## 14

# FREE-RADICAL SUBSTITUTION

#### **MECHANISMS**

#### Free-Radical Mechanisms in General<sup>1</sup>

A free-radical process consists of at least two steps. The first step involves the *formation* of free radicals, usually by homolytic cleavage of bond, i.e., a cleavage in which each fragment retains one electron:

$$A - B \longrightarrow A \cdot + B \cdot$$

This is called an *initiation* step. It may happen spontaneously or may be induced by heat or light (see the discussion on p. 193), depending on the type of bond. Peroxides, including hydrogen peroxide, dialkyl, diacyl, and alkyl acyl peroxides, and peracids are the most common source of free radicals induced spontaneously or by heat, but other organic compounds with low-energy bonds, such as azo compounds, are also used. Molecules that are cleaved by light are most often chlorine, bromine, and various ketones (see Chapter 7). Radicals can also be formed in another way, by a one-electron transfer (loss or gain), e.g.,  $A^+ + e^- \rightarrow A^{\bullet}$ . One-electron transfers usually involve inorganic ions or electrochemical processes.

The second step involves the *destruction* of free radicals. This usually happens by a process opposite to the first, namely, a combination of two like or unlike radicals to form a new bond:<sup>2</sup>

$$A^{\bullet} + B^{\bullet} \longrightarrow A - B$$

This type of step is called *termination*, and it ends the reaction as far as these particular radicals are concerned.<sup>3</sup> However, it is not often that termination follows *directly* upon initiation. The reason is that most radicals are very reactive and will react with the first available species with which they come in contact. In the usual situation, in which the concentration of radicals is low, this is much more likely to be a molecule than another radical. When a radical (which has an odd number of electrons) reacts with a molecule

<sup>2</sup>For a review of the stereochemistry of this type of combination reaction, see Porter; Krebs *Top. Stereochem.* **1988**, *18*, 97-127.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>For books on free-radical mechanisms, see Nonhebel; Tedder; Walton Radicals; Cambridge University Press: Cambridge, 1979; Nonhebel; Walton Free-Radical Chemistry; Cambridge University Press: London, 1974; Huyser Free-Radical Chain Reactions; Wiley: New York, 1970; Pryor Free Radicals; McGraw-Hill: New York, 1966; For reviews, see Huyser, in McManus Organic Reactive Intermediates; Academic Press: New York, 1973, pp. 1-59; Lloyd, CHEMTECH 1971, 176-180, 371-381, 687-696, 1972, 182-188. For monographs on the use of free-radical reactions in synthesis, see Giese Radicals in Organic Synthesis: Formation of Carbon-Carbon Bonds; Pergamon: Elmsford, NY, 1986; Davies; Parrott Free Radicals in Organic Synthesis; Springer: New York, 1978. For reviews, see Curran Synthesis 1988, 417-439, 489-513; Ramaiah Tetrahedron 1987, 43, 3541-3676.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>Another type of termination is disproportionation (see p. 194).

(which has an even number), the total number of electrons in the products must be odd. The product in a particular step of this kind may be one particle, e.g.,

$$R \cdot + -C = C - \longrightarrow -C - \dot{C} -$$

in which case it may be another free radical; or it may consist of two particles, e.g.,

$$R^{\bullet} + R'H \longrightarrow RH + R'^{\bullet}$$

in which case one must be a molecule and one a free radical, but in any case a new radical is generated. This type of step is called propagation, since the newly formed radical can now react with another molecule and produce another radical, and so on, until two radicals do meet each other and terminate the sequence. The process just described is called a chain reaction, 4 and there may be hundreds or thousands of propagation steps between an initiation and a termination. Two other types of propagation reactions do not involve a molecule at all. These are (1) cleavage of a radical into, necessarily, a radical and a molecule and (2) rearrangement of one radical to another (see Chapter 18). When radicals are highly reactive, e.g., alkyl radicals, chains are long, since reactions occur with many molecules; but with radicals of low reactivity, e.g., aryl radicals, the radical may be unable to react with anything until it meets another radical, so that chains are short, or the reaction may be a nonchain process. In any particular chain process there is usually a wide variety of propagation and termination steps. Because of this, these reactions lead to many products and are often difficult to treat kinetically.5

The following are some general characteristics of free-radical reactions:

- 1. Reactions are fairly similar whether they are occurring in the vapor or liquid phase, though solvation of free radicals in solution does cause some differences.6
- 2. They are largely unaffected by the presence of acids or bases or by changes in the polarity of solvents, except that nonpolar solvents may suppress competing ionic reactions.
- 3. They are initiated or accelerated by typical free-radical sources, such as the peroxides referred to, or by light. In the latter case the concept of quantum yield applies (p. 247). Quantum yields can be quite high, e.g., 1000, if each quantum generates a long chain, or low, in the case of nonchain processes.
- 4. Their rates are decreased or the reactions are suppressed entirely by substances that scavenge free radicals, e.g., nitric oxide, molecular oxygen, or benzoquinone. These substances are called inhibitors.7

In this chapter are discussed free-radical substitution reactions. Free-radical additions to unsaturated compounds and rearrangements are discussed in Chapters 15 and 18, respectively. In addition, many of the oxidation-reduction reactions considered in Chapter 19 involve free-radical mechanisms. Several important types of free-radical reactions do not usually lead to reasonable yields of pure products and are not generally treated in this book. Among these are polymerizations and high-temperature pyrolyses.

For a discussion of radical chain reactions from a synthetic point of view, see Walling Tetrahedron 1985, 41, 3887. For a discussion of the kinetic aspects of radical chain reactions, see Huyser Free-Radical Chain Reactions, Ref. pp. 39-65.
 For a discussion, see Mayo J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1967, 89, 2654.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup>For a review of the action of inhibitors, see Denisov; Khudyakov Chem. Rev. 1987, 87, 1313-1357.

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## Free-Radical Substitution Mechanisms<sup>8</sup>

In a free-radical substitution reaction

$$\mathbf{R} - \mathbf{X} \longrightarrow \mathbf{R} - \mathbf{Y} \tag{1}$$

there must first be a cleavage of the substrate RX so that R• radicals are produced. This can happen by a spontaneous cleavage

$$\mathbf{R} \longrightarrow \mathbf{R}^{\bullet} + \mathbf{X}^{\bullet} \tag{2}$$

or it can be caused by light or heat, or, more often, there is no actual cleavage, but R• is produced by an abstraction

$$\mathbf{R} - \mathbf{X} + \mathbf{W} \cdot \longrightarrow \mathbf{R} \cdot + \mathbf{W} - \mathbf{X} \tag{3}$$

W• is produced by adding a compound, such as a peroxide, that spontaneously forms free radicals. Such a compound is called an *initiator*. Once R• is formed, it can go to product in two ways, by abstraction

$$\mathbf{R}^{\bullet} + \mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{W} \longrightarrow \mathbf{R} - \mathbf{Y} + \mathbf{W}^{\bullet} \tag{4}$$

or by coupling with another radical

$$\mathbf{R} \cdot + \mathbf{Y} \cdot \longrightarrow \mathbf{R} - \mathbf{Y} \tag{5}$$

In a reaction with a moderately long chain, much more of the product will be produced by abstraction (4) than by coupling (5). Cleavage steps like (2) have been called SH1 (H for homolytic), and abstraction steps like (3) and (4) have been called SH2; reactions can be classified as SH1 or SH2 on the basis of whether RX is converted to R by (2) or (3). Most chain substitution mechanisms follow the pattern (3), (4), (3), (4) . . . . Chains are long and reactions go well where both (3) and (4) are energetically favored (no worse that slightly endothermic, see pp. 683, 693). The IUPAC designation of a chain reaction that follows the pattern (3), (4) . . . is  $A_rD_R + A_RD_r$  (R stands for radical).

