

Copper-Mediated $-\text{CF}(\text{OCF}_3)(\text{CF}_2\text{H})$ Transfer to Organic ElectrophilesBehnaz Ghaffari,^{||} Luana L. T. N. Porto,^{||} Nicole Johnson, Jeffrey S. Ovens, Christian Ehm,*
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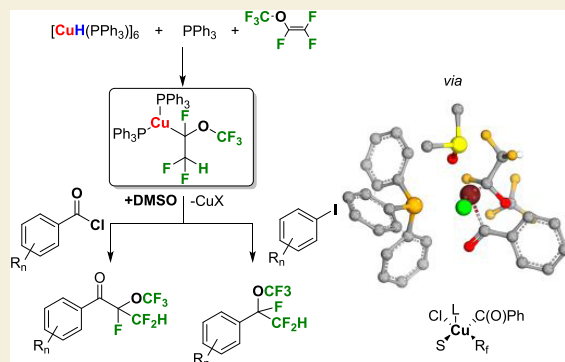
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ABSTRACT: The integration of fluorine into medicinal compounds has become a widely used strategy to improve the biochemical and therapeutic properties of drugs. Inclusion of $-\text{CF}_2\text{H}$ and $-\text{OCF}_3$ fluoroalkyl groups has garnered attention due to their bioisosteric properties, enhanced lipophilicity, and potential hydrogen-bonding capability in bioactive substances. In this study, we prepared a series of stable $\text{Cu}[\text{CF}(\text{OCF}_3)(\text{CF}_2\text{H})]_n$ complexes by insertion of commercially available perfluoro(methyl vinyl ether), $\text{CF}_2=\text{CF}(\text{OCF}_3)$, into $\text{Cu}-\text{H}$ bonds derived from Stryker's reagent, $[\text{CuH}(\text{PPh}_3)]_6$, using ancillary ligands L. Notably, certain of these complexes effectively transfer the fluoroalkyl group to aryl chlorides through a complexed intermediate. Through reaction optimization and computational analysis, we identified dimethylsulfoxide as a pivotal coligand, playing a distinctive role in enabling the fluoroalkylation of a range of aryl chlorides and aryl iodides. The latter also benefits from addition of CuBr to abstract PPh_3 , generating solvent-stabilized $\text{Cu}[\text{CF}(\text{OCF}_3)(\text{CF}_2\text{H})]$. These methodologies allow for the introduction of geminal $-\text{OCF}_3$ and $-\text{CF}_2\text{H}$ groups in a single transformation.

KEYWORDS: copper-mediated fluoroalkylation, fluoroketones, fluorinated aromatics, difluoromethyl, trifluoromethoxy



INTRODUCTION

The success of organofluorine compounds in the pharmaceutical¹ and agrochemical² markets has inspired researchers to develop more efficient late-stage fluorination^{3,4} and fluoroalkylation protocols.^{5,6} While there are many methodologies to incorporate the trifluoromethyl group into organic substrates,^{7–9} fewer examples have been reported for other fluoroalkyl groups such as $-\text{C}_2\text{F}_5$,^{10–12} $-\text{OCF}_3$,^{13–15} and $-\text{CF}_2\text{H}$.^{16–18} Nonetheless, such functional groups have already appeared in useful drugs: *cf.* $-\text{OCF}_3$ in Riluzole (glutamate antagonist used as an anticonvulsant)¹⁹ and Triflumuron (pesticide)²⁰ and $-\text{CF}_2\text{H}$ in PQR620 (mTOR inhibitor, anticancer)²¹ and Pantoprazole (proton pump inhibitor; Figure 1).²²

Increased interest in these two substituents results from their bioisosteric properties. In contrast to the OCH_3 group in anisole, the OCF_3 group is not coplanar with its attached aryl ring, and adjacent σ bonds can interact with the low-energy σ^* orbital of the $\text{O}-\text{C}_{\text{CF}_3}$ bond.²³ The $-\text{CF}_2\text{H}$ group has been intensively studied over the past few years due to its unique properties, such as Brønsted acidity and ability to act as a hydrogen-bond donor while still modulating lipophilicity.²⁴ Moreover, its small steric signature allows it to adopt an optimal conformation based on specific drug targets.^{25,26} Bulkier R_f groups such as perfluoroisopropyl have also imparted unique activity in several agrochemicals.^{27,28}

Chelating nitrogen ligands have been shown previously to promote Cu-mediated fluoroalkyl transfer to organic electro-

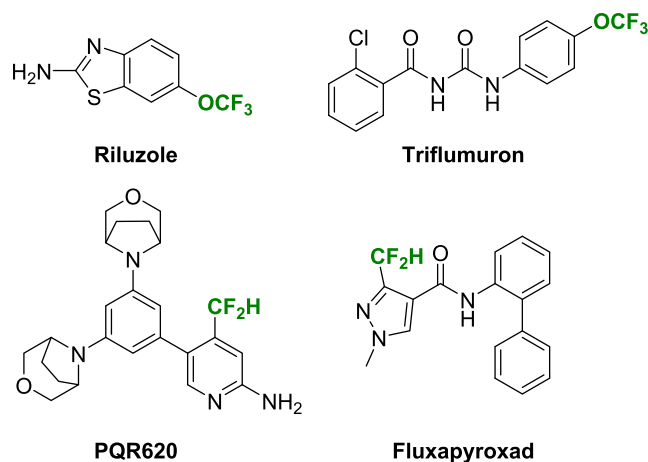


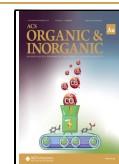
Figure 1. Bioactive compounds containing $-\text{OCF}_3$ and $-\text{CF}_2\text{H}$ groups.

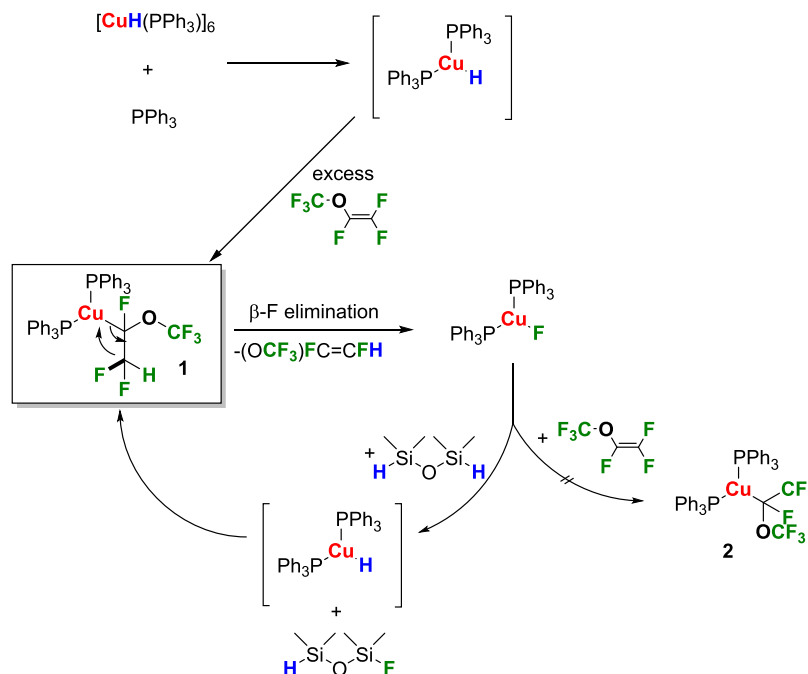
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Scheme 1. Synthesis of $\text{Cu}[\text{CF}(\text{OCF}_3)\text{CF}_2\text{H}](\text{PPh}_3)_2$ (**1**)

philes.^{29–33} We recently reported the fluoroalkylation of aryl chlorides with a phenanthroline copper heptafluoroisopropyl complex, $[\text{Cu}(\text{hfp})(\text{PPh}_3)(\text{phen})]$.³³ Although inclusion of phen was crucial for successful fluoroalkylation, stabilization of the hfp group was initially achieved by inserting hexafluoropropene (HFP) into the Cu-F bond of $\text{CuF}(\text{PPh}_3)_3$.³⁴ However, attempts to transfer the hfp group to aryl iodides were unsuccessful.

