Direct heterobenzylic fluorination, difluorination and trifluoromethylthiolation with dibenzenesulfonamide derivatives†

Michael Meanwell, Bharani Shashank Adluri, Zheliang Yuan, Josiah Newton, Philippe Prevost, Matthew B. Nodwell, Chadron M. Friesen, Paul Schaffer, Rainer E. Martin and Robert Britton*

Introduction

In recent years considerable effort has been directed towards the development of new methods to selectively fluorinate C(sp²)–H or C(sp³)–H bonds in structurally complex molecules.† These efforts have been stimulated by the profound effect that fluorination can have on biological activity and strategic advantages manifest by late-stage C–H functionalization in medicinal and agrochemistry. For example, fluorination can significantly impact potency, selectivity, lipophilicity and membrane permeability of drug leads, and modulate the pKₐ of proximal heterocycles (e.g., Fig. 1). The characteristically strong C–F bond is also routinely exploited in medicinal chemistry as a replacement for C–H bonds and, in particular, a means to block oxidative metabolism (e.g., 3). Furthermore, fluorinated alkyl groups can serve as bioisosteres for more polar or less stable functionalities, and the replacement of a hydroxyl group with a fluorine atom is a common tactic. Likewise, the CF₂H group (H-bond donor) is a lipophilic bioisostere for alcohols or thiols and the CF₂R group can serve as a carbonyl or alkoxy group mimic. Considering that roughly 60% of FDA approved drugs include a nitrogen-containing heterocycle, the development of synthetic strategies that

Fig. 1 Heterobenzylic fluorides in drug discovery and strategies for their synthesis.
provide access to heterobenzylic fluorides is of particular interest and much success has been realized in trifluoromethylation of heterocycles. However, introduction of heterobenzylic monofluoralkyl or difluoralkyl groups remains largely reliant on cross coupling reactions or deoxyfluorination of heterobenzylic alcohols and carbonyls processes that require prior functionalization. As a notable exception, Baran has reported innate C(sp²)–H functionalization of heterocycles as a means to add each of the CHF₂, CH₂F, and CF₂CH₃ groups (e.g., 5–7) by employing the corresponding zinc sulfenate salts in Minisci-like radical addition processes. Likewise, the introduction of difluoroacetates, difluoroacetamides, and difluorophosphonates has been accomplished via transition metal catalysis or radical processes. Unfortunately, despite considerable advances in C(sp³)–H benzyllic mono- and difluorination, heterobenzylic C(sp³)–H fluorination or difluorination are largely unexplored owing to fundamental incompatibilities between common fluorine transfer reagents (e.g., N-fluorobenzenesulfinimide (NFSI)) and nucleophilic heterocycles. Towards this goal, Van Humbeck has very recently described the fluorination of several alkylheterocycles induced by simple electron transfer to Selectfluor. Previously, we reported the serendipitous finding that 2- and 4-alkylpyridines undergo pyridylic fluorination by reaction with the electrophilic fluorination agent NFSI, a process that involves the transient formation of a sulfonylepidynidium intermediate. Here, we demonstrate that activation by transient sulfonylation is general for a range of alkylheterocycles and can be extended to heterobenzylic fluorination and trifluoromethylation. Collectively, these convenient processes provide a platform for late-stage functionalization of drug leads and enable direct fluorination of alkylheterocycles for the purpose of radiotracer synthesis for positron emission tomography (PET) imaging.

### Results and discussion

#### Mono- and difluorination of 4-ethylpyridine and 4-alkyquinolines

While examining the scope of the pyridyl fluorination reaction depicted in Fig. 1 (11 → 12), we found that at elevated temperatures (>65 °C) small amounts of the corresponding difluoralkyl derivatives were formed and could be identified by a characteristic resonances at δ ~ 95 ppm in ¹⁹F NMR spectra recorded on crude reaction mixtures. These observations prompted us to investigate the pyridyl difluorination reaction as a complimentary process. As summarized in Table 1, heating a solution of 4-ethylpyridine in MeCN with an excess of NFSI afforded exclusively the monofluorinated adduct 15 at 60 °C (entry 1). Increasing the reaction temperature above 80 °C (in a microwave) provided a complex mixture of products that included the corresponding acetamide derived from displacement of fluoride by solvent (MeCN).

