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Direct C(sp³)–H Trifluoromethylation of Unactivated Alkanes Enabled by Multifunctional Trifluoromethyl Copper Complexes

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Abstract: Despite the extensive development in trifluoromethylation, introduction of a trifluoromethyl group into an unactivated C(sp3)-H bond is significantly challenging. Herein, we report the development of a mild and operationally simple C(sp3)-H trifluoromethylation method for unactivated alkanes utilizing a bench-stable Cu(III) complex, bpyCu(CF₃)₃, as a visible-light photo-induced reaction initiator, a trifluoromethyl radical source as a hydrogen atom transfer reagent, and a trifluoromethyl anion source for functionalization. The reaction was initiated by reactive electrophilic carbon-centered CF₃ radical generation from photo-induced homolytic cleavage of bpyCu(CF₃)₃, which performs hydrogen abstraction from an unactivated C(sp³)–H bond. Comprehensive mechanistic investigations based on a combination of experimental and computational methods suggested that C-CF₃ bond formation was enabled by radical-polar crossover and ionic coupling between the resulting carbocation intermediate and the anionic CF₃ source. The newly developed reaction can be applied to various methylene selective trifluoromethylation reactions including direct, late-stage trifluoromethylation of natural products and bioactive molecules.

Introduction

The introduction of a trifluoromethyl group to organic molecules is important for metabolic stability, lipophilicity, and hydrophobicity. Therefore, trifluoromethylation has attracted significant attention in the field of material, pharmaceutical, and agricultural chemistry to conveniently modulate the polarity, solubility, and chemical reactivity of desired compounds.^[1] Various synthetic methods to form C–CF₃ bonds have been developed using nucleophilic,^[2] electrophilic,^[3] or radical^[4] trifluoromethyl sources.

Direct formation of C–CF₃ bonds via C–H activation is ideal for trifluoromethylation in consideration of atom- and stepefficiencies. C(sp²)–H trifluoromethylation reactions have been extensively developed to introduce trifluoromethyl groups on arenes,^[5] heteroarenes,^[6] olefins,^[7] and aldehydes.^[8] Although C(sp²)–H trifluoromethylation has been significantly investigated, very few examples of C(sp³)–H trifluoromethylation have been reported, employing a directing group,^[9] and being only applicable to relatively more activated C(sp³)–H bonds such as αcarbonyl,^[10] α-nitrogen,^[11] and benzylic C–H bonds (Scheme 1a).^[12] Therefore, direct C(sp³)–H trifluoromethylation of unactivated alkanes under mild conditions is highly desired to facilitate a streamlined synthesis of various trifluoromethylated compounds, obviating the need for pre-functionalization. During the preparation of this manuscript, MacMillan and co-workers reported trifluoromethylation of aliphatic $C(sp^3)$ –H bonds combining decatungstate photocatalysis and copper catalysis by using the Togni reagent.^[13] The elegant dual catalysis enabled the direct C–CF₃ bond formation at aliphatic and benzylic C(sp³)–H bonds.











Scheme 1. Undirected C(sp³)–CF₃ trifluoromethylation via C(sp³)–H activation.

Considering a novel strategy for the direct trifluoromethylation of normal $C(sp^3)$ –H bonds, we were inspired by the recently highlighted bpyM(CF₃)_x (M = Cu, Zn; bpy = 2,2'-bipyridine) complexes^[8, 9b, 14] due to their exceptional reactivity

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RESEARCH ARTICLE

toward benzylic C(sp³)-CF₃ trifluoromethylation (Scheme 1b). Li and co-workers introduced copper-catalyzed benzylic C(sp3)-H trifluoromethylation using bpyZn(CF₃)₂ as the anionic trifluoromethyl source and N-fluorobenzenesulfonimide (NFSI) or Selectfluor as the oxidant and hydrogen atom transfer (HAT) reagent precursor.^[12b] Liu and Cheng trifluoromethylated benzylic C(sp³)-H bond by combining bpyCu(CF₃)₃ 1a and Zn(Me)₂ to activate 1a to bpyCu(II)(CF₃)₂ with the generation of MeCF₃.^[12c] Cook and co-workers reported the trifluoromethylation of benzylic C(sp³)-H with 1a using persulfate, silane, and acid in acetone/water.^[12a] UV-irradiation induces homolysis of 1a to form the active $bpyCu(II)(CF_3)_2$ and CF_3 radical, while the sulfate radical anion performs the HAT from the benzylic C-H bond, generating the benzyl radical which is recombined with bpyCu(II)(CF₃)₂, followed by reductive elimination, for the desired trifluoromethylation. Especially, silane is required to capture the CF₃ radical to control the reactivity.