In this work, we employ commercially available perfluoro-(methyl vinyl ether) [PMVE, $\text{CF}_2=\text{CF}(\text{OCF}_3)$], in the synthesis of new copper fluoroalkyls $\text{Cu}[\text{CF}(\text{OCF}_3)(\text{CF}_2\text{H})]\text{L}_n$ that contain geminal $-\text{OCF}_3$ and $-\text{CF}_2\text{H}$ groups, offering a bulky R_f group that includes a hydrogen-bond donor. We also demonstrate, both experimentally and computationally, the privileged role of the dimethylsulfoxide coligand in enabling fluoroalkylation of a range of aryl chlorides and aryl iodides. The latter reaction is additionally facilitated by the use of CuBr to sequester the PPh_3 ligands, affording the more active solvent-stabilized ‘Cu- R_f ’ transfer agent.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Synthesis and Characterization of $\text{Cu}[\text{CF}(\text{OCF}_3)(\text{CF}_2\text{H})]\text{L}_n$

Reaction of 5 equiv of PMVE with a mixture of $[\text{CuH}(\text{PPh}_3)]_6$, PPh_3 (2 equiv per Cu) and tetramethyldisiloxane (TMDSO) (1.5 equiv) gave a yellow solution of $\text{Cu}[\text{CF}(\text{OCF}_3)(\text{CF}_2\text{H})](\text{PPh}_3)_2$ (**1**) from which colorless crystals could be isolated in 90% yield. Addition of the Si-H-containing siloxane converted any Cu-F (byproduct of β -F elimination) back to Cu-H to avoid formation of the $\text{Cu}[\text{CF}(\text{OCF}_3)(\text{CF}_3)]$ complex (**2**; Scheme 1). Similar reactions using alkyl phosphine ligands did not selectively afford the desired product, generating P–F bonds and additional uncharacterized side-products. The molecular structure of **1** shows a distorted trigonal-planar copper with a P–Cu–P angle of 114.5° and P–Cu–C angles of 126.6 and 118.5° (Figure 2). The Cu–C bond distance (2.062 Å) is longer than that observed in Cu-hfp (2.003 Å)³³ and Cu-

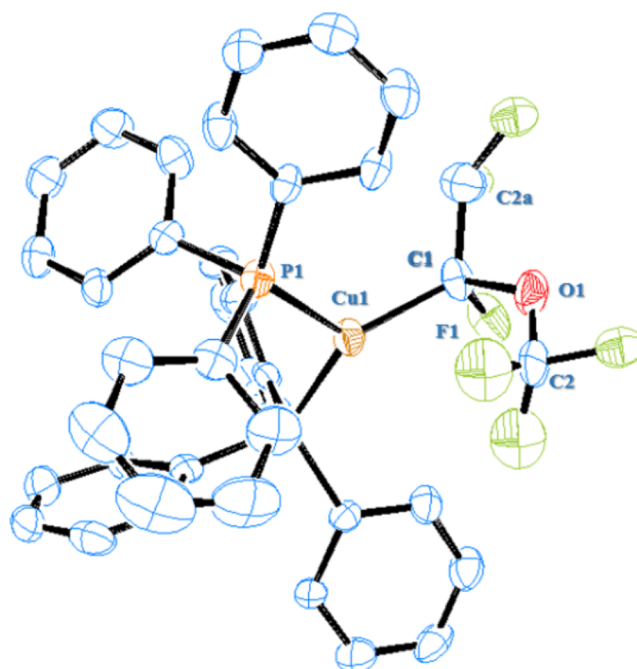


Figure 2. ORTEP representation of the molecular structure of **1**. Thermal ellipsoid probabilities are set at 35% and hydrogens atoms are omitted for clarity. Selected bond distances (Å) and angles ($^\circ$): Cu–C1 2.062(16) Cu–P1 2.271(2) Cu–P2 2.286(2) C1–F1 1.42(2) C1–O1 1.48(1) C1–C2a 1.57(2) P1–Cu–C1 118.50(4) P1–Cu–P2 114.50(9) P2–Cu–C1 126.7(4).

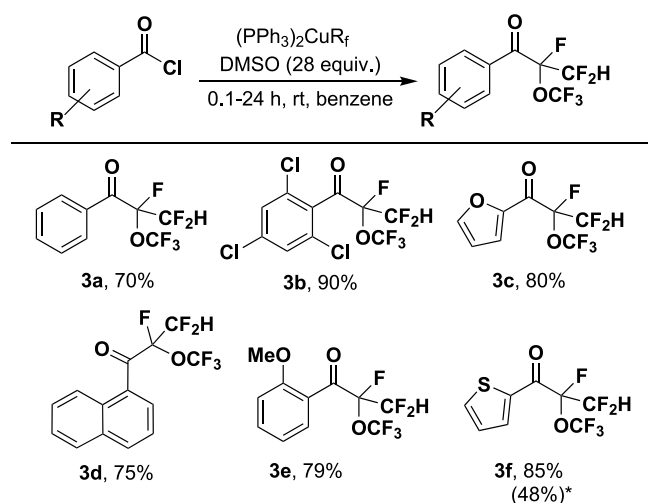
CF_2CF_3 complexes (1.99 Å),³⁰ presumably reflecting the influence of the bulky OCF_3 group.

Reactivity of **1** with Aryl Chlorides

Beginning with benzoyl chloride, addition of 1 equiv of **1** in a range of solvents (Table S1, entries 1–9) was monitored using ^{19}F NMR spectroscopy. In contrast to our previous results with transfer of the hfp group that required dimethylformamide

(DMF) solvent,³³ successful transfer of the 1-trifluoromethyl-1,2,2-trifluoromethoxy-ethyl (ttfet) group to give **3a** was only realized in dimethylsulfoxide (DMSO) solvent;³⁵ using **1** with other coordinating polar solvents led to decomposition of the Cu complex after 2 h. Moderate heating (40 °C) of the reactions in dry tetrahydrofuran (THF), toluene, diethyl ether (Et₂O) or hexane resulted in formation of hydrofluoroether CHF(OCF₃)(CF₂H) (**4**) from the decomposition of **1**. After determining the optimal solvent, we next examined a limited aryl chloride substrate scope. Monitoring the reactions by ¹⁹F NMR showed that yields were limited by side-products derived from reaction of **1** with the DMSO solvent. Indeed, by conducting the R_f transfer reactions in benzene with ca. 22 equiv of DMSO, yields after 2 h were now good to excellent for both electron-withdrawing (**3b**) and -donating (**3e**) aryl groups and sterically hindered products (Table 1).

