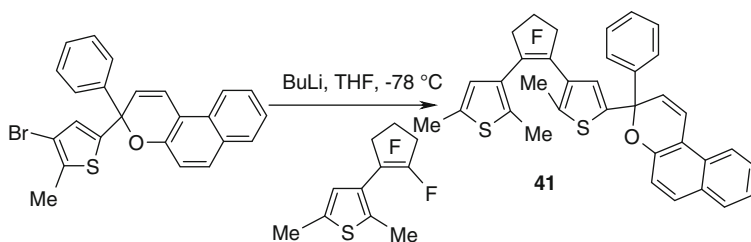
Scheme 11

Characteristic examples of this approach are also the syntheses of unsymmetrical compounds **38** [49], **39** [50], and **40** (Scheme 12). In the latter case, perfluorocyclopentene is bound to different positions of the thiophene rings [51, 52].

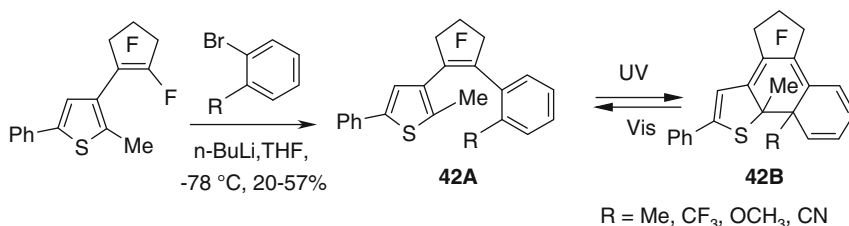


Scheme 12

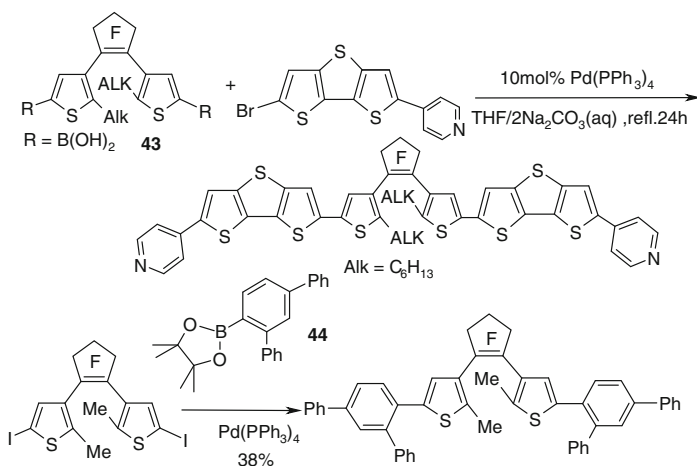
The “dyad,” viz., biphotocromic product **41** in which the dihetarylene fragment is directly linked with the chromene moiety, was obtained by this method in 52 % yield [53] (Scheme 13).

**Scheme 13**

A non-traditional type of photochromic dihetarylethenes bearing a six-membered aryl unit was developed in [54]. Compounds **42** were prepared from 2-methyl-5-phenyl-3-thienylperfluorocyclopentene in the one-step coupling reactions with 2-bromoanisole, 2-bromotoluene, 2-bromobenzonitrile, and 2-bromobenzotrifluoride, respectively (Scheme 14).

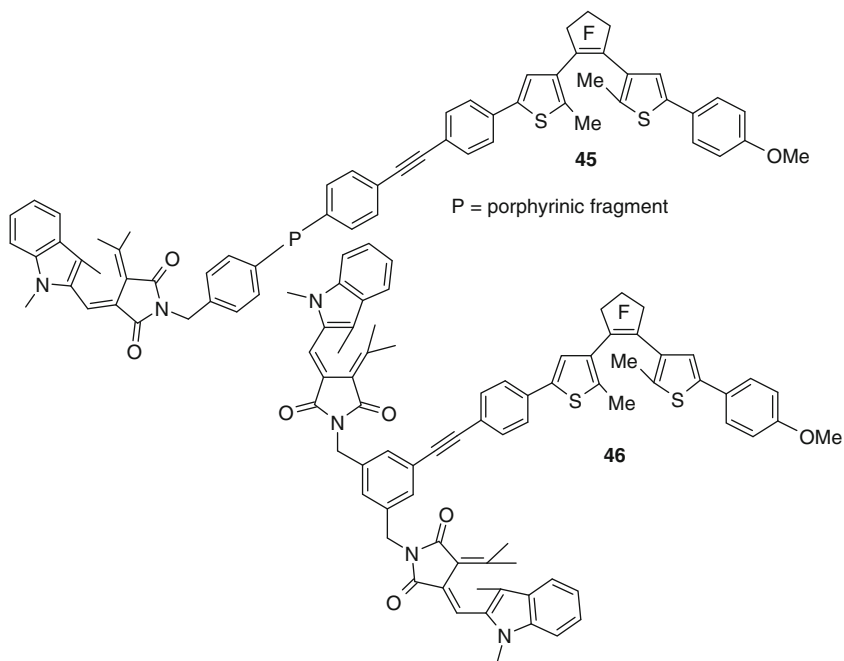
**Scheme 14**

The examples of the further functionalization of the universal “preparations” formed by the reactions of the lithium derivatives with PFPCP are presented in Scheme 15.

**Scheme 15**

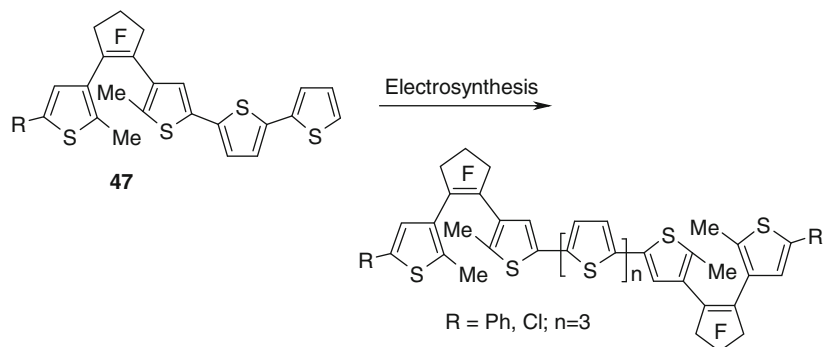
In both cases, the Suzuki reaction is an efficient method for chain growing. In the former case, photochrome **43** [55] was the boron substrate, whereas in the second case, this was terphenyl **44** [56].

The cross-coupling reactions were also actively used for the synthesis of “dyad” **45** and “triad” **46** including the dithienylperfluorocyclopentene and fulgimide moieties [57–59] (Scheme 16).



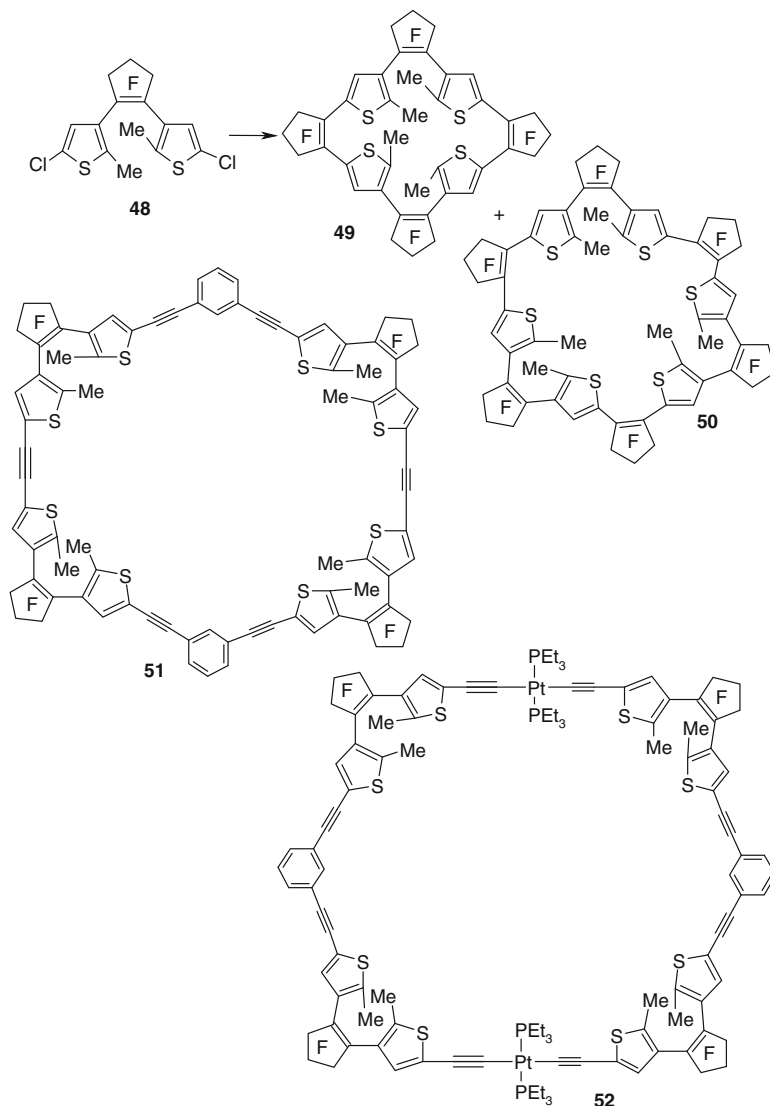
Scheme 16

An example for the electrochemical dimerization of photochrome **47** is given below (Scheme 17) [60].



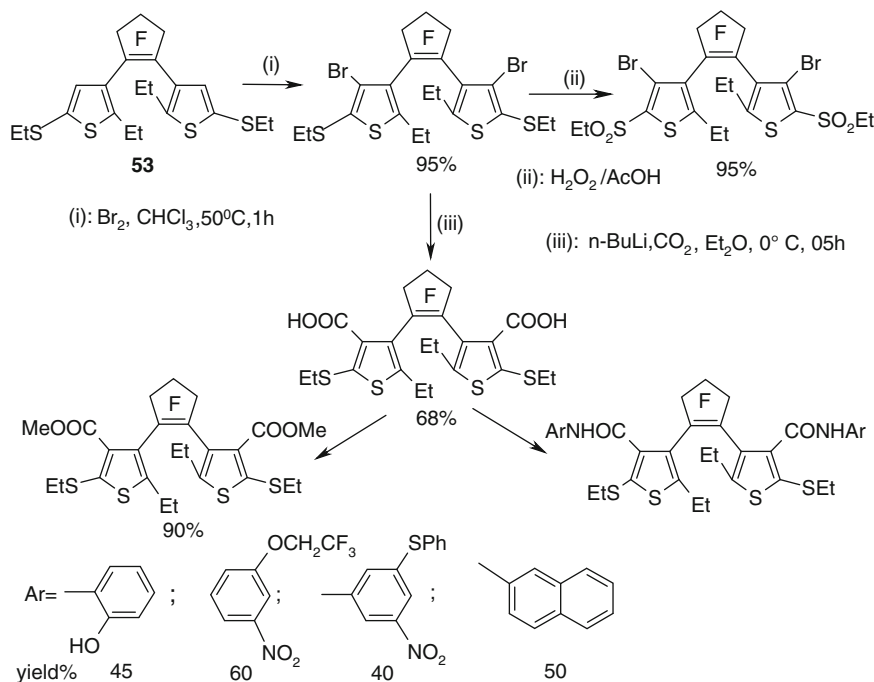
Scheme 17

The reaction of photochromic dichloride **48** with *n*-butyllithium and OFCP in ether at -78° yielded macrocyclic compounds **49** (8.4 %) and **50** (2.6 %) [61] (Scheme 18). The authors mentioned that the former substance exhibited no photochromic properties, because its cyclized form is conformationally unfavorable due to the formation of the strained 20-membered ring, whereas the 30-membered macrocycle **50** is a typical photochrome. The syntheses of the macromolecules **51** and **52** from 1, 2-bis(2-methyl-5-bromo-3-thienyl)perfluorocyclopentene using the Sonogashira coupling are described in paper [62].



Scheme 18

Scheme 19 demonstrates the functionalization of photochrome **53** by the introduction of the substituents into positions 4 and 4' of the thiophene rings [63].

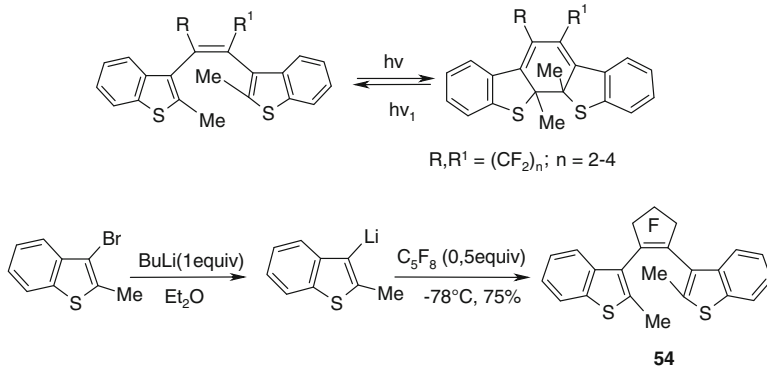


Scheme 19

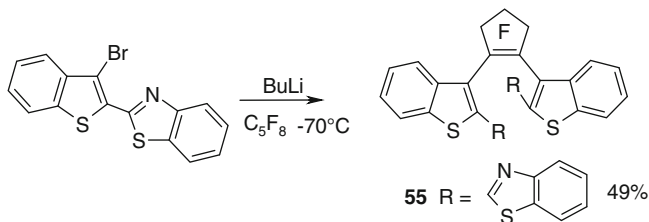
3.1.2 DHE Based on Fused Thiophenes and Other Heterocycles

3.1.2.1 Benzo-, Thieno-, and Dithienothiophenes

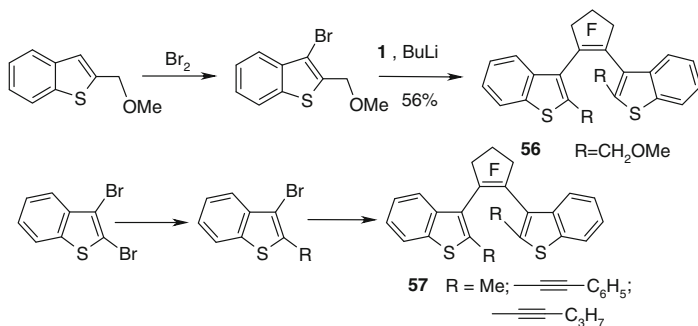
A family of photochromic products in which the benzothiophene cycle is linked with perfluorocyclohexenes (Scheme 20) was described in [64]. Researchers are interested in these substances, because the latter are characterized, as a rule, by higher cyclic stability than the thienyl derivatives [65]. The method for their synthesis is almost the same as that described above for DTE and is highly regioselective.

**Scheme 20**

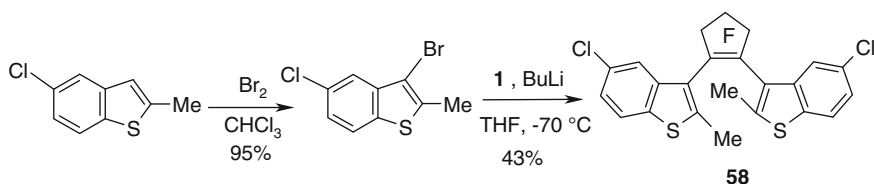
It has already (see Scheme 9) been mentioned that the presence of the benzothiazole cycles in positions 2 and 2' of the thienyl rings of compound **34** does not prevent exhibiting the photochromic properties. Under similar conditions, substance **55** was synthesized and its photochromic properties were demonstrated [47] (Scheme 21).

**Scheme 21**

The same algorithm of synthesis was proposed for the preparation of photochromic dihetarylethenes **56** and **57** bearing the methoxymethyl [66], phenylethynyl, and 1-pentynyl groups [67] at the reactive carbon atom (Scheme 22).

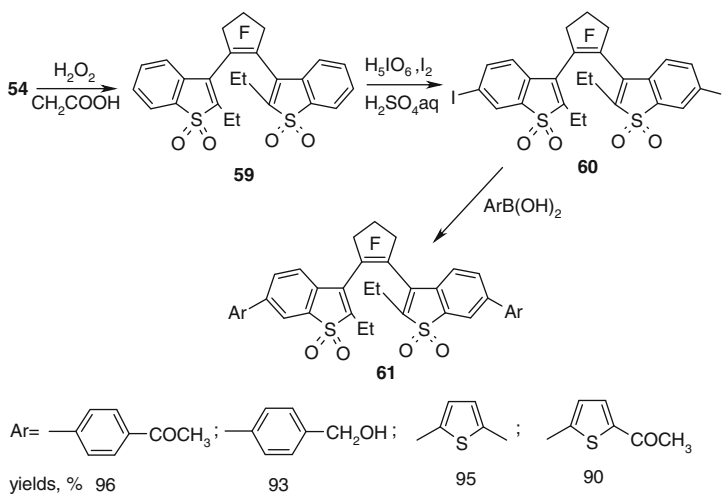
**Scheme 22**

A considerably greater easiness of formation of the lithium derivative using position 3 of the thiophene ring compared to halogen substitution in the benzene ring made it possible to accomplish the scheme for the synthesis of photochrome **58** with retention of the chlorine atom preliminarily introduced into the benzene ring [68] (Scheme 23).



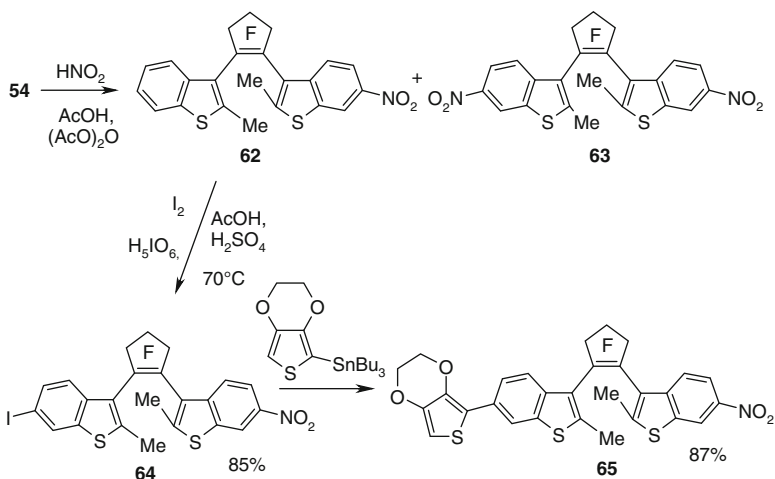
Scheme 23

The further modification of the benzothiophene photochromes can proceed involving both the thiophene and benzene rings. For example, Scheme 24 shows the oxidation products of the sulfur atoms (**59**) in dihetarylethenes and the iodination products (**60**), as well the Suzuki reaction leading to a set of compounds **61**, where R are substituted aryls or thienyls [69]. The oxidation of the sulfur atoms in dihetarylethenes was also described in works [70–73].



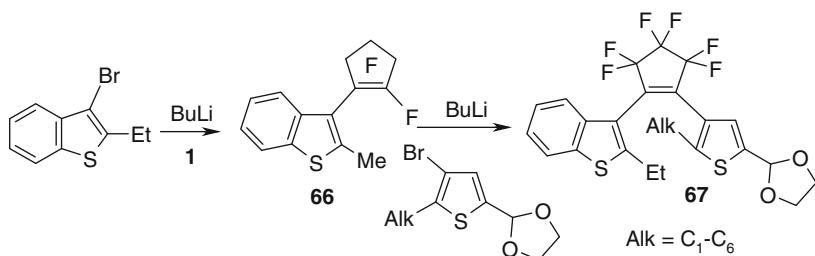
Scheme 24

In several cases, at an equimolar ratio of the reactants, the reaction can be directed to the predominant formation of the mono- or disubstituted products. The nitration of photochrome **54** gave the monosubstitution product **62** in 75 % yield, which allowed the authors to synthesize unsymmetrical photochromes **64** and **65** [74] (Scheme 25).



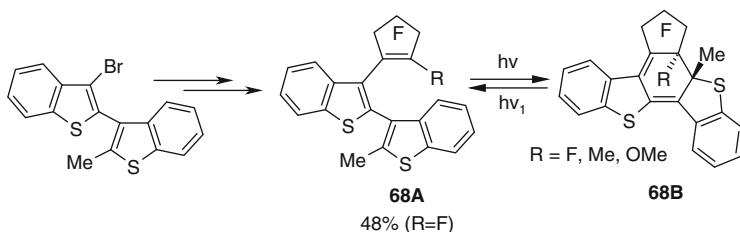
Scheme 25

The synthesis of novel photochromic diarylethenes **67** including the intermediate formation of the monosubstitution product **66** was elaborated [75] (Scheme 26).



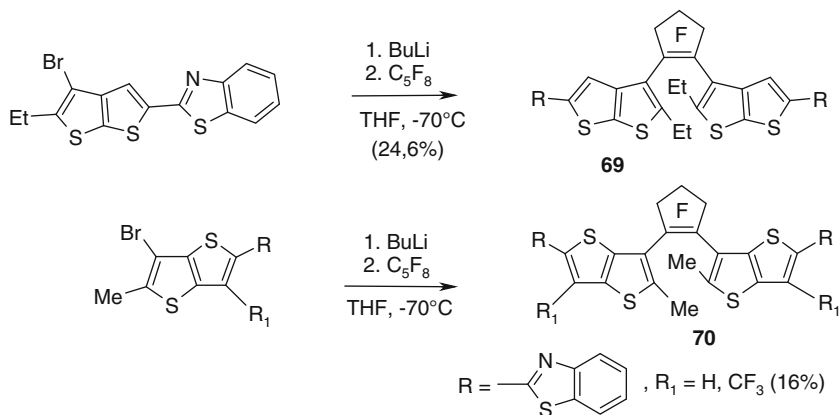
Scheme 26

The monosubstitution products **68** were also assumed as photochromic 6- π -conjugated systems with the bis(2,3'-benzothienylene) fragment of a non-traditional structure, where the fluorine atom or the methyl or methoxy group instead of the heterocycle is adjacent to the benzothienylene substituent in the vicinal position of perfluorocyclopentene [52] (Scheme 27).



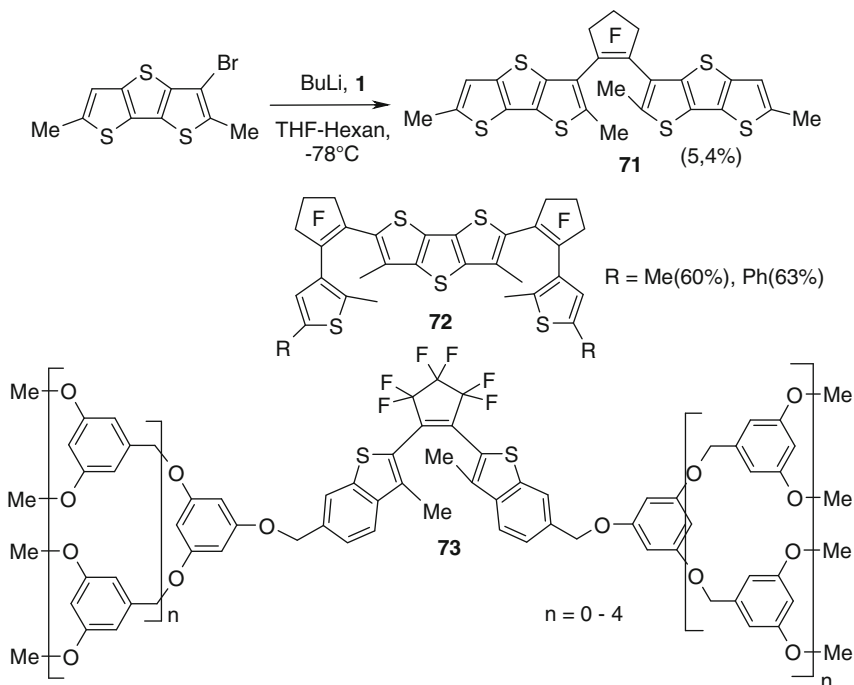
Scheme 27

Perfluorosubstituted derivatives with the thienothiophene substituents were synthesized in a series of works. For instance, the synthesis of compound **69** was proposed in [76a], and its isomeric analogs **70** were synthesized in [76b] (Scheme 28).



Scheme 28

Examples for the synthesis of photochromic perfluorocyclopentenes **71** and **72** with the dithienothiophene substituents (Scheme 29) are given in works [77a–c].

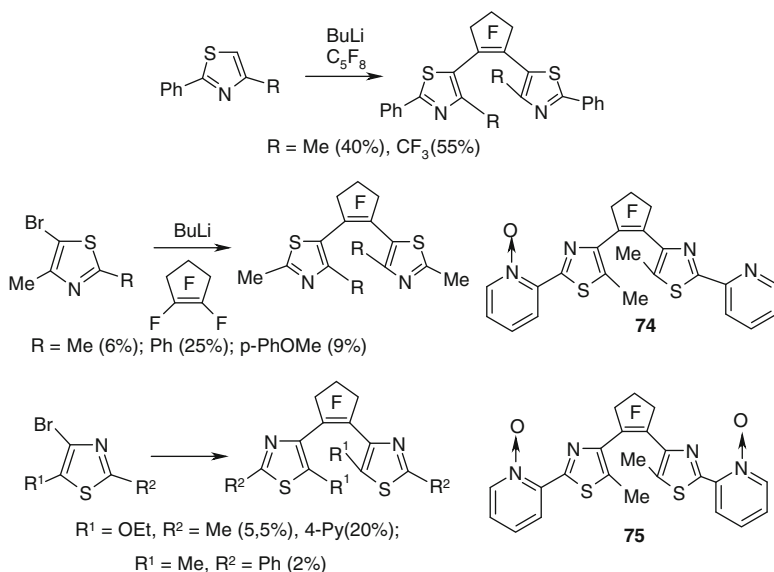


Scheme 29

In the first example, the perfluorocyclopentene bridge was bound to positions 3 and 3' of the thienyl groups, whereas in the product **72** the fluorinated fragment was linked with positions 2,2' and 3,3' of dithienothiophene and thiophenes, respectively. The photochromic polymeric dendrimers **73** in which the multiple bond of the bridge was also connected with positions 2,2' of the benzothienyl rings were described in [78].

3.1.2.2 Other Heterocycles and “Hybrids”

Not only lithium derivatives of thiophene and also of other heterocycles, particularly, thiazole (Scheme 30), react with perfluorocyclopentene to form photochromes. As a rule, the yields of the thiazole derivatives are significantly inferior to those for the thienyl derivatives [79–82].

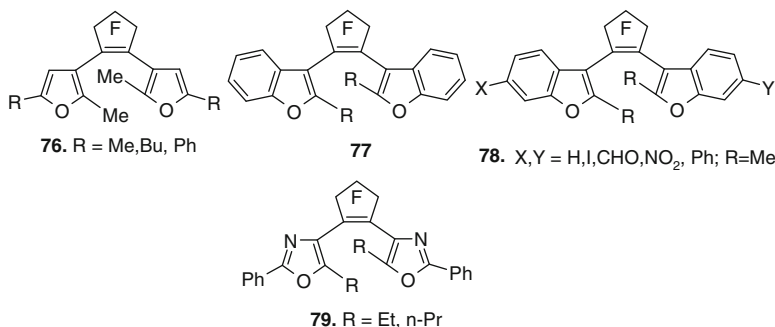


Scheme 30

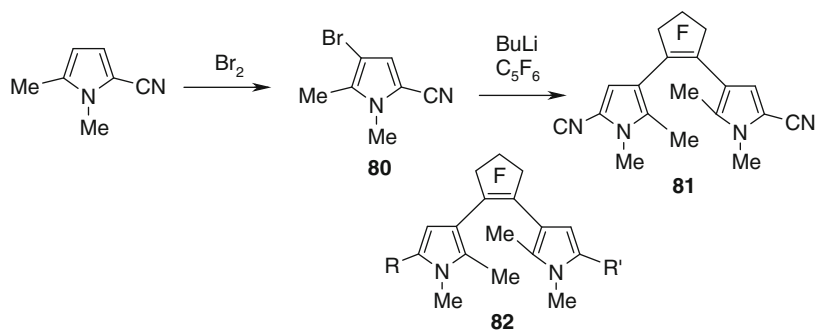
The oxidation of 1,2-bis[5'-methyl-2'-(2''-pyridyl)thiazolyl]perfluorocyclopentene with *m*-CPBA involves only the nitrogen atoms of the pyridine cycle and affords the corresponding photochromic mono- **74** and bis-N-oxides **75** exhibiting photochromism both in solution and in the crystalline state [83].

The reactions of 2,5-disubstituted 3-furyl bromides with butyllithium and OFCP in anhydrous THF at -78° afforded bisfurylethenes **76** [84]. Photochrome **77** [85, 86] (29–46 % yield) and a series of its derivatives **78** (55–65 % yield) with various substituents in position 6 of the benzofuran ring [87] were obtained from 3-bromo-2-methyl-1-benzofuran. 1,2-Bis(5-*n*-alkyl-2-phenyloxazol-4-yl)perfluorocyclopent-enes

79 were synthesized and their photochromic properties were examined in a hexane solution as well as in the single-crystal phase [88].



1,2-Dihetarylethene **81** with two pyrrole cycles was obtained by the consecutive interaction of the corresponding bromide **80** with BuLi and C₅F₈ in THF in 11 % yield [89] (Scheme 31). Later French authors [90] succeeded in optimizing the reaction conditions, increasing the yield to 74 %, and synthesizing the whole range of symmetrical and unsymmetrical 5,5'-disubstituted derivatives **82**.

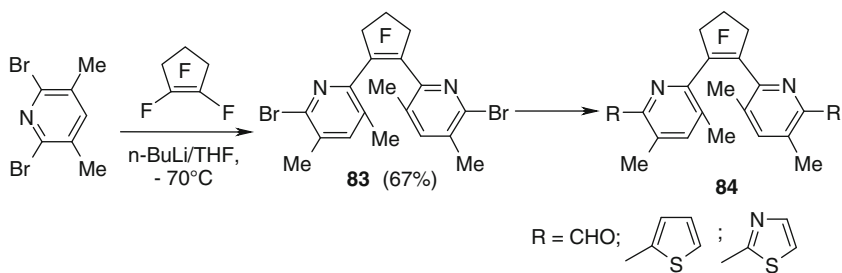


Scheme 31

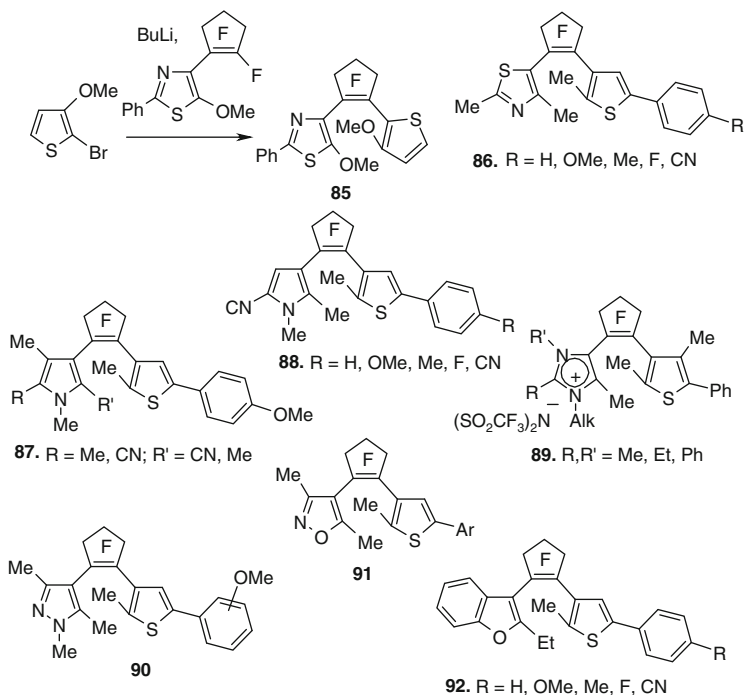
Dibromosubstituted dipyriddyethene **83** was prepared in 67 % yield from the known 2,6-dibromo-3,5-dimethylpyridine. This compound can be converted very conveniently into a variety of derivatives **84** through the halogen-metal exchange and the consequent reaction with electrophiles or through one of many cross-coupling reactions involving aryl halides [91] (Scheme 32).

Unique peculiar “hybrid” 1-hetaryl-2-thienylperfluorocyclopentenes (Scheme 33) including the thiazole (**85**, **86**) [92a, b] pyrrole (**87**, **88**) [93–95], imidazole (**89**) [96], pyrazole (**90**) [97], isoxazole (**91**) [98], and benzofuran (**92**) [99] cycles were described.

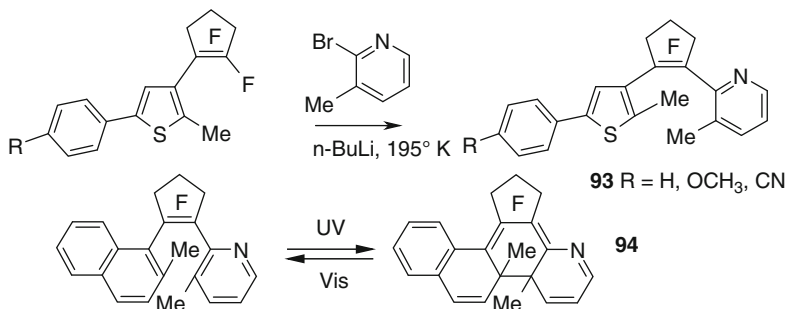
Compounds **93** containing the pyridine and thiophene cycle [100], as well as the pyridine and naphthalene moieties (**94**) [101], have been synthesized for the first time (Scheme 34).



Scheme 32

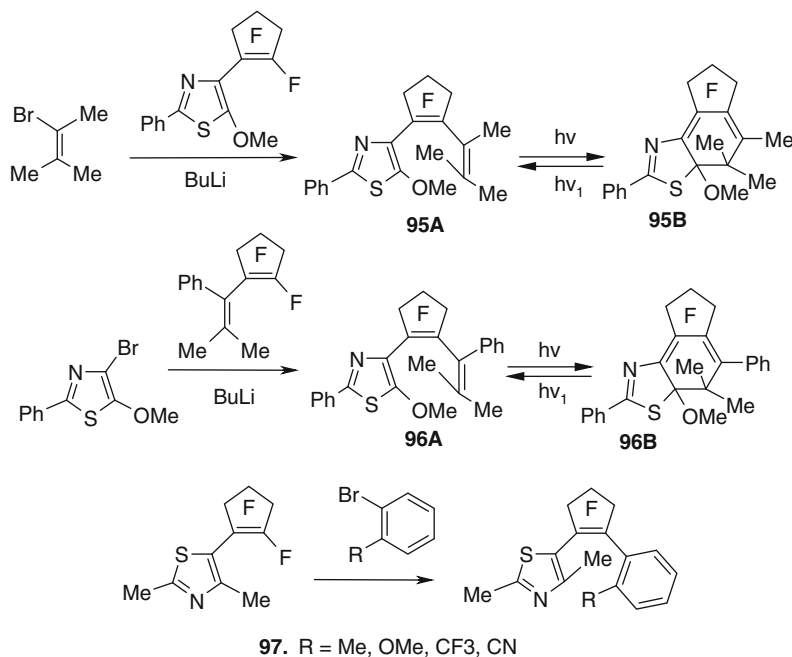


Scheme 33



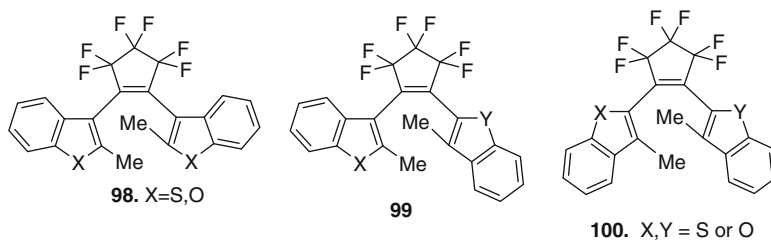
Scheme 34

Non-traditional photochromes **95** and **96** were synthesized by the reactions of 2-bromo-3-methyl-2-butene and 4-bromo-5-methyl-2-phenylthiazole with BuLi and the corresponding monofluorides [102] (Scheme 35) and new photochromic di-arylethenes **97** bearing both the thiazole and benzene moieties that exhibit fluorescence in solution and in the PMMA film [103] are worth mentioning.

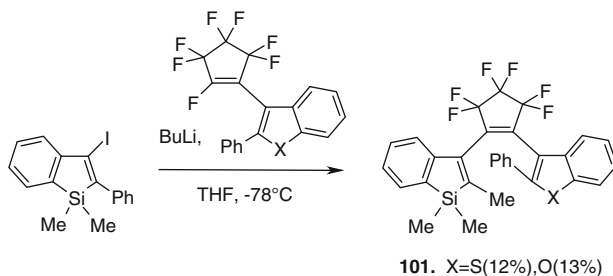


Scheme 35

A similar principle for the formation of molecules was used for the synthesis of the photochromic compounds containing combinations of benzothiophene (benzofuran) and indene **98** [104], pyrazole [105], or benzofuran cycles **99** and **100** [106, 107].



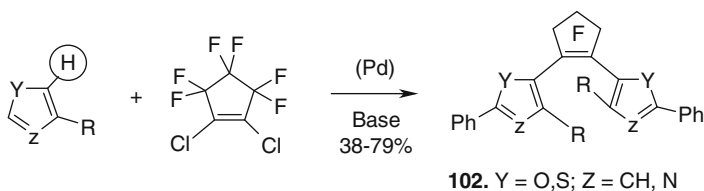
The novel diarylethene derivatives **101** having the benzo[b]silole group together with benzofuran or benzothiophene fragment were synthesized in paper [108] (Scheme 36).

**Scheme 36**

An efficient method for the synthesis of photochromic diarylethenes through the generation of heteroaryllithiums and the subsequent reaction with octafluorocyclopentene was developed by using integrated flow microreactor systems [109]. The reactions can be conducted without using cryogenic conditions by virtue of efficient temperature and residence time control, although much lower temperatures (<78 °C) are needed for the batch macroreactions. The authors assert that this integrated flow microreactor method serves as a practical way for synthesizing various photochromic diarylethene derivatives [110].

To conclude, we should mention the work similar, in essence, in which thienylboronic acids or pinacol esters react with 1,2-dichlorohexafluorocyclopentene via the Suzuki–Miyaura coupling [111]. A doubtless advantage of the method is its applicability to various substrates bearing reactive functionalities such as cyano and ester moieties, which cannot be compatible under the conventional diarylethene synthesis conditions using organolithium reagents.

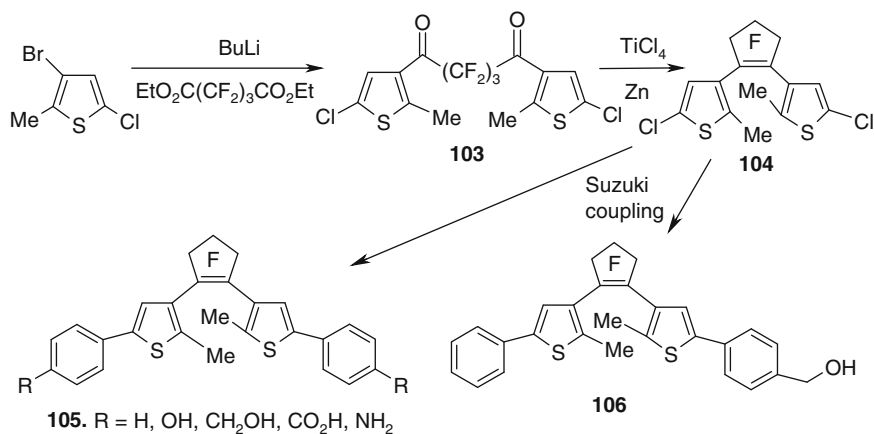
A novel and efficient palladium-catalyzed direct diheteroarylation of 1,2-dichloroperfluorocyclopentene with a variety of heteroarenes has recently been reported, giving rise to 1,2-di(hetaryl)perfluorocyclopentene photochromic compounds **102**. The reaction occurs with thiazoles, thiophenes, or furan derivatives and tolerates various substituents [112] (Scheme 37).

**Scheme 37**

3.2 McMurry Reaction

As a whole, we can speak about accessibility of thermally irreversible photochromes based on perfluorocyclopentene. However, its relatively high cost and certain inconveniences in the work related to its high volatility (b.p. 26–28 °C) [113], as well as low (in many cases) yield of the final products, stimulate a search for new approaches to

photochromes with the hexafluorocyclopentene fragment. For example, B.L. Feringa and coworkers proposed a very promising method for the synthesis of symmetrical derivatives of 1, 2-dithienylperfluorocyclopentene based on the use of diethyl hexafluoroglutarate as the starting compound (Scheme 38) [114, 115]. The authors assert that the formation of dithienyl ketone **103** and cyclization to the final product **104** (McMurry reaction) occurs in 70 and 55 % yields, respectively (Scheme 38).



Scheme 38

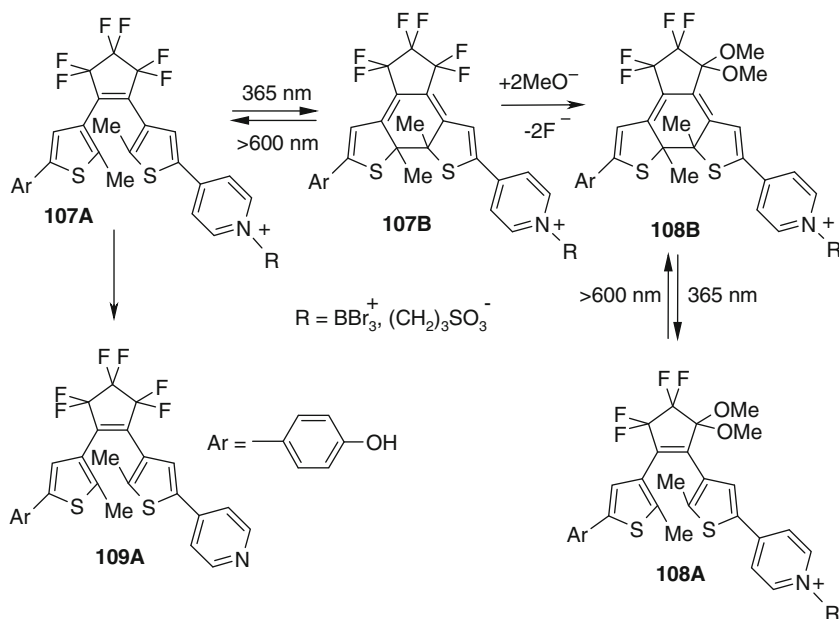
The product **104** is a convenient starting compound for the subsequent modification of photochromes. In particular, publication [116] described an efficient route for the synthesis of both symmetrical (**105**) and unsymmetrical (**106**) phenyl-substituted dihetarylethenes bearing amino, hydroxyl, or carboxyl groups from this dichloride and commercially available substituted boronic acids (or their pinacol esters) via the Suzuki reaction in a DME-H₂O (4:1) mixture under reflux (24 h). The yields attain 85–95 % for the symmetrical products and 60 % for the unsymmetrical products. It should be noted however, the McMurry reaction mainly found application in the synthesis of the perhydrocyclopentene analogs of dithienylperfluorocyclopentenes [117].

3.3 Dithienylethenes, Substituted in Perfluorocyclopentene Bridge

All data presented above concern the methods for the synthesis of DTE with unsubstituted hexafluorocyclopentene bridge. In our opinion, particular and so far rare examples of synthesis of DTE containing other substituents along with F atoms in the bridge are worth of special mentioning [48, 118].

When studying the photochemical behavior of alcohol **107A** in an aqueous-alcohol medium under basic conditions the methoxide ions displaced the fluorine atoms of one of the allylic CF₂ groups to yield **108B** and two isolated products were **108B** and **108A** (Scheme 39).

A surprising aspect of the allylic substitution reaction was that it only took place for the **cyclized** form **107B** of the photochrome. Transformation of **107B** to **108B** was extremely rapid; the former species was never observed. In marked contrast, the open isomer **107A** proved to be stable in methoxide solutions for prolonged periods of time (no detectable change after over **12 h** of standing at ambient temperature). It is noteworthy that such a transformation did not occur during the conversion of **107A** ($R = BBr_3$) to **109A** (open forms), which required very strongly basic conditions (Scheme 39).

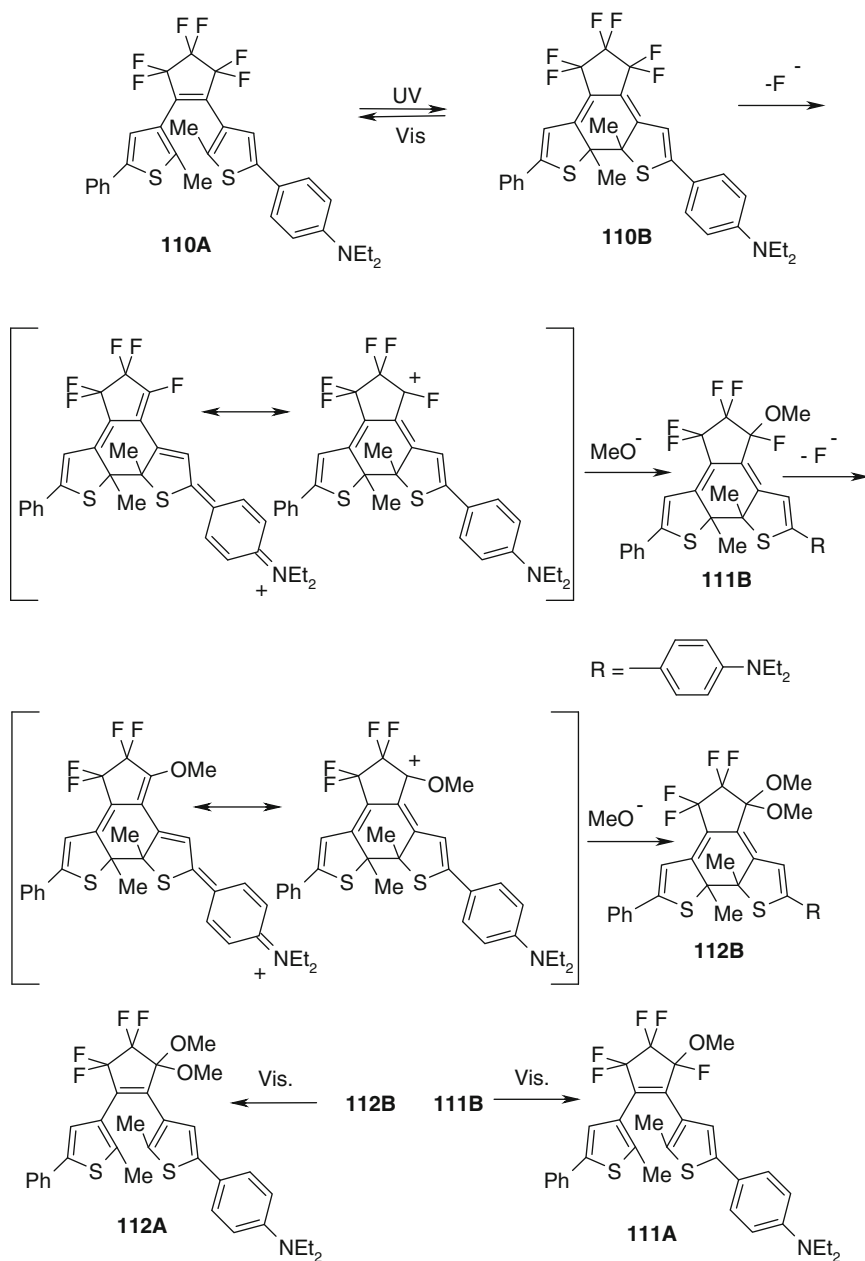


Scheme 39

The examination of models showed that for the open isomers of these photochromes, in which the thiophene rings were rotated far out of the plane of the central fluorinated ring, attack by a nucleophile on the allylic carbons of the central fluorinated ring was strongly hindered. On the other hand, these centers were accessible once the system was closed and essentially planar. The flatness of the **cyclized** form also allowed the electron-withdrawing pyridinium group to activate the allylic center towards attack by the alkoxide nucleophile. Authors have also observed the analogous substitution reactions when the closed photochrome **107B** was treated with ethoxide, ammonia or methylamine [48].