With certain radicals the transition state in an abstraction reaction has some polar character. For example, consider the abstraction of hydrogen from the methyl group of toluene by a bromine atom. Since bromine is more electronegative than carbon, it is reasonable to assume that in the transition state there is a separation of charge, with a partial negative charge on the halogen and a partial positive charge on the carbon:

Evidence for the polar character of the transition state is that electron-withdrawing groups in the para position of toluene (which would destabilize a positive charge) decrease the rate of hydrogen abstraction by bromine while electron-donating groups increase it. <sup>10</sup> However, as we might expect, substituents have a smaller effect here ( $p \approx -1.4$ ) than they do in reactions where a completely ionic intermediate is involved, e.g., the SN1 mechanism (see p. 344). Other evidence for polar transition states in radical abstraction reactions is mentioned on p. 685. For abstraction by radicals such as methyl or phenyl, polar effects are

For a review, see Poutsma, in Kochi Free Radicals, vol. 2; Wiley: New York, 1973, pp. 113-158.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup>Eliel, in Newman Steric Effects in Organic Chemistry; Wiley: New York, 1956, pp. 142-143. <sup>10</sup>For example, see Pearson; Martin J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1963, 85, 354, 3142; Kim; Choi; Kang J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1985, 107, 4234.

very small or completely absent. For example, rates of hydrogen abstraction from ringsubstituted toluenes by the methyl radical were relatively unaffected by the presence of electron-donating or electron-withdrawing substituents.<sup>11</sup> Those radicals (e.g., Br•) that have a tendency to abstract electron-rich hydrogen atoms are called *electrophilic radicals*.

When the reaction step  $R - X \rightarrow R^{\bullet}$  takes place at a chiral carbon, racemization is almost always observed because free radicals do not retain configuration. Exceptions to this rule are found at cyclopropyl substrates, where both inversion<sup>12</sup> and retention<sup>13</sup> of configuration have been reported, and in the reactions mentioned on p. 682.

#### Mechanisms at an Aromatic Substrate<sup>14</sup>

When R in reaction (1) is aromatic, the simple abstraction mechanism just discussed may be operating, especially in gas-phase reactions. However, mechanisms of this type cannot account for all reactions of aromatic substrates. In processes such as the following (see 4-18, 4-21, and 4-22):

$$Ar \cdot + ArH \longrightarrow Ar - Ar$$
 (6)

which occur in solution, the coupling of two rings cannot be explained on the basis of a simple abstraction

$$Ar \cdot + ArH \longrightarrow Ar - Ar + H \cdot$$
 (7)

since, as discussed on p. 683, abstraction of an entire group such as phenyl by a free radical is very unlikely. The products can be explained by a mechanism similar to that of electrophilic and nucleophilic aromatic substitution. In the first step, the radical attacks the ring in much the same way as would an electrophile or a nucleophile:

$$Ar \cdot + \bigcirc \longrightarrow \left[ \begin{array}{ccccc} H & Ar & H & Ar \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & \\ & & & \\ &$$

The intermediate is relatively stable because of the resonance. The reaction can terminate in three ways: by simple coupling, or by disproportionation

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup>For example, see Kalatzis; Williams J. Chem. Soc. B 1966, 1112; Pryor; Tonellato; Fuller; Jumonville J. Org. Chem. 1969, 34, 2018.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>12</sup>Altman; Nelson J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1969, 91, 5163.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>13</sup>Jacobus; Pensak Chem. Commun. 1969, 400.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>14</sup>For reviews, see Kobrina Russ. Chem. Rev. 1977, 46, 348-360; Perkins, in Kochi, Ref. 8, vol. 2, 231-271; Bolton; Williams, Adv. Free-Radical Chem. 1975, 5, 1-25; Nonhebel; Walton, Ref. 1, pp. 417-469; Minisci; Porta Adv. Heterocycl. Chem. 1974, 16, 123-180; Bass; Nababsing Adv. Free-Radical Chem. 1972, 4, 1-47; Hey Bull. Soc. Chim. Fr. 1968, 1591.

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or, if a species (R'•) is present which abstracts hydrogen, by abstraction 15

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
 & Ar \\
 & R' + R'H
\end{array}$$
(11)

2 is a partially hydrogenated quaterphenyl. Of course, the coupling need not be orthoortho, and other isomers can also be formed. Among the evidence for steps (9) and (10) was isolation of compounds of types 2 and 3,16 though normally under the reaction conditions dihydrobiphenyls like 3 are oxidized to the corresponding biphenyls. Other evidence for this mechanism is the detection of the intermediate 1 by CIDNP<sup>17</sup> and the absence of isotope effects, which would be expected if the rate-determining step were (7), which involves cleavage of the Ar—H bond. In the mechanism just given, the rate-determining step (8) does not involve loss of hydrogen. The reaction between aromatic rings and the OH• radical takes place by the same mechanism. A similar mechanism has been shown for substitution at some vinylic and acetylenic substrates, e.g.:<sup>18</sup>

$$-C = C - X \xrightarrow{R} - \dot{C} - C - X \xrightarrow{-X} - C = C - R$$

This is reminiscent of the nucleophilic tetrahedral mechanism at a vinylic carbon (p. 336)

## Neighboring-Group Assistance in Free-Radical Reactions

In a few cases it has been shown that cleavage steps (2) and abstraction steps (3) have been accelerated by the presence of neighboring groups. Photolytic halogenation (4-1) is a process that normally leads to mixtures of many products. However, bromination of carbon chains containing a bromine atom occurs with high regioselectivity. Bromination of alkyl bromides gave 84 to 94% substitution at the carbon adjacent to the bromine already in the molecule. 19 This result is especially surprising because, as we shall see (p. 685), positions close to a polar group such as bromine should actually be deactivated by the electron-withdrawing field effect

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>15</sup>1 can also be oxidized to the arene ArPh by atmospheric O<sub>2</sub>. For a discussion of the mechanism of this oxidation, see Narita; Tezuka J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1982, 104, 7316.