Table 1. Aryl Chloride Fluoroalkylation Substrate Scope^a



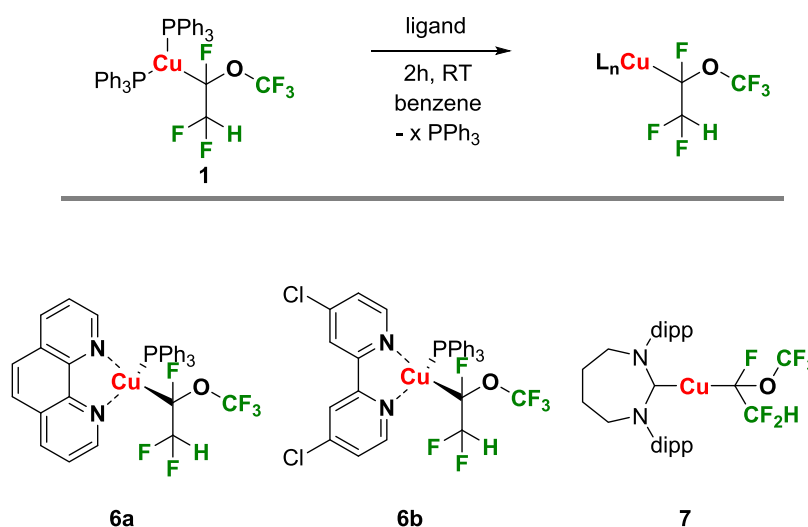
^aReactions conducted in an NMR tube; 0.03 mmol of **1** and aryl chloride in C₆D₆/DMSO-*d*₆ (9:1). Yields determined by ¹⁹F NMR; averages of at least duplicate experiments. * Conducted in DMSO.

Characterization of the fluoroalkylated ketone products **3a–f** showed large shifts for the C–F bond of the ttfet group in ¹⁹F NMR (from –119.9 in **1** to ca. –81 ppm) and of the CF₂H in ¹H NMR (from δ 5.62 in **1** to 5.9–6.9). Isolation and further characterization of **3a–f**, however, proved to be challenging due to their low boiling points and instability (see Supporting Information (SI)). As a result, on a 0.3 mmol scale, **3d–f** were separated as benzene solutions using vacuum transfer. NMR analysis indicated decomposition to a single unidentified volatile product (no GC/MS peaks) with R_f resonances (CF₂H at δ 4.74) but none due to aryl rings. Moreover, ³¹P NMR analysis of the reaction mixtures revealed the formation of O=PPh₃, suggesting that DMSO may be playing an additional role as oxidant in the reaction. Indeed, yellow crystals obtained from the reaction workup of **3e** in air turned out to be the previously reported³⁶ tetranuclear, oxo-bridged complex, [CuCl(dmsO)]₄(μ₂-Cl)₄(μ₄-O) (**5**) with four square pyramidal Cu(II) centers no longer coordinated to any PPh₃ ligands.

Influence of Ancillary Ligands on Fluoroalkylation Efficiency

In light of previous reports using chelating nitrogen ligands in Cu-mediated fluoroalkyl transfer to organic electrophiles,^{29–33} we embarked on the synthesis of a 1,10-phenanthroline (phen) analogue. Although the reaction product of **1** with phen (**6a**) could be characterized by NMR spectroscopy, formation of several byproducts hampered its full characterization, whereas reaction of **1** with 4,4'-dichloro-2,2'-bipyridine proceeded smoothly to afford 4-coordinate Cu[CF(OCF₃)(CF₂H)]-(PPh₃)(bpy-Cl₂) (**6b**). Finally, reaction of **1** with the 7-Dipp NHC ligand gave 2-coordinated analogue **7** (Scheme 2; 7-Dipp = :C[(dipp)N(CH₂)₂]₂, dipp = 2,6-ⁱPr₂C₆H₃). The molecular structure of **6b** (Figure 3A) exhibits a distorted tetrahedral geometry due to the acute N-Cu-N angle and a longer Cu-C^F distance than that in three-coordinate **1**. The molecular structure of **7** features the ttfet group and the seven-membered ring NHC in a linear geometry, with shorter Cu-C_α and C_α-F bond distances than those in **1** and **6b** (Figure 3B). Although complexes **6a,b** could not effect fluoroalkylation of benzoyl chloride in DMSO, complex **7** reacted completely, forming a mixture that did not include **3a** (see SI).

Scheme 2. Synthesis of Additional Cu-ttfet Complexes (dipp = 2,6-ⁱPr₂C₆H₃)



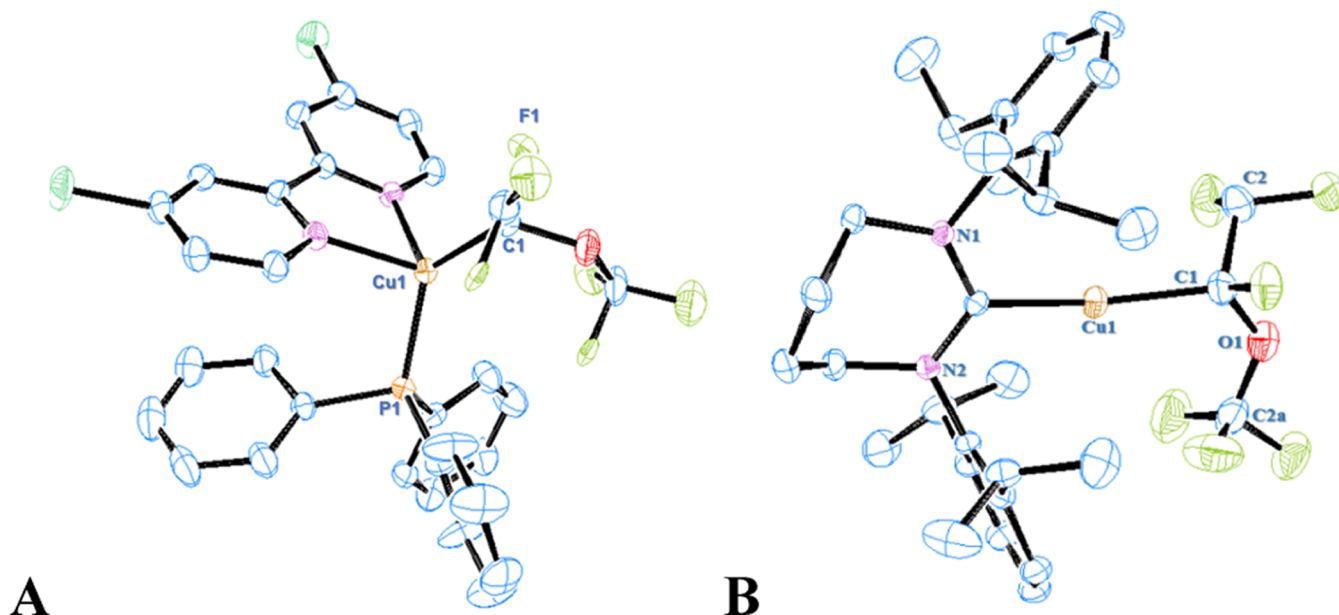


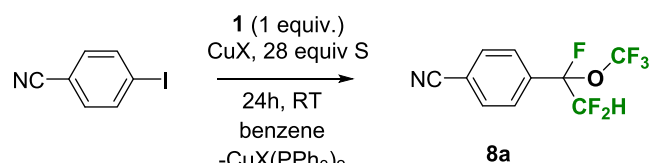
Figure 3. ORTEP representation of the molecular structures of **6b** (A) and **7** (B). Thermal ellipsoid probabilities are set to 35%, with hydrogen atoms omitted for clarity. Selected bond distances (Å) and angles (°) for **6b**: Cu–C 2.00(1) Cu–P 2.235(2) Cu–N1 2.105(9) Cu–N2 2.133(7) C1–F1 1.44(2) C1–Cu–P1 125.4(3) C1–Cu–N1 105.1(4) C1–Cu–N2 125.1(4) P1–Cu–N1 112.2(2) P1–Cu–N2 101.6(2) N1–Cu–N2 76.8(3) and for **7**: Cu–C1 1.975(5) Cu–C2 1.919(2) C1–F1 1.437(7) C1–Cu–C2 165.1(2).