The ingenious strategy developed by Cook led us to consider a different strategy to functionalize unactivated C(sp³)-H bonds in order to expand the scope from benzylic C(sp³)-H bonds. Instead of using an externally added persulfate as the HAT reagent and trapping the reactive CF₃ radical with a silane to control the reactivity, we envisioned direct utilization of the highly reactive CF₃ radical without using an external HAT reagent. Based on the bond-dissociation energy (BDE) of fluoroform (106 kcal/mol),^[15] the CF₃ radical is hypothesized to perform the HAT from unactivated C(sp³)-H bonds of alkanes to generate alkyl radicals, which can further undergo Cu-complex-mediated trifluoromethylation. Although the CF3 radical has been reported to perform the HAT from C-H bonds of various hydrocarbons to generate fluoroform,^[16] to the best of our knowledge, no C-H functionalization reaction utilizing the CF3 radical as the HAT reagent has been reported. Herein, a novel trifluoromethylation of unactivated C(sp3)-H bonds was achieved by photo-induced bpyCu(CF₃)₃ 1a based on the newly designed strategy (Scheme 1c). A series of control experiments and computational studies suggested that the reaction occurs via an ionic pathway enabled by an oxidative radical-polar crossover with the aid of an Oxone additive. Notably, the bench-stable Cu complex 1a plays multiple roles of the photo-induced reaction initiator, trifluoromethyl radical source for HAT, and trifluoromethyl anion source, thus enabling direct trifluoromethylation of strong C(sp³)-H bonds under mild conditions.

Results and Discussion

Cyclohexane **2a** was chosen as a model hydrocarbon substrate to evaluate the feasibility of the designed strategy with **1a** (Table 1). When **2a** (5.0 equiv) was reacted with **1a** (1.0 equiv) in the presence of Oxone (3.0 equiv) in CH₃CN (0.5 mL), (trifluoromethyl)cyclohexane **3a** was produced in 93% yield under blue light irradiation for 3 h (entry 1). Reducing the amount of **2a** (1 or 3 equiv) resulted in diminished yield (50% and 73%, entries 2–3, respectively), and further increasing **2a** content showed quantitative yield (>96%, entries 4–5). Decreased yield was afforded without Oxone (16%, entry 6) and with less than 3.0 equiv of Oxone (39 or 70%, entries 7–8, respectively). Control experiments in the dark demonstrated the critical role of irradiation to produce **3a** (entry 9). Altering the light source to the near ultraviolet region (390 nm) was not effective (21%, entry 10). A lower yield was obtained when the reaction was conducted under air (63%, entry 11). Another oxidant including a persulfate salt, $(NH_4)_2S_2O_8$, resulted in a lower yield (60%, entry 12). Other solvents, except CH₃CN, afforded lower product yield (Table S1). The conditions reported by Cook were not effective to afford **3a** in good yield (14%, entry 13) likely because the HAT from silane to the generated sulfate radical anion is faster than that from a C(sp³)–H bond of **1a**, which has a higher BDE than a benzylic C(sp³)–H bond.^[12a]





Entry	Variation from the "standard conditions"	Yield 3a [%]
1 ^[b]	None	93
2	1.0 equiv 2a	50
3	3.0 equiv 2a	73
4	16.0 equiv 2a	>96
5	32.0 equiv 2a	>96
6 ^[c]	No Oxone	16
7	1.0 equiv Oxone	39
8	2.0 equiv Oxone	70
9	No light	N. D.
10	390 nm, instead of blue light	21
11	Under air in a closed vial	63
12	(NH ₄) ₂ S ₂ O ₈ , instead of Oxone	60
13 ^[d]	Cook conditions ^[12a]	14