#### Table 1: Mono- and difluorination of ethylpyridine (14) and alkylquinolines 17 and 20

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Entry</th>
<th>Hetero aromatic</th>
<th>Solvent (conc. (M))</th>
<th>NFSI (equiv.)</th>
<th>Temp (°C)</th>
<th>Product (ratio)</th>
<th>% Yield</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>MeCN (0.1)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>15 : 16 (&gt;20 : 1)</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>MeCN (0.5)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>15 : 16 (1 : 1)</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>EtOAc (0.5)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>15 : 16 (2 : 3)</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>MeCN (0.1)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>18 : 19 (&gt;20 : 1)</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>EtOAc (0.5)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>18 : 19 (10 : 1)</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>MeCN (0.1)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>21 : 22 (1 : 3)</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>MeCN (0.3)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>21 : 22 (1 : 8)</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>MeCN (0.5)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>21 : 22 (1 : 10)</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Ratio of mono- and difluorinated products determined by analysis of crude ¹H and ¹⁹F NMR spectra. Combined isolated yield of mono- and difluorinated products. ¹ 1.1 equiv. of Li₂CO₃. ² 5 equiv. of Li₂CO₃.
and after 36 h at 75 °C with a large excess of NFSI only ~7% of the difluoroethyl quinoline 19 was produced (entry 5). Considering the importance of both the mono- and difluoromethyl groups as bioisosteres, we also investigated the fluorination of 4-methyl quinoline (20) and were surprised to find that difluorination predominated even at low conversion, suggesting that here the second fluorination event is a more facile process (entry 6). Increasing the equivalents of NFSI and reaction temperature (entry 7) as well as concentration (entry 8) ultimately provided the difluoromethyl quinoline 22 in excellent yield while further increases in reaction temperature, time or equivalents of NFSI failed to promote trifluorination on this or any other substrate. In both the mono- and difluorination of alkylquinolines 17 and 20, phenylsulfonyl fluoride was observed as a by-product, suggesting that these reactions rely on activation of quinoline through transient sulfonation by NFSI. It is notable that this approach to heterobenzylic fluorination is complimentary to the Minisci-like radical reactions described by Baran, which favour trifluoromethylation at C7 or difluoromethylation at C2 of quinolines.

**Scope of heterobenzylic mono- and difluorination**

Encouraged by the susceptibility of 4-alkylquinolines 17 and 20 to undergo mono- or difluorination, we explored the scope of these reactions with a broader range of heterocycles including pyridines, isoquinolines, pyrimidines, quinazolines and purines. As summarized in Fig. 2, by simply modifying the equivalents of reagent and temperature, in several cases mono- or difluorination could be effected selectively. For example, both mono- and difluoroalkyl pyridines, quinazolines and purines could be produced in good yield following this straightforward procedure (e.g., 23/42, 30/44, 31/43 and 32/45). As noted above, alkylquinolines were reluctant to difluorinate but were monofluorinated in excellent yield providing 24 and 25. Conversely, a series of methylquinolines were transformed directly into the corresponding difluoromethylquinolines 33–39 in good yield. In addition to the obvious compatibility with azaheterocycles, substituted aromatics (e.g., 36–41), esters (e.g., 25) and amides (e.g., 24) were well tolerated. It is notable that both 2,4-dimethylquinoline and 2,4,6-trimethylpyridine failed to undergo fluorination (<5% yield) using our standard reaction conditions. Here, we postulate that steric hindrance from the adjacent alkyl group(s) impedes sulfonation of the heterocycle by NFSI and thus prevents fluorination. In several cases, complete separation of mono- and difluorinated products by flash column chromatography proved challenging. Thus, while purified product could be isolated this way, yields for these reactions were determined by analysis of NMR spectroscopic data using an internal standard.

**Sulfonyl transfer promotes heterobenzylic trifluoromethylthiolation**

Considering that sulfonyl transfer from NFSI is a key feature of this process (e.g., 48, Fig. 3), we examined a small...
collection of dibenzensulfonamide derivatives\textsuperscript{22} to explore their potential in the direct heterobenzylic functionalization of alkylquinazolines and purines. As depicted in Fig. 3, we found that both trifluoromethylthiolation (e.g., 49–51 and 53–55) and chlorination (e.g., 52) were facile processes. For example, 2- and 4-alkylquinazolines and 6-ethylpurines underwent heterobenzylic trifluoromethylthiolation using N-trifluoromethylidibenzensulfonamide (N(SCF\textsubscript{3})SI)\textsuperscript{22}. Surprisingly, we observed no competing heteroaryl trifluoromethylthiolation\textsuperscript{23} of quinazolines and purines, and attempts to effect the equivalent transformation using trifluoromethylthiopthalimide, an electrophilic trifluoromethylthiolation reagent,\textsuperscript{23} delivered none of the expected trifluoromethylthiolated products. This later result provides support for a mechanism involving activation by transient sulfonylation with dibenzensulfonamide derivatives. Again, 2,4-disubstituted quinazolines failed to provide any trifluoromethylthiolated product (e.g., 56 or 57) presumably due to steric hindrance impeding sulfonylation of the heterocycle by N(SCF\textsubscript{3})SI. Notably, this heterobenzylic trifluoromethylthiolation\textsuperscript{24} reaction offers a unique opportunity to significantly alter lipophilicity (Hansch hydrophobicity parameter $\pi = 1.44$)\textsuperscript{25} and pK\textsubscript{a} of a drug lead.