Fluoroalkylation of Aryl Iodides

In previous work, we were unable to transfer the *ttfet* group from Cu(*hfp*)(*phen*)(PPh₃) to aryl iodides.³³ Similarly, using **1** in DMSO led to its decomposition before any transfer could occur. Curiously, conducting the reaction in benzene solvent at 50 °C with just 8 equiv of DMSO, we observed some *ttfet* transfer to several electron-poor aryl iodides. Increasing the concentration beyond 8 equiv led to more decomposition of complex **1** (see SI). In his work on pentafluoroethylation, Hartwig reported that less electron-donating *bpy* ligands increased the rate of R_f transfer from Cu to aryl chlorides.³⁷ Indeed, heating **6b** with electron-poor aryl iodides at 85 °C in toluene provided a second example of successful transfer of the *ttfet* group. However, yields were limited due to poor selectivity.

Given these first results with DMSO and *bpy*-Cl₂, we sought to optimize the fluoroalkylation of aryl halides. Inspired by previous work by Grushin et al.³⁸ and Boutureira and co-workers,^{39,40} we aimed to access a polar solvent-stabilized, “ligandless” Cu(*ttfet*) complex by using Cu halide salts, CuX, to trap the PPh₃ ligands of **1**. To avoid decomposition of **1**, we used a minor amount of coordinating solvent to stabilize the copper salt in benzene, followed by precipitation of CuX-(PPh₃)₂. The ArR_f (**8a**) yield decreased to less than 5% when DMF was used as cosolvent (Table 2, entries 4, 8, and 12). Further screening of different CuX confirmed that CuBr was the most efficient copper salt, producing **8a** in 82% when used with a 2:1:1 ratio of CuBr/substrate/**1** (entry 11). Next, to optimize the DMSO concentration, we conducted experiments under our best conditions (Table 2, entry 11) with the less reactive substrate, 4-iodoanisole (Figure S1), which showed that 25 equiv of DMSO gave the highest yield (Figure S1). The reaction time course for iodobenzonitrile demonstrated fast oxidative addition in the first 10 min, slowing down every 10 min thereafter (see SI).

Table 2. Optimization of the Preparation of “Ligandless” “Cu[CF(OCF₃)CF₂H]”^a



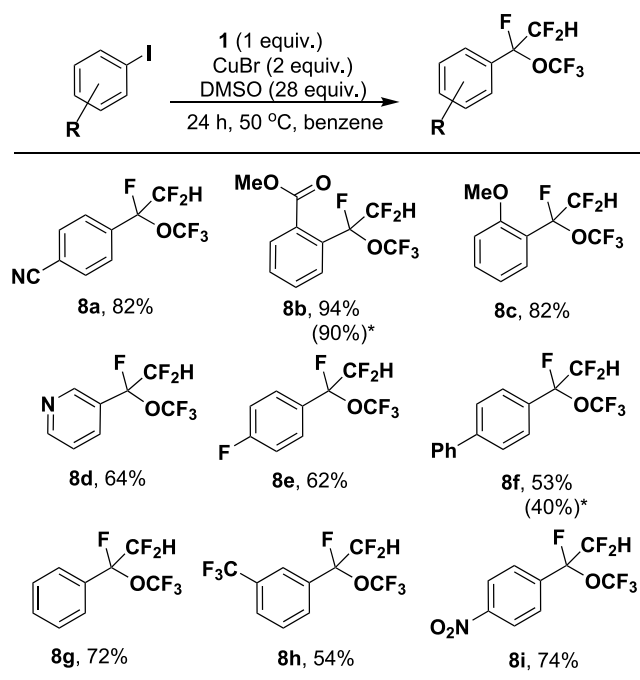
entry	CuX	CuX (equiv)	substrate (equiv)	solvent (S)	yield (%)
1	CuCl	1.5	1.5	DMSO	<10
2		2	1.5	DMSO	66
3		2	1	DMSO	59
4		2	1	DMF	<5
5	CuI	1.5	1.5	DMSO	18
6		2	1.5	DMSO	37
7		2	1	DMSO	29
8		2	1	DMF	<5
9	CuBr	1.5	1.5	DMSO	53
10		2	1.5	DMSO	55
11		2	1	DMSO	82
12		2	1	DMF	<5

^aYields determined by ¹⁹F NMR vs Ph-CF₃ internal standard.

Aryl Iodide Substrate Scope

With the optimal conditions in hand, we examined a small substrate scope for *ttfet* transfer to a series of substituted aryl iodides covering the span of electronic substituent effects. As shown in Table 3, all reactions furnished the desired product in moderate to very good yields. High yields were obtained with *ortho*-substituted substrates (**8b,c**), as observed by Grushin et al. for trifluoromethylations;³⁸ *para* substitution often (**8f,g**) but not generally (**8h,i**) gave less product. Electronic substituent effects do not appear dominant, with high yields obtained for electron-withdrawing (**8h,i**) as well as donating substituents (**8b,c**).

Table 3. Substrate Scope for $-\text{[CF(OCF}_3\text{)CF}_2\text{H]}$ Transfer to Aryl Iodides^a



^aYields are determined by ¹⁹F NMR integrations vs Ph-CF₃ internal standard. Isolated yields from 0.3 mmol scale reactions are in brackets.

A subset of these substrates was chosen for scale-up and isolation. Compound **8b** was successfully purified via column chromatography, yielding 90%. Its structure was further validated through X-ray crystallography (Figure 4A). During the reaction of 3-iodopyridine with complex **1** to give **8d**, a significant amount of white solid precipitated. The solid was subsequently filtered, and its structure was determined using X-ray analysis, revealing a dinuclear pseudotetrahedral copper(I) complex (**9**) with bridging bromides and each copper coordinated to both PPh₃ and iodopyridine ligands (Figure 4B).⁴¹ This observation aligns well with the proposed role of CuBr as an effective trap for PPh₃ in this reaction system.

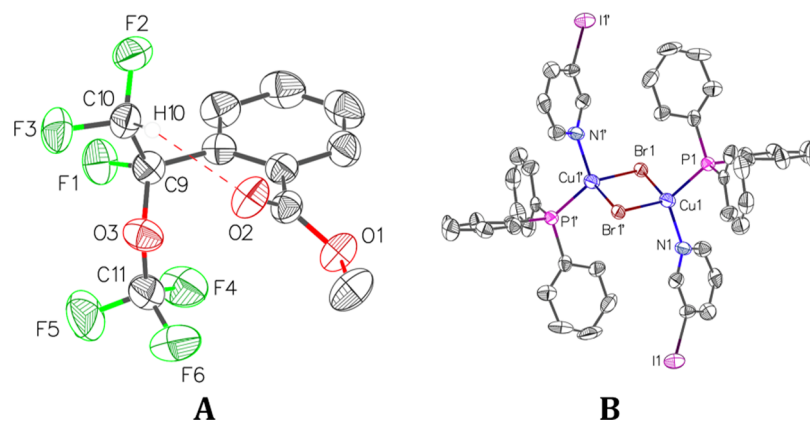
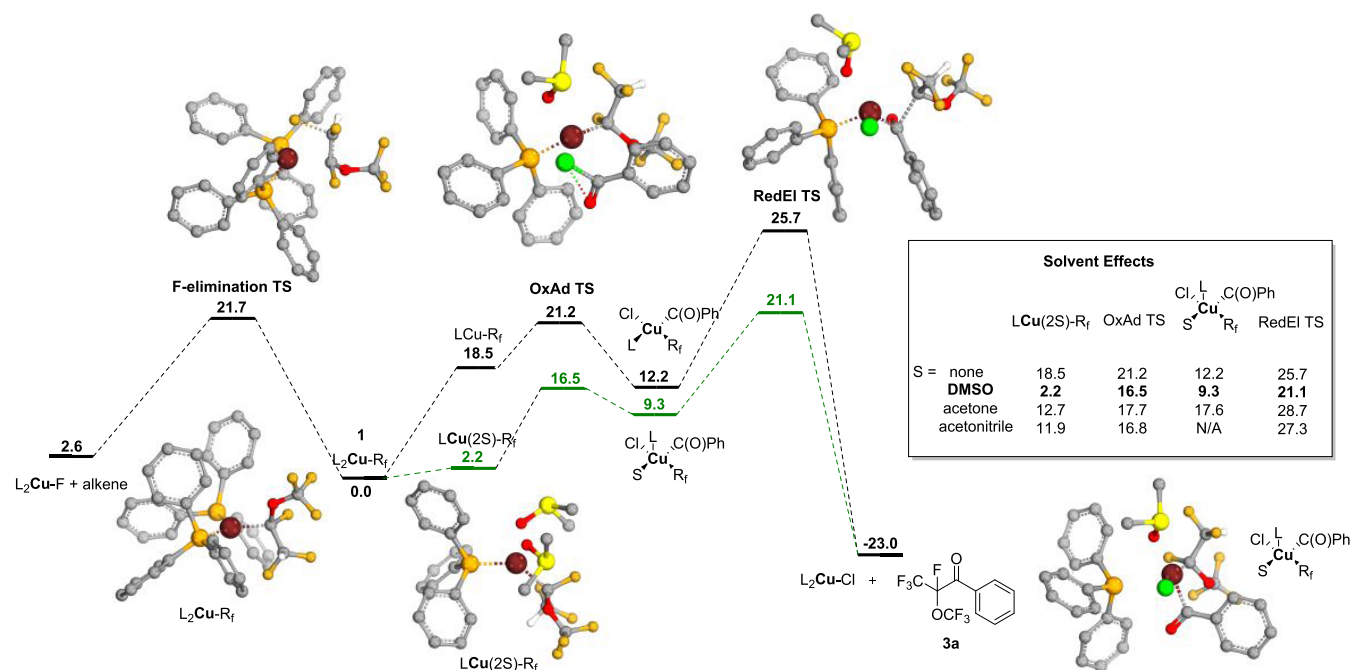