A similar phenomenon of substitution for fluorine atoms by methoxy groups was also observed in a later publication [118] Thus, DTE **110A** upon irradiation at 365 nm was reacted in methanol for 40 h at room temperature. After the solution was irradiated with visible light to return to the colorless open-ring isomers, the products were separated to result in the isolation of two products -**111A** and **112A** (Scheme 40). The structures of the products were identified by 1H NMR, mass spectrometry, and X-ray crystallographic analysis. When ethylene glycol was employed as the reacting agent

the corresponding cyclic product was also obtained. The reaction of diarylethene **110B** with isopropyl alcohol did not occur. This result indicates that only primary alcohols can react with diarylethene closed-ring isomer. The proposed mechanism of the formation of these products was shown in Scheme 40.



Scheme 40

It is important to note that this type of transformation may be of practical significance in that it provides a ready means of covalently attaching fluorinated diarylethenes of this type to polymers or other materials which bear pendant nucleophilic groups.

4 Structures of 1,2-Dihetarylhexafluorocyclopentenes

Dihetarylethenes with the perfluorocyclopentene “bridge” (**F** cycle) belong to a not numerous class of the so-called thermally irreversible photochromes in which the initial and cyclized forms do not transform into each other in the absence of irradiation. They are stable up to decomposition temperatures both in solutions and in the crystalline phase. It should be noted that the most part of photochromes, in particular, most widely abundant spiropyrans and spirooxazines, are characterized by the reversibility of the cyclized form even in the dark. The thermal irreversibility of DTE is determined, roughly speaking, by a small difference in energies of the initial cyclized forms caused by a change in the aromaticity of the thiophene cycles on going from one form to another. In the above mentioned spiropyrans and spirooxazines, the aromaticity of the benzene rings is lost on going from one form to another, and recovery of the aromaticity is a powerful driving force for the reversibility process. Similar discussions of this and other factors determining photochromism of DTE and the theoretical background of the photochromic reactions, color changes of the derivatives in solution as well as in the single crystalline phase are presented in review [12].

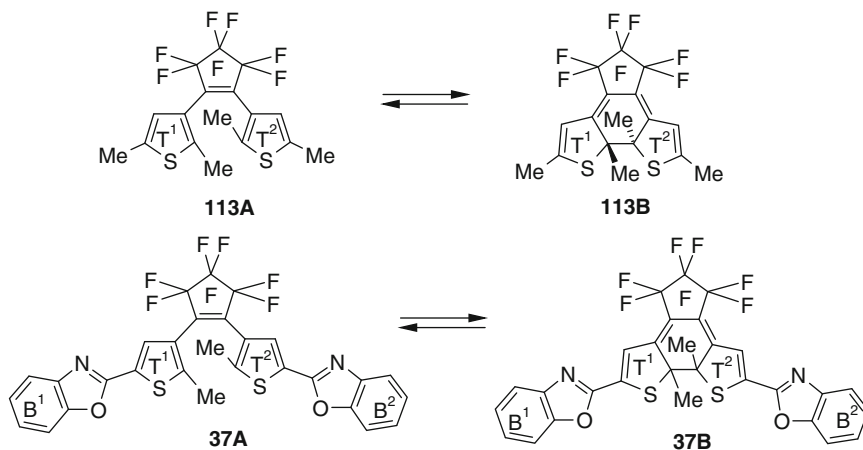
The efficiency of the cyclization of UV-irradiated photochromic hexafluorocyclopentenes and the backward transformation is determined, to a considerable extent, by their structures. A large material on the X-ray diffraction studies of the photochromes in the crystalline state has been obtained to present time [119–122]. Several typical examples throwing light on the peculiarities of the fine structure of DTE in the solid state are given below. The structures of the initial forms **A** of dihetarylethenes were studied in most detail, whereas the isolation and study of their cyclized isomers are much more difficult and labor-consuming.

4.1 Open Forms of Dihetarylethenes

Let us begin from the consideration of the structures of photochromic DTE **113A** and **37A** with substituents in positions 2,2¹ and 5,5¹. The numbering of atoms in the heterocycle is shown in Scheme 41; perfluorocyclopentene is denoted as **F**; thiophene cycles are **T1** and **T2**; benzoxazole is designated as **B**.

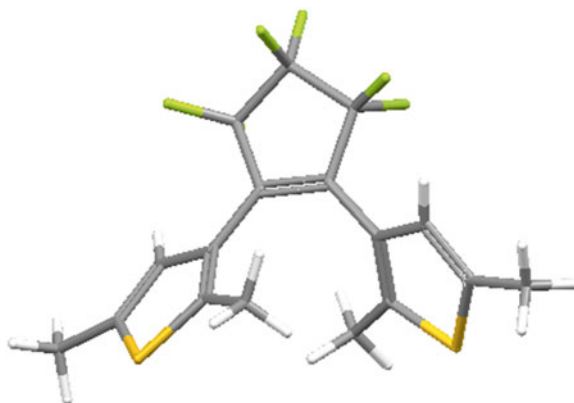
The structure of 1,2-bis(2,5-dimethyl-3-thienyl)hexafluorocyclopentene (**113A**) is rather simple (Fig. 1) [123, 124].

The dihedral angles **T1/F**, **T2/F**, and **T1/T2** in **113A** are equal to 46.78, 46.77, and 62.25°, respectively. The peculiarity of this compound is the ability of a single crystal to undergo repeated (>10⁴ times) photochromic transition **A** ↔ **B** without the



Scheme 41

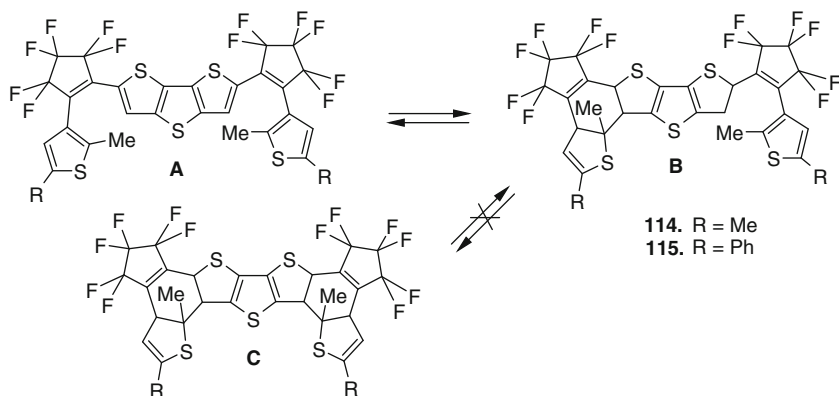
Fig. 1 Molecular structure of open form **A** of photochrome **113** (Cambridge Structural Database System CCDC; FAWFOY03) [123, 124]



destruction of the crystal structure: colorless crystals of **113A** after the UV irradiation ($\lambda = 366$ nm) are transformed into the red-colored form **113B**. The latter is stable in the dark up to 100 °C and transforms back into form **A** by the action of the visible light. Photochromism of the compound is also retained in solution; particularly, the spectral characteristics in a hexane solution indicate the full photoreversibility of the reaction.

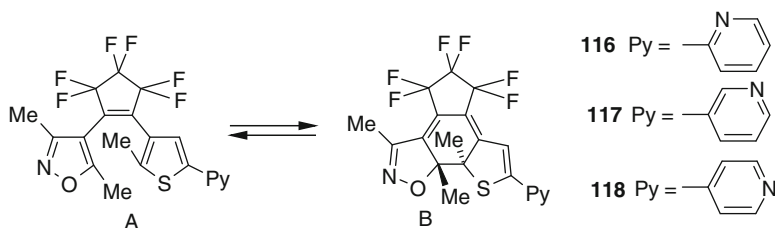
The full photoreversibility of the isomers upon the irradiation of an ethanolic solution of form **37A** with the light of $\lambda = 313$ nm and of form **37B** with the light of $\lambda = 578$ nm is common for 1,2-bis[5-(benzoxazol-2-yl)-2-methylthien-3-yl]perfluorocyclopentene (**37**) [47] (Scheme 41). The structure is built up of two crystallographically independent molecules that slightly differ only by the deflection angles of the benzoxazole fragments (**B**) relative to the thiophene cycles and by the torsion angles in the **F** cycle [125].

Contrary to structure **113A**, the **F** cycle in this compound has a shape of an envelope with a vertex opposite to the double bond. Another peculiarity of the compound is the formation of a planar spatially elongated conjugated system thiophene–benzoxazole. The deflection angle of the benzoxazole fragments relative to cycles **T** does not exceed 2–3°. The conjugation in the planar system is also confirmed by an appreciable shortening of the C–C bonds between the thiophene and benzoxazole cycles down to 1.442 Å in comparison to the standard value of this bond (1.48 Å). Thus, two planar conjugated thiophene–benzoxazole systems are turned relative to each other at 55–60° in molecule **37A**. There is no conjugation between these systems. Each of them is rotated relative to the **F** cycle at ~53.6°. The intramolecular distance C(2)···C'(2) equal to 3.59 Å, as well as that in **113A**, corresponds to the normal van der Waals contact (Scheme 42).



Scheme 42

For the diarylethene “dimer”, in the most cases, the intramolecular excited energy transfer from the open-form unit to one of the closed forms prohibits the formation of two closed-ring dimers. Crystals **114A** and **115A** could only take place at one of the diarylethene units even upon prolonged irradiation [77b]. Upon irradiation with the 380-nm light, the pale yellow crystals of both photochromes turned orange quickly as a result of the formation of closed-ring isomers **114B** and **115B** (not **C**!). Alternatively, the orange color of the crystals turned to pale yellow and reproduced initial forms **A** upon irradiation with the visible light (>500 nm). It can be observed that compounds **114A** and **115A** adopted the photoactive antiparallel conformation in the crystalline phase. For **114A**, there are two independent molecules (I and II) in the unsymmetrical unit, and all of them are in the photoactive antiparallel conformation. The distance between the photoactive carbon atoms is one of the most important parameters for the photochromism of dihetarylethenes. In this case, the distances between the photoactive carbons were 3.464 and 3.593 Å in molecule **114A**-I and 3.550 and 3.535 Å in molecule **114A**-II. For the second diarylethene, the distances between the photoactive carbons were 3.616 and 3.616 Å, respectively [126]. Similar results were obtained for crystals of the open forms of photochromes **116–118** [127] (Scheme 43).



Scheme 43

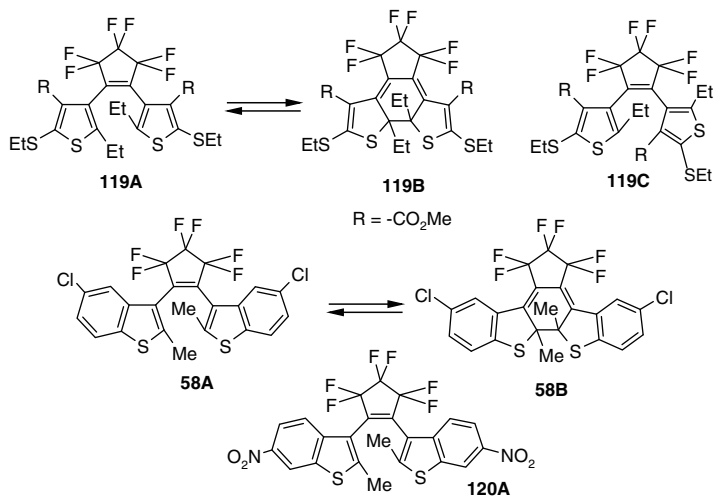
The intermolecular distances between two photoactive C(2)···C'(2) atoms in these photochromes were 3.5, 3.6, and 3.6 Å, respectively, which were close enough to perform the cyclization reactions [128, 129]. The dihedral angles between the hexafluorocyclopentene ring and two adjacent heteroaryl rings were 48.3° for O1/N1/C16-C18 and 51.3° for S1/C6-C9, whereas that between the thiophene ring and the linked pyridine ring was 19.5°. From these data it could be concluded that all molecules of crystals **116–118** were fixed in the antiparallel mode in the crystalline phase, and the distances of two reactive C atoms were shorter than 4.2 Å. So, they could be expected to undergo photochromism in the single crystalline phase. As a matter of fact, the crystals of **116–118** underwent excellent photochromism in accordance with the expected ring closure upon UV irradiation.

Note, however, that in several cases, the photochromes are packed during crystallization in such a way that their conformations with elongated distances between the photoactive C–C atoms prevent photocyclization.

So, 1,2-bis-(4-methoxycarbonyl-2-ethyl-5-ethylthiophen-3-yl)hexafluorocyclopentene (**119A**) in which all hydrogen atoms of the heterocycles are substituted, whose synthesis is described in Scheme 19, did not isomerize to isomer **119B** upon the UV irradiation [130]. As shown by X-ray diffraction analysis, the conformation of molecule **119A** has some peculiarities in comparison with the previously considered structures. First, the F cycle is considerably compressed: the deviation of the envelope vertex from the cycle plane is equal to 0.12 Å only. The dihedral angles T1/F, T2/F, and T1/T2 are close to 90° (−84.7°, 86.7°, and 79.00°, respectively). They are considerably larger than similar angles in the compounds with two functional groups (**37A**, **113A**). Second, the thienyl fragments are unfolded in opposite directions relative to the F cycle (structure **119C** in Scheme 44, Fig. 2). As a result, the distance between the atoms C(2)···C(2') (4.45 Å) is much longer than the normal van der Waals contact and, therefore, is geometrically unfavorable for cyclization. In fact, compound **119** in the crystalline state does not change its color upon UV irradiation.

The X-ray diffraction analysis also elucidated the reasons for the absence of photochromism of product **58** in the solid state (Fig. 3) [68].

The product showed no photochromism in the crystalline phase as compared with similarly structured 1,2-bis(2-methyl-6-nitro-1-benzothiophen-3-yl)perfluorocyclopentene **120** [131]. The unit cell of a crystal of **58A** includes two symmetrically independent



Scheme 44

Fig. 2 Molecular structure of **DTE 119C** (CCDC; code: QEQVEN) [130]

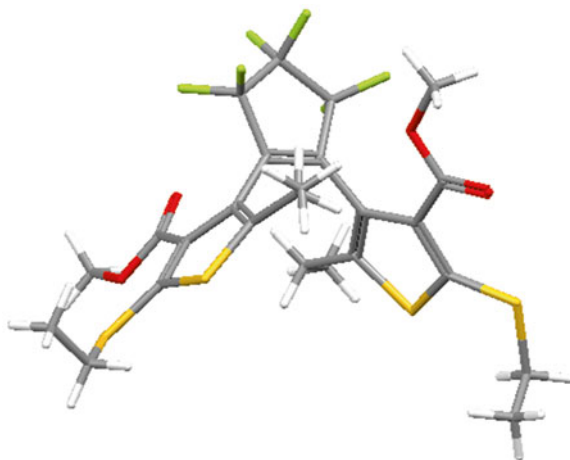
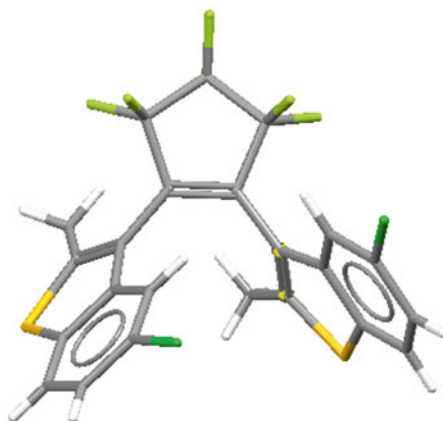


Fig. 3 Molecular structure of **DTE 58A** (CCDC; code: XIDJOK) [68]



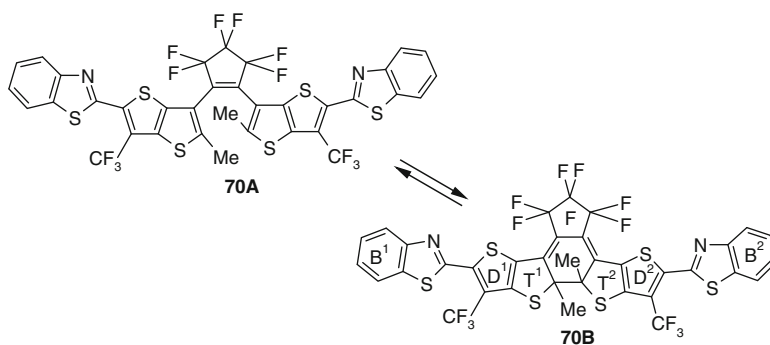
molecules (**a** and **b**). The comparison of the geometrical and conformational parameters of **a** and **b** did not reveal any critical differences (the average values are given below). All bond lengths and bond angles correspond to the standard values.

The perfluorocyclopentene fragment adopts an envelope conformation with the C4 atom deviated from the plane of other four cyclopentene carbons by 0.408 Å. The dihedral angles between the perfluorocyclopentene plane and each benzothiophene ring are 65.8° and 68.0°, respectively, while two benzothiophene planes form a dihedral angle of 72.7°. At this conformation, the distance between the carbon atoms in positions 2 and 2' turned out to be 4.25 Å, *i.e.*, significantly exceeding the van der Waals radius. That is why, compound **58** in the crystalline state remains to be photochemically inactive. It should be repeated that an analogous observation was reported for crystals of **120**.

It is important to emphasize that photochromes **58**, **119**, and **120** differ drastically in behavior in the crystalline state and in solutions. The unfavorable crystalline conformations prevent the photocyclization of these compounds, while in solutions, where the fragments can freely rotate about the C–C bonds to form conformations necessary for cyclization, they manifest the typical photochromic properties.

4.2 Cyclized Forms of Photochromes

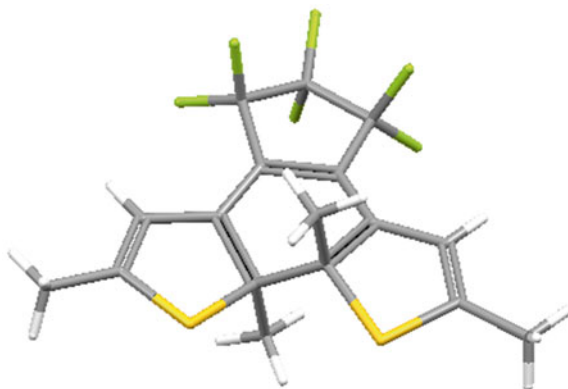
Spatial structures of forms **B** of the photochromes are poorly studied because of the difficulties in the production of single crystals suitable for X-ray diffraction and separation. Let us consider the structure of the cyclized form using considerably structurally different isomers **70B** and **113B** as examples (Schemes 41 and 45).



Scheme 45

The **F** cycle in **70B** looks like an envelope with a vertex, which is deflected from the base by 0.38 Å [46]. The cycles **T**¹ and **T**² in the thieno[3,2-*b*]thienyl fragments have also the envelope conformations, that is, the aromaticity in the thienyl cycles bonded with ring **F** is broken. Other seven atoms of thieno[3,2-*b*]thienyl form planar systems in each of the molecules (**D**¹, **D**²). These systems and fragments **F** and **B** make up the

Fig. 4 Molecular structure of cyclized form **B** of photochrome **113** (CCDC; code: FAWKIX) [123, 124]



flattened skeleton of the molecule (except for fluorine atoms), since the dihedral angles $\mathbf{D^1/F}$, $\mathbf{D^2/F}$, $\mathbf{D^1/D^2}$, and $\mathbf{B^1/T^1}$ are small (0.32 , 2.97 , 3.27 , and 1.39° , respectively). The angle $\mathbf{B^2/T^2}$ is slightly larger (11.45°) and is evidently caused by the action of the crystal lattice field. The alternation of C–C bond lengths by different multiplicity factors in the flattened fragment of the molecule indicates the formation of a new conjugated system of the polyene type. The six-membered cycle formed as a result of the cyclization acquires the conformation of “twisted sofa” with methyl substituents in positions 2,2’ trans-oriented relative to the plane of the molecule.

Molecule **113B** (Fig. 4) [119, 123] has a similar structure: the cycles \mathbf{F} , $\mathbf{T^1}$, and $\mathbf{T^1}$ have the envelope conformation, and the six-membered cycle takes the conformation of “twisted sofa”.

The values of dihedral angles $\mathbf{T^1/F}$ (-12.14), $\mathbf{T^2/F}$ (11.62), and $\mathbf{T^1/T^2}$ (177.17°) indicate the flattened structure of the molecule (except for the F and H atoms of the methyl groups). The new system of conjugated bonds can be separated out in the planar fragment of the molecule, as well as in **70B**. Thus, forms **B** of the photochromes with the perfluorocyclopentene bridges are characterized by the following analysis and enantiomeric features: (a) the skeleton of the molecule is practically planar, (b) all five-membered rings have envelope conformations, (c) the thienyl cycles lose aromaticity, and (d) a new system of conjugated bonds is formed.

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Chemistry of α -Fluorinated Ethers- and Thioethers-Containing Heterocycles

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Abstract The present chapter points out the importance of α -fluorinated ethers and sulfides, discloses synthetic routes and possible applications.

α -Fluorinated ethers show applications as analgesics, anaesthetics and cardiovascular, respiratory, psychopharmacologic, neurological, gastrointestinal drugs and anti-infective therapeutics. The number of molecules containing an CF_3O -group has quadrupled between 2008 and 2012, nevertheless CF_3O -containing heterocycles are still quite rare. Several examples show the efficiency of either CF_3O -compounds but also OFC_2H -containing substances.

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α -Fluorinated sulphides show similarity to the corresponding ethers with respect to the pK_a value. But regarding the stereo-electronic effects there is a huge difference. Amongst others, substances containing a SCF_3 - or SCF_2H -group find applications in medicinal chemistry, e.g. against anorexia nervosa, as anti-inflammatory agent or as antibiotics.

Keywords Fluorine • Trifluoromethoxy group • Trifluoromethylthio group • Synthesis • Fluorinated heterocycles

1 Introduction

Nowadays, fluorine, the most electronegative element, plays a key role in pharmaceutical, agrochemical and material sciences. About 20 % of all pharmaceuticals and about 30 % of agrochemicals under development or recently introduced on the market contain fluorine. Although mainly single fluorine atoms or a trifluoromethyl group have been introduced in various molecules, the introduction of (difluoromethoxy)- or (trifluoromethoxy) aryl fragments into crop production products was also realized [1].

Numerous CF_3O containing compounds have been prepared, clinically evaluated and in many cases marketed as drugs with enhanced effectiveness, often coupled with diminished side-effects [2]. Between 2008 and 2012 the number of structures bearing an CF_3O -substituent has more than quadrupled (SciFinder). Mainly all of the documents are patents, but there are also numerous research articles. Whereas for trifluoromethoxy substituted heterocycles is found almost exclusively in patent applications [3].

Of the currently employed fluorinated moieties, the α -fluorinated ethers and thioethers are becoming more and more important in both agrochemical research and pharmaceuticals chemistry [1–3]. However, examples of trifluoromethyl ethers in pharmaceutical chemistry are still quite rare [2, 3]. They were rapidly used as volatile, non-toxic, non-explosive and fast-acting inhalation anaesthetics and anti-inflammatory agents. Numerous new α -fluorine containing compounds have been prepared, marketed as drugs with enhanced effectiveness often coupled with diminished side-effects. Today, significant application areas for α -fluorinated ether are analgesics, anaesthetics, cardiovascular drugs, respiratory drugs, psychopharmacologic drugs, neurological drugs, gastrointestinal drugs and anti-infective therapeutics.

Heterocyclic compounds bearing the trifluoromethoxy group [4], are of special interest, some of which showed remarkable biological activity and have been applied as neurologic agents such as Riluzole [5], a CF_3 -substituted 2-amino-benzothiazole, is the first drug approved for treatment of amyotrophic lateral sclerosis, to treat schizophrenia and other neurological diseases. (-)-Pantoprazole [6], an irreversible proton pump inhibitor, reached its first market worldwide for acute treatment of gastric and duodenal ulcers and gastroesophageal reflux disease (Fig. 1).

The α -fluorinated thioethers like Triflumidate [7], bearing a CF_3SO_2 - moiety, are used for their anti-inflammatory activity (Fig. 2).

The successful use of α -fluorinated ethers and thioethers in active ingredients for modern agrochemicals is witnessed by various commercial products like

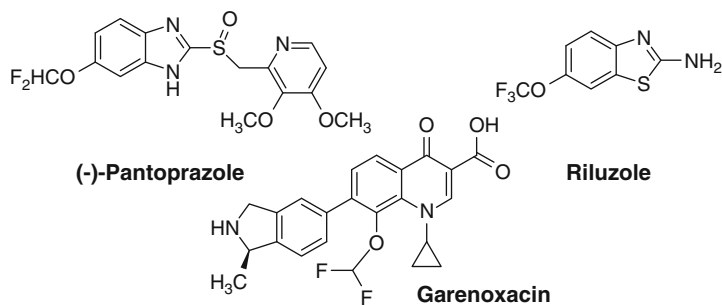


Fig. 1 Fluorinated ethers as pharmaceuticals

Fig. 2 Triflumidate as an example of *S*-perfluoroalkyl substituted pharmaceutical

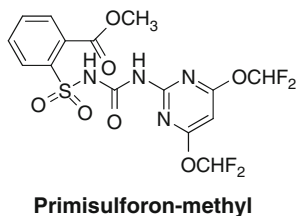
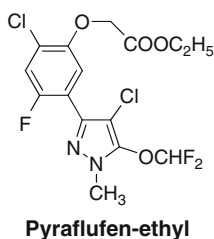
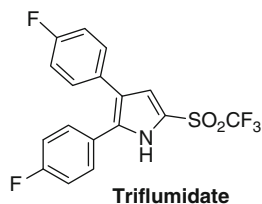


Fig. 3 CHF_2O -containing agrochemicals

insecticides, fungicides, plant growth regulators, and herbicides. According to the 14th (2006) edition of the pesticide manual [8a], only five pesticides containing CF_3O -groups were registered so far. In 15th edition (2011) there are already 23 compounds [8b]. However, the CF_3O -group is mainly located on the aromatic ring. The proinsecticide Indoxacarb [9], the insect growth regulant (IGR) Triflumuron [10], the plant growth regulator Flurprimidol [11], the inhibitor of the respiratory chain and succinate dehydrogenase (SD) Thifluzamide [12] as well as the inhibitor of acetolactate synthase (ALS) Flucarbazone-sodium [13] are some of them. Primisulfuron-methyl [14], a selective fluorosulfonylurea herbicide bears two difluoromethoxy subunits. Pyraflufen-ethyl [15] is CHF_2O -containing pyrazole, a contact herbicide for the control of broadleaf weeds (Fig. 3).

The trifluoromethyl sulfoxide-containing arylaminopyrazole Fipronil [16] (Fig. 4), launched in 1993 by Rhone-Poulenc, is one of the most important non-competitive GABA antagonist in insects.

Fig. 4 Fipronil as an example of a *S*-perfluoroalkyl substituted agrochemical

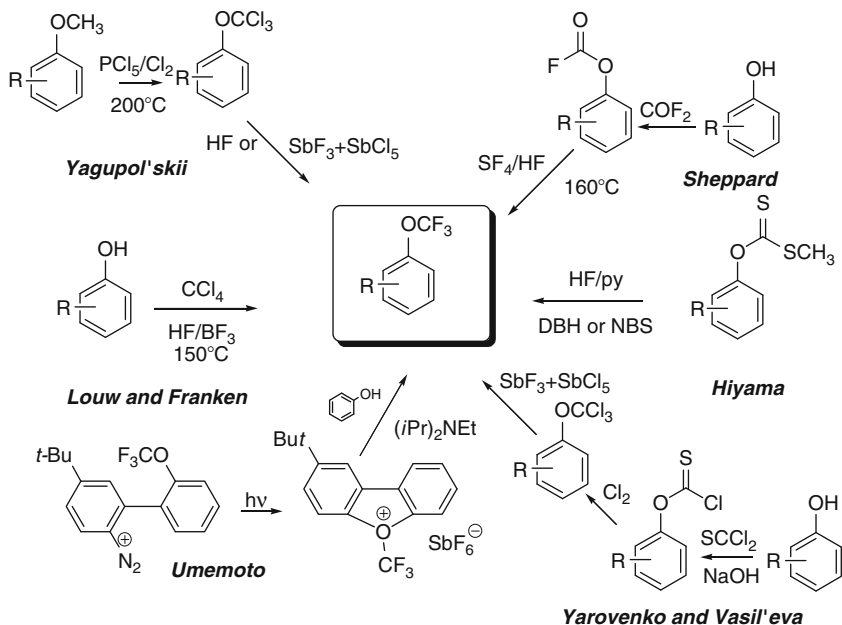
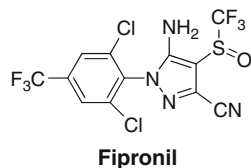


Fig. 5 Trifluoromethoxylation of aromatic compounds

Various reviews have been published about this topic. Jeschke and Leroux [2] published about the medical application of α -fluorinated ethers. Leroux and Pazenok [1] wrote about the synthesis and the properties of trifluoromethyl ethers. Leroux, Jeschke and Schlosser [3b] reviewed the properties of α -fluorinated ethers, thioethers and amines. The work of Boiko [4a] is dedicated to aromatic and heterocyclic perfluoroalkyl sulfides. Vovk and Gakh [4b] gave a detailed review about trifluoromethoxy containing azoles and azines. This review summarized the literature data on synthesis and biological activity of trifluoromethoxy, difluoromethoxy and α -fluorinated sulfides derivatives of five and six membered heterocycles.

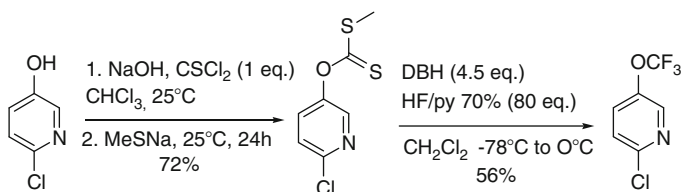
2 Preparation of α -Fluorinated Ethers

2.1 α -Trifluoromethyl Ethers

The trifluoromethoxy group in aryl cannot be formed analogously to the methoxy group, by simple treatment of trifluorohalomethanes with alkoxides, so it has to be introduced or constructed by one of the following approaches (Fig. 5):

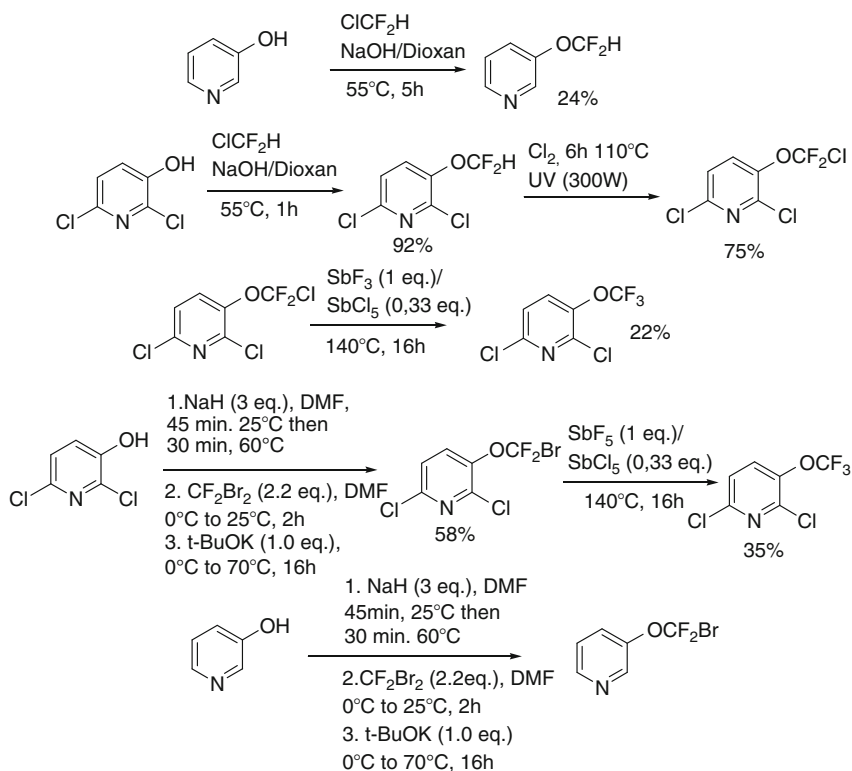
- L. Yagupol'skii [17] prepared the first aryl trifluoromethyl ethers from substituted anisols. The substitution of chlorine by fluorine was realized using anhydrous hydrogen fluoride or with antimony trifluoride (Swart's reagent) in the presence of antimony pentachloride.
- Louw and Franken [18] could convert anisole into trichloromethyl anisole by photochlorination with elemental chlorine in refluxing tetrachloromethane. Feiring [19] could show more recently, that the trichloromethyl aryl ethers can be *in situ* converted into the final trifluoromethyl aryl ethers by treatment with HF.
- Yarovenko and Vasil'eva [20] developed an approach based on aryl chlorothioformates. They can be cleanly converted by chlorination into trichloromethyl aryl ethers. This step is then followed by fluorination using antimony trifluoride and a catalytic amount of antimony pentachloride.
- Sheppard [21] described the syntheses of aryl trifluoromethylethers by reaction of SF₄ with aryl fluoroformates.
- Hiyama [22] et al. developed the oxidative desulfurization–fluorination of dithiocarbonates (xanthogenates) by treatment with 1,3-dibromo-5,5-dimethylhydantoin (DBH) or N-bromosuccinimide (NBS) and a huge excess of 70 % hydrogen fluoride-pyridine (Olah's reagent, up to 80 equivalents). The corresponding trifluoromethyl ethers are formed in moderate to excellent yields.
- Umemoto [23] reported the preparation of *O*-(trifluoromethyl)-dibenzofuranium salts and their use as CF₃-transfer agents based on studies of L. Yagupol'skii [24]. The direct *O*- and *N*-trifluoromethylation of alcohols, phenols, amines, anilines and pyridines under mild conditions was described.

As expected, the introduction of the OCF₃ group in the pyridine ring is associated with certain difficulties. Leroux et al. [25] investigated the introduction of trifluoromethoxy substituents on various heterocycles by classical approaches. Hiyama's oxidative desulfurization/fluorination [22], developed for aromatic and aliphatic series, already required careful optimization of the reaction conditions in the synthesis of the required xanthogenates, due to the low nucleophilicity of the hydroxy group. Dithiocarbamates were finally obtained, but their conversion into the corresponding (trifluoromethoxy) pyridines failed. After several fruitless attempts the needs for chlorine atoms on the pyridine ring if the desired outcome of the oxidative desulfurization/fluorination was to be achieved. 2-Chloro-5-(*S*-methyl)dithiocarbamate pyridine (Scheme 1), prepared from 2-chloro-5-hydroxypyridine, sodium methanethiolate, and thiophosgene [26], reacted with excess (80 equiv.) HF/pyridine and 1,3-dibromo-5,5-dimethylhydantoin (DBH, 4.5 equiv.) to afford the desired 2-chloro-5-(trifluoromethoxy)pyridine in 56 % yield. Although it was shown that the oxidative desulfurization/fluorination of a pyridine xanthogenate was only possible in the presence of ring chlorine atoms.



Scheme 1 Preparation of the 3-(trifluoromethoxy)pyridine

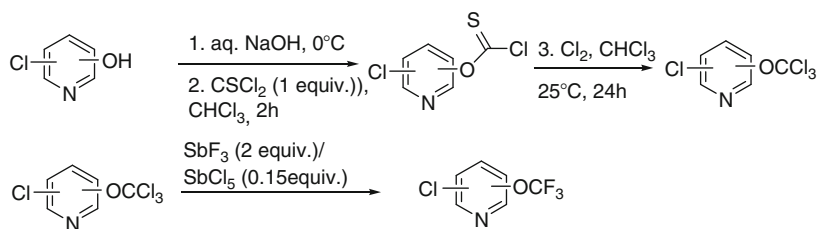
Another standard route to aromatic trifluoromethyl ethers is based on the treatment of phenolates with chlorodifluoromethane (CHF_2Cl) [27] or dibromodifluoromethane (CF_2Br_2) [27, 28] in the presence of a base, with subsequent introduction of the third fluorine atom. Leroux [25] et al. studied this approach for the synthesis of pyridine trifluoromethyl ethers. In this case the reactivity at the pyridine ring was also influenced by chlorine. When 3-hydroxypyridine and 2,6-dichloro-3-hydroxypyridine were treated with chlorodifluoromethane in a biphasic mixture of aqueous sodium hydroxide and dioxane, the difluoromethoxypyridine and 2,6-dichloro difluoromethoxypyridine were obtained in 24 and 92 % yield (Scheme 2). The photochlorination of 2,6-dichloro difluoromethoxypyridine gave 2,6-dichloro-3-(chlorodifluoromethoxy)pyridine but required a large amount of elemental chlorine and worked only on small scale. In an analogous manner, the treatment of 2,6-dichloro-3-hydroxypyridine with CF_2Br_2 afforded 2,6-dichloro-3-(bromodifluoromethoxy)pyridine in 58 % yield. Both 2,6-dichloro-3-(halodifluoromethoxy)pyridines were subjected to fluorination with antimony trifluoride (SbF_3 , Swart's reagent) in the presence of catalytic amounts of SbCl_5 , which afforded 2,6-dichloro-3-(trifluoromethoxy)pyridine in 22 and 35 % yields, respectively (Scheme 2). In contrast, 3-hydroxypyridine afforded only a 7 % yield of 3-(bromodifluoromethoxy)pyridine [25].



Scheme 2 (Trifluoromethoxy)pyridine synthesis through alkylation of hydroxypyridines with difluorocyclohexane

Although it was shown that CF_3O -substituted pyridines are accessible through alkylation of hydroxypyridines with CF_2Br_2 and subsequent nucleophilic substitution with SbF_3 , two main drawbacks still remained: (a) the optimized overall yields of these two-step syntheses were low (about 15 %), and (b) the alkylating reagents (CF_2Br_2 or CF_2BrCl) are no longer commercially available because they are now classified as ozone-depleting substances (ODSs) [25].

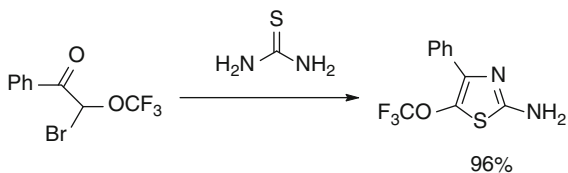
The approach of Yarovenko and Vasil'eva [20] was also applied by Leroux [25]. The chlorothionoformiates were obtained by treatment of the hydroxypyridines with thiophosgene in aqueous sodium hydroxide at 0 °C and directly subjected to chlorination without isolation. The crude Cl_3CO -pyridines were then used for the fluorination step without further purification (Scheme 3). The advantage of this approach is that no large amounts of chlorine gas are required, as is often the case for radical chlorination of methoxy groups. The conversion of (trichloromethoxy)pyridines into (trifluoromethoxy)pyridines with antimony trifluoride (SbF_3) and catalytic antimony pentachloride (SbCl_5) was successful. The chlorine/fluorine exchange proceeds rapidly to the OCF_2Cl intermediate [29]. However, the final Cl/F exchange is the rate-determining step, as had previously been observed in the aromatic series for the conversion of $-\text{CCl}_3$ into $-\text{CF}_3$. Heating with SbCl_5 (0.15 equiv.) and SbF_3 (2 equiv.) for 6 h at 150 °C was required for complete conversion under optimized reaction conditions [25]. The influence of the chlorine position in the pyridine ring with respect to the results of chlorination/fluorination sequence was discussed [25].



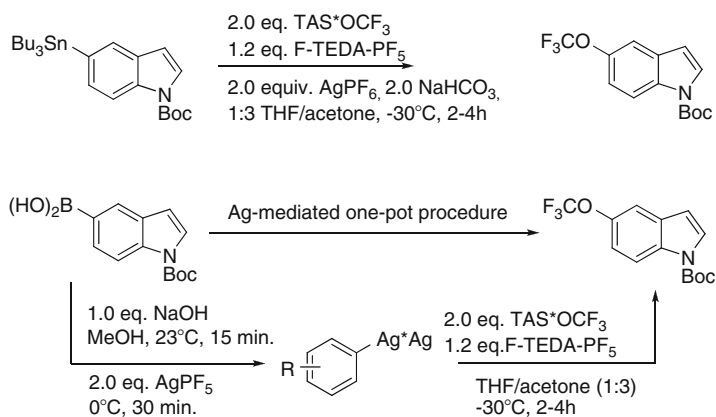
Scheme 3 Synthesis of (trifluoromethoxy)pyridines

Vovk and Gakh [4] reported in their review on trifluoromethoxy containing azoles and azines, wherein the CF_3O -group is located at aromatic ring. Y. Yagupolskii presented an efficient synthesis of 5'-fluoroalkoxythiazoles via α -bromo- α -fluoroalkoxyacetophenones Hantzsch type cyclization with thioureas or thioamides. Bromoacetophenones are convenient and widely used building blocks for various types of heterocyclization and for the Hantzsch's thiazole synthesis in particular. The α -bromo- α -fluoroalkoxyacetophenones readily react with thiourea in aqueous dioxane at room temperature giving the desired 2-aminothiazole with almost quantitative yield (Scheme 4) [30]. This approach cannot be applied for wide range of heterocycles due to the dominance of the keto-form over the hydroxy one in their structures [31]. The direct *O*-perfluoroalkylation in contrast to standard well known *O*-alkylations is still a real challenge [3].

Scheme 4 Hantzsch-type thiazole synthesis

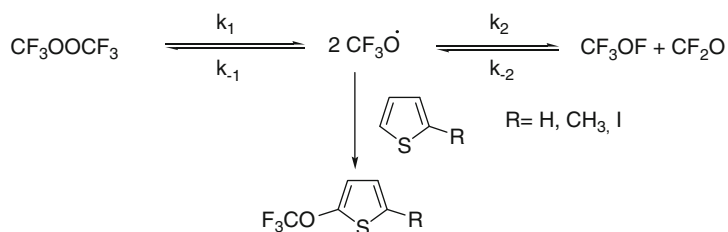


Ritter et al. [32a] developed a silver-mediated cross-coupling of trifluoromethoxide (Tris(dimethylamino)sulfonium trifluoromethoxide (TAS⁺OCF₃) [32b] with aryl stannanes and arylboronic acids to give aryl trifluoromethyl ethers. This is the first report of a transition-metal-mediated C_{aryl}-OCF₃ bond formation (Scheme 5).



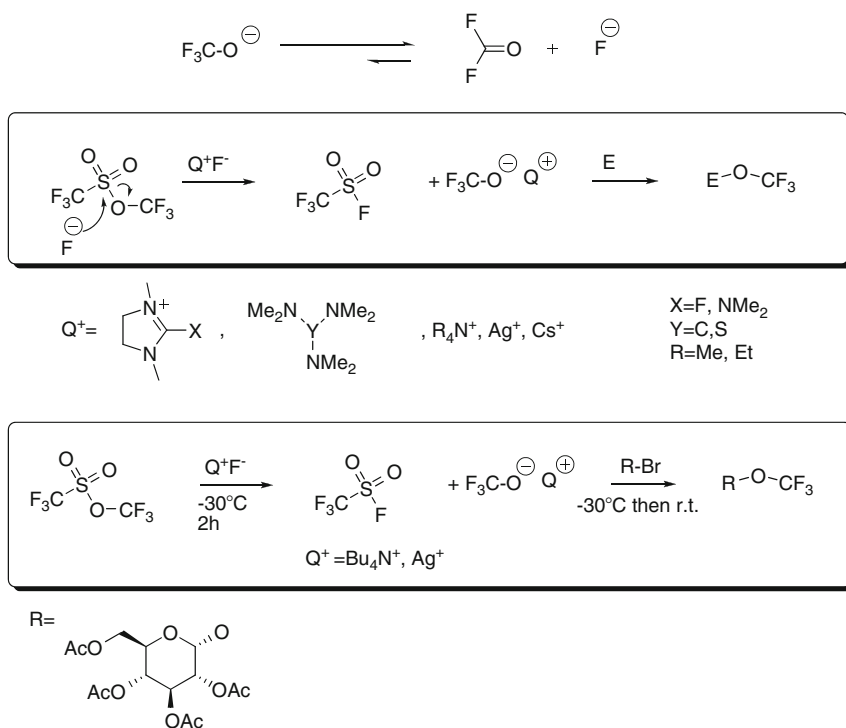
Scheme 5 Trifluoromethoxylation of stannanes and heteroarylboronic acid

A new ‘green’ process to obtain trifluoromethoxylated compounds by a gas-phase method was presented by Argüello [33]. In this work, we present the direct synthesis of 2-substituted-5-(trifluoromethoxy)thiophenes by a co-thermolysis between bistrifluoromethyl peroxide CF₃OOCF₃ (BTMP) and 2-substituted-thiophenes (Scheme 6). Through it, new 2-substituted-5-(trifluoromethoxy)thiophenes have been obtained in moderate to good yields.



Scheme 6 Scavenging of CF₃O radicals by co-thermolysis with thiophenes

Marrec et al. [34] used trifluoromethyl triflate (TFMT) as a generator of trifluoromethoxy anion when activated by fluoride anions. Commercially available fluorides (silver fluoride and *n*-tetrabutylammonium triphenyldifluorosilicate), combined with TFMT, allow a simple generation, *in situ*, of silver and *n*-tetrabutylammonium trifluoromethoxides which were able to react with electrophilic substrates. Silver trifluoromethoxide, which is usually more efficient than *n*-tetrabutylammonium trifluoromethoxide, converts, under mild conditions, primary aliphatic bromides and iodides as well as primary and secondary benzylic or allylic bromides. Several trifluoromethyl ethers, which could be valuable building-blocks, were prepared in such a way (Scheme 7).

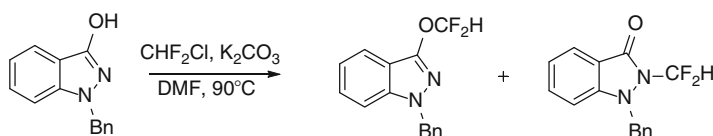


Scheme 7 Generation of trifluoromethoxide from TFMT and trifluoromethoxylation of alkyl bromides with *n*BuNOCF₃ or AgOCF₃

2.2 α,α -Difluoromethyl Ethers

α,α -Difluoromethyl aryl ethers are most conveniently prepared by reaction of the appropriate phenolate with chlorodifluoromethane in the presence of a base such as sodium hydroxide which generates an intermediate difluorocarbene *n*-tetrabutylammonium trifluoromethoxide [27, 35c].

T. Sokolenko and L. Yagupolskii [36] have studied the difluoroalkylation 1-benzyl-1*H*-indazol-3-ol with chlorodifluoromethane. The selection of such a subject for investigation was caused by the fact that indazole derivatives possess a broad spectrum of biological activity. It is known that 1-substituted indazol-3-ols with alkyl sulfates, alkyl halides, or diazomethane give a mixture of products of *O*- and *N*-alkylation, with 3-dimethylaminopropylbenzene sulfonate only the product of *O*-alkylation, and with acrylonitrile and ethyl acrylate the product of addition at the nitrogen atom [37]. The reaction of 1-benzylindazol-3-ol with difluorocarbene, generated from chlorodifluoromethane, proceeds unselectively, although in high overall yield (~80 %), and a mixture is formed of the products of *O*- and *N*-alkylation in a ratio of 5:4 (Scheme 8). Compounds *O*- and *N*-alkylated compounds differ substantially in physical properties and may be separated by column chromatography.



