

http://dx.doi.org/10.22643/kisti.2017.3. 2. 129

# Development of fluorination methodology for carbon-fluorine bond formation: nucleophilic fluorinating reagents in the mid-2000s

Dae Young Bae<sup>1</sup> and Eunsung Lee<sup>1,2,3\*</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Chemistry, Pohang University of Science and Technology, Pohang, 790–784, Republic of Korea <sup>2</sup>Division of Advanced Materials Science, Pohang University of Science and Technology, Pohang, 790–784, Republic of Korea 3 Department of Chemistry, Stanford University, Stanford, CA 94305-5080, United States

ABSTRACT	Since carbon–fluorine (C–F) bonds play a key role to improve bioavailability and lipophilicity, they have found commonly in pharmaceuticals, radiopharmaceuticals, agrochemicals, and material science. Advances on the efficient method to introduce fluorine to complex organic molecules are mainly results of development of fluorination reagents and transition metal catalysts. In this mini-review, we want to emphasize two representative nucleophilic fluorinating reagents regarding carbon–fluorine bond formation, which were developed in the mid-2000s.
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Fluorine, as the 13th most abundant element in Earth, is widely dispersed in the Earth's crust. However, naturally occurring carbon-fluorine bonds bearing compounds are rare. One of the reasons is that the minerals that contain fluorine are not useful as fluorinating reagents for constructing C-F bonds. Thus most of compounds that contain a C-F bond are synthesized by chemical manipulation although there are few examples that some identified fluorinase enzymes catalyze C-F bond formation (1). Two types of widely used fluorination reagents exist, a nucleophilic fluorination reagent (F) and an electrophilic fluorination reagent  $(F^+)$  (2). Fluorinated group transfer reagents also exist such as the trifluoromethyl group of the Ruppert-Prakash's reagent or a trifluoroacetamide group (3). In this mini-review, we want to describe preparation and applications of popular nucleophilic fluorination reagents such as tetraalkylammonium fluoride salts, anhydrous tetrabutylammonium fluoride (TBAF), and tetrabutylammonium tetra(tert-butyl alcohol) fluoride, which were developed in the mid-2000s, in addition to a brief old history of fluorination method.

The early stage of fluorination methods was based on fluorinating reagents such as HF and  $F_2$ . The first historical example was in 1530 by Georgius Agricola who used fluorspar (fluorite: predominantly calcium fluoride) in metallurgy. Pure anhydrous hydrogen fluoride was synthesized by Fremy in 1856 and elemental fluorine was isolated in 1886 by Moissan. These discoveries triggered the synthesis of many metal fluorides.

In the early 1900s, Ruff investigated various inorganic fluorides and found that  $CoF_3$  was a very useful reagent for the exhaustive fluorination of hydrocarbons (4). At the similar time, Swarts intensively investigated the

Received: December 12, 2017/ Revised: December 23, 2017/ Accepted: December 27, 2017

Correspnding Author : Eunsung Lee, Tel: +82-54-279-2111, Fax: +82-54-279-8129, E-mail: eslee@postech.ac.kr

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fluorination of organic halides using SbBr<sub>2</sub>F<sub>3</sub>, SbF<sub>3</sub> or HgF<sub>2</sub> to produce numerous organic fluorides, wellrecognized by other chemists (5). One of important events that triggered the development of fluorination methods was the Manhattan Project that sought ways to manipulate the extremely reactive  $UF_6$  (6). Since then, many groups reported numerous fluorination methodologies based on fluorination reagents such as AHF (anhydrous HF), F<sub>2</sub>, SF<sub>4</sub>, alkali metal fluorides for halide exchange reactions, and Olah's reagent (pyridine/(HF)<sub>n</sub>) (6). Liotta introduced "naked fluoride" by using a crown ether that can trap alkali metal cations (7). This result became one of popular methods to enhance the reactivity of alkali metal fluorides. In 1975, diethylaminosulfur trifluoride (DAST) was synthesized by Middleton (8).

Most conventional nucleophilic fluorination methods are halide exchange reactions, which are also known as Halex reaction (Scheme 1(a)) (9). Even though cheap fluorinating reagents such as alkali metal fluorides are used, the reaction conditions are harsh and only highly reactive aromatic groups are applicable. Another method is the replacement of an oxygen atom (Scheme 1(b)) (10). A good leaving group such as a triflate anion is displaced readily by alkali metal fluorides. Hydroxy, carbonyl, carboxylic groups can be replaced by dehydrofluorination by DAST or SF<sub>4</sub>. Nitrogen groups are also replaced by fluorine, which is the principle method to prepare fluorobenzene, as known as the Balz-Schiemann reaction (Scheme 1(c)) (10). Numerous organofluorine compounds are prepared by the addition of fluoride anion to carbon multiple bonds (Scheme 1(d)).

### Development of Nucleophilic Fluorinating Reagents

Tetraalkylammonium fluoride salts ( $R_4NF$ ) are widely used for nucleophilic fluorination because





their solubility in common organic solvents is significantly higher than most inorganic alkali metal fluoride salts (11). However, the preparation of such anhydrous salts is challenging to remove water from the hydrated fluorinating reagents, which often leads the decomposition of  $R_4NF$  to produce the elimination products (Hoffmann elimination, Scheme 2). Tetrabutylammonium fluoride (TBAF) is known to undergo Hoffman elimination even at room temperature (11). Thus, commercially available TBAF contains water molecule to form hydrates which influence the nucleophlicity of the fluoride anion due to the strong hydrogen bond between water molecules and the fluoride. Anhydrous tetramethylammonium fluoride (TMAF) was prepared by the Christe group and used



Scheme 2. Hoffmann elimination of TBAF.