Figure 4. ORTEP representation of the molecular structures of **8b** (A) and **9** (B). Thermal ellipsoid probabilities are set to 50%, with hydrogen atoms omitted for clarity. Selected bond distances (Å) and angles (°) for **8b**: F1-C9 1.375(2) F2-C10 1.358(2) H10-C10 1.000 O3-C9 1.418(2) O3-C11 1.344(2) C9-C10 1.530(2) C9-O3-C11 121.7(1) C9-C10-H10 111.0 and for **9**: Cu1-Br1 2.515(1) Cu1-Br1' 2.567(1) Cu1-P1 2.210(2) Cu1-N1 2.046(7) Cu1-Br1-Cu1' 71.26(4) Br1-Cu1-P1 111.31(7) Br1-Cu1-N1 107.8(2) Br1-Cu1-Br1' 108.74(5). Disorder of the OCF₃ group in **8b** is not shown, and all hydrogens except H10 are omitted for clarity. Dimer **9** is generated by symmetry around an inversion center; one cocrystallized molecule of benzene per Cu is omitted for clarity.

Computational Insights into the Role of DMSO

The reaction of complex **1** with benzoyl chloride was computationally interrogated at the DFT level (TPSSH-D0/TZ//TPSSSTPSS/DZ; see SI for further details) utilizing an approach previously employed in studying selective copper complex-catalyzed hydrodefluorination of fluoroalkenes.⁴²

Potential Energy Surface. Modeling the effect of solvent by employing solvent corrections indicated only minimal (PCM:⁴³ 1.5 kcal/mol) or absent (SMD⁴⁴) effects of increased solvent polarity with respect to gas phase calculations, which does not reflect experiment. Therefore, we decided to model solvent coordination explicitly—Scheme 3 depicts the Gibbs free energy surface with and without coordinated solvent molecule(s). Decoordination of one PPh₃ ligand (L) from **1** precedes oxidative addition of benzoyl chloride and is strongly endergonic (LCu-R_f: 18.5 kcal/mol) without coordinating solvents (black trace). The barrier for oxidative addition from **1** is sizable (OxAd TS: 21.2 kcal/mol), predominantly due to formation of the monoligated LCu-R_f complex. Formation of the square-planar, formally Cu(III), intermediate is endergonic (+12.2 kcal/mol). Rate limiting is the reductive elimination (RedEl TS: 25.7 kcal/mol) which is strongly exergonic (L₂Cu-Cl + **3a**: -23 kcal/mol). β-F elimination from the LCu-R_f complex to form L₂CuF and fluoroalkene is not competitive because it is endergonic (+2.6 kcal/mol); there is no obvious escape route, and the resulting olefin would only be reinserted under the experimental conditions. Coordination of two solvent molecules stabilizes the monophosphine complex; however, DMSO (LCu(2DMSO)-R_f: 2.2 kcal/mol, green trace) is much more effective than either acetone (12.7 kcal/mol) or acetonitrile (11.9 kcal/mol). The oxidative addition TS is stabilized by coordination of a single solvent molecule, with all three solvents showing similar stabilization ability (≈4 kcal/mol). However, of the three tested solvents, only DMSO stabilizes the square-pyramidal formal Cu(III)-intermediate and the RedEl TS strongly enough to overcome the entropic penalty for solvent coordination (RedEl TS: 21.1 kcal/mol). This barrier height is in line with the slow reaction observed experimentally. 5-coordinated Cu(III)-complexes have recently been isolated by Shen and co-workers.^{45–47} In order to understand the effects that solvent coordination has on the

Scheme 3. Potential Energy Surface for the Reaction of 1 with Benzoyl Chloride to Form 3a⁴⁴

⁴⁴Black trace without coordinated solvent, green trace with coordinated DMSO. Insert shows relative energies of key species for different solvents with respect to 1 (L₂Cu-R_f; R_f = -[CF(OCF₃)CF₂H]). T = 298.15 K. Gibbs free energies in kcal/mol.

barrier heights and the stability of the intermediate it is instructive to analyze those species in more detail.

Cu(III) or Cu(I)? Snyder was the first to propose that the formal Cu(III) square-planar [Cu(CF₃)₄]⁻ anion was really Cu(I).⁴⁸ He postulated an inverted ligand field, with the LUMO being primarily ligand centered and the d_{x²-y²} orbital heavily occupied.

The ligand field inversion has been demonstrated spectroscopically by Lancaster et al.⁴⁹ They ascertained that “copper’s limited capacity to be oxidized necessitates localization of electron hole character on the supporting ligands; consequently, the physical d⁸ description for these formally Cu(III) species is inaccurate”.⁵⁰ Overgaard has also confirmed the Cu(I) oxidation state by high-resolution X-ray single-crystal diffraction⁵¹ but the debate continues.^{52,53}

In the present case, several observations align with Snyder’s findings. Although the intermediate is nearly perfectly square planar (depending on the level of theory) pointing to Cu(III), the frontier molecular orbitals are ligand-centered (Figure 5).

Natural Resonance Theory (NRT)⁵⁴ and Intrinsic Bond Orbital theory (IBO)^{55–57} were used to further elucidate the nature of the intermediate. NRT allows us to determine the weights of contributing resonance structures to an idealized Lewis structure whereas Knizia’s IBO method serves to further analyze the chemical bonding. A set of local orbitals (IBOs) is determined, exactly representing the computed Kohn–Sham wave function. Because IBOs intuitively depict occupied orbitals, they allow for a direct interpretation of chemical bonding. Charges are assigned to individual atoms without free parameters, electrons in doubly occupied IBOs are assigned proportionally to the individual atoms, allowing further quantitative interpretation of bonding.