\*De Tar; Long J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1958, 80, 4742. See also Ref. 334.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>17</sup>Fahrenholtz; Trozzolo J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1972, 94, 282.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>18</sup>Russell; Ngoviwatchai Tetrahedron Lett. 1986, 27, 3479, and references cited therein.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>19</sup>Thaler J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1963, 85, 2607. See also Traynham; Hines J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1968, 90, 5208; Ucciani; Pierri; Naudet Bull. Soc. Chim. Fr. 1970, 791; Hargis J. Org. Chem. 1973, 38, 346.

of the bromine. The unusual regioselectivity is explained by a mechanism in which abstraction (3) is assisted by a neighboring bromine atom:<sup>20</sup>

$$Br^{\bullet} + R \xrightarrow{*} C \xrightarrow{-CC} CH_{2} \xrightarrow{-HBr} R \xrightarrow{-HBr} R \xrightarrow{-CC} CH_{2} \xrightarrow{Br_{1}} R \xrightarrow{-CC} CH_{2}$$

$$H \xrightarrow{Br} R \xrightarrow{-HBr} R \xrightarrow{-HBr} R \xrightarrow{-CC} CH_{2} \xrightarrow{Br_{1}} R \xrightarrow{-CC} CH_{2}$$

In the normal mechanism, Br. abstracts a hydrogen from RH, leaving R. When a bromine is present in the proper position, it assists this process, giving a cyclic intermediate (a bridged free radical, 4).<sup>21</sup> In the final step (very similar to  $R^{\bullet} + Br_{2} \rightarrow RBr + Br^{\bullet}$ ) the ring is broken. If this mechanism is correct, the configuration at the substituted carbon (marked \*) should be retained. This has been shown to be the case: optically active 1-bromo-2-methylbutane gave 1,2-dibromo-2-methylbutane with retention of configuration.<sup>20</sup> Furthermore, when this reaction was carried out in the presence of DBr, the "recovered" 1-bromo-2-methylbutane was found to be deuterated in the 2 position, and its configuration was retained.<sup>22</sup> This is just what would be predicted if some of the 4 present abstracted D from DBr. There is evidence that Cl can form bridged radicals,<sup>23</sup> though esr spectra show that the bridging is not necessarily symmetrical.<sup>24</sup> Still more evidence for bridging by Br has been found in isotope effect and other studies. 25 However, evidence from CIDNP shows that the methylene protons of the β-bromoethyl radical are not equivalent, at least while the radical is present in the radical pair [PhCOO • CH2CH2Br] within a solvent cage. 26 This evidence indicates that under these conditions BrCH<sub>2</sub>CH<sub>2</sub>• is not a symmetrically bridged radical, but it could be unsymmetrically bridged. A bridged intermediate has also been invoked, when a bromo group is in the proper position, in the Hunsdiecker reaction<sup>27</sup> (4-39), and in abstraction of iodine atoms by the phenyl radical.<sup>28</sup> Participation by other neighboring groups, e.g. SR, SiR<sub>3</sub>, SnR<sub>3</sub>, has also been reported.<sup>29</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>26</sup>Skell; Tuleen; Readio J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1963, 85, 2849. For other stereochemical evidence, see Huyser; Feng J. Org. Chem. 1971, 36, 731. For another explanation, see Lloyd; Wood J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1975, 97, 5986.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup>For a monograph, see Kaplan *Bridged Free Radicals*; Marcel Dekker: New York, 1972. For reviews, see Skell; Traynham Acc. Chem. Res. 1984, 17, 160-166; Skell; Shea, in Kochi, Ref. 8, vol. 2, pp. 809-852.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>22</sup>Shea; Skell J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1973, 95, 283.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>28</sup>Everly; Schweinsberg; Traynham J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1978, 100, 1200; Wells; Franke Tetrahedron Lett. 1979, 4681.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>24</sup>Bowles; Hudson; Jackson Chem. Phys. Lett. 1970, 5, 552; Cooper; Hudson; Jackson Tetrahedron Lett. 1973, 831; Chen; Elson; Kochi J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1973, 95, 5341.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>28</sup>Skell; Readio J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1964, 86, 3334; Skell; Pavlis; Lewis; Shea J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1973, 95, 6735; Juneja; Hodnett J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1967, 89, 5685; Lewis; Kozuka J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1973, 95, 282; Cain: Solly J. Chem. Soc., Chem. Commun. 1974, 148; Chenier; Tremblay; Howard J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1975, 97, 1618; Howard; Chenier; Holden Can. J. Chem. 1977, 55, 1463. See however Tanner; Blackburn; Kosugi; Ruo J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1977, 99, 2714.

Hargis; Shevlin J. Chem. Soc., Chem. Commun. 1973, 179.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>27</sup>Applequist; Werner J. Org. Chem. 1963, 28, 48.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>28</sup>Danen; Winter J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1971, 93, 716.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>26</sup>Tuleen; Bentrude; Martin J. Am. Chem. Soc. **1963**, 85, 1938; Fisher; Martin J. Am. Chem. Soc. **1966**, 88, 3382; Jackson; Ingold; Griller; Nazran J. Am. Chem. Soc. **1985**, 107, 208. For a review of neighboring-group participation in cleavage reactions, especially those involving SiR<sub>3</sub> as a neighboring group, see Reetz Angew. Chem. Int. Ed. Engl. **1979**, 18, 173-180 [Angew. Chem. 91, 185-192].

REACTIVITY 683 **CHAPTER 14** 

#### REACTIVITY

## Reactivity for Aliphatic Substrates<sup>30</sup>

In a chain reaction, the step that determines what the product will be is most often an abstraction step. What is abstracted by a free radical is almost never a tetra-31 or tervalent atom<sup>32</sup> (except in strained systems, see p. 757)<sup>33</sup> and seldom a divalent one.<sup>34</sup> Nearly always it is univalent, and so, for organic compounds, it is hydrogen or halogen. For example, a reaction between a chlorine atom and ethane gives an ethyl radical, not a hydrogen atom:

CH<sub>3</sub>CH<sub>3</sub> + Cl·

$$CH_3CH_2 - Cl + CH_3CH_2 \cdot \Delta H = -3 \text{ kcal/mol}, -13 \text{ kJ/mol}$$

$$CH_3CH_2 - Cl + H \cdot \Delta H = +18 \text{ kcal/mol}, +76 \text{ kJ/mol}$$
ncipal reason for this is steric. A univalent atom is much more exposed to att

The principal reason for this is steric. A univalent atom is much more exposed to attack by the incoming radical than an atom with a higher valence. Another reason is that in many cases abstraction of a univalent atom is energetically more favored. For example, in the reaction given above, a  $C_2H_5$ —H bond is broken (D = 100 kcal/mol, 419 kJ/mol, from Table 5.3) whichever pathway is taken, but in the former case an H—Cl bond is formed (D = 103 kcal/mol, 432 kJ/mol) while in the latter case it is a  $C_2H_5$ —Cl bond (D = 100 kcal/mol, 432 kJ/mol)82 kcal/mol, 343 kJ/mol). Thus the first reaction is favored because it is exothermic by 3 kcal/mol (100 - 103) [13 kJ/mol (419 - 432)], while the latter is endothermic by 18 kcal/mol (100 - 82) [76 kJ/mol (419 - 343)]. However, the steric reason is clearly more important, because even in cases where  $\Delta H$  is not very different for the two possibilities, the univalent atom is chosen.