Scheme 8 Synthesis of difluoromethoxy imidazolol derivatives

3 Preparation of α -Fluorinated Thioethers

3.1 α -Trifluoromethyl Thioethers

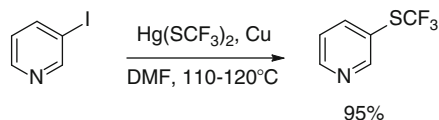
Trifluoromethylthio group can be incorporated or constructed by one of the following approaches:

- The introduction of R_FS-moieties into aromatic compounds by both electrophilic and nucleophilic reagents.
- The halogenation of alkyl S-derivatives with subsequent replacement of the halogen atoms by fluorine.
- Various modes of perfluoroalkylation of organosulfur compounds including cationic, anionic, radical and ionradical variants.

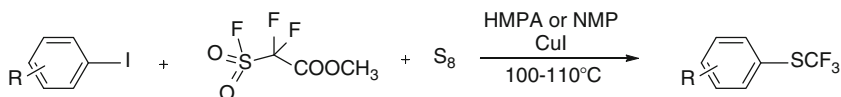
3.1.1 Nucleophilic Substitution

L. Yagupolskii [38] developed a method for trifluoromethylsulfanylation of aromatic and heterocyclic compounds using trifluoromethylthiocopper. Remy [39] suggested carrying out the synthesis of aryltrifluoromethyl sulfides by generation CuSCF₃ (from trifluoromethylthio mercury and -copper) *in situ* with the aryl halides. This not only reduces the number of steps but also increases the overall efficiency (Scheme 9).

Scheme 9 Reactions with in situ generated CuSCF_3

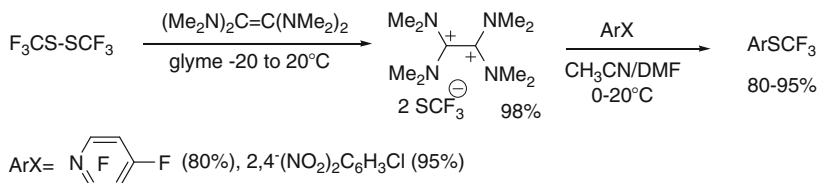


As described previously for trifluoromethyl ethers, Umemoto [23c] reported on the trifluoromethylation of thiols with *S*-(trifluoromethyl) dibenzothiophenium triflate affording the corresponding trifluoromethyl thioethers in medium to good yield. Otherwise, trifluoromethyl phenyl thioethers and ring-substituted analogs are readily made from iodo- or bromoarenes, methyl difluoro(fluorosulfonyl)acetate and elemental sulphur in the presence of cuprous iodide in hexamethylphosphoric triamide (HMPA) or *N*-methylpyrrolidone (NMP) (Scheme 10).



Scheme 10 Synthesis of trifluoromethyl phenyl thioethers

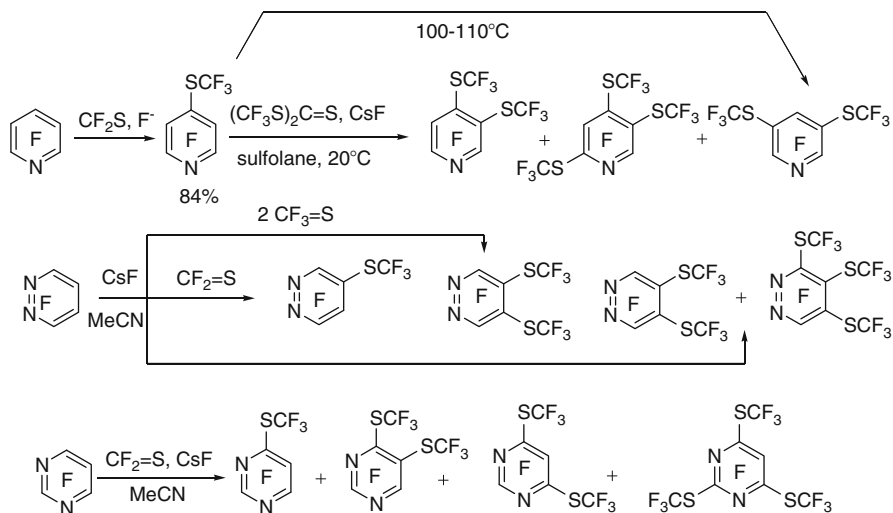
Kolomeitsev and Röscenthaler [40] produced tetrakis(dimethylamino)ethylene dication stabilized perfluoroalkyl thiolates via reduction of bis(perfluoroalkyl)disulfides with tetrakis(dimethylamino) ethylene. The ionic character of this salt was proven by reactions with activated fluoroaromatics halides, which lead to near quantitative formation of the corresponding trifluoromethylthio derivatives (Scheme 11).



Scheme 11 Tetrakis(dimethylamino)ethylene dication trifluoromethyl thiolate as a stable reagent for substitution of aromatic halides

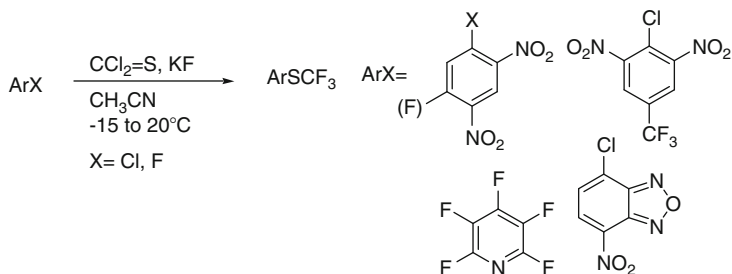
Dmowski and Haas [41] used the reaction of thiocarbonyl difluoride with metal fluorides, to generate the trifluoromethylthiolate anion for introduction into activated perfluoroheterocyclic compounds. Thus, reaction of $\text{CF}_2\text{S}/\text{CsF}$ with pentafluoropyridine under mild conditions gave the 4-substituted product. However, for the subsequent introduction of additional SCF_3 groups this system is not suitable due to effective selfcondensation of thiocarbonyl difluoride ($\text{CF}_2=\text{S}$) at higher concentrations. For this purpose the trimer of thiocarbonyl difluoride, bis(trifluoromethyl)trithio-carbonate ($(\text{CF}_3\text{S})_2\text{C}=\text{S}$), is more stable and reacts with CsF in sulfolane to generate

CF_3S^- anions. However, the use of this reagent leads to mixtures of products. Whilst reaction of $\text{CsF}/\text{CF}_2=\text{S}$ (or its trimer) with tetrafluoropyridazine allows for the selective formation of mono-, di- and tri- (SCF_3) substituted products, the analogous reaction with tetrafluoropyrimidine results in a mixture of polyfluoropyrimidine derivatives (Scheme 12).



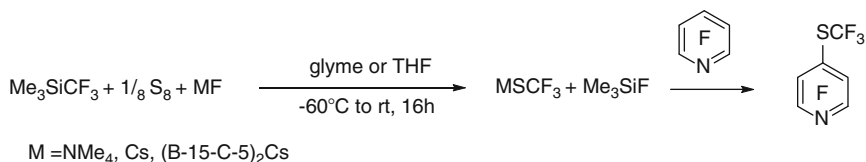
Scheme 12 The use of $\text{CF}_2=\text{S}/\text{CsF}$ or $(\text{CF}_3\text{S})_2\text{C}=\text{S}/\text{CsF}$ for the introduction of CF_3S groups into fluorinated heterocycles

A considerable improvement of this method was developed by Clark et al. [42]: No preliminary preparation of difluorothiophosgene or its trimer is necessary, the required reagents being generated in situ (from thiophosgene and KF). The reaction with activated aromatic compounds is shown in Scheme 13.



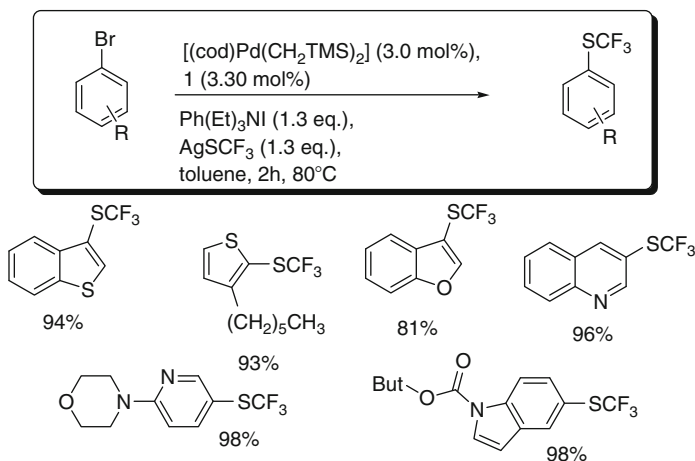
Scheme 13 One-pot synthesis of ArSCF_3 from ArX , $\text{CCl}_2=\text{S}$ and KF

Tyrra and Naumann [43] reported on the synthesis of $[\text{NMe}_4]\text{SCF}_3$, CsSCF_3 and $[(\text{B-15-C-5})_2\text{Cs}]\text{SCF}_3$ (B-15-C-5: benzo-15-crown-5) from reactions of the corresponding fluorides, trimethyl(trifluoromethyl) silane, Me_3SiCF_3 , and elemental sulphur. The salts obtained by this method are considerably more thermally stable. They can be treated with boiling ether or CS_2 to remove excess sulfur and readily react at room temperature with inorganic, aliphatic and activated aromatic halides with the formation of trifluoromethyl sulfides (Scheme 14).



Scheme 14 Nucleophilic thiotrifluoromethylation

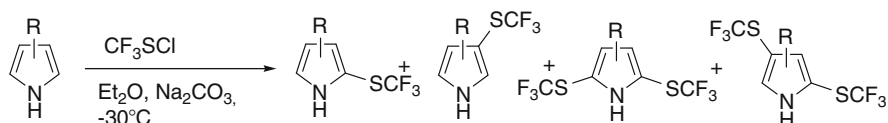
Buchwald et al. [44a] developed a general method for the Pd-catalyzed HetAr-SCF₃ bond-forming reaction. Using this method, a wide range of heterocyclic aryl bromides were converted into their corresponding heteroaryl trifluoromethyl sulfides (Scheme 15). Clark and Adams [44b] work on the use of $(\text{Bu})_4\text{NI}$ and AgSCF_3 [44c] for $\text{S}_\text{N}\text{Ar}$ reactions with aryl halides indicated to us that the addition of a quaternary ammonium salt might be beneficial. Based on this work it is presumed that the iodide anion binds to AgSCF_3 to generate an anionic "ate" complex. Presumably a large diffuse cation further aids in the solubility of this complex.



Scheme 15 Pd-catalyzed formation of heteroaryl-SCF₃ compounds

3.1.2 Electrophilic Substitution

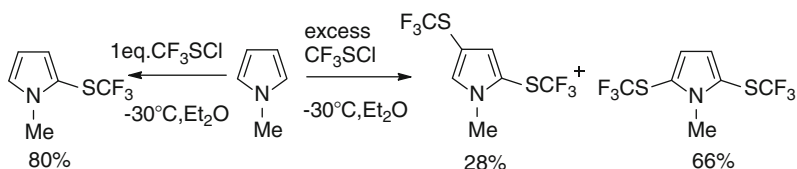
Haas and coworkers performed a series of studies on the reactivity of the perfluoroalkyl sulfonyl chlorides with electron rich heterocyclic compounds, to give CF_3S derivatives. Pyrroles are good substrates for reaction with trifluoromethyl sulfonyl chloride due to higher nucleophilicity compared to benzene [45]. An excess of reagent gives bis- (CF_3S) pyrrole derivatives as shown in Scheme 16.



R = H, 2-COOH, 2-COMe, 2,4- and 2,5 Me₂

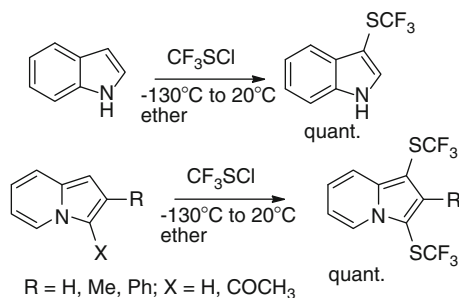
Scheme 16 Reactions of pyrroles with $\text{CF}_3\text{S-Cl}$

N-Methylpyrrole can be variously substituted depending on the conditions as illustrated in Scheme 17 [45, 47].



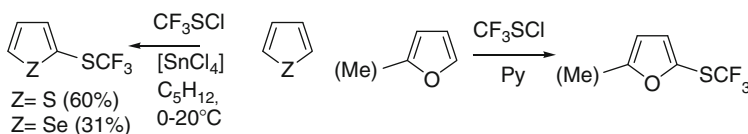
Scheme 17 Reactions of *N*-methylpyrrole with $\text{CF}_3\text{S-Cl}$

Condensed pyrroles also react readily with $\text{CF}_3\text{S-Cl}$. Indole undergoes substitution, as expected, at the 3-position [42], while indolizine and some of its derivatives give 1,3-bis (CF_3S) -substituted products, in some cases, in quantitative yield [46]. It is interesting to note that not only hydrogen, but also an acetyl group in the 1-position can be substituted (Scheme 18).



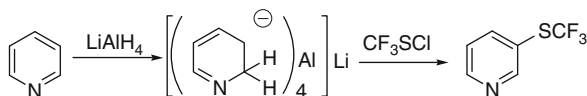
Scheme 18 Trifluoromethylsulfanylation of indole and indolizines

Unlike pyrroles, furan, thiophene and selenophene react with CF_3SCl only in the presence of catalysts. SnCl_4 is sufficiently active for the reaction with selenophene [47] and thiophenes [48], whilst furans require more forcing conditions usually involving prolonged heating (20 h at 60 °C) and presence of pyridine for additional activation (Scheme 19).



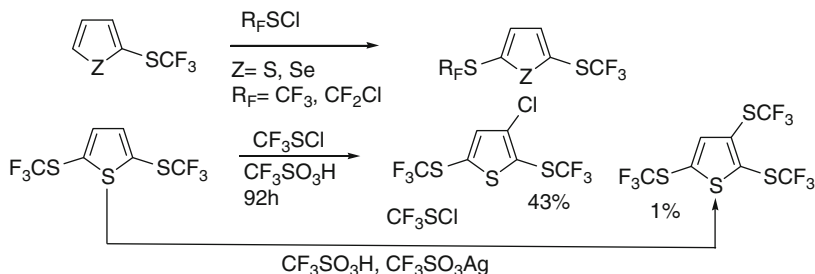
Scheme 19 Reactions of furan, thiophene and selenophene with CF_3SCl

Pyridine is too deactivated for trifluoromethylsulfanylation under classical conditions. To achieve the substitution it is first of all necessary to convert pyridine to an anionic hydride σ -complex by reduction with LiAlH_4 [49]. The reaction with CF_3SCl then proceeds with difficulty and mono-substituted 3-trifluoromethylsulfanyl pyridine is formed in low yield along with small amounts of the 3,5-bis(CF_3S) derivative ($\sim 1\%$) (Scheme 20).



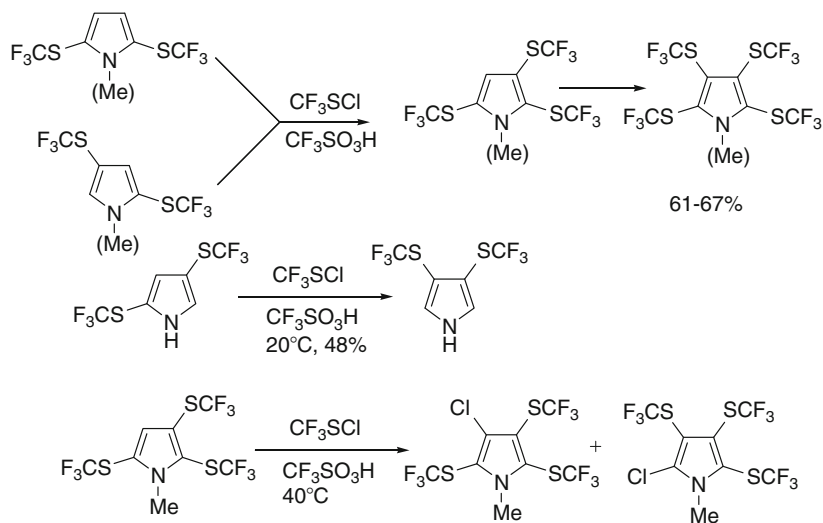
Scheme 20 Trifluoromethylsulfanylation of pyridine requires initial hydride reduction

Introduction of additional CF_3S -groups into heterocyclic compounds (except for pyrrole and its derivatives) occurs in the presence of perfluoroalkanesulfonic acids as an activator. Incorporation of the second fluoroalkylsulfanyl group into thiophenes [47] and selenophene [48] is possible in the presence of $\text{CF}_3\text{SO}_3\text{H}$. However, reaction of CF_3SCl with 2,5-bis(CF_3S) thiophene in presence of $\text{CF}_3\text{SO}_3\text{H}$ gives the 3-chloro-derivative as the major product. 2,3,5-Tris(CF_3S) thiophene is accessible if silver triflate is added [50] (Scheme 21).



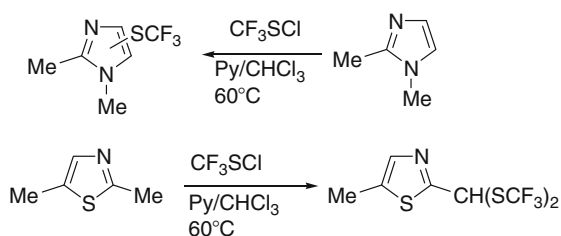
Scheme 21 Introduction of additional R_fS -groups into heterocyclic compounds in the presence of $\text{CF}_3\text{SO}_3\text{H}$

Such reactions can also be successfully carried out with pyrroles (Scheme 22) [47, 51]. Prolonged reaction times lead to chlorinated products as well as products that arise from migration of the CF_3S -groups [47].



Scheme 22 Introduction of additional R_FS -groups into pyrroles

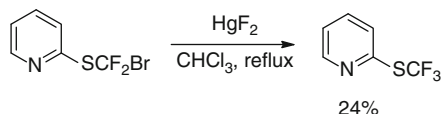
Interestingly, unlike 1,2-dimethylimidazole, the sulfanylation of 2,4-dimethylthiazole under the same conditions occurs not to imidazole ring but attack twice the methyl group in 2-position to form bis-trifluoromethylsulfanylated derivative (Scheme 23) [52].



Scheme 23 Trifluoromethylsulfanylation of imidazole and thiazole derivatives

3.1.3 Substitution of Halogen Atoms by Fluorine

The Cl- and Br-substituents can then be replaced by fluorine by mercury fluoride without use of HF or SbF_3 [53] (Scheme 24).

Scheme 24 Conversion of CF_2BrS group to CF_3S 

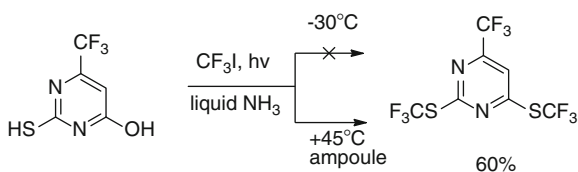
3.1.4 Radical Ion Perfluoroalkylation

The $\text{S}_{\text{RN}}1$ reaction of aryl thiolates with trifluoromethyl iodide or bromide was the first synthesis of trifluoromethyl sulphides. This method, first reported by L. Yagupolskii [54] using CF_3I and UV irradiation, and by Wakselman and Tordeux [55] using CF_3Br . The other popular method involves the reaction of trifluoromethyl anion (generated *in situ* by various methods) with aryl and alkyl disulphides [56]. Heterocyclic thiols form *S*-perfluoroalkyl derivatives when irradiated in liquid ammonia in the presence of iodoperfluoroalkanes. The type of heterocyclic ring and the position of the thiol group influences the reaction. More electron-deficient heterocycles require longer irradiation times.

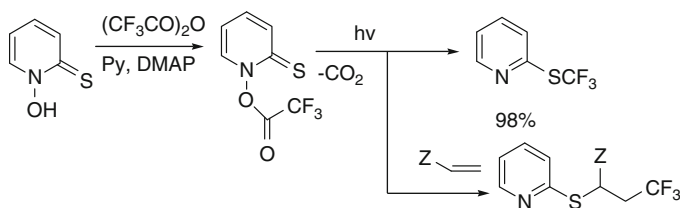
It appears that 4-hydroxypyrimidine-2-thiol does not react with CF_3I under standard conditions. Similar to the reaction of 4-nitrothiophenol noted above [57], this reaction requires more forcing conditions. Other 4-hydroxypyrimidine-2-thiols behave similarly. The irradiation of an ammonia solution of 2-mercapto-4-oxy-6-trifluoromethylpyrimidine with CF_3I must be conducted in a Pyrex ampoule at 30–45 °C to produce the *S*-trifluoromethyl derivative (Scheme 25). Apparently, the reaction of these hydroxymercapto heterocyclic derivatives is complicated by stabilization of sulfur centred radicals.

Scheme 25

Trifluoromethylation of 2-mercapto-4-hydroxy-6-trifluoromethylpyrimidine

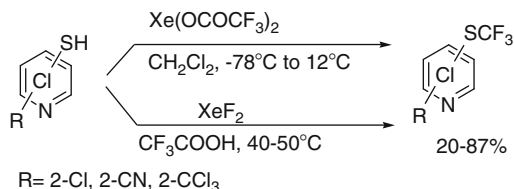


Barton [58] has shown that the irradiation of thiohydroxamic esters of perfluorocarboxylic acids generates $\text{R}_\text{F}\cdot$ radicals which in the presence of olefins give addition products. However, in the absence of radical traps they attack the sulfur to yield, for example, *S*-trifluoromethyl derivatives of pyridine (Scheme 26).

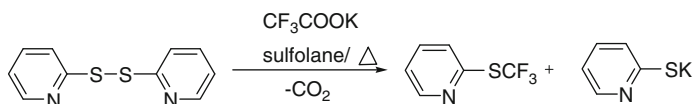
**Scheme 26** Barton's *S*-perfluoroalkylation reactions

Xenon difluoride has been used to initiate oxidative decarboxylation of perfluorocarboxylic acids for R_F generation and with aromatic and heterocyclic compounds the perfluoroalkyl groups can also become incorporated into the aromatic ring [59]. On the other hand, Sipyagin et al. [60] have employed this method for the perfluoroalkylation of thiols such as polychloropyridine thiols. Two different methods were used: the action of preformed xenon carboxylates or treatment of a pyridinethiol solution in R_F COOH directly with xenon difluoride. A range of isomeric perfluoroalkyl sulfides was obtained (Scheme 27).

Scheme 27
Perfluoroalkylation of polychloropyridine thiols with xenon perfluorocarboxylates or XeF_2

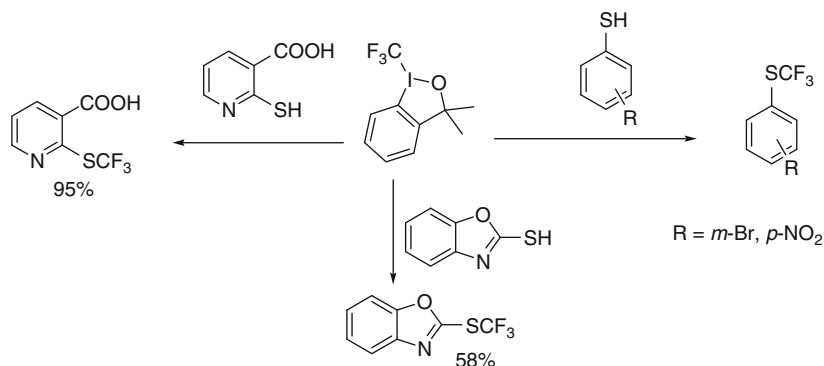


A simple method for the generation of metal derivatives of perfluoroalkyl carbanions by the decarboxylation of alkali salts of perfluorocarboxylic acids, has also been used. For example, heating potassium perfluoroalkyl carboxylates in the presence of dipyridine disulfides in DMF or sulfolane leads to the formation of the corresponding pyridine perfluoroalkyl sulfides [61] (Scheme 28).



Scheme 28 Thermal reaction of CF_3CO_2K with pyridine disulfides

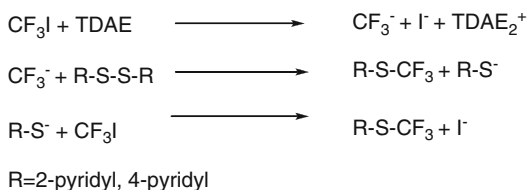
Togni [62] found that both aromatic and aliphatic thiols undergo selectively and smoothly *S*-trifluoromethylation in the presence of 1.1 equivalent of hypervalent CF_3 -iodine(III) reagents to afford the products of trifluoromethylation in good to excellent yields (Scheme 29).



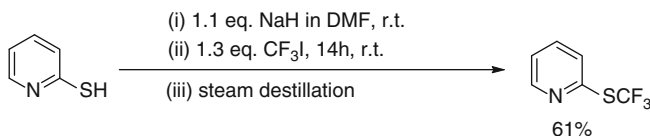
Scheme 29 Trifluoromethylation of thiols using iodine (III) reagent

A new procedure for preparation of trifluoromethyl thioethers was reported by Dolbier [63], wherein now both halves of aryl- and alkyldisulphides are able to be utilized with high efficiency, the so called “Tandem CF_3I process”. When alkyl or aryl disulphides are reduced by the organic reducing agent tetrakis-(dimethylamino) ethylene (TDAE), the CF_3I forms a reagent anion that converts disulphides into their trifluoromethyl thioethers (Scheme 30).

Scheme 30 Tandem CF_3I process

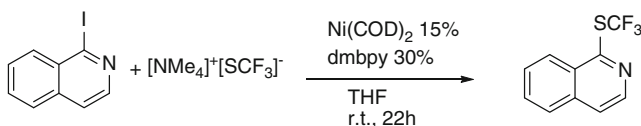


2011 Harsanyi et al. [64] improved and combined the efficiency and applicability of the classic $\text{S}_{\text{RN}}1$ type methods for *S*-trifluoromethylation (Scheme 31). This method is simplified compared to the previously reported ones as neither UV irradiation or pressure safe equipment is needed. It is somewhat similar to the second part of the “Tandem CF_3I process”, which has been introduced by Dolbier [63] and coworkers. In the case of other acidic group containing thiols such as 2-mercapto-benzimidazole the inhibition of the radical chain reaction was observed.



Scheme 31 Preparation of trifluoromethyl sulfides

A novel method for the synthesis of aryl at RT has been proposed by Vici [65]. Inexpensive nickel-bipyridine (bis(cyclooctadiene)nickel(0) ($\text{Ni}(\text{COD})_2$) and 4,4'-dimethoxy-2,2'-bipyridine (dmbpy)) complexes were found to be active for the trifluoromethylthiolation of heteroaryl iodides at room temperature using the convenient $[\text{NMe}_4][\text{SCF}_3]$ reagent (Scheme 32).



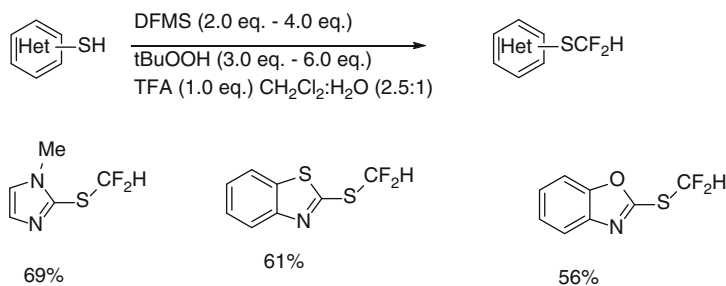
Scheme 32 Nickel-catalyzed synthesis of isochinoline trifluoromethyl sulfides

3.2 α,α -Difluoromethyl Thioethers

As phenols, thiophenols react in the presence of sodium hydroxide with chlorodifluoromethane to give difluoromethyl aryl sulphides, via the intermediate formation of chlorodifluoromethylsodium and difluorocarbene [27c]. α,α -Difluoroalkyl alkyl thioethers have also been obtained by the fluorodesulfuration with DEOXO-FLUOR of the corresponding thionthioesters as described previously for *O*-nucleophiles [66].

Trifluoromethyl zinc bromide was also used for the preparation of *S*-difluoromethylethers [67]. The first electrophilic (phenylsulfonyl)difluoromethylation with a hypervalent iodine(III)-CF₂SO₂Ph reagent was very recently reported by Hu [68].

Baran et al. [69] developed new reagent (Zn(SO₂CF₂H)₂, DFMS, synthesized from n dust and Difluoromethanesulfonyl chloride) the innate difluoromethylation of organic substrates via a radical process. This mild, operationally simple, chemoselective, and scalable difluoromethylation method is compatible with a range of nitrogen-containing heteroarene substrates of varying complexity as well as select classes of conjugated π -systems and thiols. Aromatic thiols exhibit unexpected reactivity toward the CF₂H radical, leading to the generation of difluoromethyl thioethers (Scheme 33). Radical difluoromethylation was also successful in the context of other electron-deficient π -systems such as α,β -unsaturated enones.

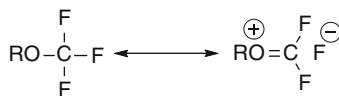


Scheme 33 Scope of C–H difluoromethylation of heteroarene substrates

4 Properties

What makes the introduction of CF₃O into pharmaceutically relevant compounds particularly intriguing is their unique electron distribution. The geminal combination of an alkoxy or aryloxy group with a fluorine atom offers the possibility of bonding/non-bonding resonance which can be formally expressed by the superposition of a covalent and an ionic limiting structure (Fig. 6).

On the basis of its electronic properties, which are close to those of a chlorine or a fluorine atom [70], the trifluoromethoxy group has been referred to as a super- [71] or a pseudo-halogen [72]. The advantage of incorporating a trifluoromethoxy group into a molecule can be described in terms of its properties. The trifluoromethoxy group is

Fig. 6 Mesomeric structure of the CF_3O -group**Table 1** Electronic and hydrophobic parameters for various substituents

Atom/group	Pauling electronegativity	Hydrophobicity π
H	2.1	0.00
F	4.0	0.14
Cl	3.0	0.71
Br	2.8	0.86
I	2.5	1.12
CH_3	2.3	0.56
$\text{C}(\text{CH}_3)_3$	2.3	1.98
CF_3	3.5	0.88
OCH_3	2.7	-0.02
OCF_3	3.7	1.03
SCF_3	-	1.44
C_6H_5	-	1.96
SF_5	3.65	1.23

both more electron withdrawing and lipophilic than its methoxy analogue. The fluorinated carbon adjacent to an oxygen atom increases lipophilicity as shown by the high value of the OCF_3 hydrophobic substituent parameter. While both trifluoromethyl and trifluoromethoxy substituents invariably boost the lipophilicity [3], single fluorine atoms may alter this parameter in either direction. If the halogen occupies a vicinal or homovincinal position with respect to a hydroxy, alkoxy or carbonyl oxygen atom, it enhances the solvation energy in water more than in organic solvents and hence lowers the lipophilicity [73]. It appears that the OCF_3 substituent is far more lipophilic ($\pi=+1.04$) than the halogens and lies between a CF_3 ($\pi=+0.88$) and a SCF_3 ($\pi=+1.44$) group. It may thus replace advantageously a fluorine atom ($\pi=+0.14$) in most molecules with the benefit of increased lipid solubility [3] (Table 1).

The trifluoromethoxy group is at the same time a strong electron-withdrawing substituent due to the three fluorine atoms and a π -donating substituent due to the oxygen lone pairs. Yagupol'skii [74] and Sheppard [21, 75] provided detailed data on the $\text{p}K_{\text{a}}$ -values of benzoic acids and phenols which reveal that the trifluoromethoxy group is a moderately electron-withdrawing moiety which resembles a chlorine atom. The $\text{p}K_{\text{a}}$ values are lowered by the trifluoromethoxy group by 0.5–1.0 units [76].

The CF_3O group is thermally and chemically resistant to attack by acids, bases, organometallic reagents and oxidizing/reducing agents [21, 77]. When substituted on an aromatic ring, the trifluoromethoxy group exhibits similar electron withdrawing behavior to the alkoxy group but also acts to deactivate the aromatic ring system [72].

α -Fluoroalkyl sulfides are very similar to the corresponding ethers. For example, the $\text{p}K_{\text{a}}$ values of benzoic acids are almost identical when CF_3O or CF_3S serves as a *meta*- or *para*-substituent. On the other hand, the stereoelectronics of (trifluoromethoxy)benzene and (trifluoromethylthio)benzene differ markedly. More-over, the two series

Fig. 7 Structure of α -haloalkyl sulfides

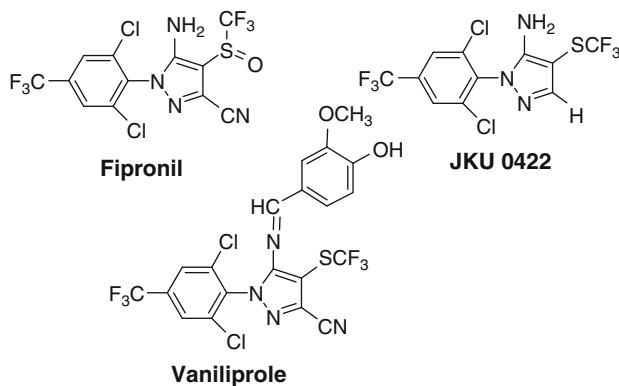
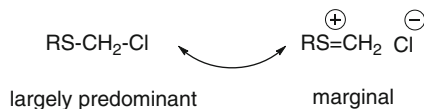


Fig. 8 Insecticides Fipronil, JKU 0422 and vaniliprole

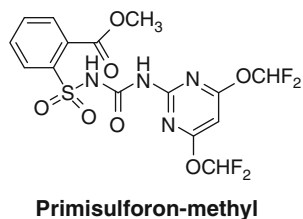
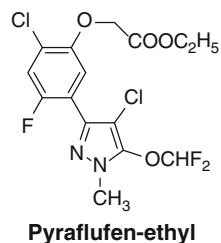
distinguish themselves as far as anomeric effects are concerned, which are only marginally sustained by sulfur compounds. The relatively long bond distance between the second row element and carbon weakens of course double bonds as the one present in the charged limiting structure of α -haloalkyl sulfides (Fig. 7) [3b].

To some extent at least, electron density can nevertheless flow from a neutral sulfur to a positively charged carbon atom. This anomeric bonding/nonbonding resonance ($n\text{-}\sigma^*$ interaction) explains why the $\text{S}_{\text{N}}1$ solvolysis rate of chloromethyl methyl sulphide is increased by many powers of ten when compared with that of 1-chlorobutane, which, moreover, appears to follow a solvent- $\text{S}_{\text{N}}2$ rather than a genuine $\text{S}_{\text{N}}1$ process [3b].

5 Application

5.1 Agrochemicals

Inhibitors of the γ -aminobutyric acid (GABA) receptor/chloride ionophore complex, which has been the focus of intense interest as a target of insecticidal action and its role in resistance as well. The GABA-gated chloride channels are located in the insect central nervous system (CNS) and also in peripheral nerves where they mediate the proper integration of neuronal activity and muscle relaxation by inhibitory actions [78]. Azomethine formation with the phenylpyrazole amino group leads to vaniliprole, the derivative of the Fipronil [79]. The trifluoromethylsulfoxide group is a remarkable trigger for insecticidal activity (“*indication shift*”). This is shown for the arylaminopyrazole (JKU 0422) [80] (Fig. 8).

Fig. 9 Promisulfuron-methyl**Fig. 10** Pyraflufen-ethyl

Primisulfuron-methyl [14], a selective fluorosulfonylurea herbicide bears two difluoromethoxy subunits (Fig. 9).

Primisulfuron-methyl is a selective herbicide for the control of grasses in maize. Comparison [81] with its unfluorinated triazine counterpart methsulfuron-methyl indicates that crop safety for maize is achieved by the replacement of the triazine methoxy and methyl substituents with two difluoromethoxy groups. It has been shown that primisulfuron-methyl is deactivated in maize by hydroxylation of the phenyl and pyrimidyl moieties followed by hydrolysis or conjugation [82].

Pyraflufen-ethyl [15] is CHF_2O -containing phenylpyrazole (Fig. 10). This compound is a post-emergence contact herbicide for the control of broadleaf weeds, including cleavers (*Galium aparine*), in cereals and cotton, which also shows excellent crop selectivity for wheat and barley. It is rapidly absorbed by the foliage of broadleaf weeds, resulting in necrosis and desiccation.

Pyriprole, pyrafluprole and flufiprole [83] are experimental insecticides introduced by Nihon Nohyaku and related, both in chemistry and action to the highly successful insecticide Fipronil. Fipronil acts at the GABA receptor [83a] (Fig. 11).

5.2 Pharmaceuticals

Riluzole (Rilutek) [5] a CF_3O -substituted 2-aminobenzothiazole, is known to affect motor neurons by at least three mechanisms, including inhibition of glutamate release, inhibition of postsynaptic events following glutamate receptor stimulation, and stabilization of *vgSCNs*. It is the first drug approved for treatment of amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (Fig. 12).

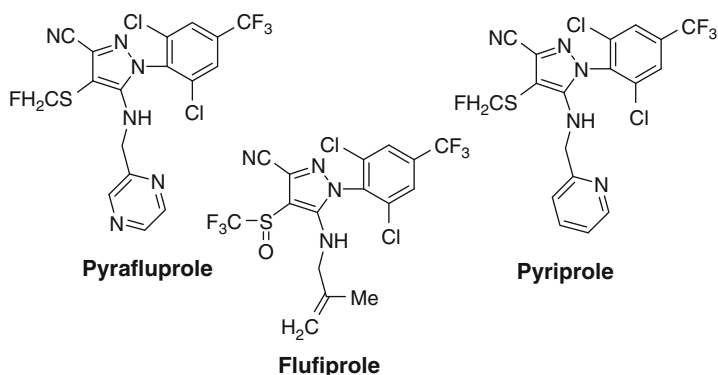


Fig. 11 Pyrafluprole, Pyriprole and Flufiprole

Fig. 12 Riluzole

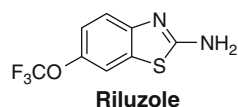
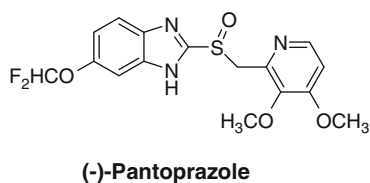


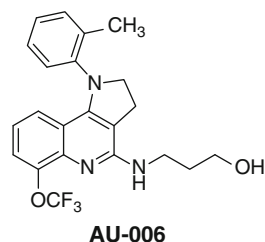
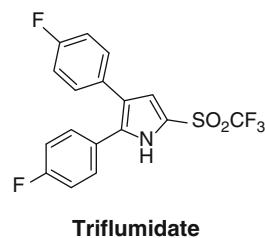
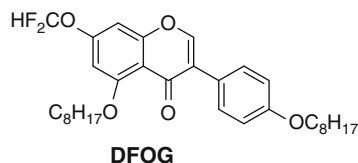
Fig. 13 Pantoprazole



Substituted benzimidazoles such as omeprazole, lansoprazole, rabeprazole (all non- α -fluorinated ethers) and the pH-selective (-)-pantoprazole (pantoprazole sodium, Rifun, Pantozol, Pantec) [6] are known as gastric proton pump inhibitors (PPIs) (Fig. 13). All PPIs accumulate in the acidic space of the secreting parietal cell, where their active forms create disulfide bonds with key cysteines of the H^+ , K^+ -ATPase. (-)-Pantoprazole, an irreversible proton pump inhibitor, reached its first market worldwide for acute treatment of gastric and duodenal ulcers and gastroesophageal reflux disease. This profile is different to other PPIs and is likely related to the unique binding of (-)-pantoprazole to cysteine 882, a binding site that is buried deep within the membrane domain of the pump and may therefore be inaccessible to reducing agents. Thus, (-)-pantoprazole is a valuable alternative to other PPIs in the treatment of acid related disorders. Furthermore, the PPIs were found to have in vitro activity against three different isolates of *Plasmodium falciparum* [6d].

Recently, the effect of novel quinoline derivatives such as (AU-006, Fig. 14) was described [84]. Its protective effect against gastric lesions was not affected by an NO synthase inhibitor.

A series of 4,5-diaryl-2-(substituted thio)-1*H*-imidazoles, such as the 1,1,2,2-tetrafluoro-ethyl-sulfonylcontaining triflamizole (EN-350), was described

Fig. 14 AU-006**Fig. 15** Triflumidate**Fig. 16** 7-Difluoromethoxyl-5,4'-di-n-octylgenistein (DFOG)

as antiinflammatory and analgesic agents (e.g., antirheumatic) [7]. On the other hand, for the F₃CSO₂ derivate lethal effects of arachidonate induced platelet aggregation were reported (Fig. 15).

Cao et al. [85] examined the antitumor effects of 7-difluoromethoxyl-5,4'-di-n-octylgenistein (DFOG), a novel synthetic genistein derivative, on human ovarian cancer cells as well as the molecular mechanism (Fig. 16).

The anti-HIV-1 activities and pharmacokinetics of a series of arylpiperazinyl fluoroquinolones are reported [86]. The SAR study revealed that the substituent at the C-8 position of arylpiperazinyl fluoroquinolones plays an important role in anti-HIV-1 activities. Hydrophobicity of the substituent at this position seems to be one of the key factors for antiviral activity. However, in this case the introduction of a CF₃O group at the C-8 position proved to be superior to that of a CHF₂O group to achieve higher anti-HIV-activity (Fig. 17) [87].

The new des-6-fluoro-quinolone garenoxacin, a DNA topoisomerase ATP hydrolyzing inhibitor, is currently in phase III clinical tests. Garenoxacin [88] (Fig. 18) is a quinolone that demonstrates activity against a wide range of Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacterial pathogens such as *E. coli*, *Enterococcus* spp. and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*.

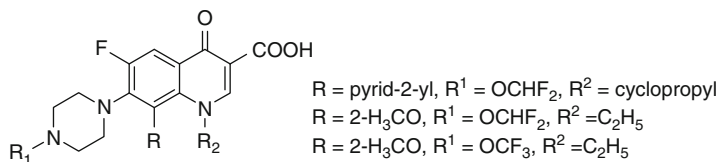
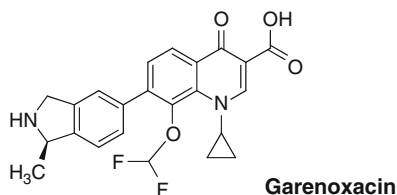


Fig. 17 OCHF_2 - and OCF_3 -containing HIV-drugs

Fig. 18 Garenoxacin



6 Conclusion

The present review portraying α -fluorinated ethers- and thioethers-containing heterocycles has introduced as an additional factor of complexity the anomeric effect and thus pushed the door open to the bonding/nonbonding continuum.

To get immersed in organofluorine chemistry entails the challenge to compile better experimental results, computational data, and intellectual arguments until one has established a sufficiently large and solid basis to rationalize all observations made and to foresee the outcome of new reactions or assays. However, product-oriented chemistry cannot delay its day-to-day business until the moment when the ultimate degree of theoretical sophistication and parametrization has been attained and the crucial technical or biological benchmarks such as surface tension, wettability, polymer elasticity, dielectrical anisotropy, acidity, lipophilicity, metabolic stability, and target binding can be predicted with numerical reliability.

Therefore, fluorine will continue to be exploited on the basis of empirical knowledge. In the life science field, one employs single fluorine atoms, difluoromethylene units, and trifluoromethyl or trifluoromethoxy groups to tailor pK_a values, to foster cell penetration by improving the passive permeation through the blood/brain barrier and all kinds of biological membranes, to help accumulate substances in tissues, and to enhance the substrate binding to protein-type receptors by making use of the “polar hydrophobic effect”. All this contributes to the critical “bioavailability” of therapeutically active compounds.

There are well-tried recipes to confer metabolic stability to biologically active compounds. On the other hand, metabolic lability can be a blessing in itself. Unlike the closely related lead compound prosulfuron, the post-emergent herbicide primisulfuron-methyl exterminates the weed in corn (maize) fields without harming the crop. The two difluoromethoxy groups attached to the pyrimidine ring offer the

possibility to the plant, but not the weed, to detoxify itself in the course of a few hours by oxidative degradation, the OCHF_2 substituents thus acting as a specific metabolic breakseal.

A particularly intriguing subject is the role of fluorine as a mimic. The isosteric relationship between fluorine and oxygen is often emphasized. However, unlike the hydroxy group, organic fluorine is a very poor hydrogen bond acceptor and no hydrogen bond donor at all. Thus, the replacement of a hydroxy group by a fluorine atom may totally perturb the interaction pattern. On the other hand, fluorine and hydrogen, both monovalent elements, are sufficiently similar in size to be able to imitate each other.

In general, fluorine should prove practically isosteric with hydrogen as far as substrate-enzyme and agonist-receptor recognition is concerned. Fluorinated pheromones may even serve to confuse insects and disrupt their mating. Anyway, we have no choice. "There is no other element that can pose as hydrogen except fluorine. Therefore let us do our best to exploit cunningly the similarities and dissimilarities of these unlike twins."

In other words, fluorine will remain an important tool to modulate the properties of biologically active substances. α -fluorinated ethers- and thioethers-containing heterocycles will without doubt claim a major role in the future evolution of the field.

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Fluorinated Porphyrins and Corroles: Synthesis, Electrochemistry, and Applications

Stephen G. DiMagno, Justin C. Biffinger, and Haoran Sun

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Abstract Fluorination alters the electronic structure of aromatic systems in a predictable manner, and these effects can be exploited in the design of aromatic, macrocyclic ligand systems for a variety of applications. Equally important is that ring fluorination has an exceptionally modest steric effect. Thus, fluorination permits electronic effects to be severed from structural changes that confound interpretations of other substituent effect studies. Here the preparation, physical properties, and applications of fluorinated and perfluoroalkylated porphyrins and corroles are briefly reviewed. Special attention is given to the preparation of the most useful fluorinated heterocyclic building blocks underlie most of the synthetic approaches to these macrocycles. Among the predictable changes fluorination engenders in the properties of these aromatic, tetrapyrrole ligands, the most commonly exploited in applications are: (1) an increase in oxidative stability, and (2) a decrease in ring nitrogen basicity that is reflected in more Lewis-acidic, electron-deficient chelated metal ions.

Keywords Porphyrins • Corroles • Fluorination • Fluoropyrroles • Macrocyclic synthesis • Electrochemistry • Catalysis

1 Introduction

Fluorine's position at the end of the second row of the periodic table imparts the element with several unique advantages as a substituent. Fluorine is the smallest non-hydrogen substituent (atomic radius = 1.47 Å) but it is also the most electronegative. This combination of small steric influence and an outsized electronic effect means that fluorine can be used to modulate strongly the electronic properties of macrocyclic ligands, such as porphyrins and corroles, but fluorine can do so without inducing large structural deformations. Fluorination of porphyrins is generally performed with one of four goals in mind: (1) Fluorine is used to alter the electronic properties of the ligand system and the electronic properties of chelated metal ions; (2) to make the ligand less prone to oxidative decomposition reactions; (3) fluorination and perfluoroalkylation can drastically alter the solubility of this important ligand system; and (4) selective fluorination can introduce a useful magnetic label (^{19}F is $S=1/2$) that provides excellent signal to noise ratio for NMR spectroscopy owing to the 100 % natural abundance of the magnetic isotope and the absence of background signals from fluoroorganic compounds in biology. This chapter will provide a current survey of synthetic techniques and precursors for preparing fluorinated porphyrins. The common nomenclature that defines the regiochemistry of porphyrin substitution is shown in Fig. 1. This review's focus is on porphyrins that possess fluorine substituents on the porphyrin ring or directly bonded to the meso- and/or beta-positions, however, perfluoroalkylated porphyrins will also be briefly discussed. Synthetic techniques for preparing these fluorinated macrocycles, the changes in ligand physical properties engendered by fluorination, and applications exploiting new electronic, magnetic, or solubility properties conferred by fluorination are addressed.