NRT conforms with a Cu(I) species with an oxidized benzoyl ligand (Figure 5). IBO as well as natural bond orbital theory describe the Cu–P, Cu–Cl, and Cu–R_f bonds as heavily

polarized and ligand centered (>72% ligand contribution) while the Cu–C_{aroyl} bond is heavily copper centered (75%). Wiberg bond indices⁵⁸ are <0.4, indicating substantial ionic contribution to the bond. Moreover, the Cu–P, Cu–Cl, and Cu–R_f IBOs are partially localized on the aroyl fragment (5–9%), with the Cu–R_f bond showing the largest contribution from C_{aroyl}. FMOs change only minimally when DMSO is coordinated; the bond composition of the Cu–Cl and Cu–R_f bonds and the Cu–C_{aroyl} change only minimally. The apical Cu–P bond is very long (3.076 Å). NRT now conforms more with Cu(III) species, however, with partial Cu(I) character (22.4%). The effective oxidation state of copper computed with IBOview according to the formalism by Ramos-Cordoba, Postils, and Salvador is in both cases +1.⁵⁹

The rate limiting reductive elimination is concerted but decidedly asynchronous. In fact, in the solventless system, the Cu–C_{aroyl} bond length is even shorter in the TS than it is in the intermediate (by 0.005 Å, Figure 6) and only minimally elongated in the DMSO case. Contrarily, the Cu–R_f bond is elongated by 0.33 Å (no DMSO) and 0.41 Å (DMSO). Wiberg bond indices reflect these changes, with the Cu–C_{aroyl} bond order changing only minimally while the one for the Cu–R_f bond decreases from around 0.4 to around 0.15. Minimal changes occur in the Cu–C_{aroyl} bond composition while the electron density of the forming C–C bond stems mostly from the R_f fragment (approximately 2:1). Figure 7 depicts the electron flow along the reaction coordinate in the two IBOs with the largest changes along the reaction pathway, emphasizing the asynchronicity of the elimination (see MP4 videos in SI).

Consequences of the Inverted Ligand Field and Solvent Stabilization. Regardless of whether one sees the intermediates as Cu(III) or Cu(I), a picture emerges of a species in which the Cu–R_f bond is heavily concentrated on the ligand, while the Cu–C_{aroyl} bond is more concentrated on the

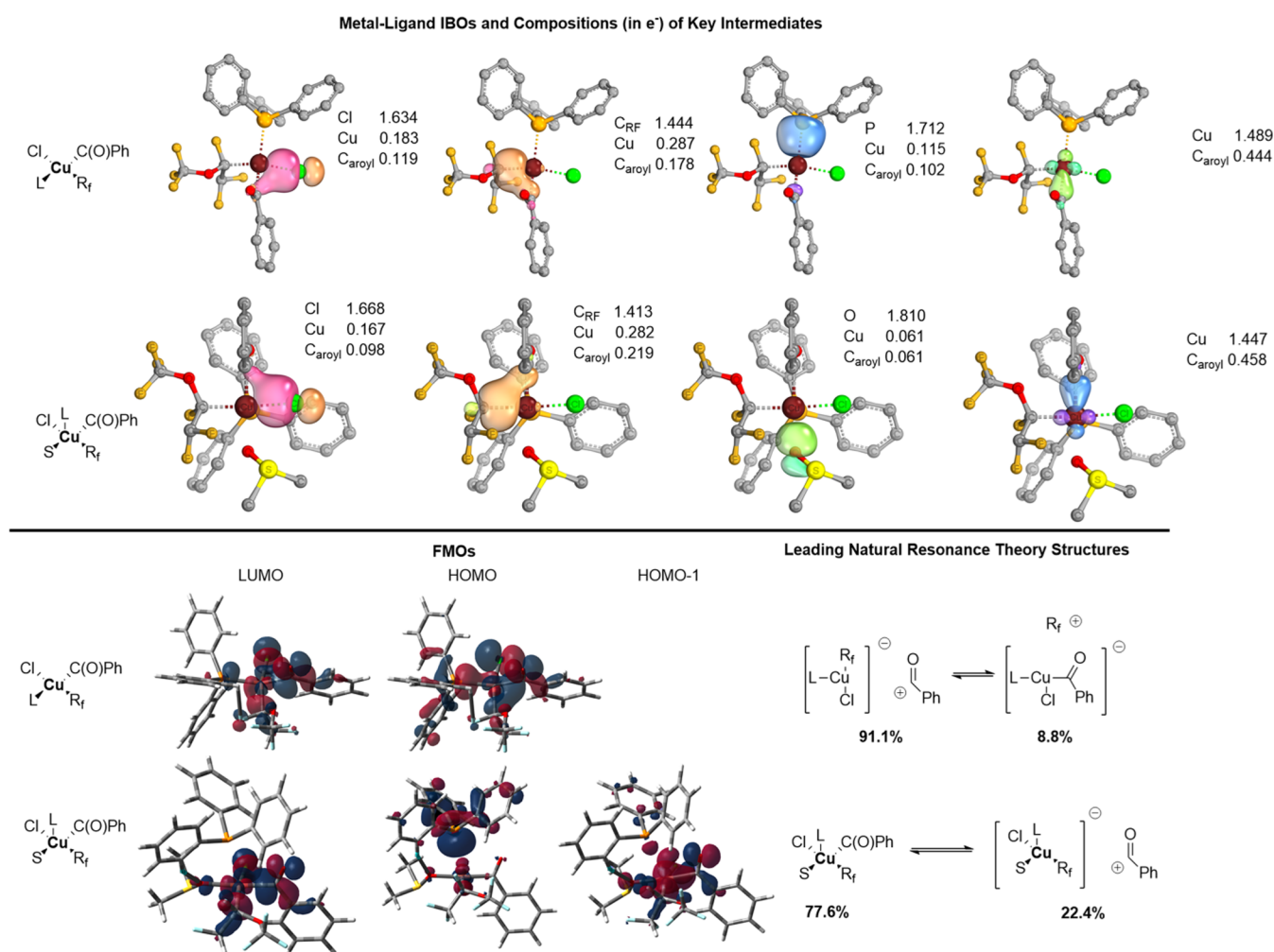
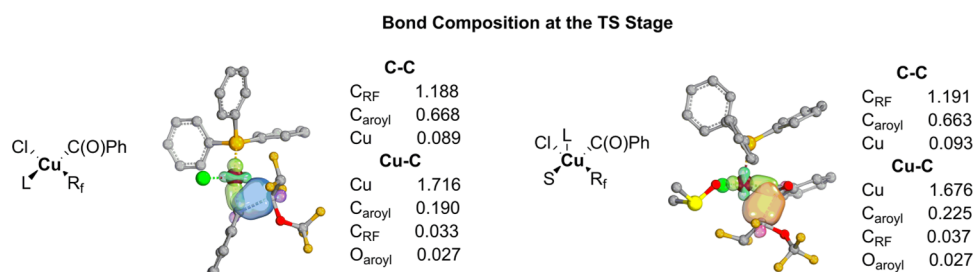


Figure 5. Metal–ligand IBOs, frontier molecular orbitals and NRT structures for the key intermediates. $\text{R}_f = -[\text{CF}(\text{OCF}_3)\text{CF}_2\text{H}]$.