Most studies of aliphatic reactivity have been made with hydrogen as the leaving atom and chlorine atoms as the abstracting species.<sup>36</sup> In these reactions, every hydrogen in the substrate is potentially replaceable and mixtures are usually obtained. However, the abstracting radical is not totally unselective, and some positions on a molecule lose hydrogen more easily than others. We discuss the position of attack under several headings:<sup>37</sup>

1. Alkanes. The tertiary hydrogens of an alkane are the ones preferentially abstracted by almost any radical, with secondary hydrogens being next preferred. This is in the same order as D values for these types of C—H bonds (Table 5.3). The extent of the preference

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>30</sup>For a review of the factors involved in reactivity and regioselectivity in free-radical substitutions and additions, sce Tedder Angew. Chem. Int. Ed. Engl. 1982, 21, 401-410 [Angew. Chem. 94, 433-442].

<sup>31</sup> Abstraction of a tetravalent carbon has been seen in the abstraction by F• of R from RCI: Firouzbakht; Ferrieri; Wolf; Rack J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1987, 109, 2213.

<sup>32</sup> See, for example, Back Can. J. Chem. 1983, 61, 916.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>38</sup>For an example of an abstraction occurring to a small extent at an unstrained carbon atom, see Jackson, Townson J. Chem. Soc., Perkin Trans. 2 1980, 1452. See also Johnson Acc. Chem. Res. 1983, 16, 343-349.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>34</sup>For a monograph on abstractions of divalent and higher-valent atoms, see Ingold; Roberts Free-Radical Substitution Reactions; Wiley: New York, 1971.

 $<sup>^{35}\</sup>Delta H$  for a free-radical abstraction reaction can be regarded simply as the difference in D values for the bond

being broken and the one formed.

\*For a review that lists many rate constants for abstraction of hydrogen at various positions of many molecules. sec Hendry; Mill; Piszkiewicz; Howard; Eigenmann J. Phys. Chem. Ref. Data 1974, 3, 937-978.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>37</sup>For reviews, see Tedder Tetrahedron 1982, 38, 313-329; Kerr, in Bamford; Tipper Comprehensive Chemical Kinetics, vol. 18; Elsevier: New York, 1976, pp. 39-109; Russell, in Kochi, Ref. 8, vol. 2, pp. 275-331; Rüchardt Angew. Chem. Int. Ed. Engl. 1970, 9, 830-843 [Angew. Chem. 82, 845-858]; Poutsma Methods Free-Radical Chem. 1969, 1, 79-193; Davidson Q. Rev., Chem. Soc. 1967, 21, 249-258; Pryor; Fuller; Stanley J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1972, 94, 1632.

**TABLE 14.1** Relative susceptibility to attack by CI• of primary, secondary, and tertiary positions at 100 and 600°C in the gas phase<sup>38</sup>

Temp., °C	Primary	Secondary	Tertiary	
100	1	4.3	7.0	
600	1	2.1	2.6	

depends on the selectivity of the abstracting radical and on the temperature. Table 14.1 shows<sup>38</sup> that at high temperatures selectivity decreases, as might be expected.<sup>39</sup> An example of the effect of radical selectivity may be noted in a comparison of fluorine atoms with bromine atoms. For the former, the ratio of primary to tertiary abstraction (of hydrogen) is 1:1.4, while for the less reactive bromine atom this ratio is 1:1600. With certain large radicals there is a steric factor that may change the selectivity pattern. For example, in the photochemical chlorination of isopentane in H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> with N-chloro-di-t-butylamine and N-chloro-t-butyl-t-pentylamine, the primary hydrogens are abstracted 1.7 times faster than the tertiary hydrogen.<sup>40</sup> In this case the attacking radicals (the radical ions R<sub>2</sub>NH•<sup>+</sup>, see p. 692) are bulky enough for steric hindrance to become a major factor.

**2.** Olefins. When the substrate molecule contains a double bond, treatment with chlorine or bromine usually leads to addition rather than substitution. However, for other radicals (and even for chlorine or bromine atoms when they do abstract a hydrogen) the position of attack is perfectly clear. Vinylic hydrogens are practically never abstracted, and allylic hydrogens are greatly preferred to other positions of the molecule. This is generally attributed<sup>41</sup> to resonance stabilization of the allylic radical:

As might be expected, allylic rearrangements (see p. 327) are common in these cases. 42

3. Alkyl side chains of aromatic rings. The preferential position of attack on a side chain is usually the one  $\alpha$  to the ring. Both for active radicals such as chlorine and phenyl and for more selective ones such as bromine such attack is faster than that at a primary carbon, but for the active radicals benzylic attack is slower than for tertiary positions, while for the selective ones it is faster. Two or three aryl groups on a carbon activate its hydrogens even more, as would be expected from the resonance involved. These statements can be illustrated by the following abstraction ratios:<sup>43</sup>

	Me-H	MeCH <sub>2</sub> -H	Me <sub>2</sub> CH-H	Me <sub>3</sub> C-H	PhCH <sub>2</sub> -H	Ph <sub>2</sub> CH-H	Ph <sub>3</sub> C-H
Br	0.0007	1	220	19,400	64,000	$1.1 \times 10^{6}$	$6.4 \times 10^{6}$
Cl	0.004	1	4.3	6.0	1.3	2.6	9.5

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>38</sup>Hass; McBee; Weber Ind. Eng. Chem. 1936, 28, 333.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>39</sup>For a similar result with phenyl radicals, see Kopinke; Zimmermann; Anders J. Org. Chem. 1989, 54, 3571. <sup>40</sup>Deno; Fishbein; Wyckoff J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1971, 93, 2065. Similar steric effects, though not a reversal of primary-tertiary reactivity, were found by Dneprovskii; Mil'tsov J. Org. Chem. USSR 1988, 24, 1836.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>41</sup>See however Kwart; Brechbiel; Miles; Kwart J. Org. Chem. 1982, 47, 4524.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>42</sup>For reviews, see Wilt, in Kochi, Ref. 8, vol. 1, pp. 458-466.

<sup>43</sup>Russell, Ref. 37, p. 289.