[a] Yields were determined by GC analysis using hexafluorobenzene as an internal standard. [b] Reaction conditions: **2a** (0.25 mmol, 5.0 equiv), **1a** (0.050 mmol, 1.0 equiv), Oxone (0.15 mmol, 3.0 equiv), and CH₃CN (0.5 mL) under 40 W blue LED irradiation with fan cooling (30±5 °C) for 3 h. [c] 12 h. [d] Reaction conditions: **2a** (0.10 mmol, 2.0 equiv), **1a** (0.05 mmol, 1.0 equiv), (NH₄)₂S₂O₈ (0.15 mmol, 3.0 equiv), ⁱPr₃SiH (0.15 mmol, 3.0 equiv), trifluoroacetic acid (0.40 mmol, 8.0 equiv), acetone (0.3 mL), and water (0.3 mL) under 43 W 370 nm LED irradiation with fan cooling (30±5 °C) for 18 h. N. D. = not detected.

Under optimized conditions, the reactivity of various $Cu(III)-CF_3$ complexes bearing other *N*,*N*-bidentate ligands, bipyridines, and phenanthrolines, were investigated (Table 2). Among the bipyridine ligands tested, the simplest bipyridine performed best. Introduction of any substituent on the *ortho*, *meta*, or *para* positions to modify the steric and electronic characters of the ligand resulted in lower product yield (**1b–1h**). No clear correlation between electronic and steric characters of the ligand

RESEARCH ARTICLE

and reaction outcome were observed. The absorption of the Cu(III) complexes was also examined, but no specific correlations between the absorptions and λ_{max} of the screened Cu complexes and the reaction yields were observed (Figure S1–5).

Table 2. Reactivity of various copper complexes.[a]



[a] Reaction conditions: **2a** (0.25 mmol, 5.0 equiv), **1** (0.050 mmol, 1.0 equiv), Oxone (0.15 mmol, 3.0 equiv), and CH₃CN (0.5 mL) under 40 W blue LED irradiation with fan cooling (30 ± 5 °C) for 12 h; Yields were determined by GC analysis using hexafluorobenzene as an internal standard.

After investigating the reaction conditions, various hydrocarbon substrates were investigated to evaluate the generality of the newly developed photo-induced C–H trifluoromethylation protocol (Table 3). Although the conditions using anhydrous acetonitrile solvent performed best for **2a**, co-solvent conditions with water (CH₃CN/H₂O, 5:1 (v/v)) using 6.0 equiv hydrocarbon substrates were more effective for other C–H substrates, presumably due to increased solubility of Oxone. For instance, **2c** produced (trifluoromethyl)cycloheptane **3c** in 10% yield under the conditions without water. With the co-solvent

conditions with water, the yield was dramatically increased to 84%, although 10% of cycloheptanone 4c was observed as the byproduct. Cyclic alkanes with varied ring sizes were efficiently converted to the corresponding trifluoromethylated products (3a-3e). The reactions with some substrates (3e, 3i, 3l, 3m, 3g, 3u) proceeded smoothly in hexafluoroisopropanol (HFIP) instead of CH₃CN. For example, cyclododecane 3e furnished the desired product in 30% yield when HFIP was used as the solvent, whereas unidentified complex mixtures were obtained in CH₃CN solvent. Linear alkanes, including hexane (2f) and pentane (2g), readily underwent trifluoromethylation in very good yields with a preponderance on methylene positions (76 and 87% yields; 88 and 85% methylene selectivity, respectively), likely due to the enhanced stability of methylene radicals compared to primary methyl radicals. Benzylic C-H bonds in toluene could also be functionalized, but in a low yield (39%, 3h) due to competing CF₃ radical addition to the aryl ring, which was suppressed when silane was used as a trapping reagent under Cook's conditions.^[12a] Increased steric hindrance around the arene ring inhibited the undesired addition, affording the desired product in excellent yield (91%, 3i). Carboxylic acids (2j and 2k), an ester (2I), and an amide (2m) were also tolerated in this transformation. 1-Propanoic acid (2j) and methyl propanoate (2l) mostly underwent a-methylene C-H trifluoromethylation (47 and 71% yields; 85 and 82% a-selectivity, respectively), consistently demonstrating preference for the methylene C-H bond over terminal methyl C-H bond. Propanamide (2m) afforded the α methylene C-H trifluoromethylated product (37%, 3m) without significant byproduct formation. With 1-butanoic acid (2k), the more hydric β-methylene position was preferred over the αmethylene C-H bond (62% yield; 62% β-selectivity, 3k). Other hydrocarbons containing а carbonyl group were trifluoromethylated with satisfactory yields, favoring functionalization on the more electron-rich C-H bonds due to the preference of the electrophilic CF₃ radical for HAT (3n-3q). Cyclic ketones including cyclopentanone (2n) and cyclohexanone (2o) afforded trifluoromethylated products favoring the β-methylene C-H position (58 and 80% yields; 79 and 73% β-selectivity, respectively). Especially, the linear carbonyl 4-heptanone (2p) was exclusively trifluoromethylated at the β-position of the carbonyl group rather than the α -methylene or γ -methyl position (88%, **3p**). The β -ketoester was also compatible with a major β trifluoromethylation on the carbonyl group (48%, 3a). Unfortunately, reactions using aliphatic amines such as N-Bocpyrrolidine and N-acetylpyrrolidine were not compatible, producing messy unidentifiable compounds.