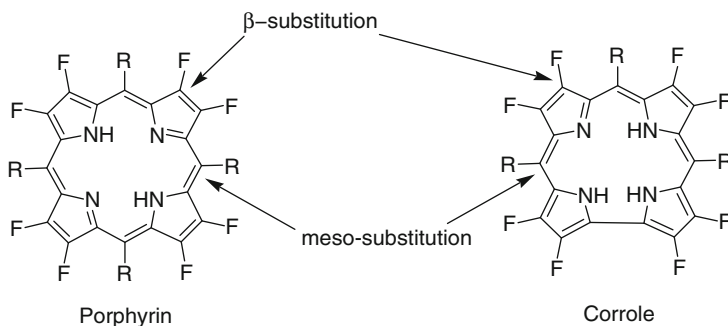


Fig. 1 Substitution patterns for porphyrins and corroles

Corroles (Fig. 1), like porphyrins, are aromatic macrocyclic tetrapyrroles. Their aromaticity distinguishes them from corrins, the prosthetic group that makes up the active sites of Vitamin B₁₂ containing enzymes [1], but the direct pyrrole-pyrrole bond in corroles means that they differ fundamentally from porphyrins since full deprotonation results in a trivalent ligand coordination environment in the corroles. In contrast, the coordination sphere provided by the porphyrin is dianionic. The trivalent coordination environment of corroles makes greater stabilization of high-valent metal oxidation states possible, and an increased nucleophilicity and more negative reduction potential for the low-valent metal oxidation states of coordinated transition metal ions is noted for metallocorroles in comparison to metalloporphyrins. Even though corroles were first synthesized in 1964 as part of Vitamin B₁₂ research [2], a scalable route to isolate substituted corroles was first reported only in 1999 [3]. After the first direct synthesis appeared, the number of corrole metal complexes synthesized expanded rapidly, enabling significant research into the basic physical and chemical properties of transition metal metallocorroles.

In the porphyrin and corrole macrocyclic aromatic systems, fluorine substituents are generally considered to be amphoteric, that is, they withdraw electron density through the σ -system while they donate electron density back to the π -system. This behavior is manifest in the Hammett σ -values; fluorine exhibits the greatest difference between σ_m and σ_p among the halogens [4]. Despite a partial compensation by back donation of electron density into the macrocycle π -system, fluorine substituents bear substantial negative charges; the net effect of fluorine substitution is to remove electron density from the aromatic system. In highly fluorinated ring systems the aromatic quadrupole moment is reversed, as has been amply demonstrated by studies of the 1:1 stacked complex of benzene and hexafluorobenzene [5]. This reversed quadrupole effect of fluorinated arenes has recently been used to stabilize pristine graphene sheets in solution [6]. The impact of perfluoro-substitution on the porphyrin system is similar, as is shown in electron density maps of porphyrin compared to octafluoroporphyrin [7]. The impact of fluorination upon observable physical properties (optical absorption, redox potential) depends strongly upon the position of the fluorine substituent(s) and the type, number, and location of the remaining substituents.

2 Synthesis of Fluorinated Porphyrins and Corroles

2.1 Fluorine Substitutions at the 3- and 4-Positions of Pyrrole

In contrast to the availability of several successful strategies for the direct perhalogenation of all porphyrin β -positions with chlorine and bromine, direct perfluorination has proved to be impossible to date. Tsuchiya and Seno reported a direct route for the fluorination of the porphyrin ring using 5,10,15,20-tetrakis(pentafluorophenyl)porphyrin zinc(II) complex and cobalt fluoride or silver fluoride [8], however, the analytical characterization of the putative fluorinated complex was not in accord with definitive samples synthesized later [9, 10]. The synthesis of authentic β -octafluorinated porphyrins required the use of fluorinated pyrroles in the macrocyclization. The fluorinated pyrrole building block approach (Fig. 2) is less convergent, but it permits the synthesis of both selectively fluorinated and perfluorinated porphyrins and corroles. Given the practical success of the fluorinated building block approach, a review of fluorinated pyrrole synthetic methodology is in order to show examples of the potential variability in fluorine substitution patterns on the beta positions of porphyrins and corroles.

2.1.1 Mono-Fluorinated Pyrroles (1–4)

The first β -fluorinated pyrrole (**1**) used in the synthesis of the first partially fluorinated porphyrin was reported by Ogoshi and coworkers in 1985 [11]. The key step in the pyrrole synthesis was a light induced Balz–Schiemann reaction of the corresponding diazonium tetrafluoroborate to yield the β -fluoropyrrole in 17 % yield (Scheme 1). The 2-methyl group of the β -fluoropyrrole was subsequently oxidized using lead acetate to yield the formyl species which was then reduced to the hydroxymethyl derivative. Even though (**1**) is singly fluorinated, the substitution pattern is set of the resulting porphyrin is set by the substituents at the 2- and 5-positions, thus it would be difficult to create other porphyrin substitution patterns using this particular pyrrole. There have been several methods reported for

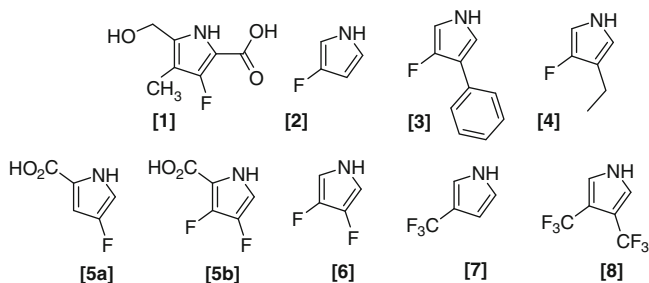
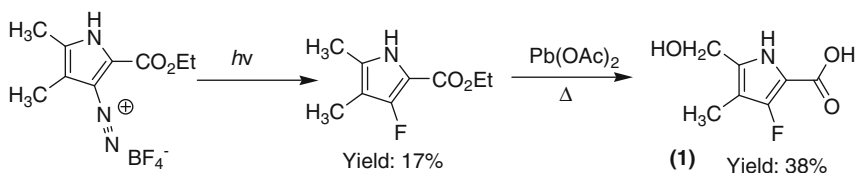
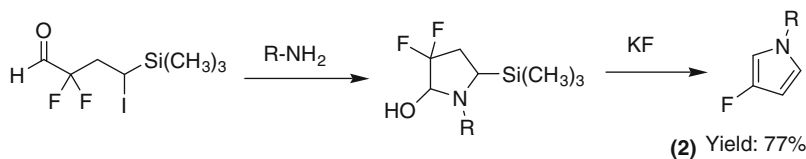


Fig. 2 Substitution patterns for fluorinated pyrroles

the synthesis of 3-fluoropyrrole (**2**). The original routes introduced fluorine using N-F reagents (N-fluorobenzenesulfonimide, NFSI) by direct reaction with the pyrrole [12], or through the intermediacy of the lithated pyrrole [13]. The synthesis of 3-fluoropyrrole (**2**) was recently revisited. A Reformatsky reaction generated the silylated starting compound shown (Scheme 2) [14], was followed by facile cyclization and elimination reactions to provide the desired fluorinated pyrrole in good yield under mild reaction conditions.

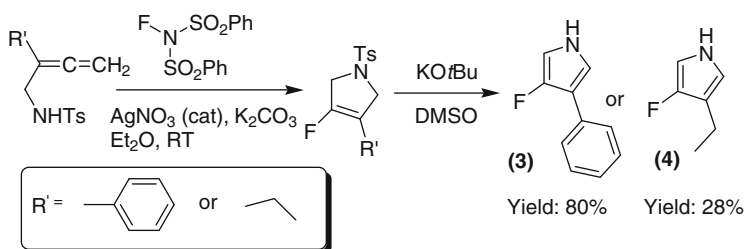


Scheme 1 Key reaction sequence to isolate mono-fluorinated precursor (**1**)



Scheme 2 The synthesis of 3-fluoropyrrole (**2**) after Reformatsky reaction

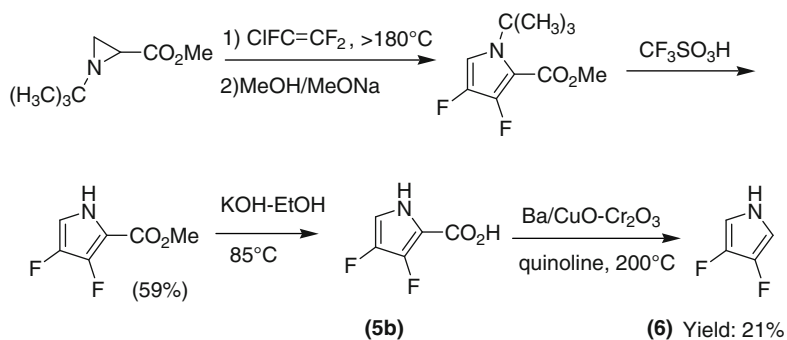
Liu and coworkers have recently published the synthesis of (**3**) and (**4**), as well as several other fluorinated pyrrole analogues (not shown), by aminofluorination of allenes; the synthetic approach is shown in Scheme 3 [15]. This strategy takes advantage of a selective, silver-catalyzed intramolecular fluorination reaction, but the approach works best with substrates that possess electron-withdrawing R' -groups on the 3-position. Because of this limitation, the yield of (**3**) is significantly higher than (**4**), 80 % versus 28 %, respectively. 4-Fluoro-pyrrole-2-carboxylic acid (**5a**, Fig. 2), synthesized from a fluorinated proline, was explored as a potential intermediate on the route to (**3**), but only extensive decomposition products were observed when (**5a**) was subject to flash pyrolysis [16].



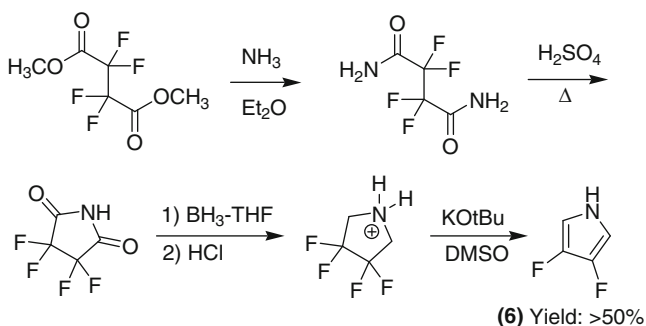
Scheme 3 Strategy of direct aminofluorination of allenes

2.1.2 3,4-Difluoropyrrole (6)

The interest in using ((5a), Fig. 2) as a precursor to synthesize (3) in high yields led to 5b (Fig. 2) being considered as a potential precursor to 3,4-difluoropyrrole (6). However, thermal decarboxylation yielded extensive decomposition. Leroy and Wakselman first reported preparation of 3,4-difluoropyrrole (6) in 1994 (Scheme 4). [17] Their route used a high temperature decarboxylation step that proved to be difficult to scale. The first scalable route for the isolation of (6) was reported by DiMagno and coworkers [18], who employed the multistep sequence outlined in Scheme 5. The key step in this approach was a double dehydrofluorination of tetrafluoropyrrolidinium chloride using potassium tert-butoxide in DMSO. The yields of (6) were >50 % for gram-scale preparations. One concern that both Leroy and Wakselman and DiMagno and coworkers reported is the volatility of 3,4-difluoropyrrole; this compounds sublimates rapidly at room temperature and careful handling at low temperature (< -5 °C) during isolation is required for efficient recovery.



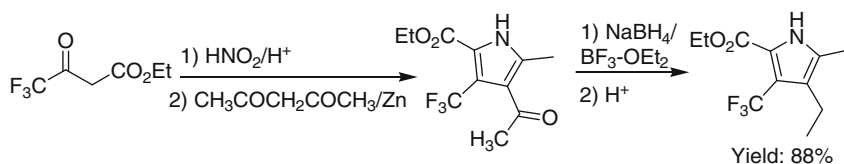
Scheme 4 Leroy synthetic route to 3,4-difluoropyrrole (6)



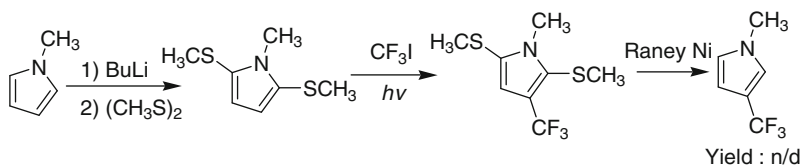
Scheme 5 DiMagno scalable synthesis of 3,4-difluoropyrrole (6)

2.1.3 3-Trifluoromethylpyrrole (7) and 3,4-bis(Trifluoromethyl) Pyrrole (8)

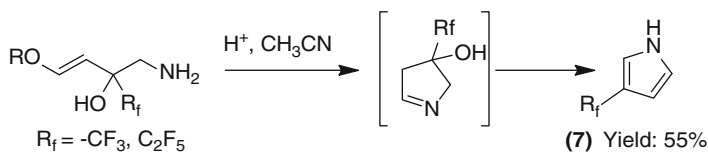
Pyrroles with fluoroalkyl groups in the β -positions are potentially useful precursors to extremely electron-deficient porphyrins. However, the preparation and isolation of simple pyrroles bearing only 3-trifluoromethyl or 3,4-bis(trifluoromethyl) substituents has proved to be exceedingly difficult. The first synthesis of 3-trifluoromethylpyrrole (**7**) employed a modified Knorr condensation starting with ethyl trifluoroacetoacetate (Scheme 6) [19, 20]. Subsequent synthetic routes used radical trifluoromethylation reagents; photolysis of difluorodiodomethane or trifluoromethyl iodide precursors in the presence of pyrroles yielded some functionalized products (Scheme 7) [21]. Due to the instability of (**7**) the compound was not isolated and only NMR spectroscopic data were presented. An elegant recent synthetic approach to perfluoroalkylated pyrroles features 1, 2-additions of trimethylsilyl cyanide to perfluoroalkylated enones in the presence of base [22] (Scheme 8). After the reduction of the intermediate cyanohydrin with LiAlH_4 , the resulting amino alcohol readily cyclized to form the pyrrole via an intramolecular Schiff base condensation. Subsequent dehydration gave the pyrrole (**7**) in good yield.



Scheme 6 Modified Knorr condensation for the synthesis of a 3-trifluoromethylpyrrole

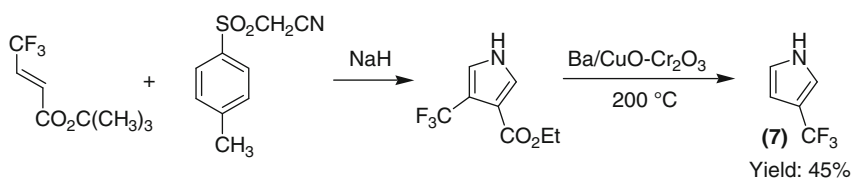


Scheme 7 Photolysis pathway to a 3-trifluoromethyl pyrrole

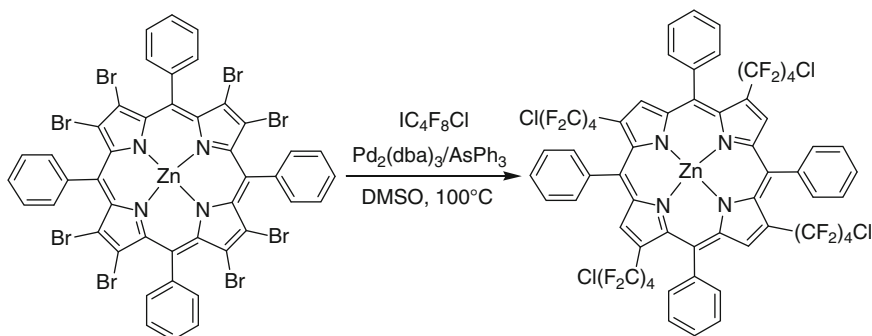


Scheme 8 Cyclization of an aminocarbonyl intermediate for the synthesis of (**7**)

Leroy and coworkers reported the first synthesis of 3,4-bis(trifluoromethyl)pyrrole (**8**) in 1982 [23] and attempted to extend their synthetic methodology to the synthesis of (**7**) as well (Scheme 9) [24]. Unfortunately, due to the extremely electron-withdrawing nature of perfluoroalkyl groups, and the reliance of most porphyrin syntheses upon the generation of a cationic intermediate that reacts with the pyrrole by electrophilic aromatic substitution, the direct synthesis of porphyrins using (**8**) has not been reported [25]. The refractory behavior of extremely electron-poor pyrroles in traditional macrocyclization reactions, such as the Lindsey condensation [26], has spurred exploration of methods for direct trifluoromethylation by substitution of β -brominated or β -chlorinated porphyrins. Several reports of porphyrin perfluoroalkylation by halogen substitution have appeared [27, 28]. Perfluoroalkylation of β -octabrominated porphyrins by Pd-catalyzed cross-coupling is reported to be surprisingly efficient for the isolation of extremely sterically hindered perfluoroalkylated porphyrin derivatives (Scheme 10) [29].



Scheme 9 Decarboxylative synthesis of 3-trifluoromethylpyrrole (**7**)



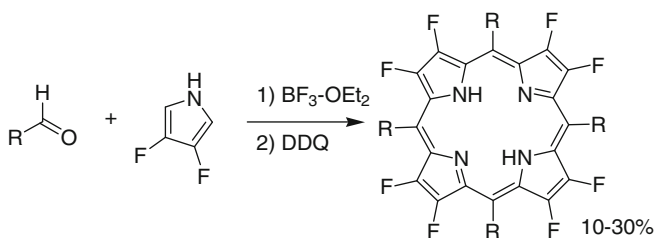
Scheme 10 Pd-catalyzed perfluoroalkylation of β -brominated porphyrins

2.2 Synthesis of β -Fluorinated Porphyrins and Corroles

2.2.1 β -Fluorine Substitution

The Ogoshi and Suzuki groups published the first confirmed report of partially β -fluorinated porphyrins in the mid-1980s. The Ogoshi group performed a tetramerization of the fluorine substituted pyrrole (**1**) with potassium ferricyanide,

resulting in first β -fluorinated porphyrin [11]. Suzuki et al. utilized selectively fluorinated dipyrromethene analogues to access fluorinated porphyrins efficiently [30]. The most common pathway for the synthesis of β -fluorinated porphyrins is based on the methodology reported by Lindsey in 1987 [26]. This one-pot macrocyclization features a Lewis acid-catalyzed ($\text{BF}_3 \cdot \text{OEt}_2$) condensation of aldehydes with pyrrole derivatives in anhydrous aprotic solvents (Scheme 11), followed by oxidation. This classic and versatile synthetic route also yields sapphyrins, corroles, expanded porphyrins, and N-fused porphyrins. On occasion the presence of other cyclized or linear polypyrroles can complicate the isolation of the desired porphyrin. DiMaggio [9] and Leroy et al. [10] independently reported the first syntheses of 2,3,7,8,12,13,17,18-octafluoro-5, 10,15,20-tetraarylporphyrin in 1997 using the Lindsey methodology (Scheme 11). Typical yields of the octafluorinated porphyrins were reported to be between 10 and 30 %. The reliance of the Lindsey method on reactive aldehydes means that this approach does not allow for the synthesis of fluorinated analogues of naturally occurring porphyrins, in which the meso-positions are typically unsubstituted. However, several fluorinated analogues of naturally occurring porphyrin pigments have been prepared using alternative methods [31].



Scheme 11 The synthesis of 2,3,7,8,12,13,17,18-octafluoro-5,10,15,20-tetraarylporphyrin

In contrast to the relatively longstanding interest in β -fluorinated porphyrins, research on the preparation and study of β -fluorinated corroles is quite new. Corroles have been shown to have distinctive coordination chemistry and lower oxidation potentials compared to porphyrins, but the coordination environment offered by corroles can chelate transition metal ions with an avidity similar to that of porphyrins. [1, 32]. Figure 3 shows the structural differences among β -octafluorinated porphyrins, β -octafluorinated corroles, and β -octafluorinated (with meso fluorinated aryl rings) “Hangman” corroles.

The synthetic route into β -octafluorinated corroles is somewhat different from the Lewis acid-catalyzed macrocyclization under dilute conditions used for β -octafluoroporphyrins. The most successful route employs a neat condensation of pyrrole and aryl aldehydes, which was first demonstrated with non-fluorinated corroles [3, 33]. Solutions of these two reactants are combined in the presence of basic alumina, heated to evaporate the solvent, concentrate the reactants, and initiate cyclization. A DDQ oxidative quench results in several macrocyclic compounds, including the corrole (6–8 % yield) (Scheme 12).

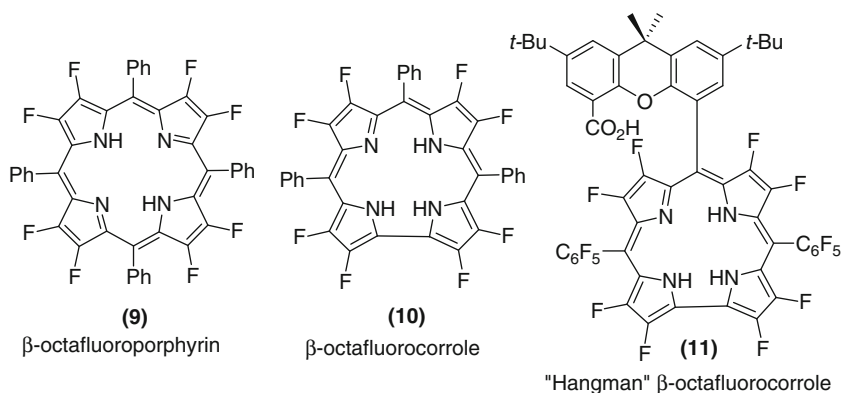
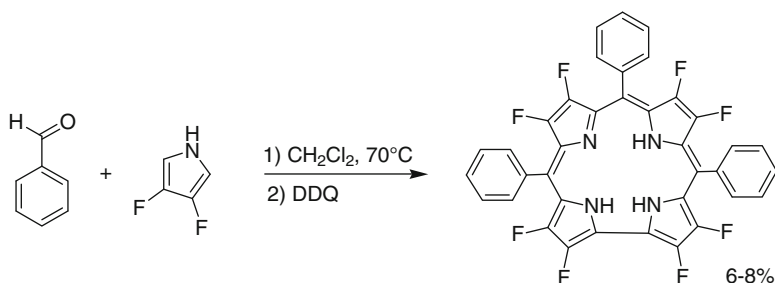


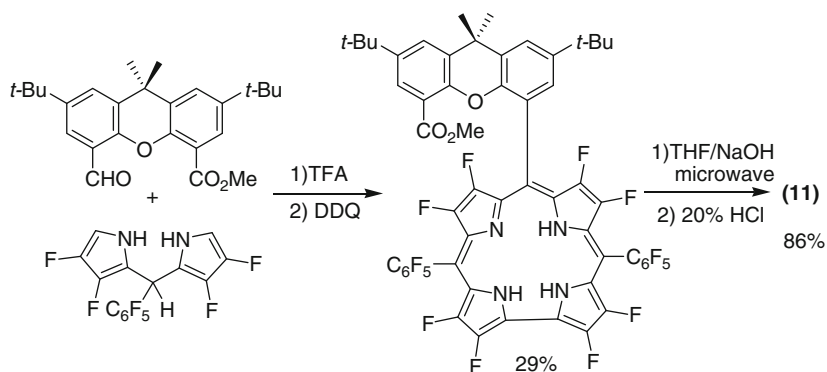
Fig. 3 Three variations on β -fluorinated macrocycles



Scheme 12 General pathway for the synthesis of β -fluorinated corroles

The first synthesis of a fluorinated corrole was of the perfluorinated derivative [34]. The synthesis of selectively fluorinated corroles was published later in the same year [35]. The alumina (in the case of the fluorinated corroles) most likely serves a dual role in the condensation, acting as both a catalyst and as a heterogeneous adsorbent to reduce the volatility of 3,4-difluoropyrrole.

In contrast to the "solvent-free" procedures used in the initial reports of fluorinated corrole syntheses, Chang, Ghosh, and Nocera and coworkers used the standard Lindsey approach to prepare "Hangman" β -octafluorinated corrole (Fig. 3, (11)), a prosthetic group that was used to develop electrocatalysts for water splitting reactions [36]. The Nocera synthesis used a modified Lindsey approach to obtain excellent yields of (11) (29 %) after chromatographic separation of the protected xanthene protected ester, which was subsequently deprotected in 86 % yield (Scheme 13).



Scheme 13 General synthesis of “Hangman” corroles

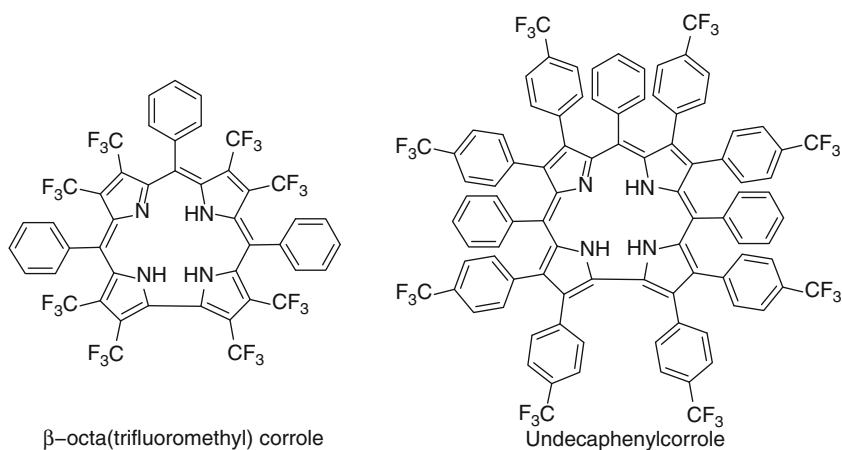
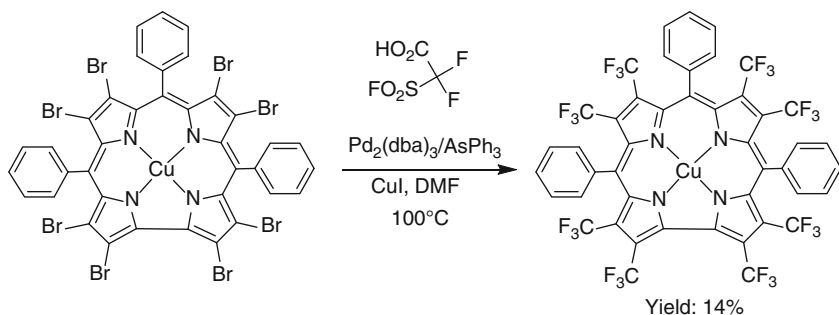


Fig. 4 Structure of trifluoromethyl and 4-(trifluoromethyl)phenyl substituted corroles at the β -position

2.2.2 β -Trifluoromethyl Substitution

The synthetic routes into β -trifluoromethylated corroles are significantly different from those used to prepare the β -fluorinated derivatives (Fig. 4). Direct trifluoromethylation of the β -position by halogen substitution in octabromocorroles was accomplished using Pd cross-coupling chemistry [37] identical to methodology used to isolate trifluoromethylated porphyrins (Scheme 14) [29, 38]. The β -octakis-(trifluoromethyl)corrole was shown to be one the most electron-poor trivalent ligands ever reported for copper, as was gauged by cyclic voltammetry.

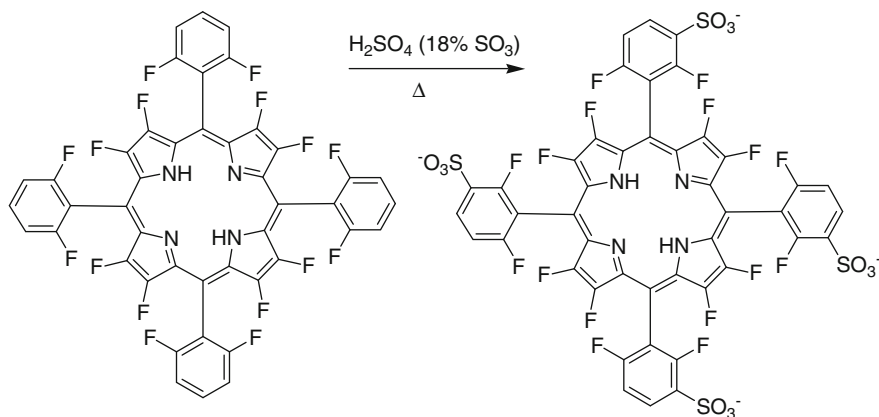


Scheme 14 Pd-coupling method for synthesis of copper β -trifluoromethyl corrole

In a somewhat different exploitation of the electron-withdrawing power of the perfluoroalkyl group, 4-(trifluoromethyl)phenyl substituents have been introduced onto the corrole β -positions to create undecaphenylcorrole (Fig. 4) [39], a member of a class of extremely sterically hindered corroles. The extremely crowded nature of undecaphenylcorrole may be useful for creating unique shape-selective catalysts or generating coordination complexes requiring steric protection from the formation of bimetallic dimers. The synthesis of undecaphenylcorrole was very similar to the trifluoromethylation route except that Suzuki-Miyaura coupling conditions of the aryl boronic acids were used. Here the trifluoromethyl groups serve to reduce the arene quadrupole moments of the β -phenyl substituents, thereby decreasing the π - π repulsion of the substituents and leading to a more rigid, and less dynamic structure. Increased rigidity is potentially advantageous in applications relying on shape selective molecular recognition.

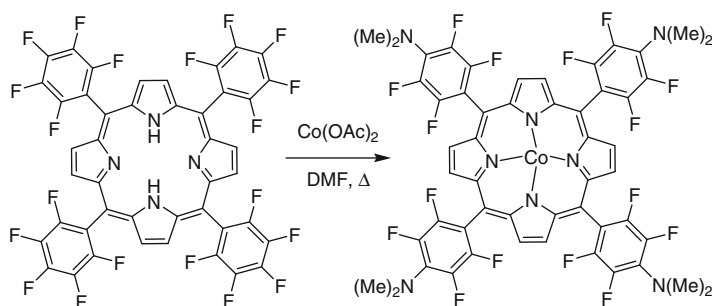
2.3 Synthesis of Porphyrins and Corroles Bearing Fluorine Substituents at the Meso Positions

In traditional acid-catalyzed macrocycle syntheses, the variation of substituents at the porphyrin meso position is limited largely by the availability of the appropriate aldehyde starting materials, and the facility with which the porphyrin products are separated from the reaction mixture. For in β -octafluorinated porphyrins, the most common substitution motif features aryl groups at the meso-positions. Post-cyclization aryl substituent group functionalization is sometimes necessary if the desired aryl substituents are not compatible with the macrocyclization conditions or if the aryl groups greatly complicate isolation of the porphyrins and/or corroles from the mixture of oligomeric polypyrrole side products. Such is the case if charged functional groups are desired on the meso-aryl substituents. For example, the preparation of sulfonated, water soluble β -fluorinated porphyrins was facilitated by post-cyclization sulfonation (20 % SO_3 in sulfuric acid) of 2,3,7,8,12,13,17,18-octafluoro-5,10,15-20-tetrakis(2,6-difluorophenyl) porphyrin to create the first heavily fluorinated water-soluble porphyrins (Scheme 15) [40]. To date, no β -fluorinated water-soluble corroles have been reported, but water-soluble corroles fluorinated at the meso-positions have been described [41, 42].

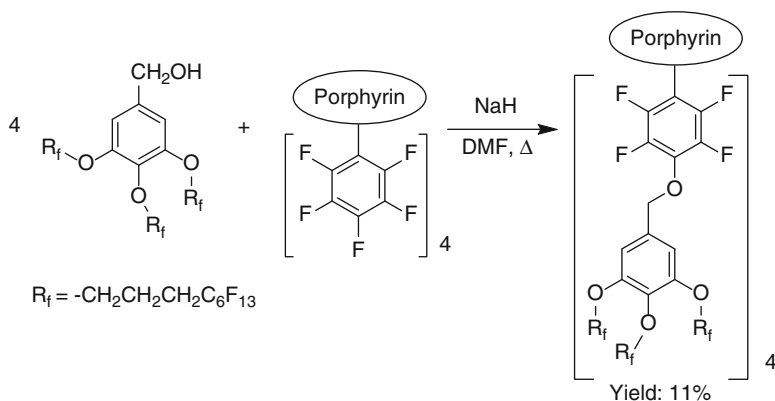


Scheme 15 Synthesis of water-soluble β -octafluorinated porphyrins

A second strategy for post-cyclization functionalization of fluorinated porphyrins is S_NAr modification of meso-pentafluorophenyl substituents. This reaction was first reported by Kadish and coworkers, who observed para-dimethylamine adducts during the metalation 5,10,15,20-tetrakis(pentafluorophenyl)porphyrin in DMF (Scheme 16) [43]. Briza and coworkers utilized the reactivity of fluorinated aryl substituents to synthesize dendritic porphyrin assemblies [44]. They reported that a classical building block approach in which covalently linked aryl aldehyde precursors were subjected to classic Lindsey cyclization conditions provided very poor yields of the desired dendritic products. In contrast, crosslinking of pre-formed 5,10,15,20-tetrakis(pentafluorophenyl)porphyrin using S_NAr reactions proved to be a successful strategy (Scheme 17). Nucleophilic aromatic substitution at the para-position of tetrakis(pentafluorophenyl)porphyrins has also been used to create “clickable” thioester linkages [45]. To date, no dendritic β -octafluoro-meso-tetraarylporphyrins have been isolated; however, the S_NAr approach appears to be a promising general method for preparing such assemblies from derivatives such as 2,3,7,8,12,13,17,18-octafluoro-5,10,15,20-tetrakis(pentafluorophenyl)porphyrin.

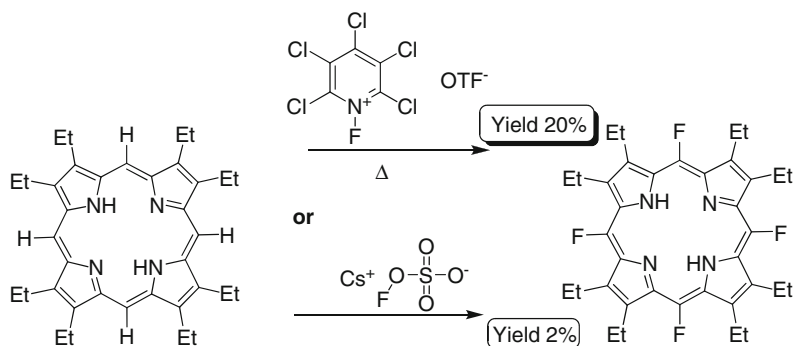


Scheme 16 Indirect method for the isolation of dimethylamine adducts to fluorinated porphyrin meso aryl groups



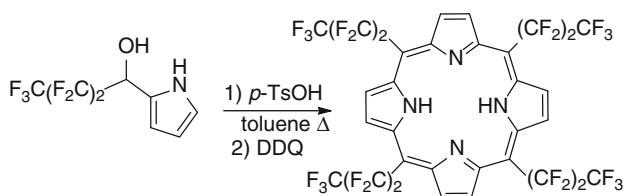
Scheme 17 Nucleophilic substitution on tetrakis(pentafluorophenyl)porphyrins

As an alternative to cyclization of fluorinated pyrrole precursors, several groups have advanced direct fluorination reactions of preformed porphyrins. Mirroring the history of fluorinated pyrrole synthesis, the earliest approaches to meso-fluorinated porphyrins exploited the thermal decomposition of the corresponding diazonium tetrafluoroborate analogue (Balz-Schiemann reaction), however these reactions generally provided poor yields of the desired fluorinated products (Scheme 1) [46]. The advent of “tamed” electrophilic fluorinating agents such as cesium fluoroxysulphate [47] and N-fluoropyridinium triflate [48, 49] allowed meso-fluorinations of 2,3,7,8,12,13,17,18-octaalkylporphyrins to be performed efficiently (Scheme 18). A few examples of meso-fluorinated porphyrins derived from naturally-occurring hemes have also been prepared in this manner, including 5-fluorodeuteroporphyrin IX dimethyl ester [46] and several mesoporphyrin derivatives [50–52]. Meso-fluorinated derivatives of protoporphyrin IX have not been prepared to date. Direct electrophilic aromatic fluorination also serves as a convenient route to monofluoro chlorophyll derivatives [53–55].

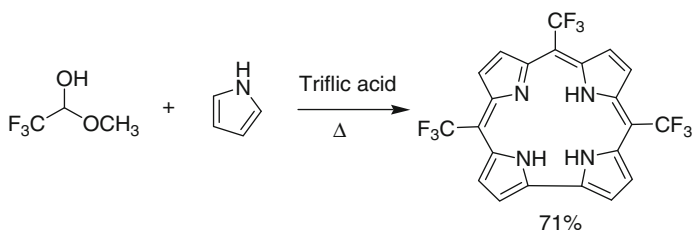


Scheme 18 Two methods for the direct fluorination at the porphyrin meso-position

Therien and DiMugno developed a modified condensation methodology that enabled the facile, high yield synthesis of a new class of electron deficient porphyrins that featured perfluoroalkyl groups fused directly to the porphyrin meso-positions (Scheme 19) [56]. Later work by Therien reported the photoelectron spectroscopy and potentiometric properties of these systems and demonstrated that meso-perfluoroalkylporphyrins are among the most electron-deficient porphyrinic species known. These species also differ from all other previously reported highly electron deficient porphyrins in that they possess long-lived, fluorescent excited states that can be utilized as potent photooxidants [57]. The ground-state electronic properties of these structures highlight their prospects as ligands [58–60]. The meso substituted trifluoromethyl corrole was isolated from a one-pot method using trifluoromethanesulfonic acid as the catalyst for cyclization (Scheme 20) [61]. Demonstrating the sensitivity of this type of condensation to water, the authors reported that a minimal yield of the corrole was obtained (<1 %) if trifluoroacetaldehyde hydrate was the starting material, but an excellent yield (71 %) was observed when trifluoroacetaldehyde methyl hemiacetal was employed.

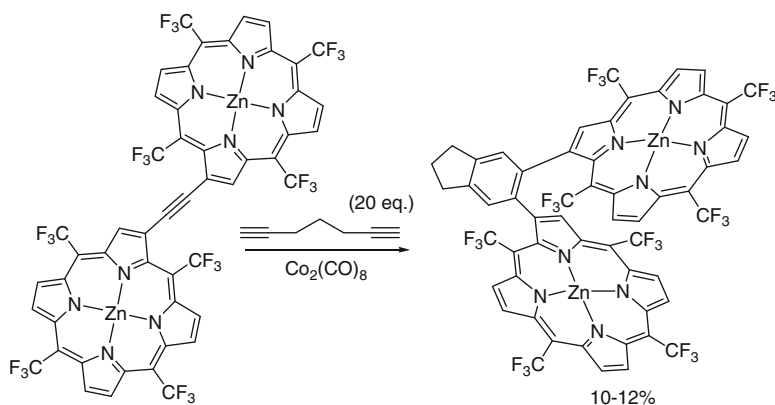


Scheme 19 Synthetic strategy for meso-perfluoroalkyl porphyrins



Scheme 20 Synthetic route to meso-substituted trifluoromethyl corrole

Metal-assisted cycloaddition reactions involving meso-perfluoroalkylated porphyrinic templates define a versatile methodology for the syntheses of both cofacial porphyrin structures and facially-functionalized (porphinato)metal species [62], and corresponding compositions that offer new opportunities for development of small molecule redox catalysts [63, 64]. Scheme 21 shows the versatile metal-mediated [2+2+2] cycloaddition step for the isolation of meso-perfluoroalkyl cofacial porphyrins that results in the purified indane complexes in 10–12 % yields. These cofacial complexes are directly applicable to multi-electron redox reactions such as oxygen or nitrogen reduction and even hydrocarbon oxidation.



Scheme 21 The synthesis of perfluoroalkylated cofacial metalloporphyrin complexes

3 Effect of Fluorination on Porphyrin and Corrole Electrochemistry and Electron-Transfer Mechanisms

By dint of its exceptional electronegativity, fluorine withdraws electron density from aromatic systems, thereby stabilizing these rings against one-electron oxidation and increasing their propensity to undergo one-electron reduction. Fundamental electrochemical studies (cyclic voltammetry, polarography, differential pulse voltammetry, and square wave voltammetry) have verified the relationship of the extent of fluorination to observed porphyrin ring redox potential. However, porphyrin ring fluorination does impart some surprising and peculiar effects on electron transfer rate constants and electrocatalytic behavior, and nonlinear transmission of electronic effects to chelated transition metal ions is observed. Here, we will briefly review the progress of the electrochemistry of fluorinated porphyrins, including how fluorination affects the thermodynamic, kinetic, and electrocatalytic properties of porphyrins and metalloporphyrins. The general abbreviations used in Sect. 3 are summarized in Figs. 5, 6, and 7.

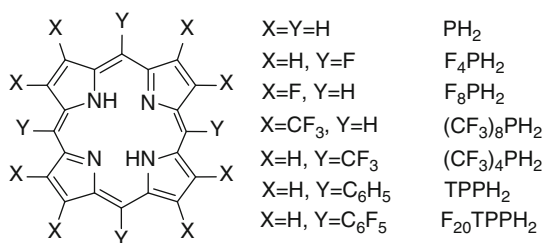


Fig. 5 Selected porphyrin structures

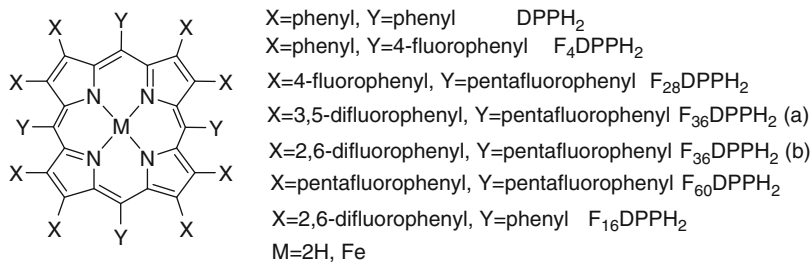
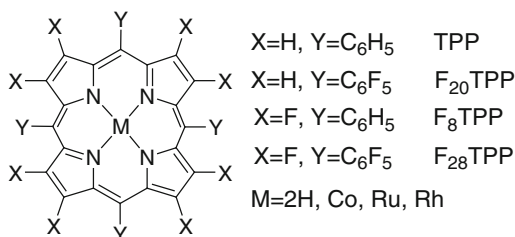


Fig. 6 Structures of selected dodecaphenylporphyrins

Fig. 7 Fluorinated tetraphenylporphyrin metal complexes



3.1 Effect of Fluorination on the Redox Potentials of Porphyrins and Metalloporphyrins

Fluorine substituents on the porphyrin ring shift ring redox potentials to the positive. Much experimental and theoretical work has been performed to gain a fundamental understanding of the relationship between fluorination (including the position(s) and total number of fluorine substituents) and porphyrin electronic and thermodynamic properties. On the basis of the results of DFT calculations Ghosh described the impact of porphyrin ring fluorination on ionization potentials (IPs) and their relevance to electrochemical and photoelectron spectroscopy data [65]. The theoretical and experimental data showed that meso-substitution generally has a greater electronic effect on the porphyrin ring than the β -substitution on a per substituent basis. The lowest IP value of 5,10,15,20-tetrafluoroporphyrin (F_4PH_2) is about 0.49 eV higher than that of unsubstituted porphyrin (porphine, PH_2); and β -octafluoroporphyrin (F_8PH_2) possesses 0.84 eV higher IP value than that of porphine (Fig. 5). It is also interesting to note that the effect seen for β -perfluorination is roughly comparable to the effect of arene perfluorination in tetraphenylporphyrin, which shifts the lowest IP value to positive by 0.95 eV in $\text{F}_{20}\text{TPPH}_2$.

The large impact of meso-substituents is reflected in the lowest IP value of meso-tetrakis(trifluoromethyl)porphyrin (a shift of 1.74 eV compared to TPPH_2); this large shift is due to the strong electron withdrawing ability of the $-\text{CF}_3$ substituent (Fig. 5) as well as the comparatively large conjugative effects of the meso-arene groups in the TPPH_2 standard of comparison. Interesting enough, the lowest IP value of β -octakis(trifluoromethyl)porphyrin ($(\text{CF}_3)_8\text{PH}_2$) is identical to meso-tetrakis

(trifluoromethyl)porphyrin ((CF₃)₄PH₂); both meso-pertrifluoromethylation and β -pertrifluoromethylation shift the ionization potential by approximately 1.3 eV from that of porphine. Using DFT calculation results as a basis for their analysis, Liao et al. discussed the effects of porphyrin fluorination on conversion between low-spin and high-spin states of cobalt porphyrins. The reduced ligand field and reduction in nitrogen basicity provided by the fluorinated ligand leads to greater accessibility of the high-spin state, consistent with previous experimental observations of the cobalt spin state conversion by DiMagno et al. [66, 67]. Kadish and coworkers reported comprehensive electrochemical studies showing fluorination's impact upon porphyrin redox potentials and axial ligation [68]. The electrochemical behavior of a series of free base and metalated dodecaphenylporphyrins (DPPs) with varying degrees of fluorination of the peripheral phenyl rings (FxDPPs) were investigated for studying electronic effects in nonplanar porphyrins (Fig. 6). The reduction potentials of FxDPPs were shown to be dependent upon the number of fluorine substituents on the phenyl rings. The maximum reduction potential shift is in the range of 0.58 V to 0.79 V for ClFe^(III)F₃₆DPP compared to ClFe^(III)DPP. In addition, the extent of reversibility of the redox reactions was sensitive to the extent of phenyl fluorination.

Che and coworkers reported fluorination's effects on the Ru^{VI/V} redox potential of ruthenium 5,10,15,20-tetraphenylporphyrins (Fig. 6) and the effects of fluorination on rate constants of metalloporphyrin catalyzed C-H activation reactions [69]. The experimental results show that the rate constants of C-H activation reactions correlate well with the C-H bond dissociation energies. This correlation indicates a hydrogen-atom abstraction mechanism for Ru porphyrins in C-H activation reactions. DiMagno et al. reported the systematic effects of β -fluorination on 5,10,15,20-tetraarylporphyrin redox potentials and solution phase electrochemical behavior [7, 9, 40, 70, 71]. For free base porphyrins and zinc porphyrins, β -perfluorination results in 0.3–0.46 V positive shifts in the redox potentials of the porphyrin ring. The corresponding perfluorination of meso-phenyl groups contributes a similar value of positive shift on the redox potentials [9], and these two effects are additive. For cobalt porphyrins, the porphyrin ring first oxidation of perfluorinated tetraphenylporphyrin Co(F₂₈TPP) shifts 800 mV compared to CoTPP; indicating that the effects of β -perfluorination and aryl ring perfluorination are almost perfectly additive. However, β -perfluorination (F₈TPP) and perfluorination (F₂₈TPP) of cobalt porphyrins only changes the Co^{3+/2+} redox potential by 170 mV and 403 mV, respectively, compared to CoTPP [70], indicating that there is a significant attenuation of the fluorine substituents' effects on the chelated transition metal by the macrocycle sigma bonded framework (Fig. 7).

Leroy et al. reported the synthesis and characterization of partially β -fluorinated porphyrins (e.g. β -F₄TPP) [16]. They found that the redox potential of β -F₄TPP is the average of TPP and β -F₈TPP. Therien and coworkers discussed the formation of an Fe^(II) porphyrin with the very electron-deficient 5,10,15,20-tetrakis(perfluoropropyl)porphyrin ligand [59]. The redox potential of Fe^{(III)/(II)} redox couple shifts around 400–500 mV more positive compared to typical Fe^(II)porphyrins. In contrast, the zinc complex of the same porphyrin ligand showed a 670 mV positive redox

potential shift on both first reduction and first oxidation [56] compared to ZnTPP. The structural factors resulting in the highly efficient transfer of porphyrin substituent electronic effects to the metal center are summarized by Therien et al.