Key Metric Parameters, Charges, WBI

	Bond Lengths				IBO Charges)				WBI		
	Cu-C _{RF}	Cu-C _{aryl}	C _{RF} -C _{aryl}	Cu-P	Cu	C _{aryl}	C _{RF}	O _{aryl}	C _{RF} -C _{aryl}	Cu-C _{RF}	Cu-C _{aryl}
	intermediate										
none	1.990	1.970	2.818	2.401	0.888	0.150	0.062	-0.289	-	0.375	0.397
DMSO	1.988	1.947	2.803	3.076	0.947	0.163	0.085	-0.284	-	0.382	0.463
	TS										
none	2.327	1.965	2.094	2.326	0.788	0.191	0.213	-0.336	0.463	0.145	0.316
DMSO	2.401	1.997	2.093	2.348	0.838	0.167	0.215	-0.346	0.448	0.149	0.347

Figure 6. IBO bond composition at the TS stage, key metric parameters, charges and WBIs. H atoms omitted for clarity.

metal. This biases the complex for an easy reductive elimination more reminiscent of nucleophilic attack of the R_f group on the aroyl fragment than traditional concerted

reductive elimination mechanisms. In essence, this resembles acid–base chemistry. These findings align with Lancaster’s

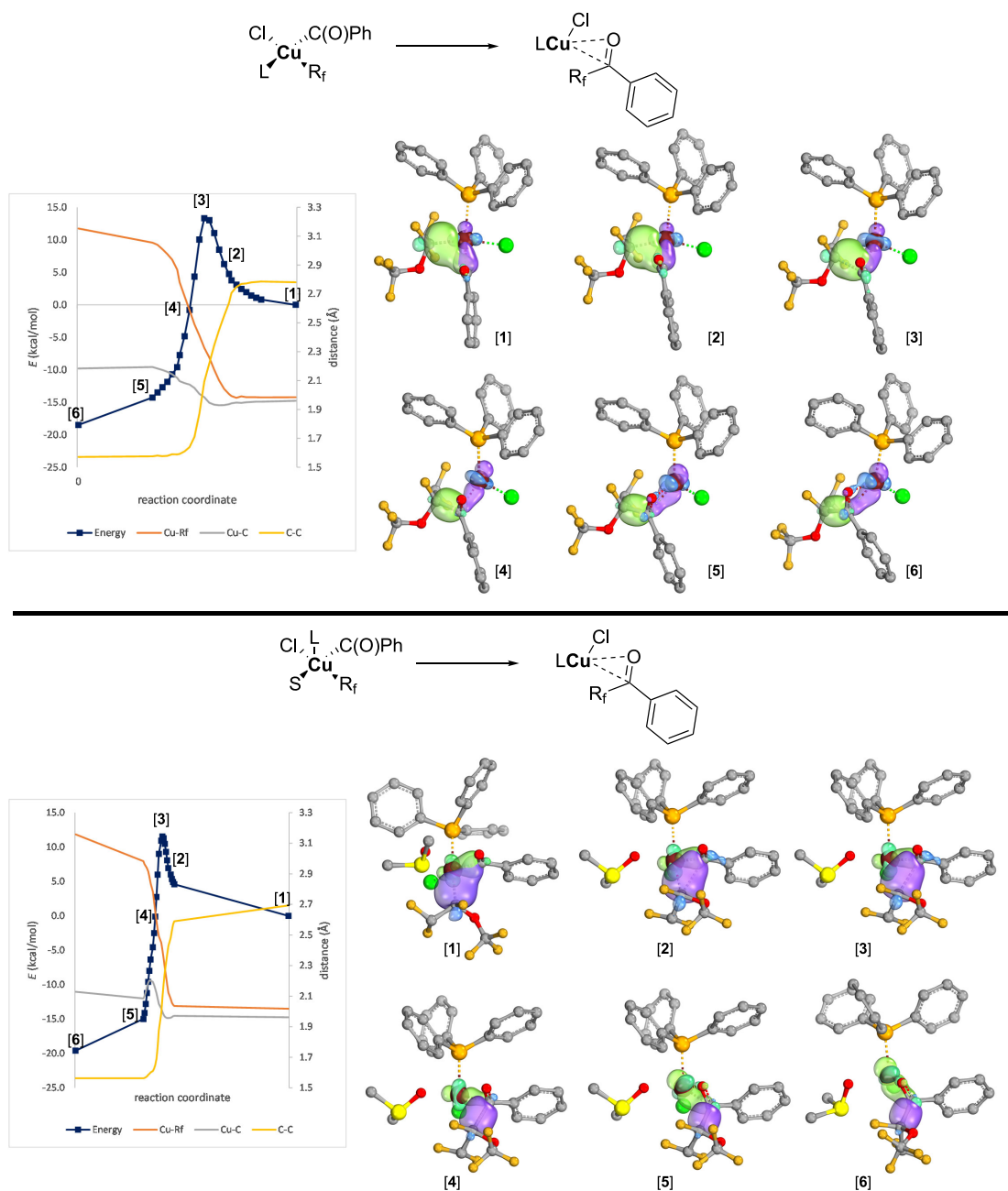


Figure 7. Electron flow along the intrinsic reaction coordinate (IRC) during reductive elimination. Hydrogen atoms omitted for clarity. The two IBOs with the largest changes along the reaction pathway are visualized.

analysis of reductive elimination⁵⁰ in $[\text{Cu}(\text{benzyl})(\text{CF}_3)_3]^-$, and Klein and Knizia's findings⁶⁰ for Sanford's Ni-system.⁶¹

Square-pyramidal Cu-species like the DMSO-stabilized one here are heavily crowded, as emphasized by the long Cu-P in the intermediate (3.076 Å vs 2.401 Å in the square-planar species). DMSO, with its javelin-shaped O=S unit, develops steric bulk further away from the central metal than, for example, acetone. Furthermore, its strong negative point charge stabilizes the charge transfer during elimination. N-donors like acetonitrile, on the other hand, seem incapable of stabilizing such species sufficiently.

CONCLUSIONS

The work described herein builds on our previous results accessing novel R_f groups (*i.e.*, hfp,³³ $\text{CF}_2\text{CF}_2\text{H}$,^{40,62} and

CFCICF_2H ⁶³) via insertion of fluoroalkenes into Cu-H and Cu-F bonds. Although the R_f transfers described herein are stoichiometric in copper, this protocol has proven valuable for late stage fluoroalkylation in the discovery phase of pharmaceutical and agrochemical research as evidenced by the commercialization of $\text{CuCF}_3(\text{phen})$.³¹ In contrast to Cu-hfp transfer that proceeded efficiently in DMF,³³ tfet transfer is facilitated by DMSO, albeit as a *ligand* since complex **1** eventually decomposes in DMSO solvent. For tfet transfer to aryl chlorides, computational analysis revealed an inverted ligand field in the formal Cu(III) intermediate and a polarized Cu-C_{aroyl} bond. The asynchronous transition state resembles nucleophilic attack of the R_f group on the δ^+ carbonyl carbon. Moreover, evidence was presented for PPh_3 oxidation, suggesting an additional role for DMSO in alleviating

phosphine binding pre-equilibria that could hinder the rate-determining reductive elimination step. Unfortunately, the aryl-tfket ketone products are less thermally stable than those containing C_2F_5 ³⁰ or hfp³³ groups.

For R_f transfer from Cu to aryl iodides, oxidative addition is usually the rate-determining step which we showed previously to be hindered by ligand binding pre-equilibria.⁶² In this work we show that addition of CuBr to sequester PPh_3 , combined with DMSO as a ligand, allow for the successful transfer of the bulky tfket group to aryl iodides. These methodologies thus introduce geminal $-OCF_3$ and $-CF_2H$ groups in a single transformation, enabling access to a bulky R_f group that includes a hydrogen-bond donor.