RESEARCH ARTICLE

Table 3. Substrate scope of unactivated C(sp³)-H trifluoromethylation.^[a]



[a] Reaction conditions: **2** (0.60 mmol, 6.0 equiv), **1a** (0.10 mmol, 1.0 equiv), Oxone (0.30 mmol, 3.0 equiv), CH₃CN (1.0 mL), and H₂O (0.2 mL) under 40 W blue LED irradiation with fan cooling (30±5 °C) for 3 h; Yields and selectivities (%) were determined by ¹⁹F NMR using fluorobenzene as an internal standard unless otherwise noted. [b] Reaction conditions: **2a** (0.25 mmol, 5.0 equiv), **1a** (0.050 mmol, 1.0 equiv), Oxone (0.15 mmol, 3.0 equiv), and CH₃CN (0.5 mL) under 40 W blue LED irradiation with fan cooling (30±5 °C) for 3 h; Yields were determined by GC analysis using hexafluorobenzene as internal standard. [c] HFIP (2.0 mL) as a solvent. [d] Isolated yield. [e] **2w** (0.30 mmol, 3.0 equiv).

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Trifluoromethyl group introduction can reportedly regulate bioactivity.^[1b] Previously studied late-stage C-H trifluoromethylation mainly focused on $C(sp^2)-H^{[6a, 17]}$ and weak C(sp³)-H bonds.^[12a, 12b, 13] The applicability of the newly developed reaction was further examined with direct C(sp³)-H trifluoromethylations of well-known natural products and bioactive molecule derivatives (Table 3). Eucalyptol, which has antiinflammatory and antioxidant effects,^[18] was smoothly trifluoromethylated with high regio- and diastereo-selectivities at the less sterically hindered position (41%, 3r). Other bicyclic terpenoids such as norcamphor, the analog of the naturally occurring terpenoid camphor, and fenchone, which exhibits antifungal activity,^[19] also delivered the desired C-H trifluoromethylated products (47%, 3s and 31%, 3t). Additionally, cubane core, whose derivatives have not been а trifluoromethylated, afforded 3u in moderate yield (14%). Ambroxide, a naturally occurring terpenoid that is commonly used in the fragrance industry,^[20] was trifluoromethylated to furnish a major 2-functionalized regioisomer albeit with low efficiency (20%, 3v). It should be noted that trifluoromethylation was conducted in the sterically less-hindered cyclohexyl ring, but not at the α-oxy position, exhibiting an unusual trend compared to other radicalbased C-H functionalization reactions.^[21] Sclareolide, an antifungal plant compound,[22] showed a similar selectivity to ambroxide with higher yield (38%, 3w). Finally, camphoric acid, which is often used as a precursor of bioactive molecules,^[23] was used as a dimethyl ester derivative (2x) and was selectively trifluoromethylated at the least sterically hindered methylene position in a moderate yield (32%, 3x). These results demonstrated the potential applicability of the developed reaction for late-stage, direct C-H trifluoromethylation of functional molecules with reasonable regio- and diastereo-selectivities favoring less-sterically hindered positions.