However, many anomalous results have been reported for these substrates. The benzylic position is not always the most favored. One thing certain is that aromatic hydrogens are seldom abstracted if there are aliphatic ones to compete (note from Table 5.3, that D for Ph—H is higher than that for any alkyl H bond). Several  $\sigma^{\bullet}$  scales (similar to the  $\sigma$ ,  $\sigma^{\bullet}$ and σ scales discussed in Chapter 9) have been developed for benzylic radicals.44

4. Compounds containing electron-withdrawing substituents. In halogenations electron-withdrawing groups greatly deactivate adjacent positions. Compounds of the type Z—CH<sub>2</sub>—CH<sub>3</sub> are attacked predominantly or exclusively at the β position when Z is COOH, COCI, COOR, SO<sub>2</sub>CI, or CX<sub>3</sub>. Such compounds as acetic acid and acetyl chloride are not attacked at all. This is in sharp contrast to electrophilic halogenations (2-4 to 2-6), where only the  $\alpha$  position is substituted. This deactivation of  $\alpha$  positions is also at variance with the expected stability of the resulting radicals, since they would be expected to be stabilized by resonance similar to that for allylic and benzylic radicals. This behavior is a result of the polar transition states discussed on p. 679. Halogen atoms are electrophilic radicals and look for positions of high electron density. Hydrogens on carbon atoms next to electron-withdrawing groups have low electron densities (because of the field effect of Z) and are therefore shunned. Radicals that are not electrophilic do not display this behavior. For example, the methyl radical is essentially nonpolar and does not avoid positions next to electron-withdrawing groups; relative rates of abstraction at the α and β carbons of propionic acid are:45

	CH <sub>3</sub> -	CH <sub>2</sub> СООН
Me•	1	7.8
Cl•	1	0.03

Some radicals, e.g., t-butyl, 46 benzyl, 47 and cyclopropyl, 48 are nucleophilic (they tend to abstract electron-poor hydrogen atoms). The phenyl radical appears to have a very small degree of nucleophilic character.<sup>49</sup> For longer chains, the field effect continues, and the B position is also deactivated to attack by halogen, though much less so than the  $\alpha$  position. We have already mentioned (p. 679) that abstraction of an  $\alpha$  hydrogen atom from ringsubstituted toluenes can be correlated by the Hammett equation.

5. Stereoelectronic effects. On p. 334 we saw an example of a stereoelectronic effect. It has been shown that such effects are important where a hydrogen is abstracted from a carbon adjacent to a C-O or C-N bond. In such cases hydrogen is abstracted from C-H bonds that have a relatively small dihedral angle ( $\sim 30^{\circ}$ ) with the unshared orbitals of the O or N much more easily than from those with a large angle (~90°). For example, the starred hydrogen of 5 was abstracted about 8 times faster than the starred hydrogen of 6.50

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>44</sup>Sec, for example, Dinçtürk; Jackson J. Chem. Soc., Perkin Trans. 2 1981, 1127; Dust; Arnold J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1983, 105, 1221, 6531; Creary; Mehrsheikh-Mohammadi; McDonald J. Org. Chem. 1987, 52, 3254, 1989, 54, 2904; Fisher; Dershem; Prewitt J. Org. Chem. 1990, 55, 1040.

<sup>45</sup>Russell, Ref. 37, p. 311.

<sup>&</sup>quot;Pryor; Davis; Stanley J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1973, 95, 4754; Pryor; Tang; Tang; Church J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1982, 104, 2885; Dütsch; Fischer Int. J. Chem. Kinet. 1982, 14, 195.
 Clerici; Minisci; Porta Tetrahedron 1973, 29, 2775.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>48</sup>Stefani; Chuang; Todd J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1970, 92, 4168.

Suchiro; Suzuki; Tsuchida; Yamazaki Bull. Chem. Soc. Jpn. 1977, 50, 3324.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>50</sup>Hayday; McKelvey J. Org. Chem. 1976, 41, 2222. For additional examples, see Malatesta; Ingold J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1981, 103, 609; Beckwith; Easton J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1981, 103, 615; Beckwith; Westwood Aust. J. Chem. 1983, 36, 2123; Griller; Howard; Marriott; Scaiano J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1981, 103, 619. For a stereoselective abstraction step, see Dneprovskii; Pertsikov; Temnikova J. Org. Chem. USSR 1982, 18, 1951. See also Bunce; Cheung; Langshaw J. Org. Chem. 1986, 51, 5421.

Abstraction of a halogen has been studied much less,<sup>51</sup> but the order of reactivity is  $RI > RBr > RCl \gg RF$ .

## Reactivity at a Bridgehead<sup>52</sup>

Many free-radical reactions have been observed at bridgehead carbons, e.g. (see 4-39),53

demonstrating that the free radical need not be planar. However, treatment of norbornane with sulfuryl chloride and benzoyl peroxide gave mostly 2-chloronorbornane, though the bridgehead position is tertiary.<sup>54</sup> So, while bridgehead free-radical substitution is possible, it is not preferred, presumably because of the strain involved.<sup>55</sup>

## **Reactivity in Aromatic Substrates**

Free-radical substitution at an aromatic carbon seldom takes place by a mechanism in which a hydrogen is abstracted to give an aryl radical. Reactivity considerations here are similar to those in Chapters 11 and 13; i.e., we need to know which position on the ring will be attacked to give the intermediate

The obvious way to obtain this information is to carry out reactions with various Z groups and to analyze the products for percent ortho, meta, and para isomers, as has so often been done for electrophilic substitution. However, this procedure is much less accurate in the case of free-radical substitutions because of the many side reactions. It may be, for example, that in a given case the ortho position is more reactive than the para, but the intermediate from the para attack may go on to product while that from ortho attack gives a side reaction. In such a case, analysis of the three products does not give a true picture of which position

<sup>51</sup> For a review, see Danen Methods Free-Radical Chem. 1974, 5, 1-99.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>53</sup>For reviews, see Bingham; Schleyer Fortschr. Chem. Forsch. 1971, 18, 1-102, pp. 79-81; Fort; Schleyer Adv. Alicyclic Chem. 1966, 1, 283-370, pp. 337-352.

<sup>53</sup> Grob; Ohta; Renk; Weiss Helv. Chim. Acta 1958, 41, 1191.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>54</sup>Roberts; Urbanek; Armstrong J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1949, 71, 3049. See also Kooyman; Vegter Tetrahedron 1958, 4, 382; Walling; Mayahi J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1959, 81, 1485.

<sup>55</sup> See, for example, Koch; Gleicher J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1971, 93, 1657.