3.2 *Effect of Fluorination on Electron Transfer Kinetics of Porphyrins*

Despite the many reports on the effects of fluorination on redox potentials of the porphyrins, work on the effects of fluorination on the electron transfer (ET) kinetics of porphyrins are rarely presented in the literature. DiMagno and coworkers reported that β -fluorination of metalloporphyrins not only shifted the ring and metal redox potentials significantly to positive, but also changed the kinetics of homogeneous and heterogeneous ET reactions [70]. For example, the homogeneous electron transfer (ET) self-exchange rate constant for the $\text{Co}^{3+}/\text{Co}^{2+}$ redox couple of $\text{CoF}_{28}\text{TPP}$, is 10^{-7} times lower than that of CoTPP in solution. The heterogeneous ET rate constant for $\text{CoF}_{28}\text{TPP}$ is 10^{-4} times lower than that of CoTPP at a glassy carbon electrode (Fig. 7). These studies pointed to a potential strategy for modulating electron transfer rate constants in metalloporphyrins over a large range: substituents that lower C-C, C-N, and N-M vibrational frequencies or minimize porphyrin orbital overlap with the metal-centered orbital will increase k_{ET} . Thus, one could interpret that the heme ruffling noticeable in cytochrome c, an electron transfer protein, as nature's exploitation of this design strategy. This design strategy could potentially benefit the design of new electrocatalysts, for example, in the preparation of metalloporphyrin-based molecular catalysts for fuel cells.

3.3 *Electrochemistry of Fluorinated Corroles*

Few articles describing the electrochemical studies of fluorinated corroles appear in the literature. Ghosh et al. reported the first synthesis of β -octafluorocorrole and triaryl derivatives thereof (Fig. 8) [35]. The fundamental physicochemical properties of these octafluorocorroles were characterized extensively, and compared to those of benchmark (unsubstituted) corroles and β -octabromocorroles [72]. The first ring oxidation potential of β -octafluorocorrole shifts by approximately +400 mV compared to that of the unsubstituted ligand. This effect is even more pronounced with the trifluoromethylated corrole copper complex [37]. Despite the fact that fluorine is more electronegative than bromine, the oxidation potential of β -fluorinated corrole is the same as the oxidation potential of β -bromocorrole. Kadish recently reported the electrochemical and spectroelectrochemical properties of corroles and protonated corroles sporting electron-donating and electron-withdrawing substituents [73, 74]. Extensive structural and electrochemical analyses of Cu(II) and Au(III) fluorinated corrole complexes [75] affirm that corroles stabilize the high

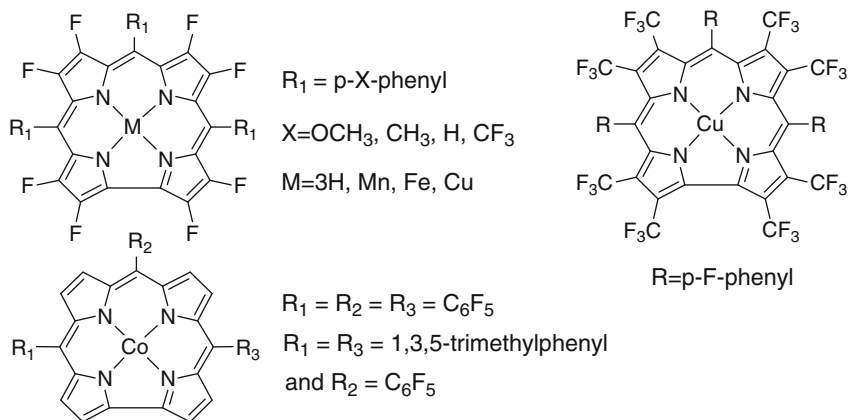


Fig. 8 Representative corroles and their transition metal complexes

valent oxidation states of these metal ions (compared to the corresponding metalloporphyrins) because of the trivalent nature of the corrole ligand. This feature has been promoted in attempts to design high-valent metal oxo complexes of corroles for water oxidation catalysts. For such compounds to be functional, fluorination and trifluoromethylation serve as potential methods to stabilize the corrole ligand system against the oxidative degradation.

4 Effect of Fluorination on Electrocatalytic Reactions and Other Applications

4.1 Catalytic Redox Reactions

Metalloporphyrins have been studied as electrocatalysts for the reduction of oxygen [76–78], CO_2 [79, 80], and protons [81] for more than three decades. Recently, researchers have attempted to exploit the positive shifts in chelated metal ion redox potentials engendered by fluorination to decrease the overpotential for these three classes of reduction reactions. Girault and coworkers reported electrocatalytic reduction of oxygen by free base fluorinated porphyrins at liquid/liquid interface [82]. In the presence of a weak electron donor (ferrocene), the deprotonated form of 5-(4-aminophenyl)-10, 15, 20-tris(pentafluorophenyl)porphyrin catalyzes the reduction of oxygen to hydrogen peroxide at a water/1, 2-dichloroethane interface. However this catalytic reaction only occurs in the presence of the tetrakis (pentafluorophenyl)borate (TB^-) counterion in the organic phase. Neta and coworkers reported CO_2 reduction at significantly less negative potentials with fluorinated cobalt porphyrins compared to the corresponding CoTPP derivatives [83]. Rhodium octaethylporphyrin has been shown to be an active electrocatalyst for CO oxidation

for fuel cell applications [84]. DiMugno and coworkers reported that β -fluorinated, water-soluble rhodium porphyrins catalyze the preferential oxidation of carbon monoxide in presence of hydrogen at low temperature [71]. The PROX reaction is important for hydrogen fuel cell application in which ppm levels of CO could poison the Pt catalyst. The selectivity of the CO oxidation and increased CO oxidation rate with fluorinated porphyrin rhodium complexes is likely due to the shift of the redox potential and increased acidity of the corresponding Rh(III) hydride complex.

The oxidation of water to dioxygen and protons is a key reaction for artificial photosynthetic catalysis [85, 86]. Both cobalt hangman porphyrins [87] and cobalt hangman corroles [88] are viable catalysts for water oxidation. Recently, cobalt (II) hangman β -octafluorinated corrole catalysts with engineered carboxylic acid groups (to facilitate proton transfer) showed improved reactivity compared to the corresponding non-halogenated derivatives (Fig. 3) [36]. Quantum chemical modeling of the fluorinated hangman corrole suggests that fluorination leads to stabilization of the reactive radical cation [89].

The selective oxidation and functionalization of saturated and unsaturated hydrocarbons is one of the most active application areas for halogenated porphyrins; the improved performance of fluorinated metalloporphyrins in alkane hydroxylation and alkene epoxidation has been documented in several studies [90, 91]. The two principle reasons for the use of fluorinated porphyrins in this particular application are that fluorination increases catalyst longevity under the highly oxidizing conditions required for C-H oxidation, and that the transmission of electronic effects to the metal center yields more reactive, high-valent transition metal oxo intermediates. Originally, the goal of these studies was to create biomimetic cytochrome P450 analogues. Fluorination permits electrochemical tuning of the reactive M(IV)-oxo radical cation oxidation state [69, 92, 93, 94], where M=Fe, Mn, Ru. However, most hydrocarbon oxidation reaction exploiting electron-deficient metalloporphyrins have been proven to proceed through autoxidation pathways, where peroxide intermediates propagate the radical chains. The goal of using electron-deficient metalloporphyrins to perform concerted, selective C-H oxidation has remained elusive [95].

In an alternative di-metalloradical approach to C-H functionalization with metalloporphyrins, Wayland and coworkers have shown that rhodium porphyrins are able to perform selective and reversible C-H activation of alkanes [96–99]. The di-metalloradical approach relies on the formation of strong Rh-H and Rh-C bonds to drive the activation. Fluorination of the porphyrin periphery weakens these bonds to rhodium slightly, but has a much larger impact upon the Rh(III)/Rh(I) redox couple; the enhanced stabilization of the Rh(I) state in the fluorinated porphyrin ligand allows alkyl group transfer by nucleophilic attack on the alkyl-rhodium(III) complex to be favorable [100].

Metalloporphyrins and metallocorroles have been shown to act as alkene aziridination catalysts, and the extent of macrocycle halogenation has been shown to correlate with catalyst performance. Mn(III) complexes of 5,10,15-Tris(pentafluorophenyl) corrole are active in aziridination catalysis [101, 102]; electron-withdrawing substituents on the corrole are required to facilitate amide transfer to the alkene. Fluorination of corroles also leads to stable metal imide intermediates during aziridination reactions.

4.2 Biomedical Applications

Photodynamic therapy (PDT) is a cancer treatment modality in which diseased tissue is ablated by singlet oxygen, a cytotoxic species, which is generated by visible or near-IR irradiation of a dye that is localized within the vicinity of a tumor. In order to produce singlet oxygen, the dye, or photosensitizer, must possess a readily accessible excited state triplet [103]. Excited state of the photosensitizer reacts with (ground state triplet) dioxygen by triplet-triplet annihilation to generate the reactive, short-lived excited state singlet oxygen. The relatively short lifetime and short diffusion length of singlet oxygen makes PDT a potentially less disruptive therapy than unselective chemotherapeutic agents, since the reactive species is only formed and consumed in the immediate vicinity of the point of illumination. Significant research has been focused on porphyrins for PDT, since they absorb relatively long-wavelength visible light strongly (red to near IR absorption is optimal for tissue penetration), and because these pigments localize in cancerous tissues [104].

Fluorinated porphyrins and corroles show great potential as agents in photodynamic therapies because they are more photostable (longer lasting) than their non-fluorinated counterparts. Fluorinated porphyrins and corroles can also be used as contrast agents for imaging, in addition to exhibiting cytotoxic effects. For example, fluorinated gallium corrole complexes not only localize in tumor cells, but their emission can be used to locate the tumor cells to which these compounds are cytotoxic. In one example, fluorinated ruthenium porphyrins were shown to be more toxic to melanoma cells than to fibroblast cells [105]. Shao and coworkers recently published a comparison of three series of meso-substituted fluorophenyl corroles coordinated to gallium(III) as potential photodynamic therapy agents (Fig. 9) [106]. Swavey and co-workers recently reported that visible-light-induced photocleavage of DNA by 5-(pentafluorophenyl)-10,15,20-tris(4-pyridyl)porphyrin was significantly more efficient than exhibited by the corresponding non-fluorinated derivatives [107].

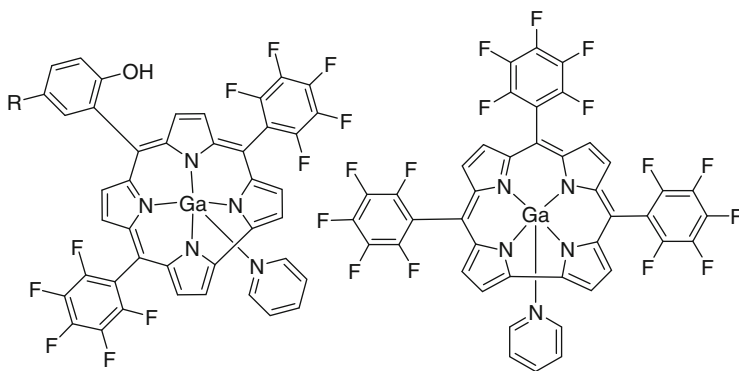
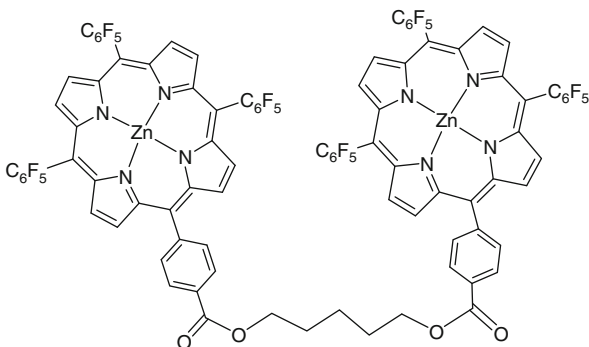


Fig. 9 Selected Gallium(III) fluorinated corroles used as PDT agents

Fig. 10 Structure of a fluorinated zinc(II) chiroptical “tweezer”



A recent excellent review summarizes comprehensively biomedical applications using fluorinated porphyrins and corroles [108].

4.3 Stereochemical Resolution

The development of techniques for the determination of the absolute stereochemistry of chiral diols, amino alcohols, and diamines present in natural products is a dynamic area of research. Non-fluorinated porphyrin “tweezer” compounds (similar to the structure in Fig. 10) have been used to determine the absolute stereochemistry of chiral alcohols, amines, and carboxylic acids [109–111]. However, weak binding of chiral Lewis bases is sometimes observed to the metal center of electron-rich porphyrins. Thus, fluorinated, electron-deficient metalloporphyrins were investigated for use in chiroptical sensor applications. The increased Lewis acidity in the fluorinated metalloporphyrins is expected to increase the binding equilibrium constant for the exogenous chiral ligands. A dimeric porphyrin “tweezer” zinc complex bearing pentafluorophenyl groups (Fig. 10) was shown to bind chiral Lewis bases efficiently, permitting their absolute stereochemistry to be determined using Exciton Circular Dichroism (ECCD). The binding to the chiral compound induces a defined helical orientation of the two metalloporphyrin chromophores, which then produces a predictable ECCD spectrum. [112].

4.4 Dyes for Optics

Pt(II) porphyrins are interesting dyes for optical sensor applications because they have long excited state lifetimes, large Stokes shifts, and room temperature phosphorescence [81, 113]. Fluorinated derivatives of Pt(II) porphyrins show improved hydrophobicity and enhanced oxidative stability; thus, they have been utilized as luminescent dyes. In addition, as was described previously, the use of pentafluorophenyl groups on the porphyrin meso-position has permitted the direct

functionalization of the porphyrin through S_NAr reactions. The ability to modify the porphyrin after the macrocycle is formed permits the preparation of diverse porphyrins bearing different substituents, (and different photophysical properties) to be prepared with a minimum of synthetic effort. Zhao and coworkers have demonstrated a functional optical oxygen sensor for seawater applications that exploits the unique properties of a xerogel containing Pt(II) 5,10,15,20-tetrakis(pentafluorophenyl)porphyrin [114]. However, porphyrin aerogel sensor systems suffer from pigment leaching and migration if soluble porphyrin complexes are merely trapped in the matrix. Leaching of the sensor pigments was addressed by Koren and coworkers, who bound Pt(II) tetrakis(pentafluorophenyl)porphyrins to an aerogel matrix using a thiol-based click-coupling strategy [45]. Covalent ligation of the porphyrins was shown to improve the long-term stability of the sensor platform without compromising the desirable photophysical properties or oxygen sensing ability of the fluorinated porphyrin complexes.

4.5 *Dyes for Solar Cells*

The enormous optical cross section of metallocorroles and metalloporphyrins has spurred attempts to fabricate dye-sensitized solar cells, electroluminescent devices, and photo-driven water splitting catalysts incorporating these dyes. There are two factors that limit conversion efficiencies these devices. The first is the limited diffusion length of excited electrons over a micron length scale, and the second is the destructive overlap between the dye absorption spectrum and wavelength of light absorbed. As has been discussed extensively above, the potential energy of the delocalized π -system of the porphyrin can be modulated extensively by substitution with electron-donating and electron-withdrawing groups.

The modulation of photophysical properties and dye lifetime that result from ring fluorination can lead beneficial effects for dye-sensitized solar cell performance. A straightforward comparison of photoelectric activity of these cells in which meso-substituted porphyrins featuring variable fluorine and chlorine substitution was published recently [115]. However, the results from this study indicated that chlorine substitution provided an enhanced photocurrent output in comparison to the corresponding fluorinated derivatives.

Materials that contain “push-pull” porphyrins been used in dye-sensitized solar cells. By introducing electron-withdrawing and electron-donating groups to the porphyrin periphery, one can modulate the light harvesting properties of these dyes and typically produce higher power conversion efficiencies (approximately 11 %) [116]. Mathew and coworkers reported a “push-pull” porphyrin zinc(II) system with 4-carboxy-2, 3, 5, 6-tetrafluorophenylethynyl anchoring group at the meso-position (Fig. 11) [117]. Unfortunately, their power conversion efficiency was only 4.6 % which suggests that the fluorine substitution in this case led to a deleterious interaction with the TiO_2 surface. Nevertheless, the results suggested that the design of future solar cells using these materials could be successful.

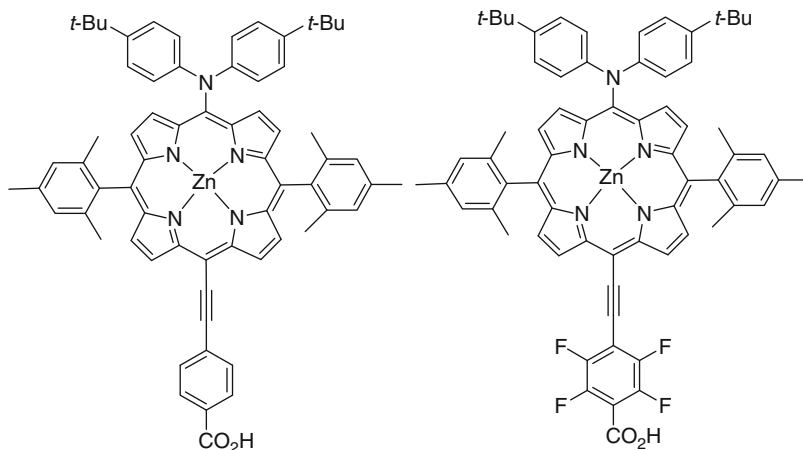


Fig. 11 Zinc porphyrin complexes used for “Push-Pull” dye sensitizer

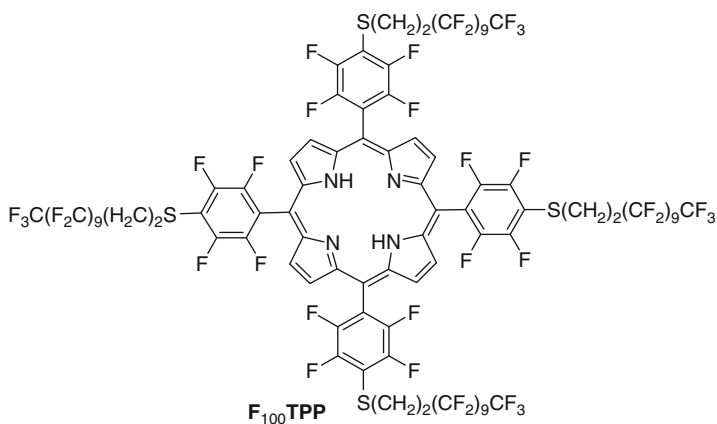


Fig. 12 Structure of $F_{100}TPP$

A recent approach to creating thin photoactive films for solar cell applications exploits supramolecular interactions of fluorinated porphyrins and fullerenes. Co-crystallization of fullerenes (C_{60}) with fluorinated porphyrin free-bases leads to high quality composite films, while non-fluorinated porphyrins and C_{60} typically phase separate during the coating process. The supramolecular C-F \rightarrow C(fullerene) interaction between the perfluoroalkylated derivative of tetrakis(pentafluorophenyl) porphyrin, $F_{100}TPP$, (Fig. 12) and C_{60} permits thin, stable, presumably layered photoresponsive films of these materials to be constructed [118]. Even though the actual crystal structure of $F_{100}TPP$ and C_{60} was not determined, quenching of the fluorescence after the addition of the fullerene suggested that the two macromolecules were in close proximity, and that the composite functional material could be well ordered.

5 Conclusions

The unique advantages of fluorine substitution in aromatic systems can be applied to porphyrin and corrole ligand systems to generate improved performance in several applications. A fundamental understanding of the impact of fluorination is essential to the successful implementation of fluorination strategies. In porphyrins, direct ring fluorination is associated with (1) a minimal steric perturbation, (2) an increase in the in-plane bonding frequencies of the porphyrin C-C and C-N bonds, (3) a decrease in electron density in the porphyrin ring, that may result in inversion of the porphyrin ring quadrupole moment, (4) stabilization of the porphyrin against oxidation, (5) anodic shifts in the ring redox potentials, (6) susceptibility of the ring toward nucleophilic attack, (7) enhanced Lewis acidity and electrophilicity of chelated metal ions, (8) predictable changes in electron transfer rate constants, and (9) small changes in the photophysical properties that are largely the result of increased ring rigidity. Substitution of porphyrins and corroles with perfluoroalkyl groups generally has a larger electronic impact than direct fluorination, but this effect is complicated by large steric effects, which can lead to widely varying properties of perfluoroalkylated metalloporphyrins compared to the directly fluorinated compounds. Taken as a set, these two substituent groups allow the porphyrin chemist to prepare dyes, catalysts, and molecular materials that span a wide range of properties despite the fact that the core “active element”, the porphyrin or corrole macrocycle, remains the same.

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Fluorinated Phthalocyanines and Their Analogues

Pavel A. Stuzhin

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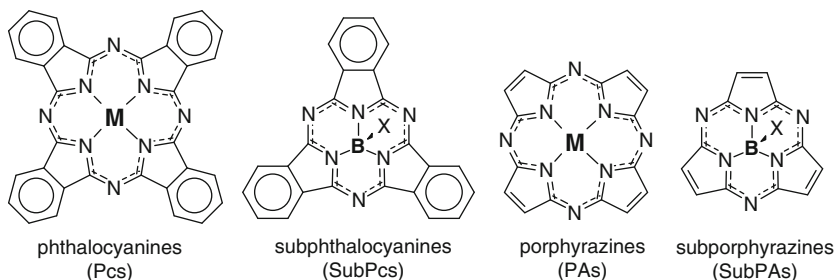
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Abstract This chapter describes the synthesis of phthalocyanines, subphthalocyanines and porphyrazines bearing fluorine atoms and/or perfluorinated alkyl or aryl groups. Influence of fluorination of macrocycle on its physico-chemical properties and perspectives of application is also briefly considered.

Keywords Phthalocyanine • Porphyrazine • Subphthalocyanine • Fluorine • Perfluoroalkyl and aryl groups

1 Introduction

Phthalocyanines (Pcs) are widely used as dyes and pigments, materials for different optical, electronic and photoelectronic devices [1]. They have wide application perspectives in other fields [2] including medicine (fluorescence imaging and photodynamic therapy of cancer [3], etc.) The useful properties of Pcs are strongly influenced by substituents present in benzene rings, and introduction of electronegative fluorine atoms or perfluorinated alkyl or aryl groups is an important tool for tuning properties of phthalocyanines and related macrocycles. Fluorinated phthalocyanines are investigated for the use in molecular electronics as components of diodes (rectifying junctions) [4] hybrid materials for photovoltaic applications [5], organic thin film transistors [6–8], etc.; in catalytic oxidation of hydrocarbons [9] and reduction of oxygen [10] and in medicine as well [11].

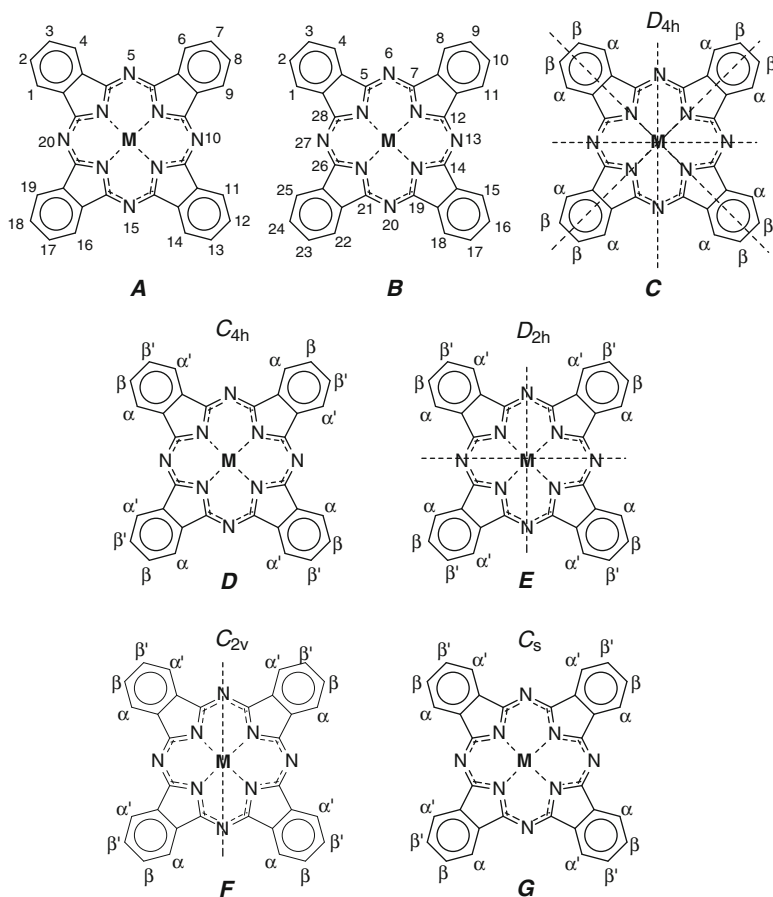


This chapter describes synthesis of fluorinated phthalocyanines containing from one to four fluorine atoms in each benzene ring, their substituted derivatives bearing perfluoroalkyl or perfluorophenyl groups directly attached to benzene ring of the macrocyclic core. The fluorinated phthalocyanine analogues with contracted macrocycle containing three instead of four isoindole subunits (subphthalocyanines, SubPcs), and homologues without fused benzene rings (porphyrazines, PAs, and subporphyrazines, SubPAs) are considered as well.

2 Fluorinated Phthalocyanines

2.1 Nomenclature

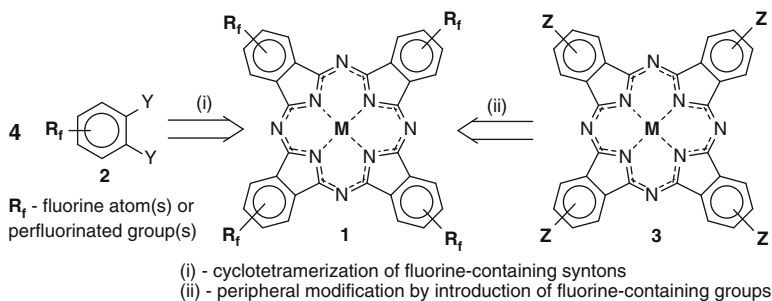
Phthalocyanines belongs to tetrapyrrolic macroheterocycles and can be considered as tetrabenzoannulated derivatives of *meso*-tetraazasubstituted porphyrin (porphyrazine), i.e. 5,10,15,20-tetraazatetrabenzo[*b,g,l,q*]porphyrin, or tetrabenzo[*b,g,l,q*]porphyrazine. Each of four benzene rings can contain up to four fluorine atoms or fluorinated substituents. The substituents location can be most conveniently numbered using the IUPAC recommendation for fused aromatic systems (*A*), however the numbering system which is used commonly for substituted phthalocyanines (*B*) is different and somewhat confusing. It includes the carbon atoms of internal 16-membered macrocycle, which are not involved in substitution. Throughout this chapter the numbering system *A* will be used.



Among 16 carbon atoms of phthalocyanine macrocycle that can bear substituents it is useful to distinguish eight non-peripheral α -carbon atoms (1,4,6,9,11,14,16,19) and eight peripheral β -carbon atoms (2,3,7,8,12,13,17,18) (*C*). Phthalocyanines that have a similar substitution pattern in each of four benzene rings are often named symmetrical. If pairs of substituents at α , α' and β , β' positions are equivalent, the phthalocyanine molecule has D_{4h} symmetry and exists as a single isomer (*C*). However, if the substituents in α,β and α',β' positions of each benzene ring are different for such quasi-symmetrical phthalocyanine four positional isomers (randomers) with C_{4h} , C_{2v} , D_{2h} and C_s symmetry are possible (*D*, *E*, *F*, *G*, respectively). These randomers have very similar optical properties and their mixture, which is formed in template cyclotetramerization of synthons with nonequivalent $\alpha'\beta\beta'$ substitution pattern is usually studied and used as is without troublesome chromatographic separation.

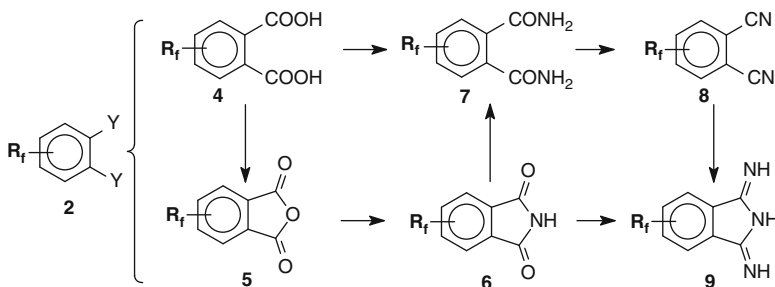
2.2 General Synthetic Approaches

There are two general synthetic approaches to fluorinated phthalocyanines **1** (Scheme 1): (i) assembly of phthalocyanine macrocycle from fluorine-containing precursors **2** or (ii) introduction of fluorine atoms or fluorine-containing substituents in benzene rings of appropriately substituted phthalocyanines **3**, i.e. peripheral modification of phthalocyanine macrocycle.



Scheme 1 General synthetic approaches to fluorinated phthalocyanines

The first approach (i) is well applicable in most cases, since the phthalocyanine macrocycle is usually easily prepared by template cyclotetramerization of a suitable synthon **2** derived from phthalic acid **4**: its anhydride **5**, imide **6**, diamide **7**, or more reactive dinitrile **8** or diiminoimide **9** (Scheme 2).



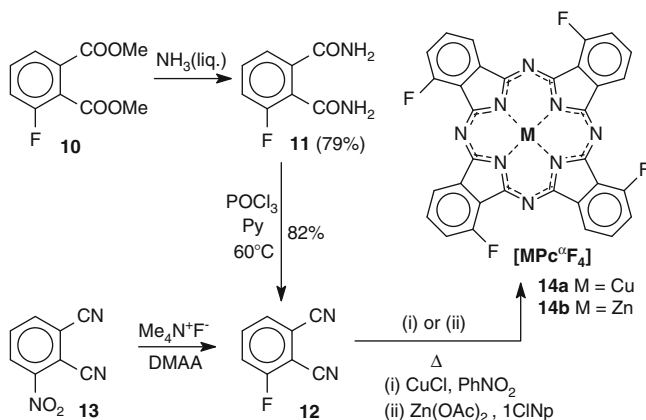
Scheme 2 Synthons suitable for synthesis of fluorinated phthalocyanines by cyclotetramerization approach

Therefore the synthetic access to fluorinated phthalocyanines is mainly determined by availability of such synthons appropriately substituted with fluorine atoms or/and fluorinated groups. A limitation that should be taken into account is connected with a possibility of aromatic nucleophilic substitution of fluorine. This side-reaction can be usually avoided by choosing appropriate non-nucleophilic conditions for template cyclotetramerization.

The approach (ii) is usually applied for modification of perfluorinated phthalocyanines by nucleophilic substitution of fluorine atoms or in the case of easy accessibility of non-fluorinated phthalocyanines containing active groups, which can be exchanged by fluorine or fluorinated substituents.

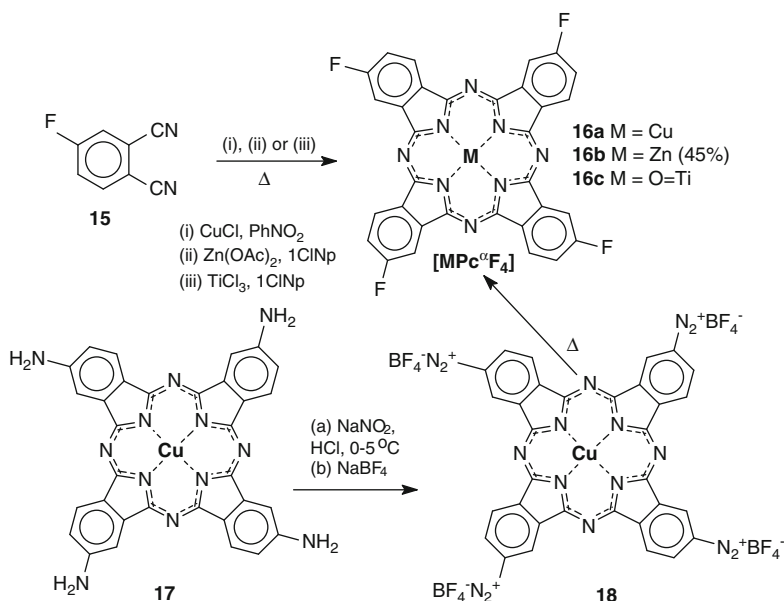
2.3 Tetrafluorinated Phthalocyanines

Although 3-fluorophthalonitrile **12** – precursor for α -substituted tetrafluorophthalocyanines [MPC^cF₄] – is commercially available and can be also easily prepared either from dimethyl 3-fluorophthalate **10** using an amidation-dehydration procedure [12], or by nucleophilic substitution from 3-nitrophthalonitrile **13** upon its treatment with dry tetramethylammonium fluoride in N,N-dimethylacetamide (DMAA) [5], so far only Cu^{II} [12] and Zn^{II} [5] complexes (**14a** and **14b**) were briefly reported (Scheme 3).



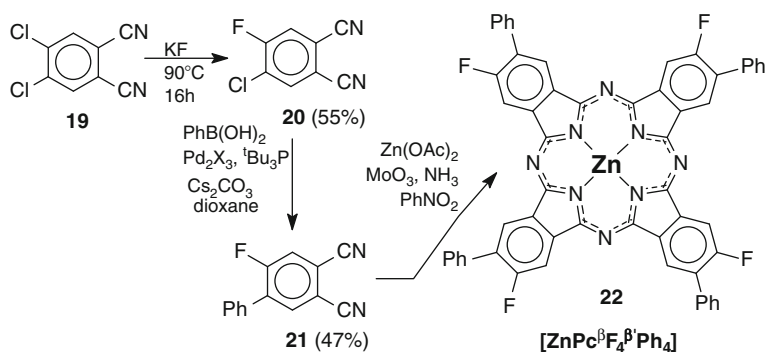
Scheme 3 Synthesis of α -substituted tetrafluorophthalocyanines

The Cu^{II} [12] and Zn^{II} [8] complexes of β -tetrafluorophthalocyanine [$\text{MPC}^{\beta}\text{F}_4$] ($\text{M}=\text{Cu}$, Zn , **16a** and **16b**) were also prepared by template approach from 4-fluorophthalodinitrile **15** by reflux with CuCl in nitrobenzene or using dry Zn^{II} acetate in 1-chloronaphthalene (1CINp) (Scheme 4). The Ti^{IV} complex [$\text{O}=\text{TiPC}^{\beta}\text{F}_4$] (**16c**) was prepared from the dinitrile and TiCl_3 in 1CINp (210 °C, 2.5 h) and used for fabrication of photoconductive elements [13]. The Cu^{II} complex [$\text{CuPC}^{\beta}\text{F}_4$] **16a** was also obtained in 90 % yield by diazotization of tetraamino substituted phthalocyanine [$\text{CuPc}(\text{NH}_2)_4$] **17** in 1N HCl at 0–5 °C followed by thermolysis of tetrafluoroborate salt **18** [14]. Interestingly, the electric conductivity of [$\text{CuPC}^{\beta}\text{F}_4$] is ca 30000 times higher than that of unsubstituted [CuPc] [14].



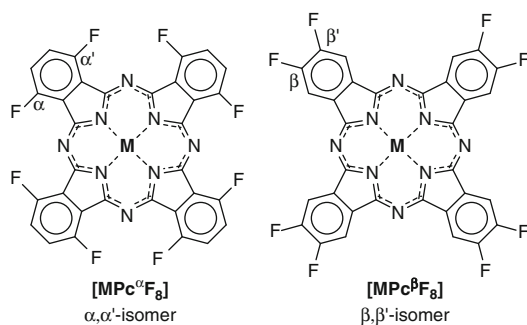
Scheme 4 Synthesis of β -substituted tetrafluorophthalocyanines

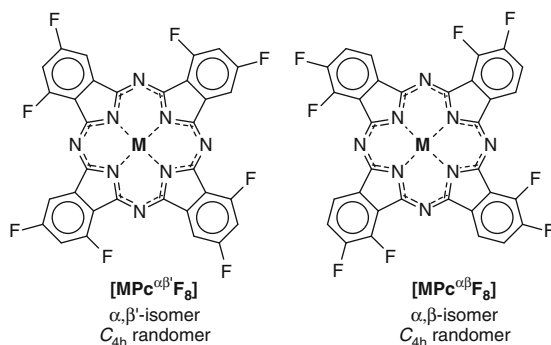
The Zn^{II} complex of phthalocyanine combining β -tetrafluoro and β' -tetraphenyl substitution [$ZnPc^{\beta}F_4^{\beta'}Ph_4$] (**22**) was recently prepared for application on organic solar cells [15] starting from 4,5-dichlorophthalodinitrile **19** (Scheme 5). On the first stage one of chlorine atoms in **19** were substituted by fluorine by treatment with KF in N,N'-dimethylimidazolidinotetramethylguanidium chloride to give 4-chloro-5-fluorophthalonitrile **20**, and then phenyl group was incorporated instead of the second chlorine using a Pd-catalyzed reaction with phenylboronic acid (tris(dibenzylideneacetone)dipalladium(0) (90 °C, 10 h, 47 %). The resulting dinitrile **21** was then cyclotetramerized with Zn^{II} acetate in the presence of MoO_3 and NH_3 in nitrobenzene to give **22** as a regioisomeric mixture.



Scheme 5 Synthesis of β -tetrafluoro- β' -tetraphenyl substituted phthalocyanines

2.4 Octafluorinated Phthalocyanines

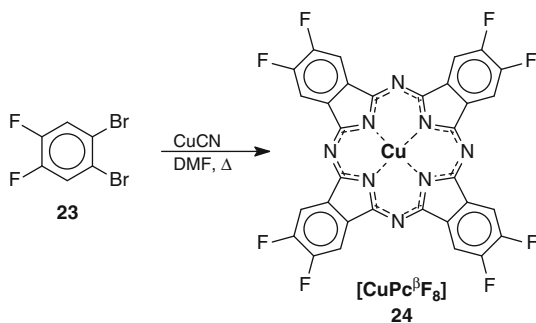




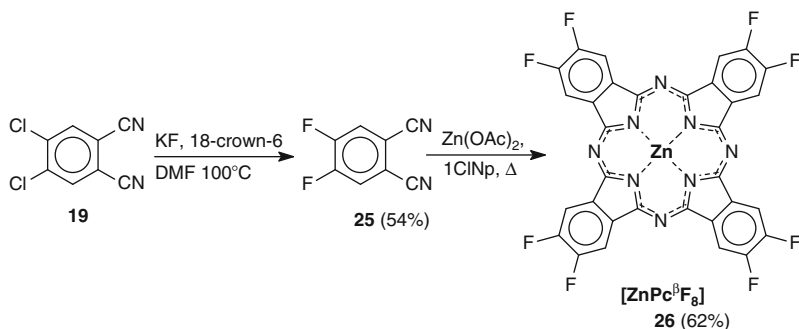
Two isomers with D_{4h} symmetry are possible for octafluorophthalocyanines: non-peripherally α,α' -substituted 1,4,6,9,11,14,16,19-isomer $[\text{MPc}^\alpha\text{F}_8]$, peripherally β,β' -substituted 2,3,7,8,12,13,17,18-isomer $[\text{MPc}^\beta\text{F}_8]$, and two quasi-symmetrical α,β - and α,β' -substituted isomers $[\text{MPc}^{\alpha\beta}\text{F}_8]$ and $[\text{MPc}^{\alpha\beta'}\text{F}_8]$ each present as four randomers with C_{4h} , C_{2v} , D_{2h} and C_s symmetry. So far only syntheses and properties of α,α' [16], β,β' [4, 8, 17, 18] and α,β' [19] substituted octafluorophthalocyanines have been reported.

The Cu^{II} complex of β -octafluorophthalocyanine $[\text{CuPc}^\beta\text{F}_8]$ (**24**) was prepared [17] in one-pot procedure (Scheme 6) by direct reaction of 1,2-dibromo-4,5-difluorobenzene **23** with copper(I) cyanide in DMF without isolation of intermediate 4,5-difluorophthalonitrile **25**.

Scheme 6 One-pot synthesis of Cu^{II} complex of β -octafluorophthalocyanine

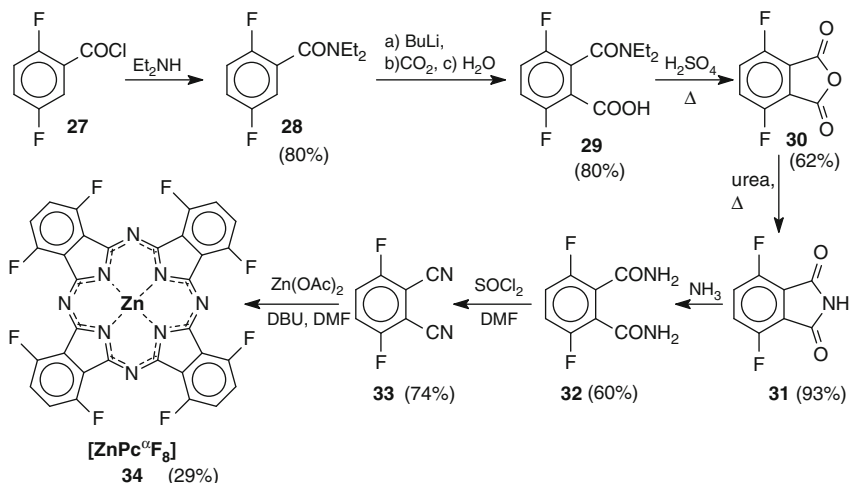


This dinitrile **25** was obtained by heating of commercially available 4,5-dichlorophthalodinitrile **19** with dry potassium fluoride in DMF in the presence of 18-crown-6 (54 %) and used in the template synthesis of the Zn^{II} complex $[\text{ZnPc}^\beta\text{F}_8]$ (**26**) in the presence of Zn^{II} acetate in 1-chloronaphthalene (1CINp) (Scheme 7).



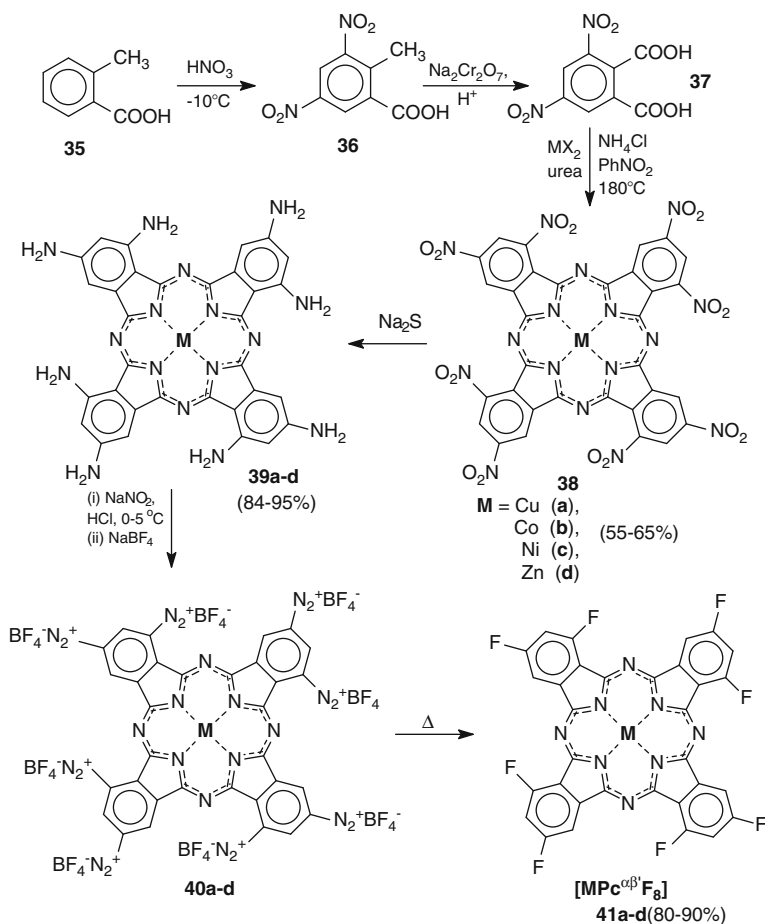
Scheme 7 Synthesis of β -octafluorophthalocyanines from 4,5-dichlorophthalodinitrile

The precursor for α -octafluorophthalocyanines [$\text{MPc}^\alpha\text{F}_8$], 3,6-difluorophthalonitrile **33** can be prepared starting from the commercially available 2,5-difluorobenzoylchloride **27**, which was first transformed to diethylamide **28** (80%), then carboxylated to amidoacid **29** (80%) and converted to 3,6-difluorophthalic anhydride **30** (62%) [20] (Scheme 8). The latter was melted with urea at 125–130 °C to afford imide **31** (93%), converted upon treatment with 25% aqueous NH_3 to diamide **32** (60%), which was dehydrated with SOCl_2 in DMF to dinitrile **33** (74%) [16]. The Zn^{II} complex [$\text{ZnPc}^\alpha\text{F}_8$] (**34**) was then prepared by heating of the dinitrile **33** with Zn^{II} acetate in DMF in the presence of DBU (29%) [16].



Scheme 8 Synthesis of α -octafluorophthalocyanines

Complexes of α,β' -octafluorophthalocyanine [$\text{MPC}^{\alpha\beta'}\text{F}_8$] ($\text{M}=\text{Co}^{\text{II}}$, Ni^{II} , Cu^{II} and Zn^{II} , **41a-d**) were prepared [19] with 80–90 % yields from the corresponding octa-amino substituted phthalocyanines **39a-d** using Schieman reaction through the intermediate octadiazonium salts **40a-d**. Octaaminophthalocyanines **39a-d** were obtained by reduction of octanitro derivatives **38a-d** with sodium sulfide [21]. Template cyclotetramerization of 3,5-dinitroththalic acid **37** in the presence of metal salt, urea, NH_4Cl , and catalytic amount of $(\text{NH}_4)_6\text{Mo}_7\text{O}_{24}$ [22] was used to synthesize **38**. The diacid **37** was prepared starting from 2-methylbenzoic acid **35** by nitration followed by oxidation of the dinitro derivative **36** (Scheme 9).



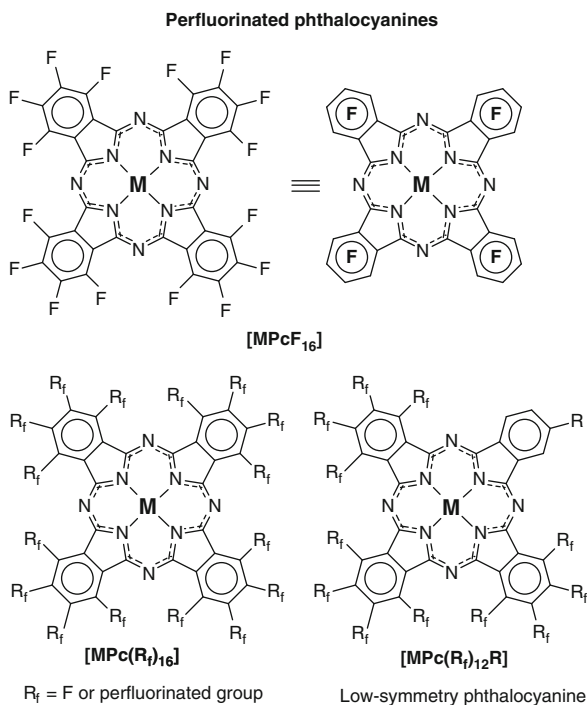
Scheme 9 Synthesis of α,β -octafluorophthalocyanines

The complexes are sparingly soluble in donor organic solvents such as pyridine, DMSO and DMF. UV-VIS spectra were reported [19] only for aqueous (1:1) sulfuric acid solutions (326, 473, 647 and 735 nm for Cu^{II} ; 260, 479, 620 nm for Ni^{II} ; 243, 444 and 515 nm for Co^{II} ; and 254, 553 and 616 nm for Zn^{II} complexes) in which

they exist most likely as protonated and/or aggregated species. The magnetic measurements fulfilled over range of magnetic field strength indicate the presence of intermolecular cooperative effect [19].