To determine the underlying reaction mechanism, several control experiments and computational studies were conducted. The intermediary of the CF₃ radical in the reaction was first examined (Table 4a). The liberation of the CF₃ radical from **1a** is experimentally and computationally well-documented.^[12a, 14a, 14b] In agreement with the previous reports, introduction of a radical scavenger, TEMPO (2,2,6,6-tetramethylpiperidine-*N*-oxyl radical) or BHT (2,6-di-*tert*-butyl-4-methylphenol), suppressed the trifluoromethylation of **2a**, with simultaneous formation of the **TEMPO–CF**₃ adduct in 94% yield, clearly indicating that CF₃ radical formation is involved in the product-forming pathway.

Next, deuterium labelling experiments using deuterated cyclohexane (**2a-d**₁₂) and acetonitrile were conducted to determine the applicability of the generated CF₃ radical as the HAT reagent against the aliphatic C–H bonds (Table 4b). A sulfate radical, which can be generated from Oxone additive, was also reported as a HAT reagent that can activate C–H bonds.^[8, 12a, 12c] However, as the reaction proceeded without Oxone, albeit in a lower yield (16%, Table 1, entry 6), it is unlikely that the HAT mediated by the sulfate radical is the major C–H activating process. With **2a** and **2a-d**₁₂ as C–H substrates in a CD₃CN solvent, fluoroforms (HCF₃, >34% and DCF₃, >12%) were observed by ¹⁹F NMR spectroscopy (entries 1–2). It should be

noted that no DCF₃ was detected in the reaction with **2a** in CD₃CN indicating the reaction between a trifluoromethyl source and CD₃CN is not facile. Without cyclohexane, DCF₃ was not observed from the reaction between **1a** and CD₃CN, confirming that hydrogen or deuterium in the generated fluoroforms mainly originated from cyclohexane (entry 3). When the reaction was performed with **2a-d**₁₂ in CH₃CN, DCF₃ (>8%) was observed along with a non-negligible amount of HCF₃ (>12%, entry 4). This may originate from HAT from CH₃CN because the reaction between **1a** and CH₃CN without cyclohexane generated HCF₃ (>40%, entry 5). These results clearly indicate that the trifluoromethyl radical serves as the HAT reagent in the reaction.

Table 4. Control experiments regarding the CF_3 radical as a HAT reagent.



2	2a-d ₁₂	CD ₃ CN	1/	>9	>12
3	-	CD ₃ CN	-	>5	N. D.
4	2a-d ₁₂	CH ₃ CN	12	>12	>8
5	-	CH ₃ CN	-	>40	-

[a] Yields determined by GC analysis using hexafluorobenzene as an internal standard.
 [b] Yields determined by ¹⁹F NMR analysis using fluorobenzene as an internal standard.
 [c] Product was confirmed by HRMS.
 [d] NMR tube reactions were performed. The amount of dissolved gaseous fluoroform was only determined by ¹⁹F NMR analysis using fluorobenzene as an internal standard.
 [e] **2a-d**₁₂ (99.5 D atom%); CD₃CN (99.8 D atom%). N. D. = not detected.

After identification of the CF₃ radical as the HAT reagent, three product forming pathways were proposed; (1) direct coupling between the alkyl and CF₃ radicals, (2) C–CF₃ reductive elimination via a Cu(III)–alkyl complex similar to recent reports on **1a**-mediated trifluoromethylation reactions,^[12a, 12c, 14a, 14c] and (3) radical-polar crossover involving ionic coupling between an alkyl cation and trifluoromethyl anion. The first possibility, involving the selective coupling of two transient radical species, is unlikely because no homodimerization product was observed with or without Oxone. This indicates that the free alkyl radical species may not be sufficiently generated for the radical-radical coupling reaction. Secondly, reductive elimination is a viable pathway for C–CF₃ bond formation with **1a** as the trifluoromethylating reagent.

RESEARCH ARTICLE

A Cu(II) complex has been proposed to trap a carbon-centered radical, subsequently forming the desired C–CF₃ bond via concerted reductive elimination.^[12a, 12c, 14a, 14c] Recently, anionic or neutral alkyl-Cu^{III}(CF₃)_x complexes were investigated to disclose that C(sp³)–CF₃ bonds can be formed via concerted reductive elimination from a high-valent copper species.^[24] Lastly, a radical-polar crossover pathway for the ionic coupling was proposed. In this case, alkyl radical, which has low oxidation potential (E°_{calc}(**Cy-rad/Cy-cat**) = +0.46 V), is oxidized to generate an alkyl cation, followed by ionic coupling with a CF₃ anion for bond formation. C–X (X = F, CF₃) bonds can be formed via electron transfer from the alkyl radical to Cu^{II}–X.^[14d, 25] We hypothesized that the oxidant can accelerate electron transfer from the alkyl radical, facilitating the radical-polar crossover pathway.