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is most susceptible to attack. The following generalizations can nevertheless be drawn, though there has been much controversy over just how meaningful such conclusions are:<sup>56</sup>

- 1. All substituents increase reactivity at ortho and para positions over that of benzene. There is no great difference between electron-donating and electron-withdrawing groups.
- 2. Reactivity at meta positions is usually similar to that of benzene, perhaps slightly higher or lower. This fact, coupled with the preceding one, means that all substituents are activating and ortho-para-directing; none are deactivating or (chiefly) meta-directing.
- 3. Reactivity at ortho positions is usually somewhat greater than at para positions, except where a large group decreases ortho reactivity for steric reasons.
- 4. In direct competition, electron-withdrawing groups exert a somewhat greater influence than electron-donating groups. Arylation of para-disubstituted compounds  $XC_6H_4Y$  showed that substitution ortho to the group X became increasingly preferred as the electron-withdrawing character of X increases (with Y held constant).<sup>57</sup> The increase could be correlated with the Hammett  $\sigma_p$  values for X.
- 5. Substituents have a much smaller effect than in electrophilic or nucleophilic substitution; hence the partial rate factors (see p. 516) are not great.<sup>58</sup> Partial rate factors for a few groups are given in Table 14.2.<sup>59</sup>
- **6.** Although hydrogen is the leaving group in most free-radical aromatic substitutions, ipso attack (p. 512) and ipso substitution (e.g., with Br, NO<sub>2</sub>, or CH<sub>3</sub>CO as the leaving group) have been found in certain cases.<sup>60</sup>

## Reactivity in the Attacking Radical<sup>61</sup>

We have already seen that some radicals are much more selective than others (p. 684). The bromine atom is so selective that when only primary hydrogens are available, as in neo-

**TABLE 14.2** Partial rate factors for attack of substituted benzenes by phenyl radicals generated from Bz<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (reaction **4-21**)<sup>59</sup>

Z	Partial rate factor						
	o	m	p				
H	1	1	1				
NO <sub>2</sub>	5.50	0.86	4.90				
CH <sub>3</sub>	4.70	1.24	3.55				
CMe <sub>3</sub>	0.70	1.64	1.81				
Cl	3.90	1.65	2.12				
Br	3.05	1.70	1.92				
MeO	5.6	1.23	2.31				

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>56</sup>De Tar J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1961, 83, 1014 (book review); Dickerman; Vermont J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1962, 84, 4150; Morrison; Cazes; Samkoff; Howe J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1962, 84, 4152; Ohta; Tokumaru Bull. Chem. Soc. Jpn. 1971, 44, 3218; Vidal; Court; Bonnier J. Chem. Soc. Perkin Trans. 2 1973, 2071; Tezuka; Ichikawa; Marusawa; Narita Chem. Lett. 1983, 1013.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>57</sup>Davies; Hey; Summers J. Chem. Soc. C 1970, 2653.

<sup>58</sup> For a quantitative treatment, see Charton; Charton Bull. Soc. Chim. Fr. 1988, 199.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>59</sup>Davies; Hey; Summers J. Chem. Soc. C **1971**, 2681.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>66</sup>For reviews, see Traynham J. Chem. Educ. 1983, 60, 937-941, Chem. Rev. 1979, 79, 323-330; Tiecco Acc. Chem. Res. 1980, 13, 51-57; Pure Appl. Chem. 1981, 53, 239-258.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>61</sup>For reviews with respect to CH<sub>3</sub>, and CF<sub>3</sub>, see Trotman-Dickenson Adv. Free-Radical Chem. 1965, 1, 1-38; Spirin Russ. Chem. Rev. 1969, 38, 529-539; Gray; Herod; Jones Chem. Rev. 1971, 71, 247-294.

pentane or t-butylbenzene, the reaction is slow or nonexistent; and isobutane can be selectively brominated to give t-butyl bromide in high yields. However, toluene reacts with bromine atoms instantly. Bromination of other alkylbenzenes, e.g., ethylbenzene and cumene, takes place exclusively at the α position, 62 emphasizing the selectivity of Br. The dissociation energy D of the C-H bond is more important for radicals of low reactivity than for highly reactive radicals, since bond breaking in the transition state is greater. Thus, bromine shows a greater tendency than chlorine to attack α to an electron-withdrawing group because the energy of the C-H bond there is lower than in other places in the molecule.

Some radicals, e.g., triphenylmethyl, are so unreactive that they abstract hydrogens very poorly if at all. Table 14.3 lists some common free radicals in approximate order of reactivity.63

It has been mentioned that some free radicals, e.g., chloro, are electrophilic and some, e.g., t-butyl, are nucleophilic. It must be borne in mind that these tendencies are relatively slight compared with the electrophilicity of a positive ion or the nucleophilicity of a negative ion. The predominant character of a free radical is neutral, whether it has slight electrophilic or nucleophilic tendencies.

## The Effect of Solvent on Reactivity<sup>65</sup>

As has been noted earlier, the solvent usually has little effect on free-radical substitutions in contrast to ionic ones: indeed, reactions in solution are often quite similar in character to those in the gas phase, where there is no solvent at all. However, in certain cases the solvent can make an appreciable difference. Chlorination of 2,3-dimethylbutane in aliphatic solvents gave about 60% (CH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>CHCH(CH<sub>3</sub>)CH<sub>2</sub>Cl and 40% (CH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>CHCCl(CH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>, while in aromatic solvents the ratio became about 10:90.66 This result is attributed to complex

**TABLE 14.3** Some common free radicals in decreasing order of activity The E values represent activation energies for the reaction

$$X \cdot + C_2H_6 \longrightarrow X - H + C_2H_5 \cdot s$$

iso-Pr• is less active than Me• and t-Bu• still less so<sup>64</sup>

	E	•		E		
Radical	kcal/mol	kJ/mol	Radical	kcal/mol	kJ/mol	
F•	0.3	1.3	н•	9.0	38	
Cŀ	1.0	4.2	Me•	11.8	49.4	
MeO•	7.1	30	Br•	13.2	55.2	
CF <sub>3</sub> •	7.5	31				

<sup>42</sup>Huyser Free-Radical Chain Reactions, Ref. 1, p. 97.

Trotman-Dickenson, Ref. 61.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>64</sup>Kharasch; Hambling; Rudy J. Org. Chem. 1959, 24, 303.

<sup>46</sup> For reviews, see Reichardt Solvent Effects in Organic Chemistry; Verlag Chemie: Deerfield Beach, FL, 1979, pp. 110-123; Martin, in Kochi, Ref. 8, vol. 2, pp. 493-524; Huyser Adv. Free-Radical Chem. 1965, 1, 77-135.
 48Russell J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1958, 80, 4987, 4997, 5002, J. Org. Chem. 1959, 24, 300.

formation between the aromatic solvent and the chlorine atom which makes the chlorine more selective.<sup>67</sup> This type of effect is not found in cases where the differences in abstract-

ability are caused by field effects of electron-withdrawing groups (p. 685). In such cases aromatic solvents make little difference.<sup>68</sup> The complex 7 has been detected<sup>69</sup> as a very short-lived species by observation of its visible spectrum in the pulse radiolysis of a solution of benzene in CCl<sub>4</sub>.<sup>70</sup> Differences caused by solvents have also been reported in reactions of other radicals.<sup>71</sup> Some of the anomalous results obtained in the chlorination of aromatic side chains (p. 685) can also be explained by this type of complexing, in this case not with the solvent but with the reacting species.<sup>72</sup> Much smaller, though real, differences in selectivity have been found when the solvent in the chlorination of 2,3-dimethylbutane is changed from an alkane to CCl<sub>4</sub>.<sup>73</sup> However, these differences are not caused by formation of a complex between Cl• and the solvent.