**Heterobenzylic functionalization and \textsuperscript{18}F-fluorination of drug leads**

In an effort to further demonstrate the utility of this suite of transformations, we explored the mono-fluorination, difluorination and trifluoromethylthiolation of quazodine (58),\textsuperscript{26} a cardiac stimulant. As depicted in Scheme 1, each of these transformations proceeded smoothly and provided access to the unique quazodine derivatives 59–61 in good to excellent yield. To gauge the impact of heterobenzylic functionalization on relevant physiochemical properties, the pK\textsubscript{a} distribution coefficient (log D) at pH 7.4 and aqueous solubility of each compound was measured. As summarized in Scheme 1, these transformations significantly affected each property and provide a straightforward means to modulate lipophilicity and basicity. Likewise, the peracetate 63 of the cytotoxic purine nucleoside analogue 62\textsuperscript{26} could be mono- or difluorinated, affording the analogues 64 or 65, respectively, in good yield. Finally, we explored the direct \textsuperscript{18}F-fluorination of the annulated pyridine 66 to demonstrate the additional utility of this transformation for rapidly generating radiotracers for positron emission tomography (PET) imaging. We have previously exploited [\textsuperscript{18}F]NFSI\textsuperscript{27} in the direct radiofluorination of branched aliphatic amino acids\textsuperscript{28} and were pleased to find that simply heating a solution of the annulated pyridine 66 and [\textsuperscript{18}F]NFSI in MeCN at 75 °C for 40 min provided the \textsuperscript{18}F-labelled derivative 67 in good radiochemical conversion (RCC) and yield (RCY). This streamlined heterobenzylic \textsuperscript{18}F-fluorination does not rely on prior functionalization or sensitive reagents and thus offers certain advantages for the rapid generation of radiotracers for PET imaging.

**Conclusions**

In summary, we demonstrate that transient sulfonylation of a range of nitrogen-containing heterocycles enables direct heterobenzylic mono or difluorination using the bench stable electrophilic fluorinating agent NFSI or radiofluorination with [\textsuperscript{18}F]NFSI. Taking advantage of this heterocycle activation process, both trifluoromethylthiolation and chlorination could also be achieved using the corresponding dibenzensulfonamide derivatives. This collection of late-stage transformations should enable the rapid tuning of pK\textsubscript{a} and lipophilicity of heterocycle-containing drug leads and provides a complimentary means to incorporate pharmaceutically relevant biosistores (e.g., –CHF\textsubscript{2}, –CF\textsubscript{3}R and –CH(SCF\textsubscript{3})R) as well as a method to rapidly generate \textsuperscript{18}F-labelled imaging agents for PET imaging.

**Experimental**

**General procedure for heterobenzylic mono-fluorination**

To a solution of substrate in CH\textsubscript{3}CN (0.1–0.25 M substrate) was added N-fluorobenzensulfonimide (NFSI) (3.0 equiv.) and Li\textsubscript{2}CO\textsubscript{3} (1.1 equiv.). The resulting reaction mixture was then heated to 65 °C and maintained at this temperature for 18–24 h. The reaction mixture was cooled, diluted with CH\textsubscript{3}Cl\textsubscript{2} and...
washed with saturated NaHCO₃ solution. The organic layer was dried (MgSO₄), concentrated and the crude reaction product was purified by column chromatography on silica gel.

**General procedure for heterobenzylic difluorination**

To a solution of substrate in CH₃CN (0.25–0.50 M substrate) was added N-fluorobenzenesulfonylimide (NFSI) (5.0 equiv.) and Li₂CO₃ (1.1 equiv.). The resulting reaction mixture was then either heated to 75 °C and maintained at this temperature for 48 h or heated to 125 °C and maintained at this temperature for 1 h in a microwave reactor. The reaction mixture was then cooled, diluted with CH₂Cl₂ and washed with saturated NaHCO₃ solution. The organic layer was dried (MgSO₄), concentrated and the crude reaction product was purified by column chromatography on silica gel.

**General procedure for heterobenzylic trifluoromethylthiolation**

To a solution of substrate in CH₃CN (0.25–0.50 M substrate) was added N-trifluoromethylthiobenzenesulfonimide (2.4 equiv.) and Li₂CO₃ (1.1 equiv.). The resulting reaction mixture was then either heated to 75 °C and maintained at this temperature for 48 h or heated to 125 °C and maintained at this temperature for 1 h in a microwave reactor. The reaction mixture was then cooled, diluted with CH₂Cl₂ and washed with saturated NaHCO₃ solution. The organic layer was dried (MgSO₄), concentrated and the crude reaction product was purified by column chromatography on silica gel.

**Conflicts of interest**

There are no conflicts to declare.

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**References**


For the hydrotrifluoromethylthiolation of \( \sigma \)-heteroaryl-\( \sigma \)-diazoo esters, see: Q. Lefebvre, E. Fava, P. Nikolaienko and M. Rueping, Chem. Commun., 2014, 50, 6617.