Scheme 3. The preparation of anhydrous TBAF.

for fluorination of organic substrates (12). Since the solubility of TMAF in nonpolar organic solvents is still problematic, the need for an anhydrous source of TBAF with improved organic-soluble fluoride source continues.

### Anhydrous tetrabutylammonium fluoride (TBAF)

DiMagno and Sun reported the preparation of anhydrous TBAF by the nucleophilic aromatic substitution of hexafluorobenzene ( $C_6F_6$ ) with cyanide ( $CN^-$ ) in polar aprotic solvents such as DMSO, CH<sub>3</sub>CN, and THF (Scheme 3) (13). This reaction is enthalpically favorable because Ar-F bond dissociation energy (BDE) is less than Ar-CN BDE by 9 kcal/mol. Anhydrous TBAF is very efficient for fluorination of various organic substrates under mild condition in a short time (Table 1) even though it takes several hours to generate TBAF completely from the SNAr reaction.

Anhydrous TBAF is also found to be effective for nucleophilic aromatic fluorination that requires a high temperature with conventional methods. For example, the fluorination of chlorocyanobenzene requires +290 °C for the substitution reaction with potassium fluoride and tetraphenylphosphonium bromide ([PhP<sub>4</sub>]Br) as a phase transfer catatyst (Scheme 4(a)) (14). However,



Scheme 4. Nucleophilic aromatic fluorination (SNAr) via anhydrous TBAF under mild condition (b).





anhydrous TBAF fluorinates chlorocyanobenzene at room temperature to give 80% yield based on <sup>1</sup>H and <sup>19</sup>F NMR data (Scheme 4(b)) (13b).

For the application of radiotracers available from nucleophilic substitution reactions. anhydrous TBAF was prepared from available K<sup>18</sup>F instead of hexafluorobenzene that is not available for an <sup>18</sup>F source (13b). A fluorinated isophthalonitrile was prepared by the conventional Halex reaction (Scheme 1(a)) in 10 min, purified by flash chromatography, and a treated with tetrabutylammonium cyanide (TBACN) to produce TBAF in 5 min with a 60% yield based on KF (Scheme 5). The TBAF is also highly efficient in fluorination of heterocycles in 10-minute timescale which is applicable to various PET reagents. Thus, unlike TBAF from C<sub>6</sub>F<sub>6</sub>, this quick preparation of TBAF will provide a potential path to the synthesis of <sup>18</sup>F-labeled fluorinated radiotracers and radiopharmaceuticals.

substrate	Bu₄NF (eq.)	solvent	conditions	Products	yield(%)ª
PhCH₂Br	1.3-1.5	CD₃CN	-35°C, < 5 min	PhCH₂F	100
CH₃I	1.5	CD₃CN	-40°C, < 5 min	CH₃F	>90
CH <sub>3</sub> (CH <sub>2</sub> )9I	1.5	d <sub>8</sub> -THF	RT, < 5 min	CH <sub>3</sub> (CH <sub>2</sub> ) <sub>9</sub> F	40-50
Tfo OTf	4	CD₃CN or d₀-THF	RT, < 5 min	F O O O	>90
F <sub>3</sub> C CF <sub>3</sub>	1.3	CD₃CN	RT, < 2min	F F <sub>3</sub> C CF <sub>3</sub>	>95
PhCOCI	1	THF	-35°C, < 5 min	PhCFO	100

Table 1. Fluorination of various organic substrates using anhydrous TBAF.

\*Based on <sup>1</sup>H and <sup>19</sup>F NMR data

## Tetrabutylammonium tetra(tert-butyl alcohol) fluoride (TBAF·(HO<sup>t</sup>Bu)<sub>4</sub>)

Kim et al. reported the preparation of tetrabutylammonium tetra(tert-butyl alcohol) fluoride (TBAF·(HO'Bu)<sub>4</sub>) (Scheme 6(a)) (15). TBAF solvated by four tert-butyl alcohol molecules shows an unexpected stability such that after 9 months at room temperature, no observed decomposition of TBAF·(HO'Bu)<sub>4</sub> could be detected. The crystal structure of TBAF·(HO'Bu)<sub>4</sub> revealed that the highly symmetric structures of four tert-butanol molecules create four strong hydrogen bonds with  $F^-$  anion at 2.64(3)Å forming a bowl type structure (Scheme

6(c)). Within such a strong Hydrogen bond network, the crystalline material is no longer hygroscopic. By contrast, commercial TBAF·(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>3</sub> melts completely in 15 min in the atmosphere. TBAF·(HO'Bu)<sub>4</sub> can selectively fluorinate organomesylate groups in high yields.

In the mid-200s, there has been a significant development for carbon–fluorine (C-F) bond formation, as here we discussed two important nucleophilic fluorinating reagents, tetrabutylammonium fluoride (TBAF), and tetrabutylammonium tetra(*tert*-butyl alcohol) fluoride. Along with the development of fluorinating reagents, transition metal catalysts also



Scheme 6. (a) The preparation of TBAF•(HOtBu)4. (b) Fluorination of an organomesylate substrate. (c) X-ray crystal structure of TBAF•(HOtBu)4.

have been playing an important role to afford a variety of organofluorine compounds in the same years. We hope to review newly developed fluorinating reagents and transition metal catalysis for C-F bond formation in the next time.

### Acknowledgments

The work is initially taken in part from Ph. D. dissertation of the corresponding author at Stanford University, Department of Chemistry. The dissertation is under embargo for publication by UMI until December 2018. There is no related work by us on this subject previously submitted for publication, in press, or made publicly available otherwise. The manuscript is being submitted exclusively to the Journal of radiopharmaceuticals and molecular probes.

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