#### REACTIONS

The reactions in this chapter are classified according to leaving group. The most common leaving groups are hydrogen and nitrogen (from the diazonium ion); these are considered first.

## **Hydrogen as Leaving Group**

- A. Substitution by Halogen
- **4-1** Halogenation at an Alkyl Carbon<sup>74</sup>

Halogenation or Halo-de-hydrogenation

$$R-H + Cl_2 \xrightarrow{h\nu} R-Cl$$

<sup>67</sup>See also Soumillion; Bruylants Bull. Soc. Chim. Belg. 1969, 78, 425; Potter; Tedder J. Chem. Soc., Perkin Trans. 2 1862, 1689; Aver'yanov; Ruban; Shvets J. Org. Chem. USSR 1987, 23, 782; Aver'yanov; Ruban J. Org. Chem. USSR 1987, 23, 1119; Raner; Lusztyk; Ingold J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1989, 111, 3652; Ingold; Lusztyk; Raner Acc. Chem. Res. 1990, 23, 219-225.

Russell Tetrahedron 1960, 8, 101; Nagai; Horikawa; Ryang; Tokura Bull. Chem. Soc. Jpn. 1971, 44, 2771.

<sup>6</sup>It has been contended that another species, a chlorocyclohexadienyl radical (the structure of which is the same as 1, except that CI replaces Ar), can also be attacking when the solvent is benzene: Skell; Baxter; Taylor J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1983, 105, 120; Skell; Baxter; Tanko; Chebolu J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1986, 108, 6300. For arguments against this proposal, see Bunce; Ingold; Landers; Lusztyk; Scaiano J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1985, 107, 5464; Walling J. Org. Chem. 1988, 53, 305; Aver'yanov; Shvets; Semenov J. Org. Chem. USSR 1990, 26, 1261.

<sup>76</sup>Bühler Helv. Chim. Acta 1968, 51, 1558. For other spectral observations, see Raner; Lusztyk; Ingold J. Phys. Chem. 1989, 93, 564.

<sup>71</sup>Walling; Azar J. Org. Chem. **1968**, 33, 3885; Walling; Wagner J. Am. Chem. Soc. **1963**, 85, 2333; Ito; Matsuda J. Am. Chem. Soc. **1982**, 104, 568; Minisci; Vismara; Fontana; Morini; Serravalle; Giordano J. Org. Chem. **1987**, 52, 730.

<sup>72</sup>Russell; Ito; Hendry J. Am. Chem. Soc. **1963**, 85, 2976; Corbiau; Bruylants Bull. Soc. Chim. Belg. **1970**, 79, 203, 211; Newkirk; Gleicher J. Am. Chem. Soc. **1974**, 96, 3543.

<sup>73</sup>See Raner; Lusztyk; Ingold J. Org. Chem. **1988**, 53, 5220.

<sup>74</sup>For lists of reagents, with references, see Larock *Comprehensive Organic Transformations*; VCH: New York, 1989, pp. 311-313.

Alkanes can be chlorinated or brominated by treatment with chlorine or bromine in the presence of visible or uv light. 75 The reaction can also be applied to alkyl chains containing many functional groups. The chlorination reaction is usually not useful for preparative purposes precisely because it is so general: not only does substitution take place at virtually every alkyl carbon in the molecule, but di- and polychloro substitution almost invariabily occur even if there is a large molar ratio of substrate to halogen. When functional groups are present, the principles are those outlined on p. 684; favored positions are those  $\alpha$  to aromatic rings, while positions  $\alpha$  to electron-withdrawing groups are least likely to be substituted. Tertiary carbons are most likely to be attacked and primary least. Positions \alpha to an OR group are very readily attacked. Nevertheless, mixtures are nearly always obtained. This can be contrasted to the regioselectivity of electrophilic halogenation (2-4 to 2-6), which always takes place α to a carbonyl group (except when the reaction is catalyzed by AgSbF<sub>6</sub>; see following). Of course, if a mixture of chlorides is wanted, the reaction is usually quite satisfactory. For obtaining pure compounds, the chlorination reaction is essentially limited to substrates with only one type of replaceable hydrogen, e.g., ethane, cyclohexane, neopentane. The most common are methylbenzenes and other substrates with methyl groups on aromatic rings, since few cases are known where halogen atoms substitute at an aromatic position.<sup>76</sup> Of course, ring substitution does take place in the presence of a positive-ionforming catalyst (1-11). In addition to mixtures of various alkyl halides, traces of other products are obtained. These include H<sub>2</sub>, olefins, higher alkanes, lower alkanes, and halogen derivatives of these compounds.

The bromine atom is much more selective than the chlorine atom. As indicated on p. 688, it is often possible to brominate tertiary and benzylic positions selectively. High regio-selectivity can also be obtained where the neighboring-group mechanism (p. 681) can operate.

As already mentioned, halogenation can be performed with chlorine or bromine. Fluorine has also been used, 77 but seldom, because it is too reactive and hard to control. 78 It often breaks carbon chains down into smaller units, a side reaction that sometimes becomes troublesome in chlorinations too. Fluorination  $^{78a}$  has been achieved by the use of chlorine trifluoride ClF<sub>3</sub> at  $-75^{\circ}$ C. 79 For example, cyclohexane gave 41% fluorocyclohexane and methylcyclohexane gave 47% 1-fluoro-1-methylcyclohexane. Fluoroxytrifluoromethane CF<sub>3</sub>OF fluorinates tertiary positions of certain molecules in good yields with high regioselectivity. 80 For example, adamantane gave 75% 1-fluoroadamantane.  $F_2$  at  $-70^{\circ}$ C, diluted with  $N_2$ , 81 and bromine trifluoride at  $25-35^{\circ}$ C82 are also highly regioselective for tertiary

<sup>75</sup>For reviews, see Poutsma, in Kochi, Ref. 8, vol. 2, pp. 159-229; Huyser, in Patai *The Chemistry of the Carbon-Halogen Bond*, pt. 1: Wiley: New York, 1973, pp. 549-607; Poutsma, Ref. 37 (chlorination); Thaler *Methods Free-Radical Chem.* **1969**, 2, 121-227 (bromination).

<sup>76</sup>Dermer; Edmison Chem. Rev. 1957, 57, 77-122, pp. 110-112. An example of free-radical ring halogenation can be found in Engelsma; Kooyman Revl. Trav. Chim. Pays-Bas 1961, 80, 526, 537. For a review of aromatic halogenation in the gas phase, see Kooyman Adv. Free-Radical Chem. 1965, 1, 137-153.