2.5 Hexadecasubstituted Fluorinated Phthalocyanines

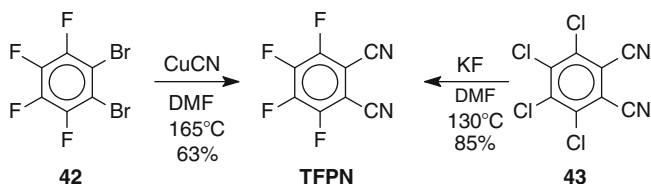
This section surveys synthesis of hexadecasubstituted phthalocyanines having at least one fluorine atom directly attached to each of four tetrasubstituted benzene rings. Among them one can distinguish (i) partly fluorinated hexadecasubstituted phthalocyanines $[\text{MPcF}_x(\text{R})_{16-x}]$ and two types of perfluorinated phthalocyanines – (ii) hexadecafluorophthalocyanines $[\text{MPcF}_{16}]$ and (iii) hexadecasubstituted phthalocyanines combining fluorine atoms and perfluorinated substituents $[\text{MPc}(\text{R}_f)_{16}]$. The low symmetry phthalocyanines with only three perfluorinated isoindole units $[\text{MPc}(\text{R}_f)_{12}\text{R}]$ are also considered here.



2.5.1 3,4,5,6-Tetrafluorophthalonitrile (TFPN)

Tetrafluorophthalonitrile (TFPN, Scheme 10) is commercially available precursor for the preparation of hexadecafluorophthalocyanines $[\text{MPcF}_{16}]$ by template cyclo-tetramerization method. Its preparation by Rosemund – von Braun cyanation of 1,2-dibromotetrafluorobenzene **42** [23] is accompanied by formation of considerable

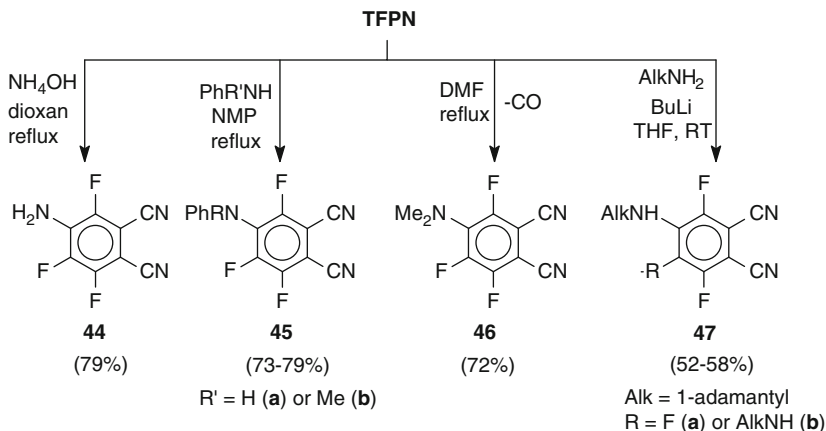
amounts of Cu^{II} perfluorophthalocyanine as a by-product. More conveniently TFPN can be obtained by melting of tetrachlorophthalonitrile **43** with excess of anhydrous KF (200–250 °C, 20 h, yield 65–70 %) [24] or in a milder conditions by heating in an aprotic solvent, such as DMFA (150 °C, 1.5 h, 85 %) [25].



Scheme 10 Synthesis of tetrafluorophthalonitrile (TFPN)

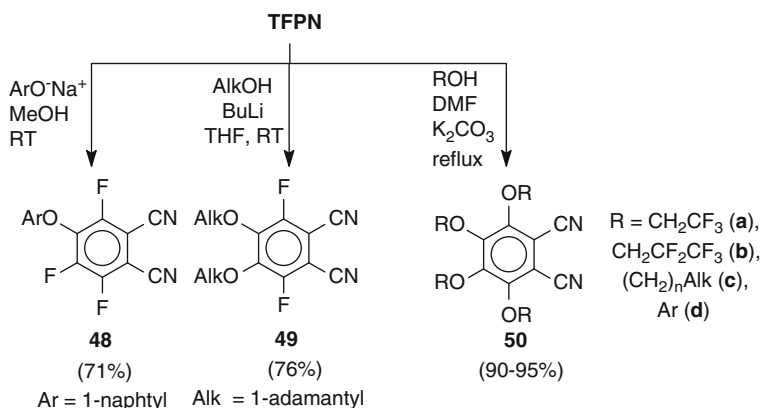
Various N-, O-, S-, P- and C-nucleophiles can substitute fluorine atom(s) in TFPN and it can be therefore also used in the synthesis of the dinitrile precursors for hexadecasubstituted phthalocyanines bearing fluorine atoms along with other substituents. The nucleophilic substitution of fluorine atoms in TFPN occurs most easily in positions 4 and 5 and leads to 3,5,6-trifluoro- or 3,6-difluorophthalodinitriles, which can be used for synthesis of the corresponding α,α',β -dodeca- and α,α' -octafluorinated phthalocyanines.

Thus, TFPN gives 4-amino derivative **44** upon treatment with three-fold excess of ammonium hydroxide in dioxane under reflux, while 4-arylamino substituted species **45a,b** are formed in reaction with arylamines in boiling N-methylpyrrolidone (NMP) [26] (Scheme 11). Interestingly, 4-dimethylamino derivative **46** can be obtained upon heating of TFPN in DMF (72 %) accompanied by evolution of carbon monoxide [26]. Amination of TFPN with aliphatic amines proceeds in milder conditions (THF, room temperature) if they are first converted to amides by treatment with BuLi. In such way 4-monoadamantyl-3,5,6-trifluoro- and 4,5-diadamantyl-3,6-difluorophthalodinitriles **47a** (58 %) and **47b** (52 %) were obtained [27].



Scheme 11 Reactions of TFPN with N-nucleophiles

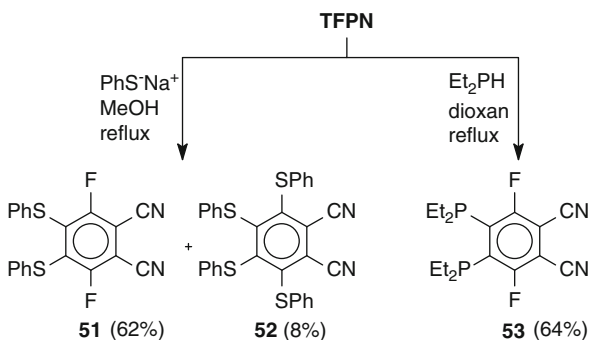
Substitution of fluorine by alkoxy and aryloxy groups occurs especially easily (Scheme 12). Thus, 4-(1-naphthoxy)trifluorophthalonitrile was obtained upon treatment of TFPN with equimolar amount of sodium 1-naphtholate in methanol at room temperature (71 %) [26]. Reaction of TFPN with 1-adamantanol (1:2 ratio) in the presence of BuLi in THF affords 4,5-diadamantyloxy substituted dinitrile (RT, 76 %) [27]. All fluorine atoms are substituted when TFPN is heated with alcohols or phenols in DMF in the presence of K_2CO_3 as a base [27–29]. In such way, among others tetrakis(2,2,2-trifluoroethoxy)- and tetrakis(2,2,3,3,3-pentafluoropropoxy) phthalodinitriles **50a** and **50b** (yields >90 %) – the precursors for the “fluorine-coated” phthalocyanines were obtained [28, 29].



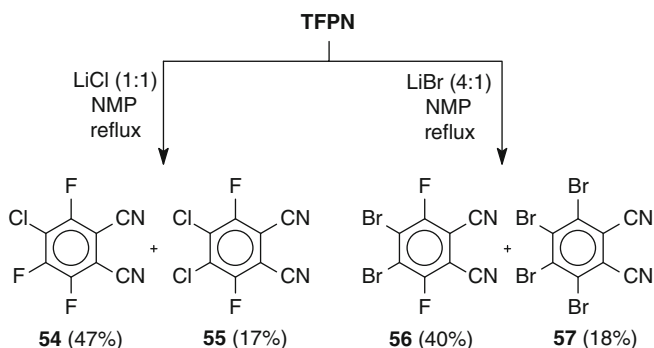
Scheme 12 Reactions of TFPN with O-nucleophiles

S- and P-nucleophiles substitute two fluorine atoms in TFPN and give the corresponding 4,5-substituted 3,6-difluorophthalodinitriles [26] (Scheme 13). Thus, treatment of TFPN with benzenethiolate in 1:1 molar ratio in methanol under short reflux leads predominantly to 4,5-bisphenylsulfanyl derivative **51** (62 %) and admixture of tetrasubstituted phthalodinitrile **52** (8 %), indicating activating action of PhS group [26]. Reaction of TFPN with diethylphosphine (1:2 ratio) in dioxane under reflux (1 h) affords 4,5-bisdiethylphosphanyl-3,6-difluorophthalonitrile **53** (64 %).

Scheme 13 Reactions of TFPN with S- and P-nucleophiles

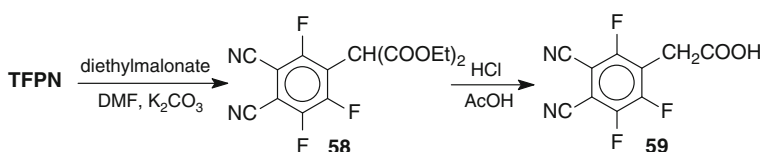


The fluorine atoms in TFPN can be also substituted by chlorine and bromine [26] (Scheme 14). Heating of TFPN with LiCl (1:1 ratio) in NMP lead to a mixture of 4-chloro and 4,5-dichloro derivatives **54** (47 %) and **55** (17 %), while in excess of LiCl all fluorine atoms are substituted. In the case of LiBr taken in 4:1 molar ratio to TFPN a mixture of 4,5-dibromo-3,6-difluorophthalosinitrile **56** (40 %) and tetrabromophthalonitrile **57** (18 %) was formed.

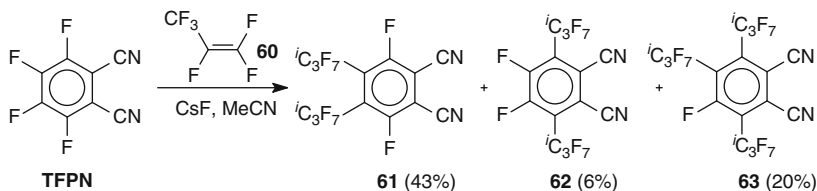


Scheme 14 Substitution of fluorine in TFPN by other halogen

Substitution of fluorine in TFPN can also occur in the presence of C-nucleophiles (Schemes 15 and 16). Thus, reaction of TFPN with diethylmalonate in DMF in the presence of K_2CO_3 affords 4-dicarbethoxymethyl derivative **58**, which can be further hydrolyzed to form 4-carboxymethyl-3,5,6-trifluorophthalodinitrile **59** [30].



Scheme 15 Introduction of carboxymethyl group



Scheme 16 Introduction of perfluoroisopropyl groups

In a nucleophilic reaction of TFPN with perfluoroisopropyl carbanion $i\text{-C}_3\text{F}_7^-$ (generated in situ from perfluoropropene **60** in the presence of CsF) up to three of four fluorine atoms in TFPN can be substituted by perfluoroisopropyl groups [31] (Scheme 16). Three perfluorinated phthalodinitriles bearing perfluoroisopropyl groups in 4,5-, 3,6- and 3,4,6-positions (**61**, **62** and **63**) were isolated and characterized by X-Ray diffraction study. The major product 4,5-perfluoroisopropyl-3,6-difluorophthalodinitrile **61** was used for synthesis of perfluorinated β -isopropyl substituted phthalocyanines (see Sect. 2.5.4).

2.5.2 Hexadecafluorinated Phthalocyanines

Perfluorinated phthalocyanines (hexadecafluorophthalocyanines, $[\text{MPcF}_{16}]$) have been first reported in the second half of 1960s [32–35]. However, active studies of perfluorinated phthalocyanines have been started only 25 year later in connection with their possible applications mainly in molecular electronics and catalysis. Since then the free base perfluorophthalocyanine $[\text{H}_2\text{PcF}_{16}]$ [36], and its complexes with Zn^{II} [35, 37, 38], Cu^{II} [32, 35], Co^{II} [10, 39], Fe^{II} [33, 40], Ru^{II} [9, 41], In^{III} [42], Zr^{IV} [42], Sn^{IV} [35], $\text{O}=\text{Ti}^{\text{IV}}$ [13], $\text{O}=\text{V}^{\text{IV}}$ [43–45], Th^{III} [34] have been prepared, characterized and studied for various applications.

The Co^{II} complex $[\text{CoPcF}_{16}]$ have advantageous properties as electrocatalyst for the reduction of oxygen as compared to $[\text{CoPc}]$ [39]. The Ru^{II} complex $[\text{RuPcF}_{16}]$ appeared to be an effective catalyst for the room temperature oxidation of cycloalkanes [9]. Encapsulated in zeolite these species were used for catalytic oxidation of alkanes and alcohols [46]. In photoelectrochemical and (photo)conductivity studies it was shown that $[\text{ZnPcF}_{16}]$ behaves as n -type semiconductor in vacuo and photoconductor in the presence of oxygen [37, 47]. Due to its enhanced solubility in different solvents as compared to non-substituted $[\text{ZnPc}]$ it has advantages for clinical application in photodynamic tumor therapy [11]. Perfluorinated In^{III} , V^{IV} , Ti^{IV} and Zr^{IV} phthalocyanines exhibit higher performance as optical limiters than non-fluorinated species [42].

Perfluorophthalocyanines are usually easily prepared by template cyclotetramerization of tetrafluorophthalonitrile (TFPN) in the presence of the corresponding metal salt or even metal in a melt or in a highly boiling solvent (see Table 1). Some caution is required to avoid the side-reactions of fluorine substitution, which can easily occur in the presence of nucleophiles both with the dinitrile precursor TFPN or the target complex $[\text{MPcF}_{16}]$. The use of iodides, bromides and acetates is generally preferable. Complexes of Zn^{II} [8, 37], Cu^{II} [39], Co^{II} [39], Fe^{II} [40] were prepared from the corresponding metal(II) acetates and TFPN. The microwave heating procedure can strongly shorten the reaction time [38]. The use of Zn^{II} , Fe^{II} and Al^{III} chlorides as templating agents leads to mixture of corresponding polychloropolyfluorophthalocyanines, the extent of fluorine substitution is increased at higher temperature and higher metal chloride:TFPN ratio [35]. In^{III} , Sn^{II} , Ti^{III} chlorides were used in template cyclotetramerization of TFPN for preparation of corresponding metal complexes $[\text{MPcF}_{16}]$ ($\text{M}=\text{ClIn}^{\text{III}}$ [42], $\text{Cl}_2\text{Sn}^{\text{IV}}$ [35], $\text{O}=\text{Ti}^{\text{IV}}$ [13]). The vanadyl complex $[\text{O}=\text{V}^{\text{IV}}\text{PcF}_{16}]$ was prepared both from V_2O_5 [44] and VOCl_3 [43].

Table 1 Synthesis of perfluorophthalocyanines [MPcF₁₆]

Phthalocyanine	Reaction conditions	Yield	Ref.
[H ₂ PcF ₁₆]	TFPN + 6 mol% CeCl ₃ + DBU, pentanol, 160 °C, 24 h	73 %	[36]
[ZnPcF ₁₆]	TFPN + ZnI ₂ (4:1), 250 °C (1.5 h)	77 % ^a	[35]
	TFPN + ZnBr ₂ (4:1), 250 °C (1.5 h)	85 % ^a	[35]
	TFPN + ZnCl ₂ (1:1), 160 °C ^b (7 h)	75 % ^a	[35]
	TFPN + Zn (dust) (1:2) in 1ClNp, reflux (48 h)	87 % ^a	[35]
	TFPN + Zn(OAc) ₂ • 2H ₂ O (1:1) at 160 °C for 3 h	50–60 %	[11]
	TFPN + Zn(OAc) ₂ • 2H ₂ O (4:1) in sealed tube at 180 °C (1 h)	85 %	[8, 37]
	TFPN + Zn(OAc) ₂ • 2H ₂ O (~4:1) + DMF, microwave heating 200 °C (10 min)	59 %	[38]
	[CoPcF ₁₆]	TFPN + Co(OAc) ₂ (4:1.2) 280 °C	nr
TFPN + Co(OAc) ₂ • 4H ₂ O (5:1), 1ClNp, reflux (24 h)		54 %	[39]
[CuPcF ₁₆]	TFPN + CuCl (2:1) in NMP, reflux (2 h)	90 %	[32]
	TFPN + CuCl (1:1), 220 °C (2 h)	87 % ^a	[35]
	TFPN + CuCl ₂ (1:1), 250 °C (7 h)	62 % ^a	[35]
	TFPN + Cu (turnings) (1:8) in 1ClNp, reflux (48 h)	78 % ^a	[35]
[FePcF ₁₆]	TFPN + Cu(OAc) ₂ (5:1), 1ClNp, reflux (24 h)	65 %	[39]
	TFPN + Fe(CO) ₅ (5:1), 1MeNp, reflux, 2 h	~70 %	[33]
[RuPcF ₁₆]	TFPN + Fe(OAc) ₂ (4:1) 1ClNp, 280 °C (24 h)	19 %	[40]
	TFPN + Ru ₃ (CO) ₁₂ , 1ClNp, 280 °C	nr	[9]
[(I)ThPcF ₁₆]	TFPN + [Ru(NH ₃) ₅ I] ₂ (~5:1), 230 °C (1 h)	18 %	[41]
	TFPN + ThI ₄ , 240 °C	nr	[33]
[(Cl)InPcF ₁₆]	TFPN + InCl ₃ (2.7:1), 120 °C (3 h)		[42]
[(Cl ₂)SnPcF ₁₆]	TFPN + SnCl ₂ (4:1), 250 °C (1.5 h)	79 % ^a	[35]
[O=TiSnPcF ₁₆]	TFPN + TiCl ₃ (2:1), 1ClNp, 210 °C (2.5 h)		[13]
[(HO) ₂ ZrPcF ₁₆]	TFPN + Zr(OEt) ₄ (2.5:1), pentanol, reflux (4 h)	20 %	[42]
[O=VPcF ₁₆]	TFPN + V ₂ O ₅ (~9:1), pentanol, reflux (20 h)	16 %	[44]
	TFPN + V ₂ O ₅ (4:1), 220 °C (7 h)	15 %	[45]
	TFPN + VOCl ₃ (4:1), 150 °C	nr	[43]

^aCalculated on TFPN consumed^bAt 250 °C the substitution product [ZnPcCl₇F₉] is obtained

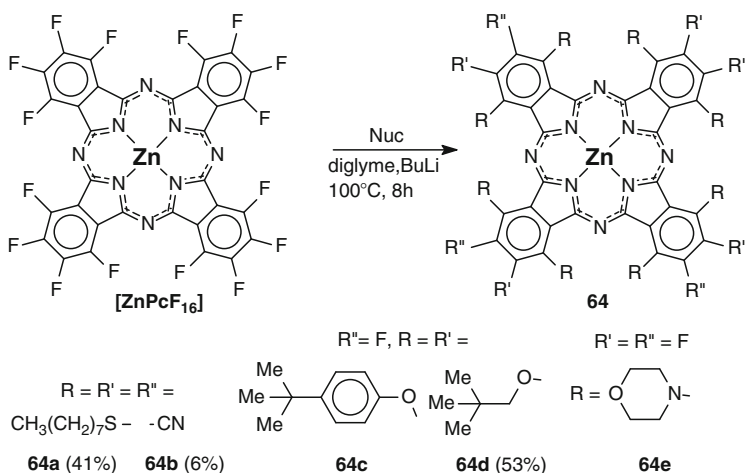
nr not reported

Reaction of TFPN with thorium(IV) tetraiodide at 240 °C leads to perfluorophthalocyaninate of Th^{III} [(I)ThPcF₁₆] [33], whereas in the case of non-fluorinated species a sandwich complex [Th(Pc)₂] containing Th^{IV} is formed in the same conditions. Metal carbonyls were used for preparation of Fe^{II} [33] and Ru^{II} [9] complexes. Preparation of the Ru^{II} complex from TFPN and [Ru(NH₃)₅I]₂ leads to [RuPcF₁₆] contaminated with small admixtures of substitution by-products containing instead of one or two fluorine iodine or hydrogen atom or NH₂ group [41]. The Zr^{IV} complex [(HO)₂ZrPcF₁₆] was formed from TFPN and Zr(OEt)₄ [42]. However Linstead cyclotetramerization of TFPN in the presence of alcoholates cannot be applied for the synthesis of Li^I, or Mg^{II} complexes as the precursors of the free base [H₂PcF₁₆] due to formation of alkoxy substituted phthalocyanines. [H₂PcF₁₆] can be however obtained by cyclotetramerization of TFDN in refluxing *n*-pentanol with addition of DBU (4 eq.) and 6 mol% of Ce^{III} chloride [36].

Hexadecafluorinated phthalocyanines have much higher solubility in organic solvents than unsubstituted species and often column chromatography can be applied for their purification. For example, in the case of $[\text{ZnPcF}_{16}]$ the impurities in a crude product were first extracted by water and light petroleum and the residue was purified by chromatography in acetone on silica [11]. Due to high thermal stability of $[\text{MPcF}_{16}]$ their purification by sublimation can be also used [37].

2.5.3 Hexadecasubstituted Partly Fluorinated Phthalocyanines

Fluorine atoms in hexadecafluorophthalocyanines can be substituted by various O-, S-, N-, or C-nucleophiles as has been demonstrated for the Zn^{II} complex $[\text{ZnPcF}_{16}]$ [48–50] (Scheme 17). In the presence of 20-fold excess of nucleophile per fluorine atom in $[\text{ZnPcF}_{16}]$ the nucleophilic substitution reactions occur upon heating in diglyme at ca 100 °C for 8 h [48]. The number of substituted fluorine atoms in the obtained Zn^{II} phthalocyanines **64a–e** depends on the type of nucleophile used.



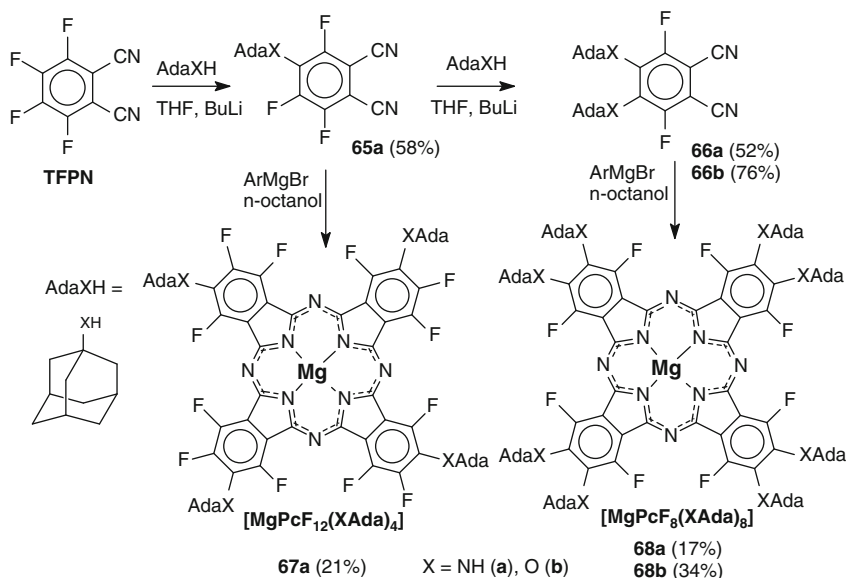
Scheme 17 Nucleophilic substitution of fluorine in hexadecafluorinated Zn^{II} phthalocyanine

All 16 fluorine atoms can be substituted only in the case of such nucleophiles as *n*-alkylthiolate and cyanide (**64a** and **64b**) [48]. In the case of bulky nucleophiles the incomplete substitution takes place – 12 fluorine atoms have been substituted under treatment with aryloxy- and neopentyloxy-anions (**64c** and **64d**) and eight in the presence of morpholine (**64e**) [48]. The regioselectivity of the partial fluorine substitution was not established in this work. However in the case of neopentyloxy derivative **64d** the ^1H NMR data evidenced about preferential substitution of both non-peripheral fluorine atoms in α, α' -positions, while only one β -fluorine atom in each of four isoindole rings is exchanged. In a later study it was demonstrated that changing the reaction conditions one can vary the extent of fluorine substitution in $[\text{ZnPcF}_{16}]$ by AlkS groups [49]. The reaction with dodecanethiol in THF in the presence of diisopropylethylamine

at 50 °C for 24 h leads to β -tetrasubstituted derivative $[\text{ZnPcF}_{12}^{\beta}(\text{SC}_{12}\text{H}_{25})_4]$ (Q-band at 707 nm), heating under reflux in the presence of K_2CO_3 leads to substitution of eight β -F atoms with formation of $[\text{ZnPc}^{\alpha}\text{F}_8^{\beta}(\text{SC}_{12}\text{H}_{25})_8]$ (Q-band at 735 nm), and only heating in diglyme with solid thiolate at 100 °C for 16 h results in complete substitution of all F atoms affording $[\text{ZnPc}(\text{SC}_{12}\text{H}_{25})_{16}]$ (Q-band at 787 nm) [49]. Blends with varying substitution degree obtained from $[\text{ZnPcF}_{16}]$ and dodecanthiolate cover the broad spectral range in the absorption spectra, which allows the fabrication of bulk heterojunction solar cells with improved performance [49].

Treatment of $[\text{ZnPcF}_{16}]$ with 2,3,4,6-tetra-O-acetyl-glucosylthioacetate in THF in the presence of K_2CO_3 leads to substitution of the eight F atoms in peripheral β -positions and after following deacylation gives water-soluble octathioglycosylated derivative $[\text{ZnPc}^{\alpha}\text{F}_8^{\beta}(\text{Glc})_8]$ [50]. This compound with non-hydrolysable thioglycosylated cancer cell targeting units exhibits the photonic properties that may enable its potential applications in photodynamic therapy.

Hexadecasubstituted phthalocyanines perfluorinated in α - (and β -) positions can be also prepared from dinitriles obtained by partial substitution of fluorine atoms in TFPN. Thus, α, α' -octafluoro- and α, α', β -dodecafluoro substituted Pcs with adamantylamino or adamantyloxy groups $[\text{MgPc}^{\alpha}\text{F}_8(\text{XAda})_8]$ **68a, b** and $[\text{ZnPcF}_{12}^{\beta}(\text{XAda})_4]$ **67a** (Scheme 18) were prepared by cyclotetramerization of corresponding dinitriles **65a** and **66a, b** in the presence of 4-methoxyphenylmagnesiumbromide in *n*-octanol (24 h, 120 °C) [27]. The free base $[\text{H}_2\text{Pc}^{\alpha}\text{F}_8(\text{OAda})_8]$ was obtained by demetallation of the Mg^{II} complex **68b** with glacial acetic acid (reflux 4 days, yield 11 %), while the Ni^{II} complex $[\text{H}_2\text{Pc}^{\alpha}\text{F}_8(\text{OAda})_8]$ was prepared by heating of dinitrile **66b** and NiCl_2 in *N,N*-dimethylaminoethanol (24 h, 145 °C, 24 %).



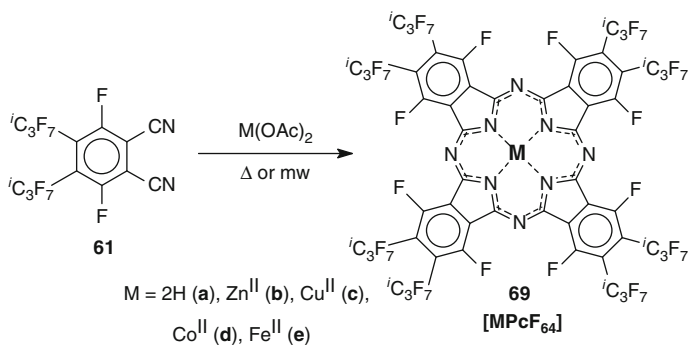
Scheme 18 Synthesis of fluorinated Mg^{II} phthalocyanines with adamantylamino(oxy) groups

Table 2 Synthesis of α -octafluoro- β -octa(perfluoroisopropyl)phthalocyanines

Synthetic conditions	Product	Yield, %	Ref.
Dinitrile 61 + zinc(II) acetate (4:1, 180 °C, 1 h)	[ZnPcF ₆₄] 69b	21	[51]
Solvent-Free microwave reaction (200 °C, 10 min)		64	[38]
Dinitrile 61 and cobalt(II) acetate (4:1) (230 °C, 100 min)	[CoPcF ₆₄] 69d	34.5	[52]
Dinitrile 61 + Cu(OAc) ₂ ·H ₂ O (2:1)	[CuPcF ₆₄] 69c	21	[52]
In PhNO ₂ (200 °C, 4 h)		48 %	
Solvent-free microwave reaction (190 °C, 12 min)			
Dinitrile 61 + Fe(OAc) ₂ (2.25:1, 210 °C, 6 h)	[FePcF ₆₄] 69e	50.2	[54]
	[H ₂ PcF ₆₄] 69a	22.4	

2.5.4 α -Octafluoro- β -Octa(Perfluoroisopropyl)Phthalocyanines

Perfluorinated β -octaisopropylphthalocyanines having 64 fluorine atoms per Pc unit ([MPcF₆₄], **69**) derived from perfluoro-4,5-di(isopropyl)-3,6-diphthalonitrile **61** (see Scheme 16) were prepared and studied in a series of works [51–54]. Template cyclotetramerization of the dinitrile **61** proceeds smoothly in a melt with M^{II} acetates at 180–200 °C and especially rapidly and effectively under microwave heating (Scheme 19, Table 2). Interestingly, the reaction with ferrous acetate leads to mixture of the Fe^{II} complex [FePcF₆₄] (50.2 %) and the free base [H₂PcF₆₄] (22.4 %) [54].

**Scheme 19** Synthesis of perfluorinated β -octaisopropylphthalocyanines

Due to the presence of bulky peripheral perfluoroisopropyl groups [MPcF₆₄] have high solubility in organic solvents and exhibit no tendency to aggregation in solutions (at least up to 10 μM). They are easily purified by column chromatography and upon crystallization readily produce single crystals suitable for X-ray diffraction study (see Figs. 1, 2, and 3).

Interestingly, the Cu^{II}, Zn^{II} and Co^{II} complexes have been structurally characterized as stable six-coordinated complexes with two carbonyl-containing ligands as O-donors: such as ethyl acetate in [(MeCOOEt)₂CuPcF₆₄] (Fig. 1) [52], acetone in [(Me₂CO)₂ZnPcF₆₄] [51] and [(Me₂CO)₂CoPcF₆₄] (Fig. 3a) [53].

Fig. 1 Molecular structure of $[(\text{MeCOOEt})_2\text{CuPcF}_{64}]$ (CCDC81124) [52]

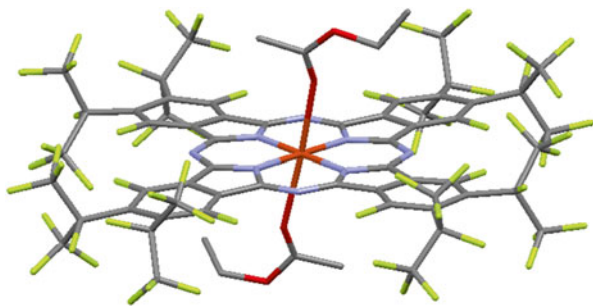
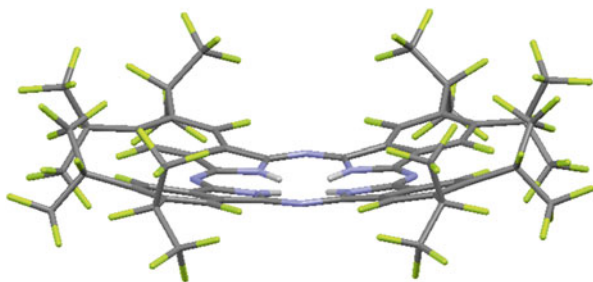
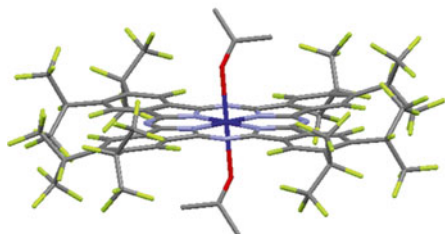


Fig. 2 Molecular structure of $[\text{H}_2\text{PcF}_{64}]$ (CCDC 201428) [54]



a



b

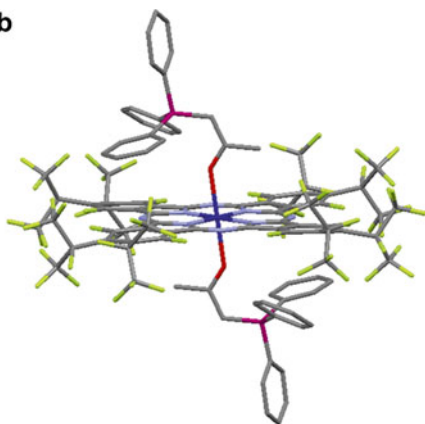
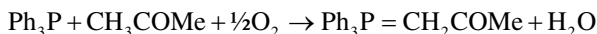


Fig. 3 Molecular structures of (a) $[(\text{Me}_2\text{CO})_2\text{CoPcF}_{64}]$ (CCDC 174676) and (b) -its oxidation product $[(\text{Ph}_3\text{P}=\text{CH}_2\text{COMe})_2\text{CoPcF}_{64}]$ (CCDC 174676) [53]

Such tendency to form stable coordination bonds with an oxygen atom in carbonyl groups might be related to the strong electron-withdrawing effect of perfluoroalkyl groups, increasing the Lewis acidity of the metal center. While the phthalocyanine macrocycle remains essentially planar in metal complexes $[(RR'CO)_2MPcF_{64}]$ (Fig. 1), for the free-base in $[H_2PcF_{64}]$ the intermolecular interactions in the crystalline state induce the unusual dome-like conformation with the dihedral angle between the opposite isoindole units $\sim 20^\circ$ (see Fig. 2) [54].

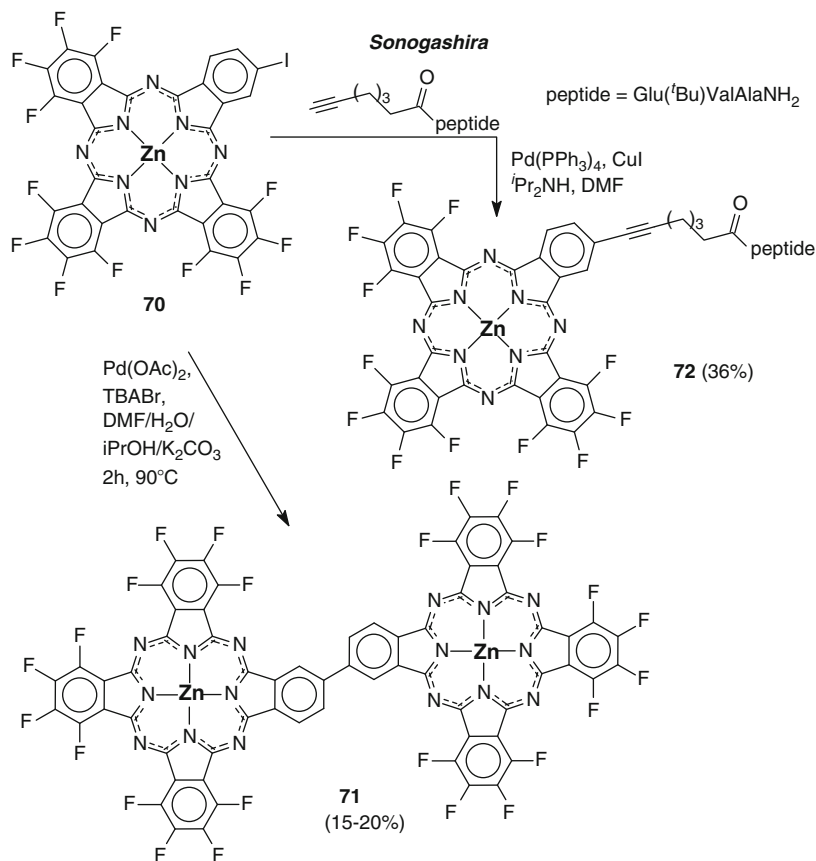
Perfluoroisopropyl groups have a strong electron-withdrawing inductive effect of the phthalocyanine macrocycles and their introduction in β -positions instead of aromatic F-atoms ($-I$, but $+M$ effects) increases Brønsted acidity of the free base, and Lewis acidity of metal centers in complexes, stabilizes macrocycle to oxidation and facilitates its reduction. Thus, pyrrolic NH groups are unusually acidic ($pK_a = 6$ [55]) The first reduction potential for $[ZnPcF_{64}]$ is -0.43 V in DMF vs Ag/AgCl [56] is less negative than for $[ZnPcF_{16}]$ and $[ZnPc]$ (-0.6 and -0.93 V, respectively [57]). Perfluorinated macrocycle in $[MPcF_{64}]$ is highly robust to oxidation and stabilizes the low oxidation states of the central metal. Thus, Co^{II} cannot be oxidized electrochemically in DMF to Co^{III} , but reduction to Co^I occurs at -0.22 V vs. SCE [58], easier than for $[CoPc]$ (-0.37 V [59]). Therefore $[MPcF_{64}]$ complexes are perspective oxidation catalysts. Thus, the Co^{II} complex $[CoPcF_{64}]$ effectively oxidized thiols in Mercox process through the Co^{II}/Co^I pathway [58]. Very unusually it was observed that acetone molecules coordinated to $[CoPcF_{64}]$ upon addition of PPh_3 instead of expected replacement are oxidized catalytically with formation of the carbon-phosphorus bonds [53]. The structure of the resulting ylide complex $[(Ph_3P=CH_2COMe)_2CoPcF_{64}]$ was elucidated by X-Ray diffraction study.



The Zn^{II} complex $[ZnPcF_{64}]$ is an effective and stable photosensitizer of singlet oxygen production, and might be used as very reactive yet stable photocatalyst for variety of oxygenation reactions [38] and in photodynamic tumor therapy [51]. In this regard the strong binding of the dianion (existing already in neutral medium) is of great importance [55].

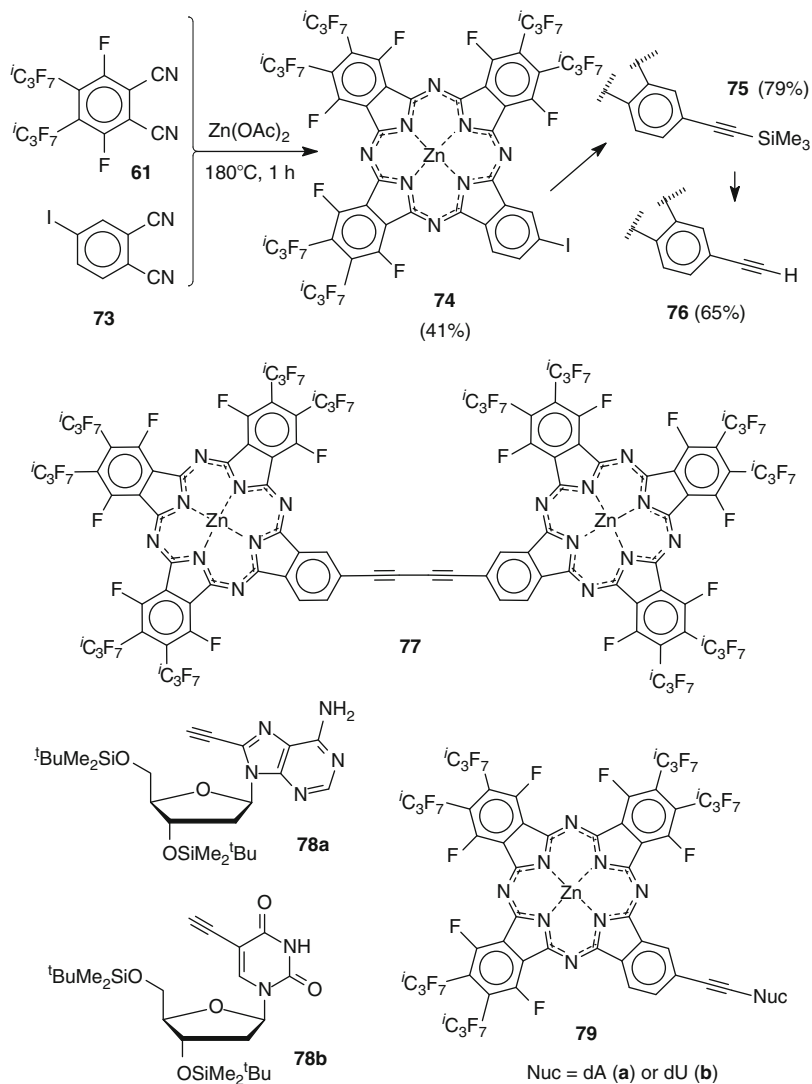
2.5.5 Low-Symmetry Phthalocyanines with Three Perfluorinated Isoindole Units

Low symmetry 1,2,3,4,6,7,8,9,11,12,13,14-dodecafluoro-17-iodophthalocyanine $[ZnPcF_{12}I]$ (**70**) was briefly reported without synthetic details [60, 61]. The conjugated *meta-meta* linked dimer **71** was obtained [61] (Scheme 20) when $[ZnPcF_{12}I]$ (**70**) was heated with Pd^{II} acetate and TBABr in DMF/ $H_2O/K_2CO_3/i$ -PrOH (2 h, $90^\circ C$). It was also converted to the dodecafluoroPc-peptide conjugate **72** via Pd-catalysed Sonogashira cross-coupling reaction [60].



Scheme 20 Synthesis of fluorinated dimeric phthalocyanine and Pc-peptide conjugate

Another low-symmetry AB₃ type Zn^{II} phthalocyanine **74** having one β-monoiodo substituted isoindole unit (A) and three α-difluoro-β-di(perfluoroisopropyl) substituted units (B) was prepared by cross-cyclotetramerization of 4-iodophthalonitrile **73** and fluorinated dinitrile **61** in the presence of Zn^{II} acetate (180 °C, 1 h, yield 41 %) [62, 63] (Scheme 21).



Scheme 21 Synthesis of low-symmetry phthalocyanines with three α -difluoro- β -di(perfluoroisopropyl) fragments

The monoiodo derivative **74** was then converted to the ethynyl substituted phthalocyanine **76** by reaction with trimethylsilylacetylene ($[\text{Pd}(\text{PPh}_3)_3\text{Cl}]_2$, CuI, Et_3N , THF, RT, 24 h) followed by desilylation of **75** (TBAF, THF, 0°C -rt, 2 h, 65 %). Then 1,3-butadiyn bridged dimer **77** was obtained by copper catalysed Glaser homo-coupling reaction (CuCl, pyridine, rt, 3 days, 75 %) [62].

This monoiodo substituted phthalocyanine **74** was also used in the synthesis of conjugates with deoxyribonucleosides **79a,b** using Pd-catalyzed Sonogashira cross-coupling reaction with ethynyl-substituted 2-deoxyadenosin (dA) and 2-deoxyuridin (dU) derivatives **78a,b** [63]. The *tert*-butyldimethylsilyl-protected conjugates were obtained from **74** and **78a,b** in high yields (84–87 %) using common Sonogashira conditions ([Pd(PPh₃)₂Cl₂], CuI, Et₃N, THF, Ar, rt, 24 h) and then deprotected with TBAF in THF to give conjugates **79a,b** (2 h, 60–70 % yield). These conjugates of fluorinated Zn^{II} phthalocyanines with deoxyribonucleosides exhibit high fluorescence quantum yields and photocytotoxicity which allow to consider them as promising candidates for the photodynamic therapy of cancer [63].

2.6 Influence of Fluorination on the Electronic Structure and Spectral Properties of Phthalocyanines

Incorporation of electronegative fluorine atoms in benzene rings of phthalocyanine macrocycle has a considerable impact on its electronic structure and spectral properties. The electronic absorption spectra of fluorinated phthalocyanines are typical for symmetrical metal phthalocyanines (Table 3). They contain an intense Q-band in the visible region (650–715 nm) corresponding to the lowest degenerated π - π^* transition of the macrocyclic π -chromophore, and a less intense and broader Soret band in the UV-region (300–380 nm).

The spectral data for phthalocyanines with various degree of fluorination are available for Zn^{II} and Cu^{II} complexes (Table 3). The fluorination of the peripheral β -positions leads to a hypsochromic shift of the Q-band, while an opposite bathochromic effect is observed in the case of non-peripheral α -fluorination. This indicates that the fluorine atoms in α -positions exhibit predominantly electron-donating +M effect and increase the energy level of highest occupied π -molecular orbital (HOMO), while in β -positions they are acting as electron acceptors (-I effect) and lower HOMO. These opposite spectral effects of α - and β -fluorination are almost compensated in perfluorinated M^{II} phthalocyanines. Indeed, the available spectral data (Table 3) indicate that for M^{II} complexes (Zn^{II}, Cu^{II} and Co^{II}) perfluorination of the phthalocyanine macrocycle, i.e. substitution of 16 hydrogen atoms by fluorine, has almost no influence on the position of the lowest $\pi\pi^*$ -transition (Q-band). Therefore the energy gap between frontier π -molecular orbitals of phthalocyanine π -chromophore is not changed upon perfluorination for M^{II} complexes. For complexes with metals in the higher oxidation state a bathochromic shift of the Q-band is observed upon perfluorination (ClIn^{III} ~15 nm, O=V^{IV} ~20 nm, O=Ti^{IV} ~25 nm). Since the HOMO in phthalocyanines have nodes on coordinating nitrogen atoms, one can conclude that for M^{III} and M^{IV} complexes the observed bathochromic shift of the Q-band might be related to a stronger stabilization of lowest unoccupied π -molecular orbital (LUMO).

Table 3 Electronic absorption spectra of fluorinated phthalocyanines

Complex	λ_{max} , nm ^a		Solvent	Ref.
	Q-band	Soret band		
[ZnPc]	666		THF	[8]
	678, 648sh, 612sh		CINp	[37]
	672, 646, 606	348	Py	
[ZnPc ^β F ₄]	660		THF	[8]
[ZnPc ^α F ₈]	690, 660, 622	368	CHCl ₃	[16]
[ZnPc ^β F ₈]	652		THF	[8]
[ZnPcF ₁₆]	668		THF	[8]
	678(5.3), 650(4.67), 630(4.56), 612(4.51)	376 (4.56)	Py	[11]
	686, 654sh, 617sh		CINp	[37]
[CuPc]	678, 648, 611	350	CINp	
[CuPc ^α F ₄]	680(2.66), 646(0.7), 611(0.76)	344(<i>I</i>)		[12]
[CuPc ^β F ₄]	666(1.18), 632(0.36), 597(0.36)	334(<i>I</i>)		[12]
[CuPcF ₁₆]	677, 645, 615		py	[39]
[CoPc]	658, 597	330	py	
[CoPcF ₁₆]	661, 600		py	[39]
[FePc]	658, 630sh, 600, 415	286	DMF	[40]
[FePcF ₁₆]	667, 640sh, 608, 435	367	DMF	[40]
[RuPcF ₁₆]	615(4.75), 562(4.11), 352(4.26)	323(4.59)	Me ₂ CO	[9]
[ClInPc]	700, 668, 629	365	PnNO ₂	
[ClInPcF ₁₆]	715, 685, 642, 593	367	1CINp	[42]
[O=VPc]	695, 665, 619	346	PhCl	
[O=VPcF ₁₆]	643		Py	[43]
	709		PhH	[43]
	716, 685, 645	368	1CINp	[42]
[O=TiPc]	690, 662, 623	346	PhCl	
[O=TiPcF ₁₆]	716, 680, 646	364	1CINp	[42]
[(HO) ₂ ZrPcF ₁₆]	704, 660, 637	370	1CINp	[42]

^aValues in parenthesis indicate values of log ϵ (normal font) or relative intensity (A/A_{max}) (*italics*)

The influence of successive fluorination of the phthalocyanine macrocycle on the frontier energy levels of Zn^{II} complexes has been studied by quantum chemistry on the semiempirical level [5, 8, 64]. The calculations predict (see Fig. 4) that fluorination should lead to comparable stabilisation of the both frontier orbitals maintaining the value of the HOMO-LUMO gap (ca. 1.8 eV). In agreement with the experimental spectral data the gap is slightly increased for octa- β -fluorinated species.