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

General Procedures

Experiments were conducted under nitrogen, using Schlenk techniques or an MBraun glovebox. All reactions were heated using an aluminum bead (Lab Armor) bath. Solvents were deoxygenated by purging with nitrogen. Tetrahydrofuran (thf), acetonitrile (MeCN), diethyl ether (Et_2O), hexanes and toluene were dried on columns of activated alumina using a J. C. Meyer (formerly Glass Contour) solvent purification system. 1,2-Dimethoxyethane (dme), cyclopentyl methyl ether (cpme) and benzene- d_6 (C_6D_6) were dried by stirring over activated alumina (ca. 10 wt. %) overnight, followed by filtration. All solvents were stored over activated (heated at ca. 250 °C for > 10 h under vacuum) 4 Å molecular sieves. Glassware was oven-dried at 120 °C for >2 h. The following chemicals were obtained commercially, as indicated: perfluoro(methyl vinyl ether) (PMVE, Synquest), pentane (Sigma-Aldrich, anhydrous, >99%), benzene (Sigma-Aldrich, anhydrous, 99.8%), cyclopentyl methyl ether (Sigma-Aldrich, anhydrous, >99%), *N,N*-dimethylformamide (Sigma-Aldrich, anhydrous, 99.8%), *N,N*-dimethylacetamide (Sigma-Aldrich, anhydrous, >99%), dimethylsulfoxide (DMSO, Alfa Aesar anhydrous, 99.8%), trifluorotoluene (Sigma-Aldrich, anhydrous, >99%), iodobenzene (Alfa Aesar, 98%), all other aryl iodides (Sigma-Aldrich), all acid chlorides (Sigma-Aldrich), 1,10-phenanthroline (phen, Sigma-Aldrich), 4,4'-dichloro-2,2'-bipyridine ($bipy-Cl_2$, Sigma-Aldrich), 2,9-dimethyl-1,10-phenanthroline (dmpen, Sigma-Aldrich), triphenylphosphine (PPh_3 , Oakwood Chemicals, 99%), methyldiphenylphosphine ($PMePh_2$, Acros Organics, 99%), tetrathylidisiloxane (TMDSO, Sigma-Aldrich, 97%), copper bromide (Sigma-Aldrich, 98%). The following chemicals were synthesized as previously reported: hexahydro-1,3-bis(2,4,6-trimethylphenyl)-1,3-diazepin-2-ylidene (7-dipp),⁶⁴ 1,3-bis(2,3,6-trimethylphenyl)-imidazol-2-ylidene (Imes)⁶⁵ and $[CuH(PPh_3)]_6$.⁶⁶ Electrospray ionization mass spectral data were collected using an Applied Biosystem API2000 triple quadrupole mass spectrometer. For electron impact (EI), solid samples were prepared by drying products under vacuum, and spectra obtained using a Kratos Concept S1 instrument (hres 7000–10,000). GC-MS analyses were performed on an Agilent Technologies 6890N GC system equipped with a 5973 network mass selective detector. NMR spectra 1H , ^{19}F , $^{31}P\{^1H\}$, and $^{13}C\{^1H\}$ were recorded on a 300 MHz Bruker Avance instrument at room temperature (21–23 °C) unless stated otherwise. ^{13}C NMR spectra were referenced to solvent resonances and 1H NMR spectra were referenced to residual proton peaks associated with the deuterated solvents (C_6D_6 : 7.16). $^{31}P\{^1H\}$ NMR data were referenced to external H_3PO_4 (85% aqueous solution), set to 0.0 ppm. ^{19}F NMR spectra were referenced to internal standard α,α,α -trifluorotoluene (CF_3Ph) (unless stated otherwise) set to -63.5 ppm. Details of synthesis, characterization and Cu-mediated R_f transfer are included in the SI.

X-ray Crystallography

Crystallographic data collection and processing were performed at the X-ray Core Facility at the University of Ottawa. Crystals were mounted on MiTeGen sample holders using Parabar oil. Data were collected on a Bruker Smart Apex or Bruker Kappa Apex

diffractometer equipped with an ApexII CCD detector and a sealed-tube Mo K source ($\lambda = 0.71073$ Å). During collection, the crystal was cooled to 200 K. Raw data collection and integration were performed with the Apex3 software package from Bruker.⁶⁷ Initial unit cell parameters were determined from 36 data frames from selected ω scans. Semiempirical absorption corrections based on equivalent reflections were applied using SADABS or TWINABS.^{68,69} Systematic absences in the diffraction data set and unit cell parameters were consistent with the space group determined via the XPREP program.⁷⁰ Hydrogen atoms on carbons were placed geometrically and refined using the riding model, all other hydrogen atoms were placed via the difference map and refined freely. Data collection and structure refinement details are provided in Tables S4 and S5.

Twinning in compound **5b** was identified using CELL_NOW.⁷¹ Two twin components were integrated and absorption correction applied via TWINABS. Refinement of the twin fraction was included along with the general refinements using HKLF5 data.

Computational Details

All geometries were fully optimized by using the Gaussian 16 software package.⁷² The BOpt software package was employed for data collection.⁷³ Following a proposed protocol,⁷⁴ all relevant minima and transition states were fully optimized at the TPSS/TPSS level⁷⁵ of theory employing correlation-consistent polarized valence double- ζ Dunning (DZ) basis sets with cc-pVDZ quality^{76,77} from the EMSL basis set exchange library,⁷⁸ using a small core pseudopotential on Cu.⁷⁹ The density fitting approximation (Resolution of Identity, RI)^{80–83} was used at the optimization stage and for single-point energy corrections. All calculations were performed at the standard Gaussian 16 SCF convergence criteria using an ultrafine grid [Scf = Tight and Int(Grid = ultrafine)]. The nature of each stationary point was checked with an analytical second-derivative calculation (no imaginary frequency for minima, exactly one imaginary frequency for transition states, corresponding to the reaction coordinate). The accuracy of TS was confirmed with IRC scans. Transition states were located using a suitable guess and the Berny algorithm (Opt = TS)⁸⁴ or a relaxed potential energy scan to arrive at a suitable transition-state guess, followed by a quasi-Newton or eigenvector-following algorithm to complete the optimization. Final single-point energies were calculated at the TPSSh level of theory⁷⁵ employing triple- ζ Dunning (TZ) basis sets (cc-pVTZ quality).⁷⁶ Solvent effects (DMSO, $\epsilon = 46.826$) were included with the polarizable continuum model approach (PCM) or the SMD solvation model where indicated.^{43,44} Grimme dispersion corrections without damping (keyword -no) were added at this stage using the standalone dftd3 program.^{85,86} Enthalpies and Gibbs free energies were then obtained from TZ single-point energies and thermal corrections from the TPSS/TPSS-PCM/cc-pVDZ-(PP) vibrational analyses; entropy corrections were scaled by a factor of 0.67 to account for decreased entropy in the condensed phase.^{87–89} NBO 7.0 was used for NBO analysis.⁹⁰ IBOview was used for intrinsic bond orbital theory (IBO) calculations,^{55–57} employing SP Molden output files from Gaussian (utilizing the following input: `#p ginput IOP(6/7 = 3) tpssh/def2TZVP/auto pseudo = read denfit int = grid = ultrafine`).

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Data Availability Statement

The data underlying this study are available in the published article and its Supporting Information.

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acscorginorgau.4c00038>.

Experimental synthesis details, crystallographic information, DFT table, GC-mass spectra, and 1H , ^{19}F , $^{13}C\{^1H\}$, and $^{31}P\{^1H\}$ NMR spectra (PDF)

Combined file for all computational structures (XYZ)
RedEl_NoDMSO (MP4)

RedEl_withDMSO (MP4)

Accession Codes

CCDC 2285055–2285056, 2285058–2285059, and 2285224 contain the supplementary crystallographic data for this paper. These data can be obtained free of charge via www.ccdc.cam.ac.uk/data_request/cif, or by emailing data_request@ccdc.cam.ac.uk, or by contacting The Cambridge Crystallographic Data Centre, 12 Union Road, Cambridge CB2 1EZ, UK; fax: +44 1223 336033.

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Author Contributions

[†]B.G. and L.L.T.N.P. contributed equally. All experimental work was conducted by B.G., L.L.T.N.P., and N.J. and X-ray diffraction studies by J.S.O. All computational work was performed by C.E. and the manuscript was written and SI assembled through contributions of all authors. All authors have given approval to the final version of this manuscript.

Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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