To determine the most viable pathway, densityfunctional theory (DFT) studies of the two proposed pathways were conducted with 2a as model substrate at the B3LYP-D3/6-311++G**/SDD level of theory (Figure 1). Time-dependent density functional theory (TD-DFT) computations on complex 1a revealed relevant singlet transitions in the blue light region, giving rise to 1a* (Figure S15). This complex would then undergo intersystem crossing (ISC), traversing the triplet excited ³1a to release CF₃ radical CF₃-rad and ²I, as previously reported by the Cook group.^[14a] Beginning with this species, HAT of CF₃-rad against cyclohexane 2a is facile with a barrier of only 10.9 kcal/mol. This is reasonable considering the relative instability of the CF₃ radical and its electrophilic nature. After the HAT event, the reaction pathway could follow one of the two aforementioned mechanisms. The reductive elimination pathway (orange trace) involving the Cy-Cu(III) complex ¹II exhibited an overall barrier of 20.8 kcal/mol. All attempts to find alternative pathways of reductive elimination from ¹II with a lower energy barrier which can compete with the oxidative pathway (vide infra) were unsuccessful. The bisulfate ligand-assisted reductive elimination process, as proposed by the Cook group, has a computed activation barrier of 14.8 kcal/mol (Figure S14).[14a]



Figure 1. Computational results following the proposed reaction pathway.

RESEARCH ARTICLE

In contrast, the DFT computation suggested that chemical oxidation of ²I with Oxone affords a Cu(III)-bisulfate species ¹IV (blue trace), located at -35.1 kcal/mol. This is due to the strong oxidation power of Oxone, providing results analogous to previous work by the Cook group where persulfate served as the oxidant to produce the identical Cu species $(E^{\circ}_{calc}[^{2}I/^{1}IV] =$ +0.98 V, E°(Oxone) = +1.81 V).^[14a] With this Cu species, singleelectron oxidation of cyclohexyl radical was modeled using the Marcus theory, and the energy barrier of the electron transfer was 5.3 kcal/mol. The exotherm of the oxidation was -5.0 kcal/mol, indicating a good match in terms of redox potentials (E°calc[¹IV/²IVanion] = +0.67 V, $E^{\circ}_{calc}(Cy-rad/Cy-cat) = +0.46$ V). The generated transient Cu(II) complex ²IV-anion will undergo structural rearrangement to liberate a trifluoromethyl anion, which can spontaneously recombine with the cyclohexyl cation Cy-cat to furnish the desired product with a strong driving force of 67.8 kcal/mol. It should be noted that the oxidation of other Cu species, including ¹II, could eventually generate the ²IV-anion and Cy-cat. Overall, for unactivated alkanes, the activation barrier was much lower for the radical-polar crossover pathway (5.3 kcal/mol) compared to the reductive elimination pathway (20.8 kcal/mol), accounting for the improved reaction efficiency with an oxidant. At the current stage, we cannot rule out another pathway leading to the key intermediates, ²IV-anion and Cy-cat, which is the direct single electron transfer between Cy-rad and Oxone to produce Cy-cat. Subsequent association of the bisulfate anion may lead to the formation of the identical key intermediates (blue trace via ²I + Cy-cat).

Based on the computational study, further experiments were performed to verify the proposed mechanism. First, the kinetic isotope effect (KIE) was measured using 2a and 2a-d₁₂ to elucidate the rate-determining step (Scheme 2). Primary KIE values of 4.2 (parallel reaction) and 5.2 (intermolecular competition) were obtained, clearly indicating that the HAT step is rate-determining, in good accordance with the DFT studies. If the reductive elimination were the major product forming pathway, a primary KIE would not be observed as the reductive elimination should be the rate-determining step (Figure 1). Besides, as the only masses of the products obtained from the intermolecular competition experiment were m/z 152.1 (3a) and 163.2 (3a-d₁₁), we could conclude that the C-H cleavage is irreversible. This phenomenon is in good agreement with our DFT-computed energy profile where reverse hydrogen atom transfer possesses a higher barrier compared to the forward reactions.