The absolute levels of the frontier π -MOs in fluorinated Zn^{II} and Cu^{II} phthalocyanines were experimentally determined using ultraviolet photoelectron spectroscopy (UPES) of the thin films deposited on different surfaces [8, 18, 37, 64]. As can be seen from Fig. 4 the experimental HOMO and LUMO levels and their trends upon fluorination are in a good agreement with theoretical results. The LUMO level for perfluorinated phthalocyanine complexes is comparable with the energy level of Au (−5.1 V) and lower than for indium-titan oxide (ITO) (−4.8 eV)

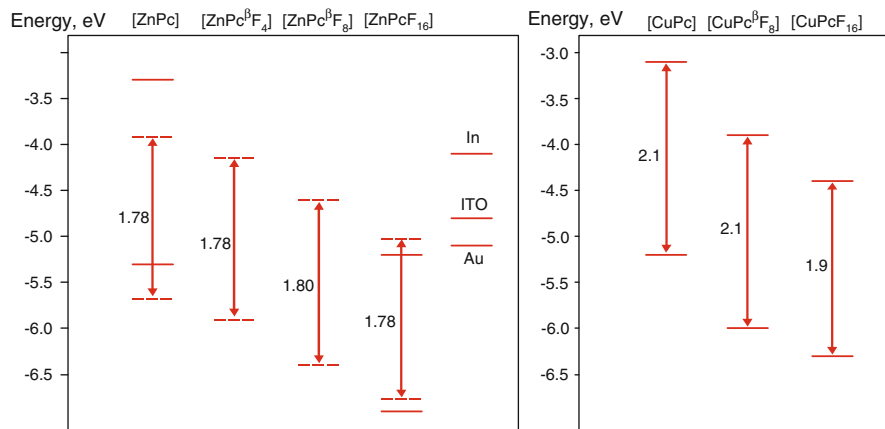


Fig. 4 The frontier MO levels of fluorinated Zn^{II} and Cu^{II} phthalocyanines calculated on the semiempirical level [8] (*dashed lines*) and obtained from UPES and inverse UPES methods (*solid lines*) for thin films deposited on surface of Au (Zn^{II} [37] and Cu^{II} [18])

Table 4 Influence of perfluorination on redox potentials ($E_{1/2}$, V vs. SCE) of phthalocyanines

Complex	Red1	Red2	Red3	Ox1	Solvent	Ref.
[ZnPcF ₁₆]	-0.43	-0.64	-0.84	+1.04	DMF	[65]
	-0.6	-0.9			DMF	[57]
[ZnPc]	-0.93	-1.42		+0.64	DMF	[57]
[CoPcF ₁₆]	-0.13	-1.07			DMSO	[39]
[CoPc]	-0.50	-1.43			DMSO	[39]
[CuPcF ₁₆]		-0.88	-1.45		DMSO	[39]
[CuPc]	-0.73	-1.43			DMSO	[39]
[FePcF ₁₆]	-0.78	-1.10	-1.53		DMSO	[40]
[FePc]	-0.77	-1.16	-1.89		DMSO	[40]
[O=VPcF ₁₆]	-0.29	-0.62	-1.41	+1.34	CH ₂ Cl ₂	[43]

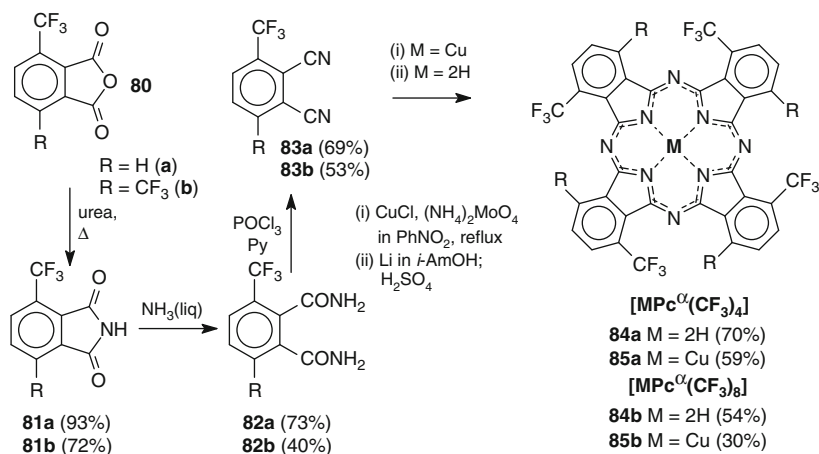
and In (-4.1). Unlike unsubstituted phthalocyanines which are *p*-conductors, this leads to the *n*-type conductivity of films from perfluorinated phthalocyanines [37]. It opens perspectives of their application in different electronic devices, e.g. in photovoltaics [37].

Electrochemical studies (see Table 4) have shown that perfluorinated phthalocyanine macrocycle is extremely stable to oxidation. At the same time fluorination facilitates the reduction of the macrocycle and the redox-active central metal (such as Co^{II}). This, perfluorination of phthalocyanine leads to positive shift of the first reduction potential of the macrocycle by ca 0.3 V for Zn^{II} complexes, and by 0.37 V the Co^{II}/Co^I couple. Such positive shift of the redox potentials for perfluorinated phthalocyanines is very important prerequisite for their application in oxidation catalysis.

2.7 Phthalocyanines with Fluorinated Substituents

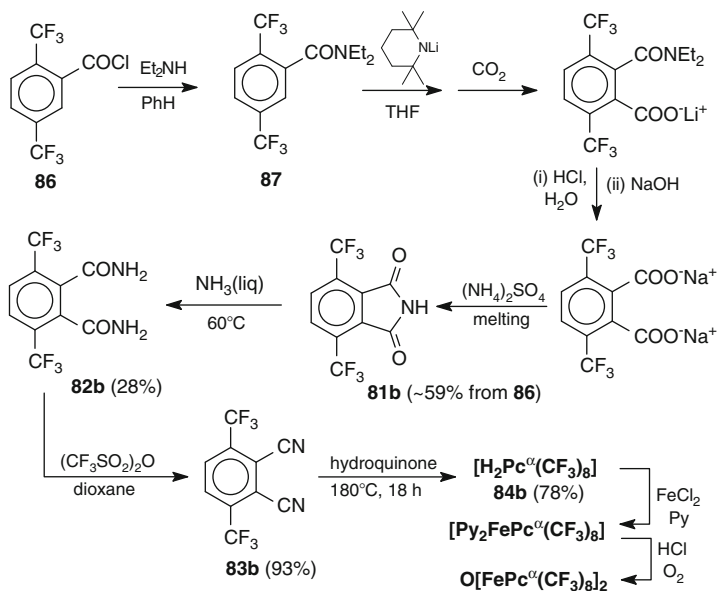
2.7.1 Perfluoroalkyl Substituted Phthalocyanines

α -Tetra- and α,α -octatrifluoromethylphthalocyanines (free bases **84a** and **85a** and Cu^{II} complexes **84b** and **85b**) were first obtained by cyclotetramerization of the corresponding dinitriles **83a,b** prepared from the anhydride precursors **80a,b** [66] (Scheme 22). While 3-mono- and 3,6-bistrifluoromethyl substituted phthalimides **81a,b** are easily formed in a usual manner by melting of anhydrides **80a,b** with urea, their conversion to diamides **82a,b** unlike unsubstituted derivatives can be achieved only with liquid NH₃ treatment under pressure (30–40 °C, 6 h). Dehydration of diamides **82a,b** with POCl₃ in pyridine affords the respective dinitriles **83a,b** (yields 69 and 53 %). Condensation of dinitriles **83a,b** with lithium *i*-amylate in *i*-amyl alcohol followed by reprecipitation from sulfuric acid gives the free bases [H₂Pc ^{α} (CF₃)₄] **84a** (70 %) and [H₂Pc ^{α} (CF₃)₈] **84b** (54 %). Template cyclotetramerization of dinitriles **83a,b** with CuCl in the presence of catalytic amount of ammonium molybdate in nitrobenzene afford the Cu^{II} complexes [CuPc ^{α} (CF₃)₄] **85a** (59 %) and [CuPc ^{α} (CF₃)₈] **85b** (30 %).



Scheme 22 Synthesis of α -trifluoromethyl substituted phthalocyanines

Later a modified procedure for the preparation of 3,6-bis(trifluoromethyl)phthalodinitrile **83b** was elaborated [67] (Scheme 23), which starts from 2,5-bis(trifluoromethyl)benzoyl chloride **86** and includes its conversion to N,N-diethylamide **87**, carboxylation of the latter in the presence of 2,2,6,6-tetramethylpiperidine, followed by direct formation of the imide **81b** (~59 % overall yield). The diamide **82b** obtained with liquid NH₃ treatment (28 % yield), was then converted to dinitrile **83b** with triflic anhydride in dioxane (yield



Scheme 23 Synthesis of α -octa(trifluoromethyl)phthalocyanines

93 %). Cyclotetramerisation of the dinitrile **83b** in a melt with hydroquinone (180 °C, 18 h) leads to the free-base $[\text{H}_2\text{Pc}^\alpha(\text{CF}_3)_8]$ (78 %).

The structure of the free-base **84b** determined by single X-ray diffraction study [68] has revealed the strong saddle-type distortion of the macrocycle due to steric repulsion of the CF_3 groups in the adjacent isoindole units (see Fig. 5).

Complexation of $[\text{H}_2\text{Pc}^\alpha(\text{CF}_3)_8]$ with FeCl_2 affords the Fe^{II} complex containing two coordinated pyridine molecules $[\text{Py}_2\text{FePc}^\alpha(\text{CF}_3)_8]$ [67]. It is oxidized in an acidic medium to Fe^{III} complex isolated as μ -oxo dimeric species $\mu\text{-O[FePc}^\alpha(\text{CF}_3)_8]_2$. Its X-Ray crystal structure (see Fig. 6) evidence that severe saddle-type distortion of the macrocycles due to interaction of $\alpha\text{-CF}_3$ groups leads to almost linear $\mu\text{-(FeOFe)}$ bridge [68]. The μ -oxo species exhibit catalytic activity in epoxidation of olefins with iodanyl benzene to stabilize the $\text{Fe}^{\text{IV}}=\text{O}$ (ferryl) intermediate by electron-accepting CF_3 groups [67].

Fig. 5 Molecular structure of $[\text{H}_2\text{Pc}^\alpha(\text{CF}_3)_8]$ **84b** (CCDC 613431) [68]

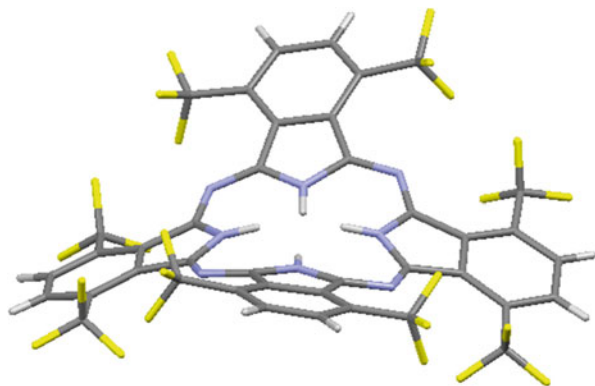
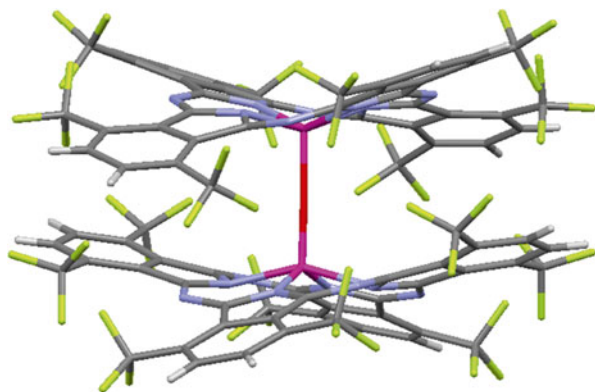
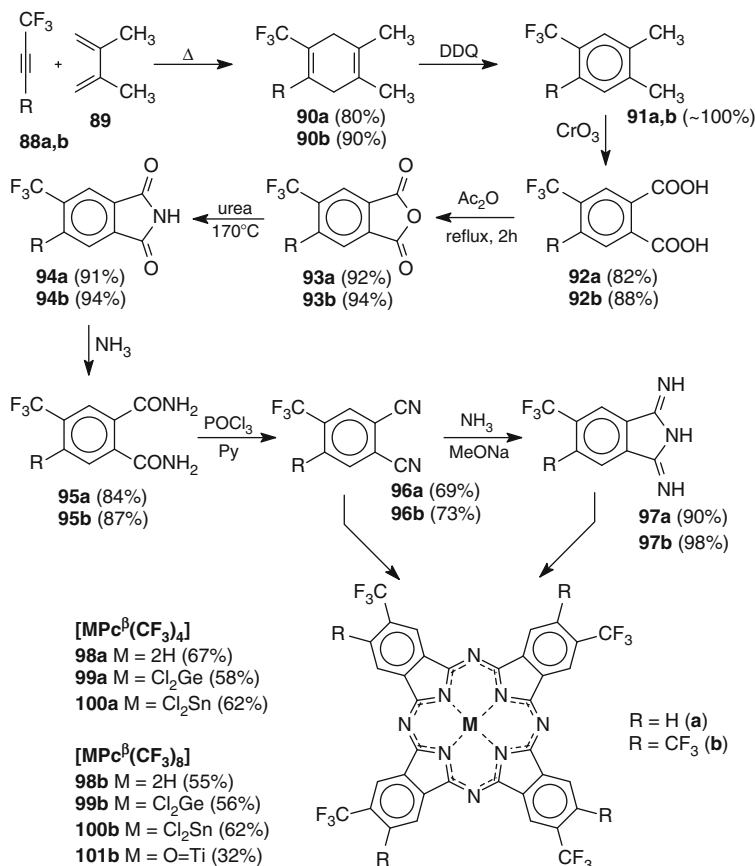


Fig. 6 Molecular structure of $\mu\text{-O}[\text{FePc}^\alpha(\text{CF}_3)_8]_2$ (CCDC 707384) [68]



The dinitrile precursors for β -tetra- and β -octatrifluoromethylphthalocyanines $[\text{MPc}^\beta(\text{CF}_3)_4]$ and $[\text{MPc}^\beta(\text{CF}_3)_8]$ (Scheme 24) were obtained [69] starting from the mono(bis)trifluoromethyl substituted acetylenes **88a,b** and 2,3-dimethylbutadiene **89** which easily give the Diels-Alder products **90a,b**. These adducts were converted quantitatively upon dehydrogenation with 2,3-dichloro-5,6-dicyanobenzoquinone (DDQ) to *o*-xylene derivatives **91a,b**. Their oxidation CrO_3 in a mixture of acetic and sulfuric acids affords the phthalic acids **91a,b** (yield ca. 80 %) which were converted to dinitriles **96a,b** and diiminoimides **97a,b** in a common way through intermediate anhydrides **93a,b**, imides **94a,b**, diamides **95a,b**.

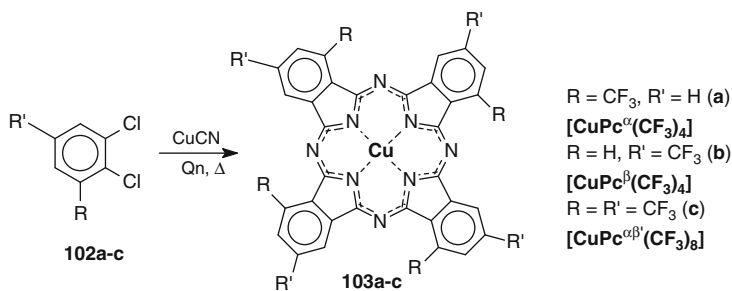


Scheme 24 Synthesis of β -trifluoromethyl substituted phthalocyanines

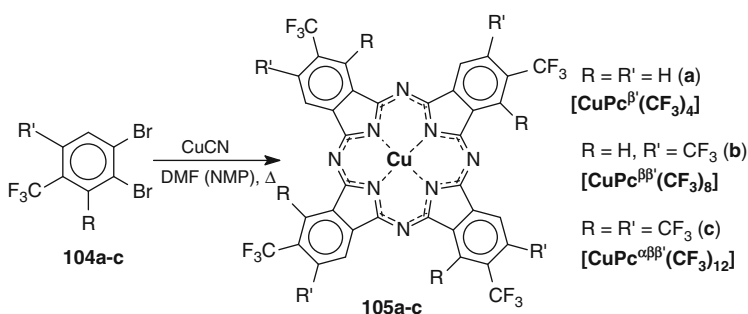
The Sn^{IV} complexes **100a,b** were obtained from the dinitriles **96a,b** and SnCl₂ in 1-chloronaphthalene (reflux 4 h), while diiminoimides **97a,b** were used for preparation of the Ge^{IV} complexes **99a,b** (refluxing with GeCl₄ in quinoline, 4 h) and the free bases **98a,b** (refluxing in dimethylaminoethanol, 7 h). The Ti^{IV} complex [O=TiPc^β(CF₃)₈] (**101b**) was obtained [70] by heating of the dinitrile with Ti(OBu)₄ and urea in *n*-octanol (190 °C, 6 h, 32 %).

The Cu^{II} complexes can be prepared directly from trifluoromethyl substituted 1,2-dihalobenzenes in the course of Rosemund-Braun reaction with copper(I) cyanide (Scheme 25). Thus, reaction of 3-, 4-trifluoromethyl and 3,5-difluoromethyl substituted 1,2-dichlorobenzenes **102a–c** with CuCN in quinoline (Qn) leads to Cu^{II} complexes of α - or β -tetrafluoromethyl- or α,β' -octatetrafluoromethylphthalocyanines **103a–c** [71].

In a similar way 4-, 4,5-bis- and 3,4,5-tristrifluoromethyl substituted 1,2-dibromobenzenes **104a–c** produces directly Cu^{II} complexes of β -tetrafluoromethyl-, β,β' -octatetrafluoromethyl- and α,β,β' -dodecatetrafluoromethylphthalocyanines **105a–c** [66] in reaction with CuCN in DMF or *N*-methylpyrrolidone (NMP) (Scheme 26).

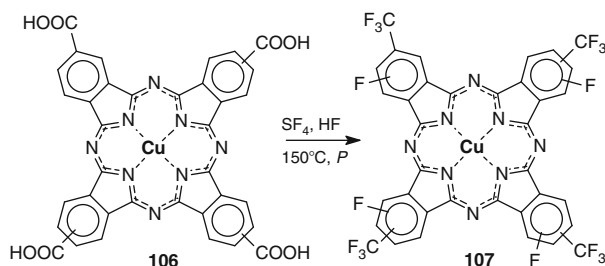


Scheme 25 Direct synthesis of trifluoromethyl substituted Cu^{II} phthalocyanines from 1,2-dichlorobenzenes



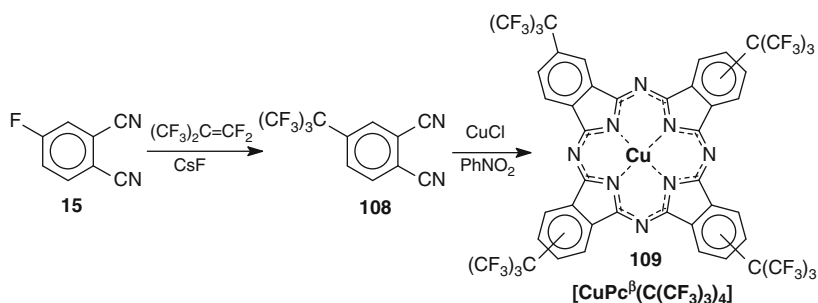
Scheme 26 Direct synthesis of trifluoromethyl substituted Cu^{II} phthalocyanines from 1,2-dibromobenzenes

Trifluoromethyl groups are usually introduced in 1,2-dihalogenobenzenes by heating of the corresponding carboxylic derivatives with SF₄ and HF under pressure. Similarly, treatment of Cu^{II} complex of tetra(4-carboxy)phthalocyanine **106** with SF₄ in the presence of HF in a steel bomb at 150–155 °C (Scheme 27) also leads to conversion of COOH groups to CF₃ groups and concomitant substitution of one hydrogen atom in each benzene ring by fluorine is observed, i.e. isomeric mixture of Cu^{II} complex of β-tetra(trifluoromethyl)tetrafluorophthalocyanine **107** is formed [72].



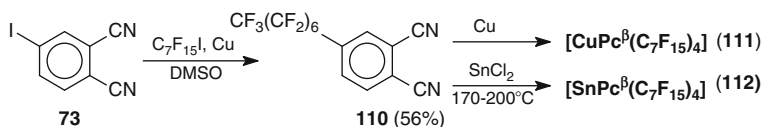
Scheme 27 Synthesis of trifluoromethyl substituted phthalocyanines by fluorination of carboxy groups

Reaction of 4-fluorophthalodinitrile **15** with perfluoroisobutylene in sulfolane in the presence of CsF affords 4-perfluoro-*tert*-butyl substituted phthalonitrile **108** which upon heating with CuCl gives the phthalocyanine complex **109** [12] (Scheme 28). The cyclotetramerization of 3-substituted dinitrile produced similarly failed, evidently due to steric hindrances of bulky perfluoro-*tert*-butyl groups.



Scheme 28 Synthesis of perfluoro-*tert*-butyl substituted phthalocyanines

Another approach to perfluoroalkyl substituted phthalonitrile includes reaction of 4-iodophthalonitrile **73** with perfluoroalkyl iodides in the presence of activated Cu in DMSO [73]. In such way 4-perfluoroheptylphthalodinitrile **110** was obtained (115–120 °C, 2 h) (Scheme 29). Some amount of the Cu^{II} complex **111** is formed in a side reaction of cyclotetramerization. Melting of the dinitrile with SnCl₂ at 170–200 °C leads to the formation of the Sn complex **112**.



Scheme 29 Synthesis of perfluoroheptyl substituted phthalocyanines

Spectral data on perfluoroalkyl substituted phthalocyanines and their Cu^{II} complexes are presented in Table 5. It can be noticed that introduction of electron-withdrawing perfluoroalkyl group in α - or β -position of each benzene ring results in a hypsochromic shift of the Q-band maximum, which indicates stabilization of HOMO in respect to LUMO. Eight CF₃ groups in β -positions have a similar effect, but in the case of octa- α -substituted species an opposite bathochromic shift of the Q-band is observed. This is evidently connected with the distortion of the planarity of the macrocycle due to steric interaction of CF₃ groups in α -positions of the adjacent isoindole units (Fig. 5) which destabilize HOMO.

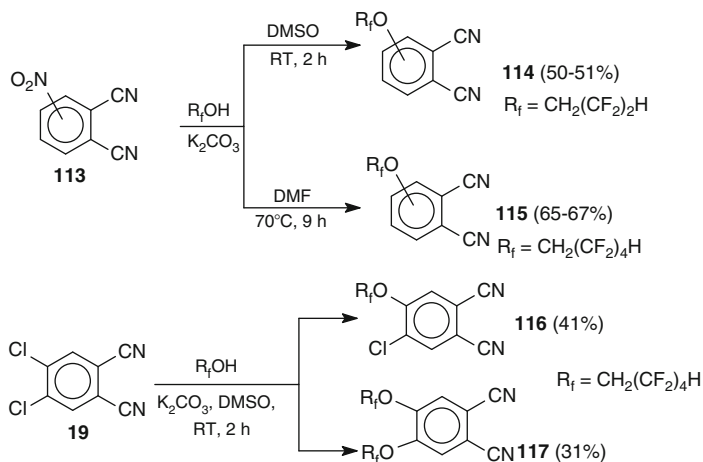
Table 5 UV-vis spectra of perfluoroalkyl substituted phthalocyanines

Complex	λ_{\max} , nm ^a	Soret band	Solv.	Ref.
	Q-band			
[H ₂ Pc]	692(5.21), 665(5.18), 638(4.52), 601(4.43)	350(4.70)	ClNp	
[H ₂ Pc ^{α} (CF ₃) ₄]	681(5.11), 646(5.08), 620(4.55), 584(4.26)	336(4.79)	PhCl	[66]
[H ₂ Pc ^{$\alpha\alpha'$} (CF ₃) ₈]	702, 674	344	PhCl	[66]
[H ₂ Pc ^{β} (CF ₃) ₄]	691, 655, 637, 627, 597, 571sh	363sh, 333	PhH	[69]
[H ₂ Pc ^{β} (C(CF ₃) ₃) ₄]	692(2.42), 655(1.98), 638sh, 626sh, 593(0.48)	342(I)	PhCl	[12]
[CuPc]	678(5.34), 648(4.51), 611(4.56)	350(4.76)	ClNp	
[CuPc ^{α} (CF ₃) ₄]	660(5.25), 631(4.43), 595(4.42)	339(4.79)	PhCl	[66]
[CuPc ^{$\alpha\alpha'$} (CF ₃) ₈]	680(5.02), 616(4.35)	342(4.85)	PhCl	[66]
[CuPc ^{$\beta\beta'$} (CF ₃) ₈]	669(5.36), 639(4.52), 601(4.50)	337(4.80)	PhCl	[66]
[CuPc ^{$\alpha\beta\beta'$} (CF ₃) ₁₂]	669(2.45), 639(0.50), 601(0.45)	344(I)	PhCl	[66]
[CuPc ^{β} (C(CF ₃) ₃) ₄]	672(3.55), 640sh, 602(0.6)	334(I)	PhCl	[12]

^aValues in parenthesis indicate values of log ϵ (normal font) or relative intensity (A/A_{\max}) (italics)

2.7.2 Perfluoroalkoxy Substituted Phthalocyanines

Phthalocyanines containing (per)fluorinated alkoxy groups are usually obtained by cyclotetramerization of corresponding (per)fluoroalkoxy substituted phthalonitriles. The latter can be easily prepared by nucleophilic substitution reaction of halo or nitrosubstituted phthalonitriles in the presence of the corresponding fluorinated alcohol (Scheme 30).

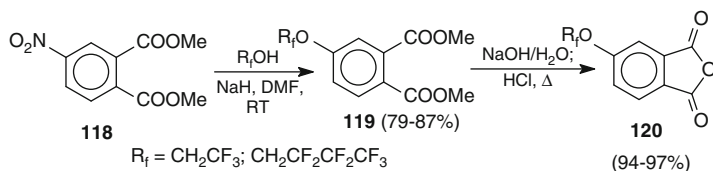
**Scheme 30** Synthesis of phthalonitriles with fluorinated alkoxy groups

Thus, phthalonitriles **114**, **116**, **117** bearing 2,2,3,3-tetrafluoropropoxy groups in 3-, 4- or 4,5-positions were obtained from 3(4)-nitro- or 4,5-dichloro phthalonitriles (**113** or **19**) in DMSO in the presence of K₂CO₃ at room temperature (yields 30–50 %) and converted to the corresponding α -, β -, and β,β' - 2,2,3,3-tetrafluoropropoxy

substituted Zn^{II} phthalocyanines upon reflux with $Zn(OAc)_2$ in *n*-pentanol in the presence of DBU (yields 25–56 %) [74]. It was observed [74] that fluorination of alkyl groups in Zn^{II} phthalocyanines increases their photostability and enhances the fluorescence and singlet oxygen quantum yields which important for their application as potential photosensitizers.

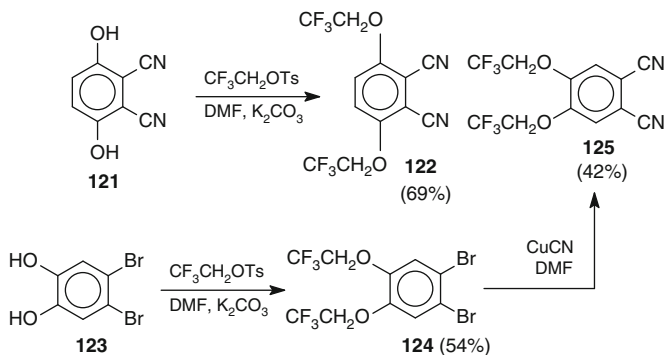
Substitution of the NO_2 group in **113** by fluorinated alkoxy group can be also accomplished in DMF/ K_2CO_3 at elevated temperature (70 °C) and more prolonged heating (9 h) [75]. In such way 3- and 4-(2,2,3,3,4,4,5,5-octafluoropentoxy) substituted phthalodinitriles **115** were obtained and converted to the corresponding free base phthalocyanines $[H_2Pc^{\alpha}(OR_f)_4]$ and $[H_2Pc^{\beta}(OR_f)_4]$ ($R_f=CH_2(CF_2)_4H$) upon reflux with lithium in 1-pentanol (4 h, yield ~30 %), or to their respective Zn^{II} , Ni^{II} and Fe^{III} complexes (1-pentanol, metal chloride, reflux, 4 h, 20–30 %). The Co^{II} complex was also reported [76].

In another approach [77] (Scheme 31) 4-nitro substituted dimethylphthalate **118** was reacted with fluorinated alcohol in DMF in the presence of NaH at room temperature to give 4-fluoroalkoxy substituted diester **119**. It was then converted to 4-fluoroalkoxy substituted phthalic anhydride **120**, which was directly used in template cyclotetramerization with metal acetates (Mg^{II} , Co^{II} , Zn^{II}) or chlorides (Cu^I , Fe^{III} , Al^{III}) by urea melt method (urea, ammonium molybdate, NH_4Cl) to give directly the corresponding β -tetrasubstituted metal phthalocyanine complexes (yields 7–26 %).



Scheme 31 Synthesis of phthalic anhydride with fluorinated alkoxy group

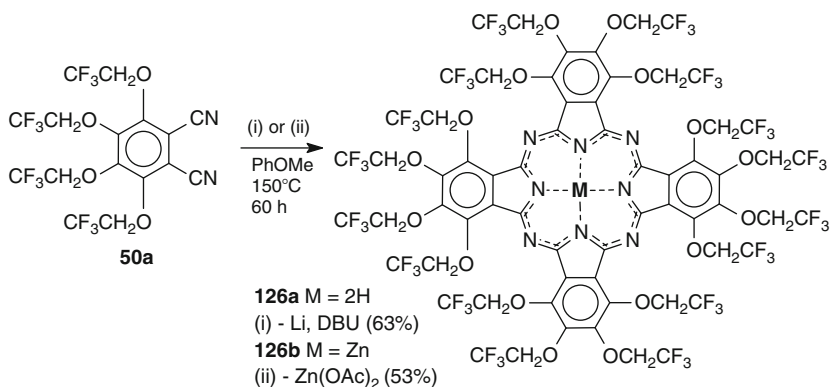
Alkylation of hydroquinone and catechol derivatives can be also applied for the introduction of CF_3CH_2O groups (Scheme 32).



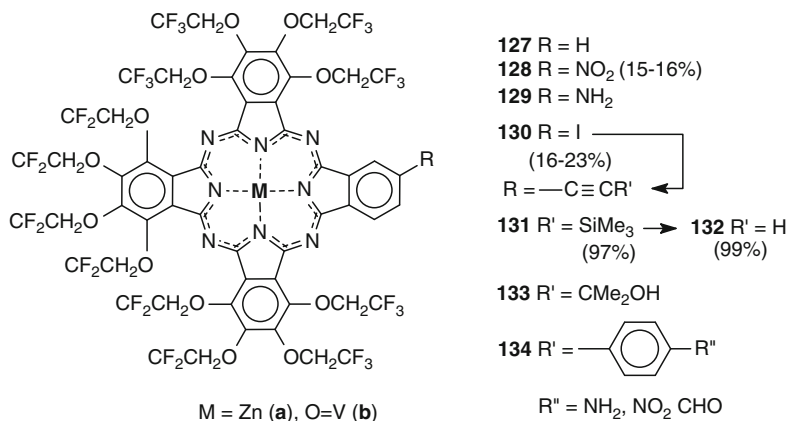
Scheme 32 Synthesis of phthalonitriles with two fluorinated alkoxy groups

3,6-Di(trifluoroethoxy)phthalodinitrile **122** can be prepared from 2,3-dicyanohydroquinone **121** by alkylation with trifluoroethyltosylate in DMF [70]. The 4,5-substituted dinitrile **125** is available from the 4,5-dibromocatechol **123** by consecutive alkylation with tosylate (DMF, K_2CO_3) and cyanation (CuCN, DMF) [70]. $O=Ti^{IV}$ complexes of α - and β -octakis(trifluoroethoxy)phthalocyanines were prepared using these dinitriles **122** and **125** [70]. The Zn^{II} complex of β -octasubstituted phthalocyanine was also reported [78].

Tetra(2,2,2-trifluoroethoxy)phthalonitrile **50a** which was obtained from tetrafluorophthalonitrile and trifluoroethanol in DMF (see Sect. 2.5, Scheme 12) was used for preparation of symmetrical and low-symmetry “trifluoroethoxy-coated” phthalocyanines (Schemes 33 and 34). Prolonged heating of the dinitrile **50a** in anisole in the presence of Li and DBU leads to symmetrical free base phthalocyanine **126a**, while the Zn^{II} complex **126b** was formed in the presence of $Zn(OAc)_2$ [79].



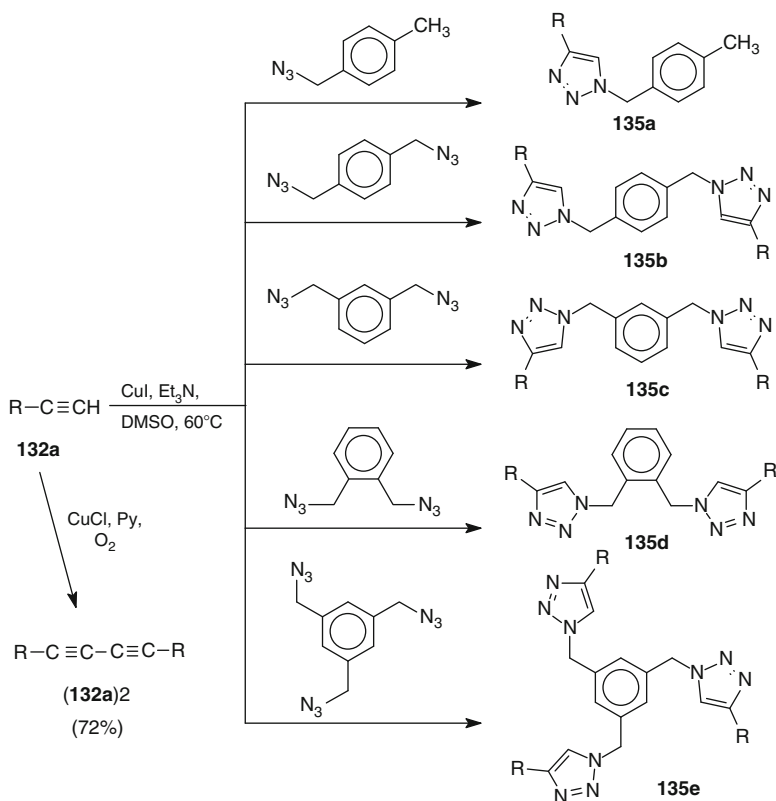
Scheme 33 Synthesis of symmetrical “trifluoroethoxy-coated” phthalocyanines



Scheme 34 Synthesis of low-symmetry “trifluoroethoxy-coated” phthalocyanines

Low-symmetry “trifluoroethoxy-coated” Zn^{II} and $O=V^{IV}$ phthalocyanines **127**–**130** (Scheme 34) were prepared by cross-tetramerization of the trifluoroethoxy substituted dinitrile **50a** and 4-nitro-, 4-amino- or 4-iodophthalodinitriles by urea-melt method in the presence of Zn^{II} or V^{III} chlorides [28, 80, 81]. The iodo substituted derivative **130** was functionalized with various terminal acetylenes using Pd catalyzed cross-coupling reaction ($[Pd(PPh_3)_2Cl_2]$, CuI, Et_3N , THF, yields 85–95 %) affording fluoroethoxy-coated Pc-acetylenes **131**–**134** for application in second-order non-linear optics [80, 81]. The iodo derivative **130a** upon heating in toluene with TBABr, $Pd(OAc)_2$, Et_3N gives the directly linked dimer (**130a**)₂ (50 %) and the reduced species **127a** (30 %) [61].

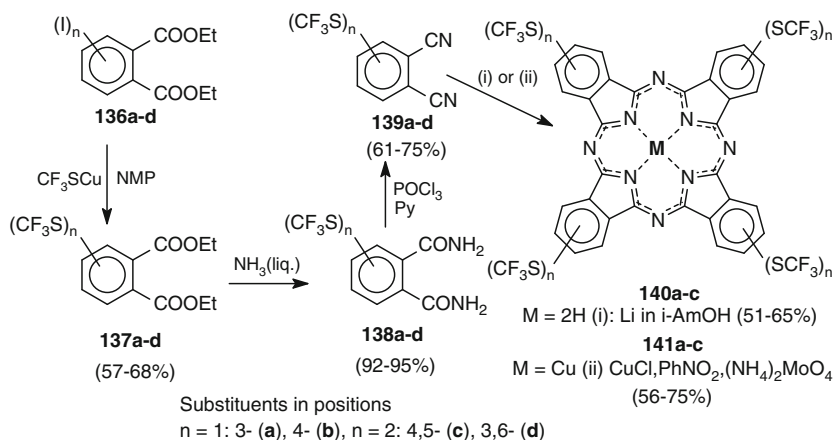
The ethynyl derivative **132a** obtained by desilylation of **131a** was used for the synthesis butadiyn-bridged dimer (**132a**)₂ [82] (Scheme 35). It was also used in a “click” reactions with mono-, bis- and tris-azidomethyl substituted benzenes (CuI, Et_3N , DMSO, 60 °C, 6 h) to give triazole-bridged conjugates **135a–e** with tolyl [83], dimers with *o*-, *m*- and *p*-xylylen and trimer with mesitylyden [84]. The peptide conjugates have been also prepared [60].



Scheme 35 Synthesis of triazole-bridged monomeric, dimeric and trimeric “trifluoroethoxy-coated” phthalocyanine conjugates

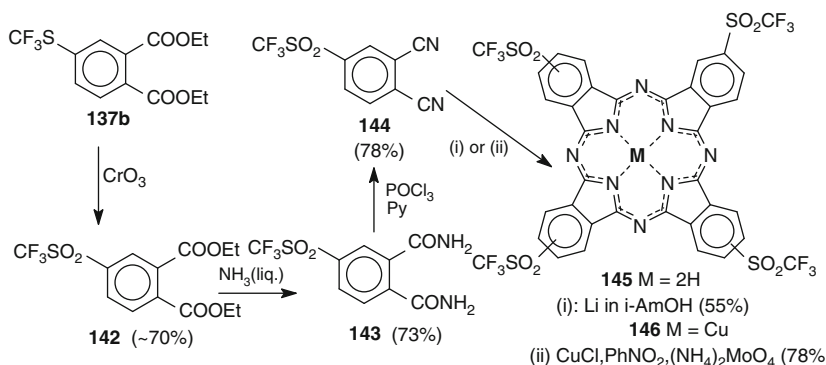
2.7.3 Perfluoroalkylsulfanyl- and -Sulfonyl Substituted Phthalocyanines

Phthalocyanines with trifluoromethylsulfanyl (CF_3S -) groups were first reported as free bases and Cu^{II} complexes of α - and β -tetrasubstituted and β,β' -octasubstituted derivatives **140a–c** [85]. The trifluoromethylsulfanyl substituted phthalonitriles (3-, 4-, and 4,5-) **139a–c** which were used as precursors were prepared from corresponding iodo substituted diethylphthalates **136a–c** by reaction with CF_3SCu (in NMP at 150°C) and following usual amidation-dehydration procedure (Scheme 36). 3,6-Di(trifluoromethylsulfanyl)phthalonitrile **139d**, which was prepared similarly, failed to give phthalocyanine macrocycle due to steric hindrances.



Scheme 36 Synthesis of trifluoromethylsulfanyl substituted phthalocyanines

Oxidation of 4- CF_3S substituted diethyl phthalate **137b** by CrO_3 in AcOH (Scheme 37) leads to sulfone **142** and then through diamide **143** to dinitrile **144** used for preparation of β -tetra(trifluoromethylsulfonyl)phthalocyanine **145** and its Cu^{II} complex **146** [85].



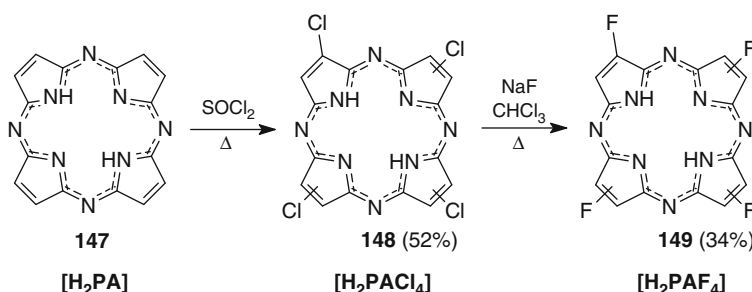
Scheme 37 Synthesis of trifluoromethylsulfonyl substituted phthalocyanines

3 Fluorinated Porphyrazines

Phthalocyanine analogues without fused benzene rings are usually named porphyrazines (PAs). Two types of fluorinated porphyrazines are known – the species with fluorine atoms attached directly in β -pyrrolic positions and compounds with fluorinated β -substituents.

3.1 β -Fluorinated Porphyrazines

Tetrafluoroporphyrazine H_2PAF_4 (**149**) bearing one fluorine atom in each of four pyrrole rings (Scheme 38) can be prepared as a regioisomeric mixture from unsubstituted porphyrazine H_2PA (**147**) in a two-stage procedure.

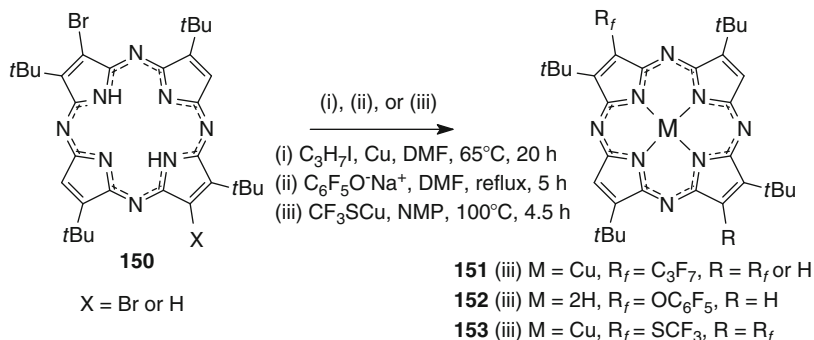


Scheme 38 Synthesis of tetrafluoroporphyrazine

The intermediate tetrachloro derivative H_2PACl_4 (**148**) can be obtained by chlorination of H_2PA by $SOCl_2$ (45–55 °C, 6–8 h, 52 %), or SO_2Cl_2 (20–25 °C, 3 days, 43 %) [86], or by PCl_5 in acetic acid in the presence of H_2SO_4 [87]. The following heating of H_2PACl_4 in $CHCl_3$ in the presence of NaF at 55 °C for 3 days gives H_2PAF_4 with 34 % yield [88].

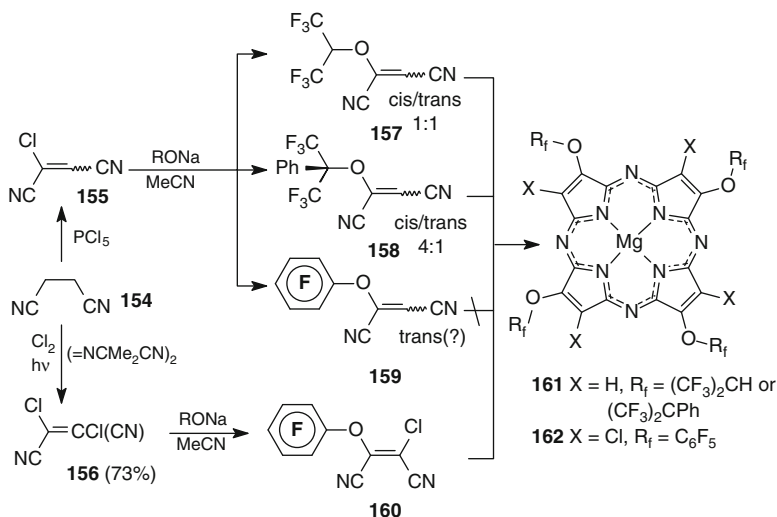
3.2 Porphyrazines with Fluorine-Containing Substituents

β -Halogen atoms in porphyrazines can be also directly substituted by perfluorinated alkyl, aryloxy and alkylthio groups. Thus, it was shown [89] that bromine atoms in mono- and dibromosubstituted porphyrazines **150** obtained by bromination of tetra-tert-butylporphyrazine ($H_2PA^tBu_4$) with N-bromosuccinimide in $CHCl_3$ [90] can be substituted by (i) perfluoropropyl groups upon treatment with C_3F_7Cu in DMF (**151**), (ii) perfluorophenoxy group upon reflux with $C_6F_5O^-Na^+$ in DMF (**152**), and (iii) by trifluoromethylsulfanyl group upon heating with CF_3SCu in N-methylpyrrolidone (**153**). The reactions (i) and (iii) are accompanied by coordination of Cu and reactions (i) and (ii) by reduction of one of the C-Br bonds (Scheme 39).



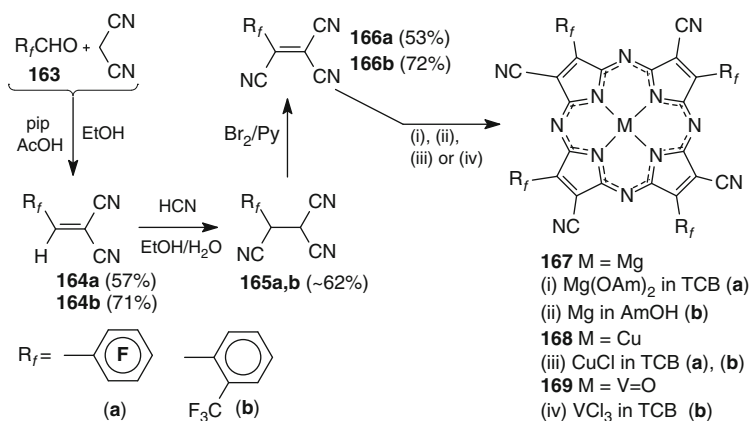
Scheme 39 Introduction of perfluorinated groups to bromo substituted porphyrazines

Porphyrazines with four fluorinated alkoxy and aryloxy groups **161** and **162** were obtained starting from succinonitrile **154** [89] (Scheme 40). Its chlorination with PCl_5 afford monochloromaleo(fumaro)dinitriles **155**, while reaction with Cl_2 under UV irradiation initiated by azobisisobutyronitrile leads to dichloro derivative **156** (73%). Nucleophilic substitution of one chlorine atom in the dinitriles **155** and **156** with hexafluoro-isopropoxy or perfluorophenyl groups proceeds in mild conditions in MeCN leading to a mixture of maleo(fumaro)dinitriles **157–160** with fluorinated alkoxy/aryloxy groups. Only maleodinitriles, i.e. *cis*-isomers of **157** and **158**, afford in the course of template cyclotetramerization with $Mg(OPr)_2$ in *n*-propanol Mg^{II} porphyrazines **161** (as a mixture of regioisomers). Among perfluorophenoxy substituted dinitriles **159** and **160** only chloro containing species **160** give porphyrazine macrocycle **162**, while cyclotetramerization of a non-chlorinated species **159** failed, presumably due to exclusive *trans*-configuration of the nitrile groups. The Mg^{II} complexes **161** and **162** can be demetallated to the free bases in a usual manner upon treatment with CF_3COOH , and then converted to other metal complexes (Cu^{II} , Zn^{II}).



Scheme 40 Synthesis of porphyrazines with perfluorinated alkoxy and aryloxy groups

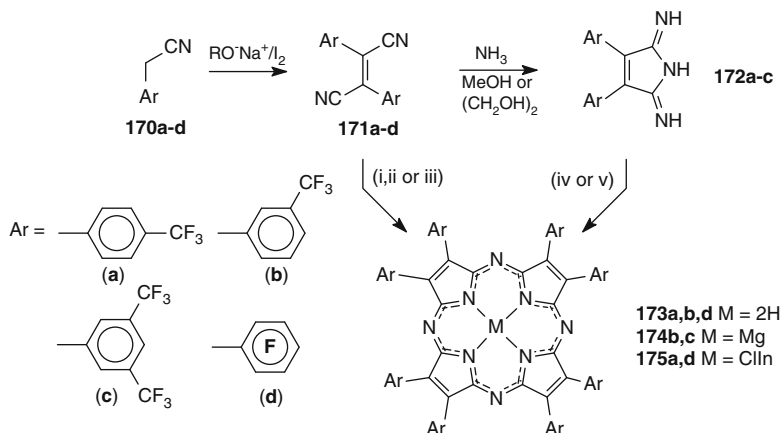
Porphyrazines combining fluorinated aryl groups with cyano group in each pyrrole ring can be conveniently prepared [91] starting from malonodinitrile and fluorinated benzaldehydes **163a,b** (Scheme 41).



Scheme 41 Synthesis of fluorinated tetraarylporphyrazines

Their condensation proceeds smoothly in anhydrous ethanol in the presence of piperidine and acetic acid (20–25 °C, 20 min) affording 1,1-dicyanoethylenes **164**. Subsequent addition of HCN leads to 1,1,2-tricyanoethanes **165a,b**, which are oxidized in pyridine solution by Br_2 to give 1,1,2-tricyanoethylenes **166a,b**. The latter can be directly used in template cyclotetramerization in the presence of metal salts and complexes of tetracyanoporphyrazines with Mg^{II} (**167a,b**), Cu^{II} (**168a,b**) and $\text{O}=\text{V}^{\text{IV}}$ (**169b**) were obtained [91].

Porphyrazines bearing eight fluorine-containing aryl groups **173** can be synthesized from the corresponding bisaryl substituted maleo(fumaro)dinitriles **171a–d** which are easily available by oxidative dimerization of correspondingly substituted arylacetonitriles **170a–d** when treated with alkoxide in the presence of iodine (Scheme 42).



Scheme 42 Synthesis of fluorinated octaarylporphyrazines

Table 6 Synthesis of fluorine-containing β -octaarylporphyrazines by template cyclotetramerization of dinitriles **171** or diiminoimides **172** (Scheme 42)

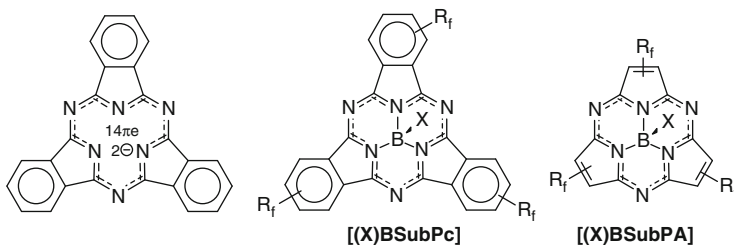
Ar =	M =		Conditions of cyclotetramerization	Yield	Ref.
<i>p</i> -CF ₃ Ph	2H	173a	(iv) diiminoimide 172a +NaOMe, <i>n</i> -AmOH, 140 °C, 16 h	53 %	[92]
<i>p</i> -CF ₃ Ph	InCl	175a	(i) dinitrile 171a +InCl ₃ +DBU in quinoline, 230 °C, 8 h	30 %	[92]
<i>m</i> -CF ₃ Ph	2H	174a	(iv) diiminoimide 172b +NaOMe, <i>n</i> -AmOH, 140 °C, 16 h	54 %	[92]
<i>m</i> -CF ₃ Ph	Mg	174b	(ii) dinitrile 171b +Mg in <i>n</i> -AmOH/octanol-1 (1:5), reflux 12 h	13 %	[93]
3,5-(CF ₃) ₂ Ph	Mg	174c	(v) diiminoimide 172c +Mg in <i>n</i> -BuOH, reflux 12 h	78 %	[94]
C ₆ F ₅	InOAc	175d	(iii) dinitrile 171d +In ^{III} acetate, melting	25 %	[97]

In such way trifluoromethyl substituted octaarylporphyrazines **173a–c** have been prepared (Table 6) [92–94]. When the mixture of maleo(fumaro)dinitriles **171a–c** is used directly for preparation of porphyrazine complexes the yields do not exceed 30 %, evidently due to low reactivity of *trans*-isomer present in excess [92, 93]. The template cyclotetramerization proceeds more smoothly when the mixture of *cis*- and *trans*-dinitriles **171a–c** is preliminary converted to more reactive diiminoimide **172a–c** upon treatment with NH₃ in the presence of catalytic amounts of sodium alcoholate [92, 94]. Low-symmetry porphyrazines bearing from two to six *m*-trifluoromethyl groups and fused benzene rings have been also studied [95, 96].

Recently we have succeeded in preparation of octakis(perfluorophenyl)substituted porphyrazine [97]. Bis(perfluorophenyl) substituted maleo(fumaro)dinitrile **171d** was cyclotetramerized to form the In^{III} complex **175d** in non-nucleophilic conditions (melting with In^{III} acetate) in order to avoid substitution of fluorine in phenyl rings. Then the free-base porphyrazine **173d** was obtained by catalytic demetallation with CF₃COOH in the presence of TBACl.

4 Fluorinated Subphthalocyanines and Subporphyrazines

Homologues of phthalocyanines containing three isoindole units instead of four are commonly named subphthalocyanines (SubPc). The unique 14 π -electron macrocyclic system of subphthalocyanine dianion is known to exist only in the form of boron complexes [(X)BSubPc]. Their analogues without fused benzene rings are named as boron subporphyrazines [(X)BSubPA].



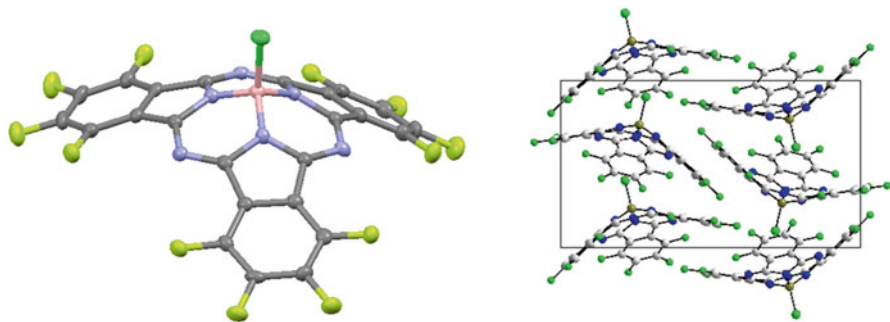


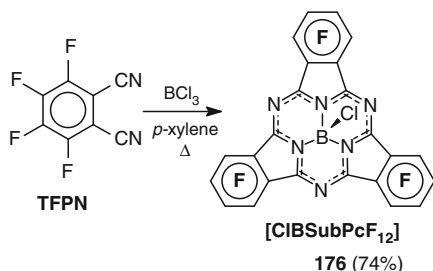
Fig. 7 Molecular structure of [CIBSubPcF₁₂] **176** (CCDC 181314) [100]

Among fluorinated derivatives perfluorinated boron subphthalocyanines, fused fluorinated subphthalocyanines with extended π -system and perfluorophenyl substituted boron subporphyrazines are known.

4.1 Perfluorinated Subphthalocyanines

The perfluorinated subphthalocyanine [CIBSubPcF₁₂] (**176**) first reported in 1998 was obtained by reaction of TFPN with BCl₃ in benzene [98]. Later the procedure was optimized by changing solvent to a higher boiling *p*-xylene (Scheme 43) which allows to obtain [CIBSubPcF₁₂] using equimolar amounts of TFPN and BCl₃ in 74 % yield after only 20 min reflux [99]. Other high-boiling solvents can be also used, thus [CIBSubPcF₁₂] was obtained in 51 % yield in boiling 1,2,4-trichlorobenzene (214 °C, 30 min) [100].

Scheme 43 Synthesis of perfluorinated subphthalocyanine

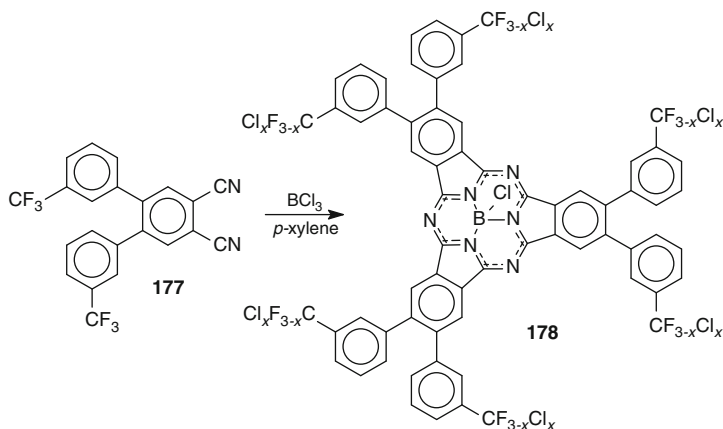


The structure of [CIBSubPcF₁₂] was determined by X-ray diffraction study [100] (Fig. 7). [CIBSubPcF₁₂] is well soluble in organic solvents, the solutions are stable in the dark, but tend to decompose in the presence of light due to weak B-Cl bond and long-lived triplet states [98, 99]. So far BCl₃ is the only boron derivative successfully used in the preparation of fluorinated subphthalocyanines. Reactions

of chlorine substitution in [CIBSubPcF₁₂] (**176**) and axial functionalization of fluorinated subphthalocyanines are considered in Sect. 4.3.

Perfluorination of subphthalocyanine macrocycle leads to a relatively small bathochromic shifts of the π - π^* absorption maxima in the UV and visible regions (from 300 to 560 nm for [CIBSubPc] to 310 and 570 nm for [CIBSubPcF₁₂] in acetonitrile [98]), indicating that HOMO is slightly less stabilized than LUMO. Indeed, perfluorination shifts the 1st reduction potentials by ca 700 mV to the positive region ($E_{1/2}^{\text{Red}} = -0.43$ V vs. SCE in MeCN [98]). The irreversible oxidation for [(X) BSubPc] is observed only at ca. +1.5 V, at potentials by 500 mV more positive as compared to non-fluorinated species [98, 104]. [CIBSubPcF₁₂] exhibit the strong fluorescence in solution (emission maxima at 586 nm) and have high fluorescence quantum yield ($\phi = 0.6$) [98], which is comparable with the data for non-fluorinated species.

While aromatic fluorine in TFPN appears to be stable against chlorination by BCl₃, fluorine atom in trifluoromethyl group can be exchanged by chlorine in the course of cyclotrimerization reaction. Thus, it was observed in reaction of BCl₃ with 4,5-bis(3-trifluoromethylphenyl)phthalodinitrile **177** that from one to two fluorine atoms in trifluoromethyl group can be exchanged by chlorine leading to a mixture of hexaphenylsubphthalocyanines with CF_{3-x}Cl_x groups ($x = 0-2$) **178** [101] (Scheme 44). It was demonstrated that these mixed species have high photostability and display non-linear optical effects and saturable absorbers and reverse saturable absorbers of 532 nm laser pulses.

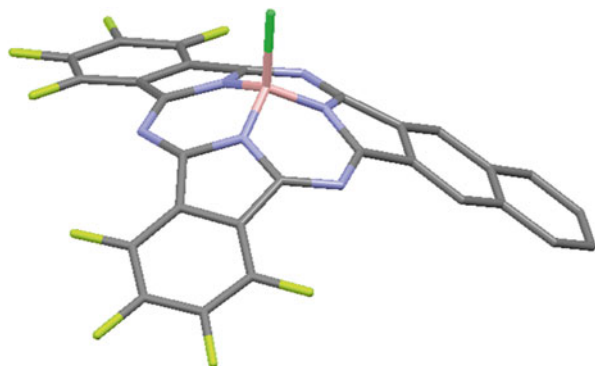


Scheme 44 Partial chlorination occurring during subphthalocyanine synthesis from 4,5-bis(3-trifluoromethylphenyl)phthalodinitrile

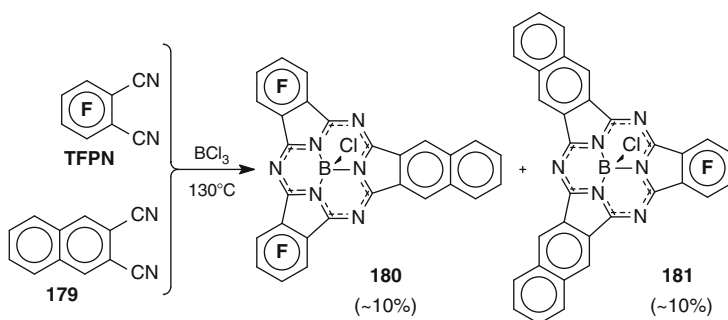
4.2 π -Extended Fluorinated Subphthalocyanines

Reaction of TFPN with BCl₃ in the presence of other *ortho*-dinitriles leads to a mixture of [CIBSubPcF₁₂] with another symmetrically substituted species and two low-symmetry octafluoro and tetrafluoro derivatives having symmetry lower than C_{3v}.

Fig. 8 Molecular structures of naphtho-fused subphthalocyanine **180** (CCDC XAQQEB) [102]



Co-cyclotrimetrization of TFPN with 2,3-naphthalenedicarbonitrile **179** in the presence of BCl_3 (1:2:1.5 ratio) in 1,2,4-trichlorobenzene:1-methylnaphthalene (4:1) at 130 °C gives mixture of two low symmetry subphthalocyanines **180** and **181** (~1:1, overall yield 20 % based on TFPN) with some admixture of two symmetrical species [102] (Scheme 45).

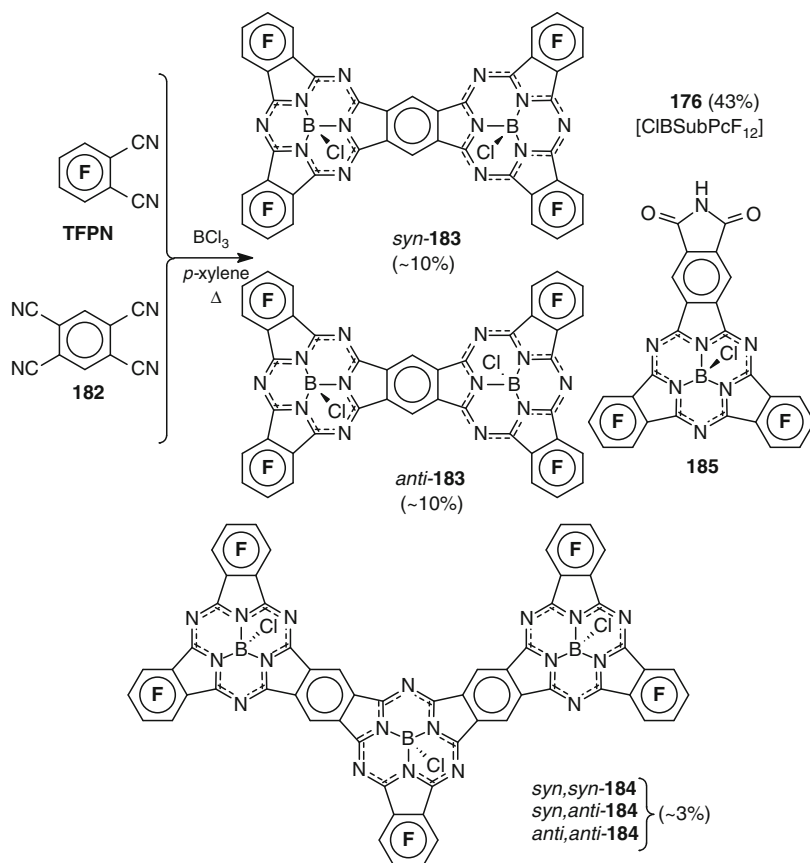


Scheme 45 Synthesis of fluorinated subphthalocyanines with naphthalene fragment(s)

The structure of mononaphthalene-fused derivative was established by X-ray crystallography (Fig. 8). The extension of the π -system by replacing of tetrafluorobenzene fragments by naphthalene rings leads to increased red shift of the lowest π - π^* transition (Q -band) from 573 nm in **176** to 617 and 640 nm in mononaphtho- and dinaphtho-fused species **180** and **181**, respectively.

In the case of tetracarbonitriles very interesting fused dimeric and trimeric subphthalocyanines can be obtained [100, 103] (Scheme 46). Thus, co-condensation of TFPN, pyromellitic tetranitrile (1,2,4,5-tetracyanobenzene) **182** and BCl_3 (10:1:36 ratio) in *p*-xylene under reflux (3 h) gives along with the monomeric [CIBSubPcF₁₂] **176** (43 %), dimeric **183** (20 %) and trimeric **184** (3 %) forms [103, 104]. It was shown [104] that 10:1 ratio of dinitriles TFPN:**182** affords the highest yield of dimers **183** (16 % at 20:1 and 5 % at 5:1 ratio) in these reaction conditions.

The lower 1:2 ratio gives <1 % of the dimers and along with [CIBSubPcF₁₂] (26 %), octafluorophthalimide derivative **185** (16 %) and tetrafluorophthalimide (12 %) were isolated [104].



Scheme 46 Synthesis of dimeric and trimeric fluorinated subphthalocyanines

Co-cyclotetramerization in 1,2,4-trichlorobenzene at higher temperature (TFPN:**182** ratio 20:1, 216 °C, 30 min) [100] affords mainly [CIBSubPcF₁₂] **176** (51 %) while <1 % of dimers **183** were isolated. As was concluded from analysis of ¹H NMR spectra [103] the dimer **183** exists in two topoisomeric forms – *syn*- and *anti*-isomers (or *cis*- and *trans*-isomers) which have the axial bonded ligand on one or opposite sides of the macrocyclic surface. These topoisomers were separated by column chromatography [100, 103] and their structure was established by single crystal X-ray diffraction study [100] (Fig. 9). The trimer **184** was isolated as a mixture of three possible topoisomers (*syn,syn*-, *syn,anti*- and *anti,anti*-) [103, 104].

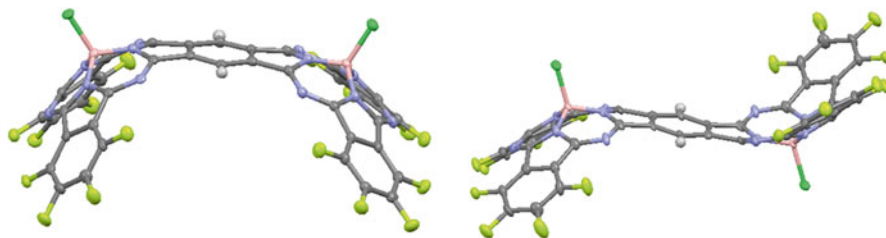
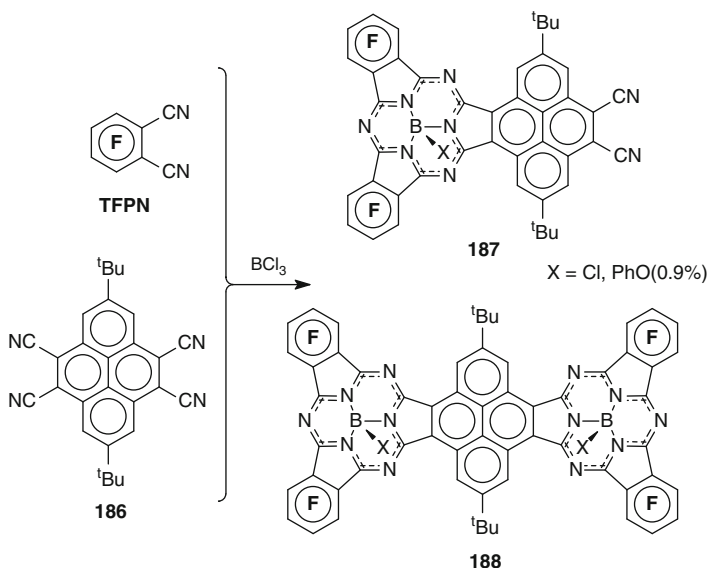


Fig. 9 Molecular structure of *syn*- and *anti*-topoisomers of the fluorinated dimer **183** (CCDC 181315, 181316) [100]

The position of the lowest π - π^* -transition (*Q*-band in the UV-VIS spectra) is shifted bathochromically upon going from the monomer [CIBSubPcF₁₂] **176** (573 nm) to dimers **183** (690–693 nm) and further to trimeric species **184** (755 nm) due to extension of the π -chromophoric system.

Co-condensation of TFPN with *tert*-butyl substituted 4,5,9,10-pyrenetetracarbonitrile **186** and BCl₃ in 1-chloronaphthalene (230 °C) (Scheme 47) leads to a mixture of [CIBSubPcF₁₂] **176** and pyrene fused monomeric and dimeric boron subphthalocyanines **187** and **188** [105]. While the formation of the dimer **188** was only evidenced by MALDI-TOF measurements, the pyrene fused monomer **187** was isolated as an axial phenoxy derivative and characterized by single crystal X-Ray diffraction study (Fig. 10), as well as its co-crystallize with fullerene C₆₀. Interestingly, fusion of the pyrene moiety instead of one of tetrafluorobenzene fragments results in a lesser bathochromic shift of the *Q*-band [105], than was observed in the case of naphtho-ring fusion [102] (593 and 617 nm for **187** and **180**, respectively).



Scheme 47 Synthesis of pyrene-fused fluorinated subphthalocyanines

Fig. 10 Molecular structure of fluorinated pyrene-fused phenoxyboron subphthalocyaninate **187** (CCDC 780572) [105]

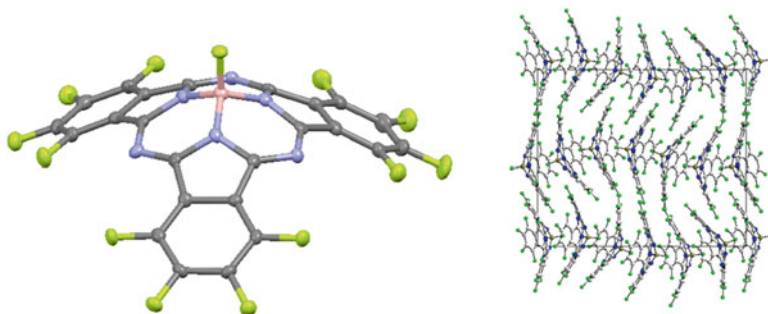
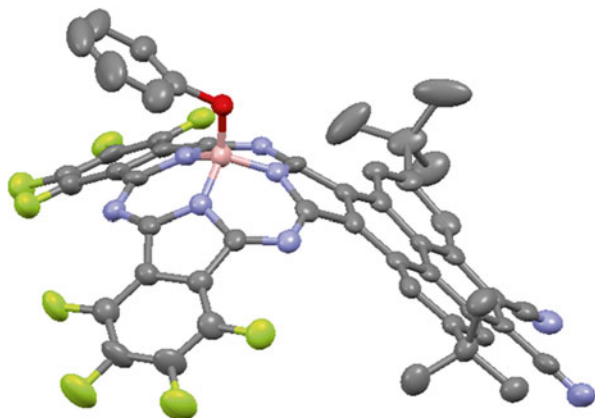
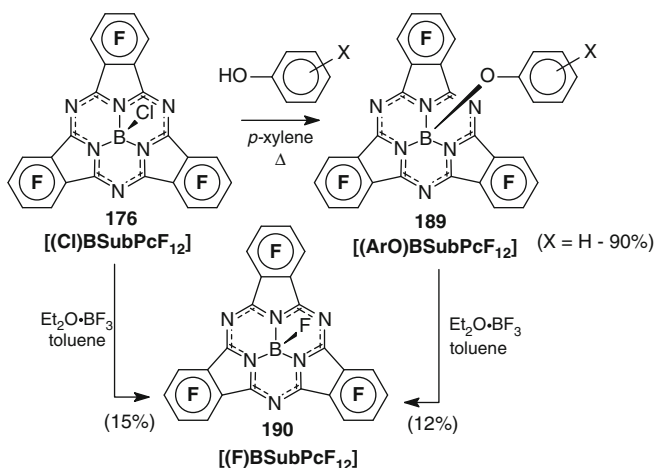


Fig. 11 Molecular structure and crystal packing of axially fluorinated perfluorosubphthalocyanin atoboron(III) **190** (CCDC 680083) [106]

4.3 Axially Functionalized Fluorinated Subphthalocyanines

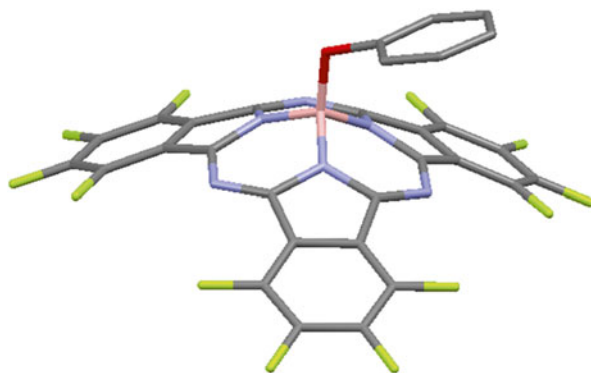
Axial functionalization of $[(\text{Cl})\text{BSubPcF}_{12}]$, i.e. substitution of the axial chloride by various nucleophiles is very important for design of new materials based on perfluorinated subphthalocyanines. The B-Cl bond have relatively low stability and to avoid the side-reactions, such as hydrolysis (e.g. in the course of chromatography) it is convenient to handle more stable derivatives. The B-F bond is more stable and the axially fluorinated derivative $[(\text{F})\text{BSubPcF}_{12}]$ can be obtained by treatment of chloro (or phenoxy) derivatives with excess of $\text{Et}_2\text{O}\cdot\text{BF}_3$ in toluene under reflux (yields 15 and 12 %, respectively). It is noteworthy that molecules of $[(\text{F})\text{BSubPcF}_{12}]$ exhibit stacking alignment (see Fig. 11) in the chiral space group $P2_12_12_1$ – might be an important prerequisite for the second order non-linear properties in the crystal state [106].

The axial chloride in $[\text{ClBSubPcF}_{12}]$ can be easily substituted with aryloxy groups by refluxing with the corresponding phenol in toluene or *p*-xylene [99] (Scheme 48) forming stable aryloxy derivatives $[(\text{ArO})\text{BSubPcF}_{12}]$. The structure phenoxy [103] derivative was determined by X-ray diffraction study (Fig. 12).

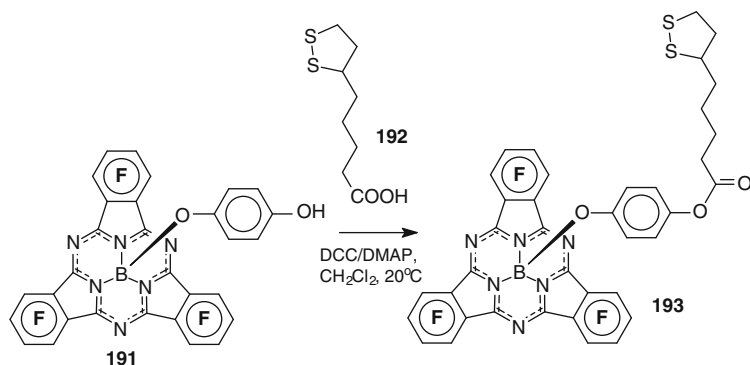


Scheme 48 Synthesis of dodecafluorosubphthalocyanines bearing axial aryloxy group or fluorine atom

Fig. 12 Molecular structure of [(PhO)BSubPcF₁₂] **189** (CCDC 179556) [103]

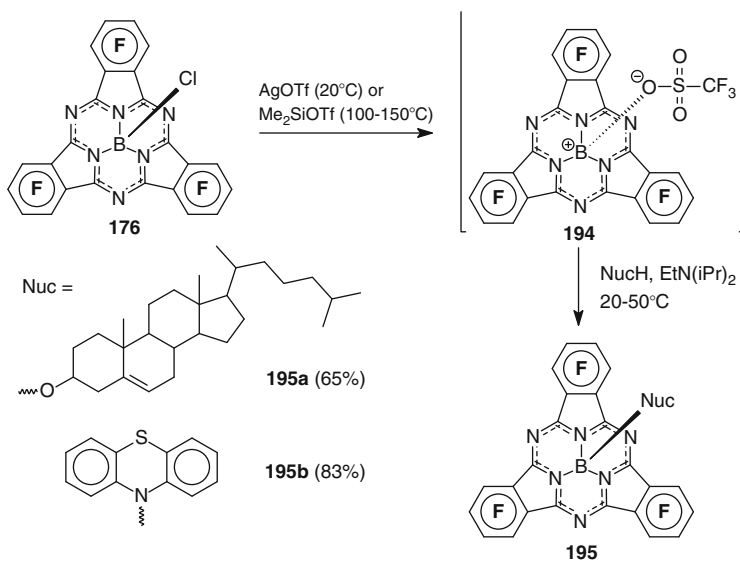


The hydroquinone derivative **191** was esterified by thioctic acid **192** in the presence of 4-dicyclohexylcarbodiimide (DCC) and (N,N-dimethylamino)pyridine (DMAP) to give thiolane substituted perfluorinated BSubPc **193** (Scheme 49) which exhibited an enhance ability for self-assembling of monolayers on gold-substrates [107].



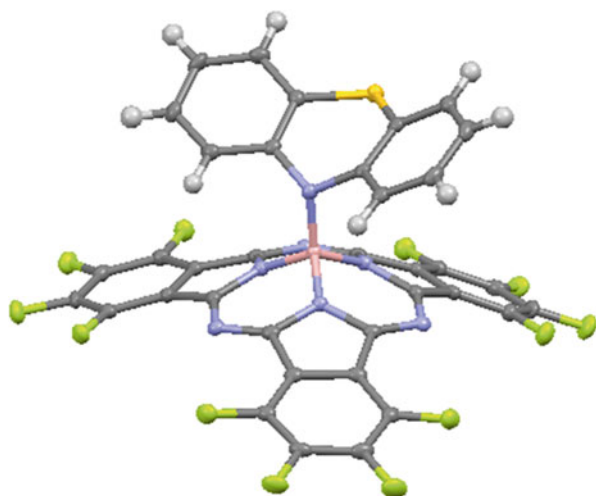
Scheme 49 Synthesis of thiolane substituted perfluorinated subphthalocyanine

The efficient one-pot two step procedure through intermediate triflate derivative **194** was elaborated for substitution of chloride in **176** with less reactive O- and N-nucleophiles [108] (Scheme 50). On the first stage [(Cl)BSubPcF₁₂] is treated with $\text{Me}_3\text{SiOSO}_2\text{CF}_3$ at $100\text{--}150^\circ\text{C}$ or with AgOTf at 20°C to form reactive species **194** – [⁺BSubPcF₁₂] cation with weakly coordinated triflate anion.



Scheme 50 One-pot two-step procedure for preparation of axially substituted perfluorinated subphthalocyanines through the triflate derivative **194**

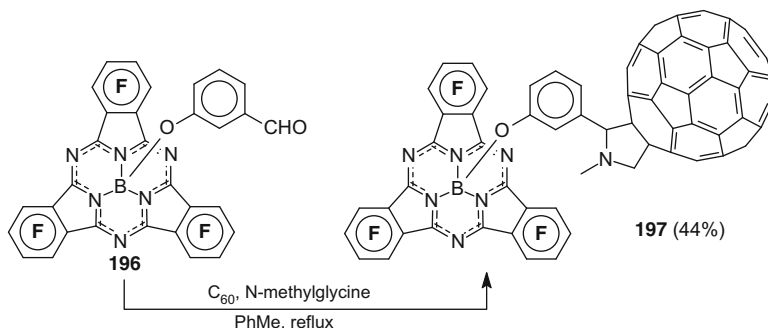
Fig. 13 Molecular structure of phenothiazine derivative of perfluorosubphthalocyaninato boron(III) **195b** (CCDC 798231) [108]



On the next step it reacts with a nucleophile in the presence of $\text{EtN}(i\text{Pr})_2$ at 20–50 °C. Interestingly, cholesterol and 10*H*-phenothiazine derivatives **195a** and **195b**, which cannot be obtained directly from the chloride, are accessible through the intermediate triflate with high yields of (65 and 83 %, respectively). The structure of phenothiazine derivative **195b** was established by X-ray diffraction study (Fig. 13).

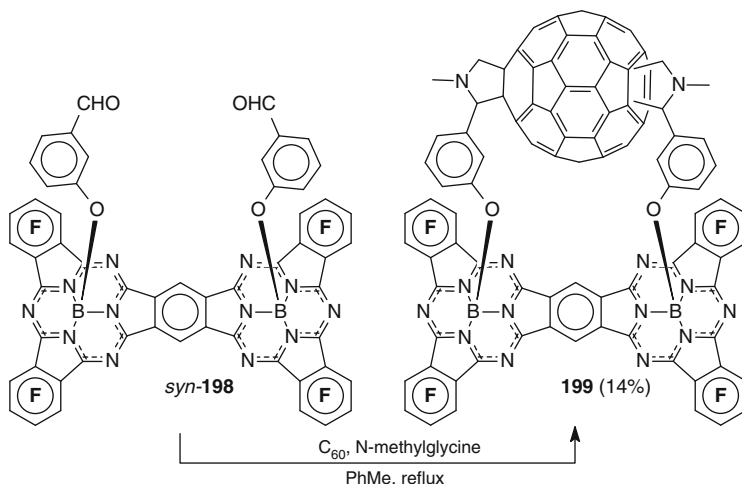
4-*tert*-Butylphenoxy derivative of perfluorinated subphthalocyaninato boron(III) **189** ($X = t\text{-Bu}$) along with other peripherally substituted SubPcs was studied as narrow band red-light emitting material for potential OLED application [109].

Perfluorinated BSubPc bearing axial *m*-formylphenoxy group **196** [99] was used for preparation conjugates with fullerene (Scheme 51) as tunable molecular scaffolds for intramolecular electron and energy transfer processes [110]. The azomethine ylide formed by treatment of the formyl derivative **196** with *N*-methylglycine gives the conjugate with fullerene **197** (44 %) in a dipolar 1,3-cycloaddition (Prato reaction).



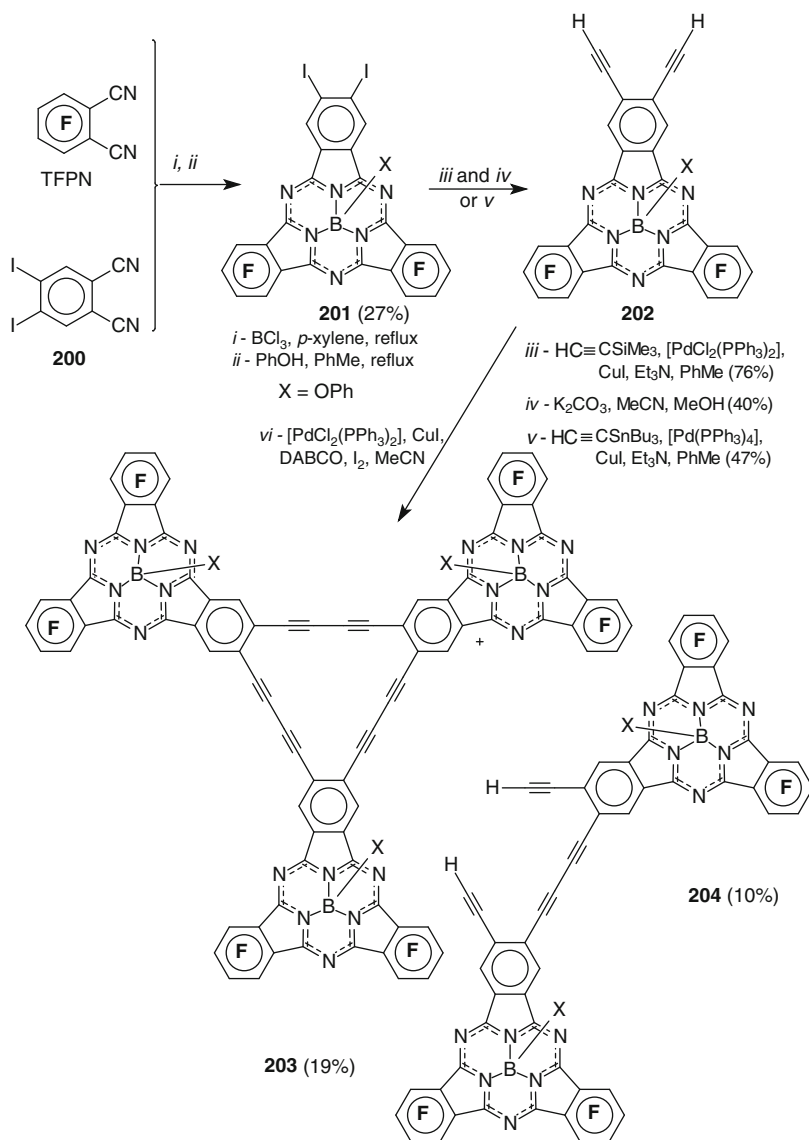
Scheme 51 Synthesis of fullerene conjugate with perfluorinated subphthalocyanine

Similar methodology was used for the synthesis of fullerene conjugates with hexadecafluorinated binuclear fused BsubPc derivative **198** [111, 112] (Scheme 52). Interestingly that only *syn*-dichloro derivative *syn*-**183** can be converted to bis-*m*-formylphenoxy derivative *syn*-**198** (yield 47 %), while the *anti*-topoisomer *anti*-**183** gives only decomposition products. The following conversion of **198** to bis-ylide and 1,3-cycloaddition to fullerene leads to a double-bridged conjugate as a mixture of isomers **199** (yield 14 %).



Scheme 52 Synthesis of fullerene conjugate with dimeric perfluorinated subphthalocyanine

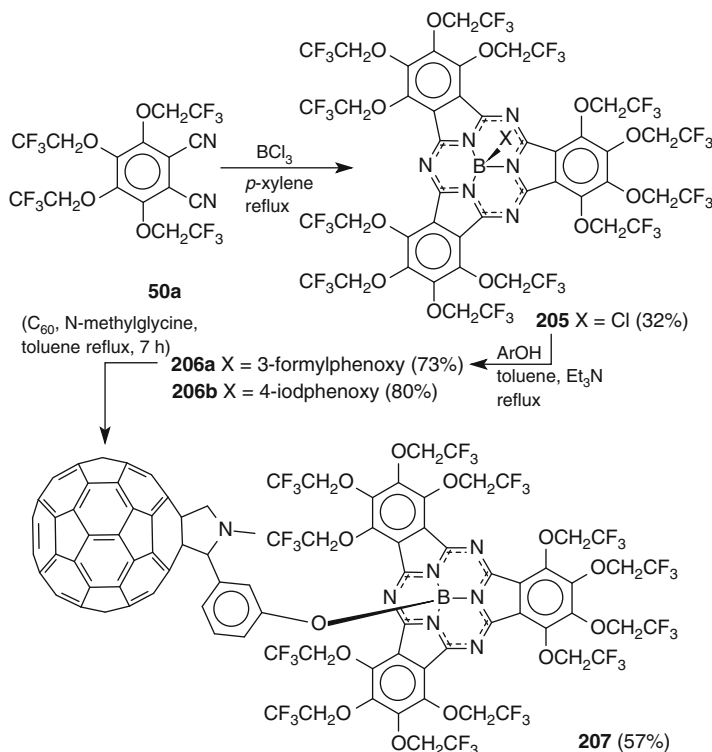
Low-symmetry octafluorodiiodo subphthalocyanine **201** prepared from TFPN and 4,5-diiodophthalonitrile **200** in 27 % yield was used for design of interesting trimeric fluorinated subphthalocyanine arranged around dehydro[18]annulene macrocycle **203** [113] (Scheme 53). The diethynyl-functionalized SubPc **202** was synthesized by palladium-catalyzed Sonogashira cross-coupling with trimethylsilyl-protected acetylene (76 %) followed by removal of TMS protecting group in basic or nucleophilic conditions (yield 40 %). An alternative single-step cross-coupling with ethynyltributylstannane produces diethynyl derivative **202** with 47 % yield, but additional amount can be obtained from Sonogashira cross-coupling byproducts by acid treatment quantitatively removing the Bu_3Sn appendages. Formation of the trimeric dehydro[18]annulene **203** was achieved using mild Pd-catalyzed procedure in an oxidative environment ($[\text{PdCl}_2(\text{PPh}_3)_2]$, CuI, DABCO, I_2 , MeCN). Along with trimer (19 %), monoethynylbridged dimer **204** (10 %) was formed, but no dimeric dehydro[12]annulene was detected.



Scheme 53 Synthesis of butadiyn-linked dimeric and trimeric fluorinated subphthalocyanines

4.4 Trifluoroethoxy Substituted Subphthalocyanines

Among subphthalocyanines with fluoroalkyl groups dodecatrifluoroethoxy substituted derivatives are known [114]. The chloro derivative [(Cl)BSubPc(OCH₂CF₃)₁₂] **205** was obtained by a standard cyclotrimerization of 3,4,5,6-tetrakis(2,2,2-trifluoroethoxy) phthalonitrile **50a** in the presence of BCl₃ in *p*-xylene (3 h, reflux, 32 %) (Scheme 54) and its X-ray crystal structure was established (Fig. 14).



Scheme 54 Synthesis of “trifluoroethoxy-coated” subphthalocyanine and its fullerene conjugate

The trifluoroethoxy-coating is advantageous for high solubility in organic solvents and lacking tendency to aggregation. The axial chlorine atom can be easily substituted by various O-nucleophiles in by refluxing with excess of corresponding alcohol or substituted phenol in toluene in the presence of Et₃N [114]. The yields of nucleophilic substitutions in case of trifluoroethoxy-coated BSubPc are higher than

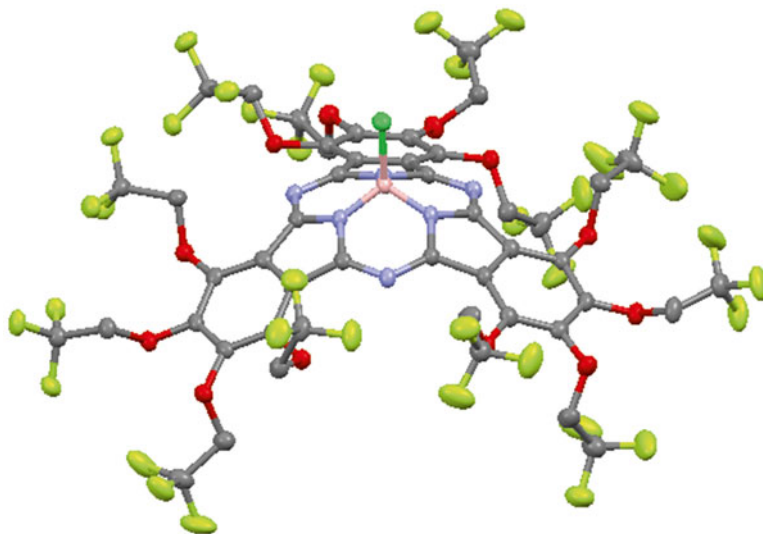
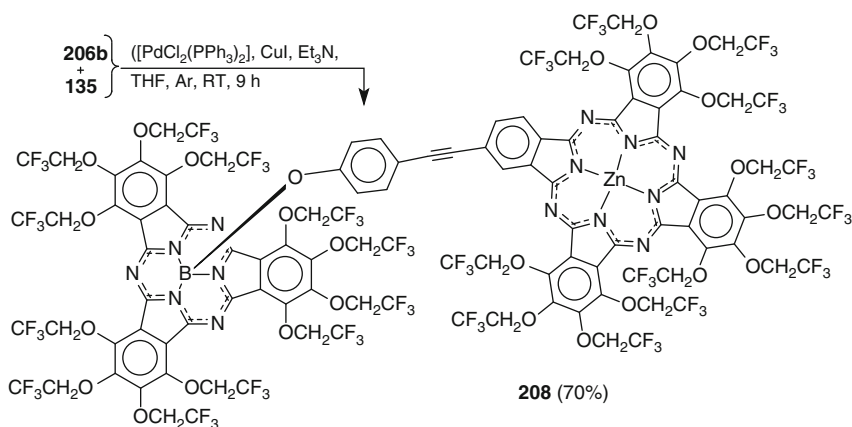


Fig. 14 Molecular structure of **205** (CCDC 758071) [114]

were observed for perfluorinated species. The 3-formylphenoxy derivative **206a** was used for the synthesis of conjugate with fullerene **207** (*N*-methylglycine, toluene reflux, 7 h, 57 %) [114].

The *p*-iodophenoxy derivative **206b** were used in palladium-catalysed Sonogashira cross-coupling reaction with Zn-phthalocyanines containing one terminal triple bond **135** (see Scheme 34) ($[\text{PdCl}_2(\text{PPh}_3)_2]$, CuI, Et_3N , THF, Ar, RT, 9 h) to afford the ethynyl-bridged ZnPc-BSubPc conjugates **208** (70 %) [114] (Scheme 55).

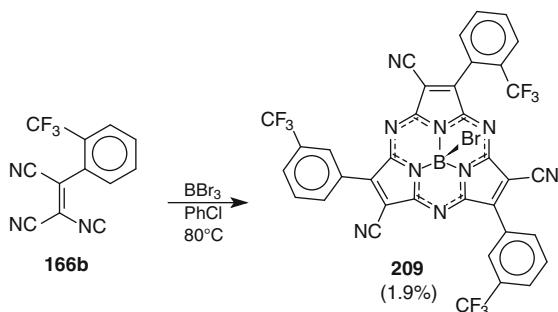


Scheme 55 Synthesis of “trifluoroethoxy-coated” subphthalocyanine – phthalocyanine conjugate

4.5 Fluorine Containing Subazaporphyrins

Subazaporphyrin containing trifluoromethyl group **209** was prepared in a low yield (1.9 %) by cyclotrimerization of 1,1,2-tricyano-2-(2-trifluoromethylphenyl)ethylene **166b** (see Scheme 41) in the presence of boron(III) bromide in chlorobenzene at 80 °C [115] (Scheme 56).

Scheme 56 Synthesis of *m*-trifluoromethylphenyl substituted subazaporphyrin **209**



5 Conclusion

Fluorinated phthalocyanines and their analogues (porphyrazines and subphthalocyanines) exhibit perspective properties for application as new materials in organic electronics (charge generating and transfer materials, light-harvesting supramolecular assemblies, etc.), catalysis and medicine (photodynamic therapy and fluorescence imaging of cancer). The main synthetic approach to fluorinated phthalocyanines, subphthalocyanines and porphyrazines is template cyclocondensation of corresponding fluorinated dinitrile precursors (phthalodinitriles or maleo(fumaro) dinitriles). Another less elaborated approach is peripheral modification of the macrocycle using substitution reactions. While perfluorinated phthalocyanines and subphthalocyanines are easily obtained from perfluorophthalodinitrile, methods should be elaborated for preparation of perfluorinated porphyrazines and heterocyclic phthalocyanines analogues, such as pyrido and pyrazino annulated porphyrazines. Another important target for synthetic chemists is porphyrazine-type macrocycles lacking CH bonds and bearing perfluorinated aryl or alkyl substituents. Such compounds should combine enhanced solubility in organic solvents with high resistance to oxidation and ability to stabilize low oxidation states of central metals, which should be advantageous for application in oxidation catalysis.

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