Scheme 2. H/D kinetic isotope effect.

Secondly, we attempted to trap an alkyl cation intermediate that could arise from the radical-polar crossover pathway (Table 5). From Table 1, the standard reaction with 2a under anhydrous conditions produced 3a without significant byproduct production (entry 1). Upon water addition, a significant amount of cyclohexanone 4a (14%) was observed, which can be generated from the reaction between the cyclohexyl cation and water to furnish cyclohexanol, followed by subsequent oxidation to form the ketone (entry 2). Increased water contents facilitated the formation of 4a (20%, entry 3). Without Oxone, no 4a was generated despite the existence of water (entry 4). Cycloheptane 2c also produced 3c in a decreased yield (25%) with increased cycloheptanone by-product 4c (16%) under the co-solvent conditions of increased amount of water (CH₃CN/H₂O, 1:1 (v/v)). This clearly suggested that a carbocation is generated under the reaction conditions. It has been reported that a persulfate can be homolytically cleaved via UV irradiation, acting as a HAT reagent.^[12a. 26] However, under the reaction conditions without 1a, neither oxidation nor dimerized products were observed, indicating that Oxone itself cannot perform the HAT from 2a under the blue light irradiation conditions used herein (entry 5).

In summary, driven by the photo irradiation of **1a**, the homolytically cleaved CF₃ radical conducts the HAT from a C(sp³)–H bond of alkane substrate, as experimentally supported by trapping CF₃ radical and detection of fluoroform HCF₃. Oxone dramatically increased the reaction efficiency by oxidizing the resulting Cu(II) complex ²I to Cu(III) ¹IV which can oxidize the alkyl radical to form an alkyl cation. Formation of **4a** in presence of water supports the existence of an alkyl cation. The produced anionic Cu(II) complex ²IV-anion acts as a CF₃ anion source that undergoes ionic coupling with the alkyl cation to form the C(sp³)– CF₃ bond.

Table 5. Oxidation product detection.[a]

2a (5 equiv)	1a (1 equiv) Oxone (3 equiv) CH ₃ CN/H ₂ O (5:1 (v/v)) rt, 3 h, Blue LED 3a	CF ₃ +	George Contraction of the second seco
Entry	Variation from the "standard conditions"	Yield 3a [%]	Yield 4a [%]
1	No water	93	N. D.
2	None	63	14
3	CH ₃ CN/H ₂ O (1:1 (v/v))	19	20
4	No Oxone	31	N. D.
Б	No 12		

[a] Yields determined by GC analysis using hexafluorobenzene as an internal standard.

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Conclusion

In conclusion, a novel C(sp³)-H trifluoromethylation was developed using a photo-induced high-valent Cu-CF₃ complex. Diverse unactivated alkanes including bioactive molecules were trifluoromethylated using bench-stable $bpyCu(CF_3)_3$ 1a under mild reaction conditions, favoring the methylene and lesssterically hindered C(sp3)-H bonds. The experimental and computational mechanistic studies suggested that the reaction proceeds via the CF₃ radical-mediated HAT reaction to activate C(sp³)-H bonds, followed by radical-polar crossover and ionic coupling. Notably, 1a performs multiple roles as the photoinduced reaction initiator, precursor of the CF₃ radical as a unique HAT reagent, and trifluoromethylating source. It is anticipated that the developed operatively simple reaction will have wide-scale late-stage, applications especially for single-step trifluoromethylation of functional molecules.

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Conflict of interest

[6]

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Keywords: C-H activation • copper • late-stage functionalization • radical-polar crossover • trifluoromethylation

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RESEARCH ARTICLE

Table of Contents



A photo-induced $C(sp^3)$ –H trifluoromethylation of alkanes is developed by employing bpyCu(CF₃)₃ as a multifunctional reagent; photo-induced reaction initiator, the precursor of hydrogen atom transfer reagent, and trifluoromethylating source. The operatively simple reaction enables the direct, late-stage trifluoromethylation of complex molecules under mild reaction conditions.