<sup>77</sup>Rozen Acc. Chem. Res. 1988, 21, 307-312; Purrington; Kagen; Patrick Chem. Rev. 1986, 86, 997-1018, pp. 1003-1005; Gerstenberger; Haas Angew. Chem. Int. Ed. Engl. 1981, 20, 647-667 [Angew. Chem. 93, 659-680]; Hudlický

The Chemistry of Organic Fluorine Compounds, 2nd ed.; Ellis Horwood: Chichester, 1976; pp. 67-91. For descriptions of the apparatus necessary for handling  $F_2$ , see Vypel Chimia 1985, 39, 305-311.

\*\*However, there are several methods by which all the C—H bonds in a molecule can be converted to C—F bonds. For reviews, see Rozhkov, in Baizer; Lund Organic Electrochemistry; Marcel Dekker: New York, 1983, pp. 805-825; Lagow; Margrave Prog. Inorg. Chem. 1979, 26, 161-210. See also Adcock; Horita; Renk J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1981, 103, 6937; Adcock; Evans J. Org. Chem. 1984, 49, 2719; Huang; Lagow Bull. Soc. Chim. Fr. 1986, 993.

103, 6937; Adcock; Evans J. Org. Chem. 1984, 49, 2719; Huang; Lagow Bull. Soc. Chim. Fr. 1986, 993.
 786For a monograph on fluorinating agents, see German; Zemskov New Fluorinating Agents in Organic Synthesis; Springer: New York, 1989.

Brower J. Org. Chem. 1987, 52, 798.

Alker; Barton; Hesse; Lister-James; Markwell; Pechet; Rozen; Takeshita; Toh Nouv. J. Chem. 1980, 4, 239.
 Rozen; Gal; Faust J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1980, 102, 6860; Gal; Rozen Tetrahedron Lett. 1984, 25, 449; Rozen; Ben-Shushan J. Org. Chem. 1986, 51, 3522; Rozen; Gal J. Org. Chem. 1987, 52, 4928, 1988, 53, 2803; Ref. 80.

<sup>82</sup>Boguslavskaya; Kartashov; Chuvatkin J. Org. Chem. USSR 1989, 25, 1835.

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positions. These reactions probably have electrophilic,83 not free-radical mechanisms. In fact, the success of the F<sub>2</sub> reactions depends on the suppression of free radical pathways, by dilution with an inert gas, by working at low temperatures, and/or by the use of radical scavengers.

Iodine can be used if the activating light has a wavelength of 184.9 nm,84 but iodinations are seldom attempted, largely because the HI formed reduces the alkyl iodide.

Many other halogenation agents have been employed, the most common of which is sulfuryl chloride SO<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>2</sub>.85 A mixture of Br<sub>2</sub> and HgO is a more active brominating agent than bromine alone. 86 The actual brominating agent in this case is believed to be bromine monoxide Br<sub>2</sub>O. Among other agents used have been N-bromosuccinimide (see 4-2), CCl<sub>4</sub>,87 dichlorine monoxide Cl<sub>2</sub>O, 88 BrCCl<sub>3</sub>,89 PCl<sub>5</sub>,90 phosgene, t-butyl hypobromite91 and hypochlorite, 92 and N-haloamines and sulfuric acid. 93 In all these cases a chain-initiating catalyst is required, usually peroxides or uv light.

When chlorination is carried out with N-haloamines and sulfuric acid (catalyzed by either uv light or metal ions), selectivity is much greater than with other reagents.<sup>93</sup> In particular, alkyl chains are chlorinated with high regioselectivity at the position next to the end of the chain (the  $\omega - 1$  position).<sup>94</sup> Some typical selectivity values are<sup>95</sup>

Furthermore, di- and polychlorination are much less prevalent. Dicarboxylic acids are predominantly chlorinated in the middle of the chain, 99 and adamantane and bicyclo[2.2.2] octane at the bridgeheads 100 by this procedure. The reasons for the high  $\omega - 1$ specificity are not clearly understood. 101 Alkyl bromides can be regioselectively chlorinated

<sup>83</sup> See, for example, Rozen; Gal J. Org. Chem. 1987, 52, 2769.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>84</sup>Gover; Willard J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1960, 82, 3816.

<sup>85</sup> For a review of this reagent, see Tabushi; Kitaguchi, in Pizey Synthetic Reagents, vol. 4; Wiley: New York, 1981, pp. 336-396.
\*\*Bunce Can. J. Chem. 1972, 50, 3109.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>87</sup>For a discussion of the mechanism with this reagent, see Hawari; Davis; Engel; Gilbert; Griller J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1985, 107, 4721.

Marsh; Farnham; Sam; Smart J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1982, 104, 4680.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>89</sup>Huyser J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1960, 82, 391; Baldwin; O'Neill Synth. Commun. 1976, 6, 109.

Wyman; Wang; Freeman J. Org. Chem. 1963, 28, 3173.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>91</sup>Walling; Padwa J. Org. Chem. 1962, 27, 2976.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>92</sup>Walling; Mintz J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1967, 89, 1515.

<sup>93</sup> For reviews, see Minisci Synthesis 1973, 1-24; Deno Methods Free-Radical Chem. 1972, 3, 135-154; Sosnovsky; Rawlinson Adv. Free-Radical Chem. 1972, 4, 203-284.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>™</sup>The ω - 1 regioselectivity diminishes when the chains are longer than 10 carbons; see Deno; Jedziniak Tetrahedron Lett. 1976, 1259; Konen; Maxwell; Silbert J. Org. Chem. 1979, 44, 3594.
 The ω - 1 selectivity values shown here may actually be lower than the true values because of selective solvolysis

of the  $\omega - 1$  chlorides in concentrated H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>: see Deno; Pohl J. Org. Chem. 1975, 40, 380.

<sup>\*</sup>Bernardi; Galli; Minisci J. Chem. Soc. B 1968, 324. See also Deno; Gladfelter; Pohl J. Org. Chem. 1979, 44, 3728; Fuller; Lindsay Smith; Norman; Higgins J. Chem. Soc., Perkin Trans. 2 1981, 545.

Deno; Billups; Fishbein; Pierson; Whalen; Wyckoff J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1971, 93, 438.

Minisci; Galli; Galli; Bernardi Tetrahedron Lett. 1967, 2207; Minisci; Gardini; Bertini Can. J. Chem. 1970, 48,

<sup>&</sup>quot;Kämper; Schäfer; Luftmann Angew. Chem. Int. Ed. Engl. 1976, 15, 306 [Angew. Chem. 88, 334].

<sup>100</sup> Smith; Billups J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1974, 96, 4307.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>101</sup>It has been reported that the selectivity in one case is in accord with a pure electrostatic (field effect) explanation: Dneprovskii; Mil'tsov; Arbuzov J. Org. Chem. USSR 1988, 24, 1826. See also Tanner; Arhart; Meintzer Tetrahedron 1985, 41, 4261, Ref. 95.

one carbon away from the bromine (to give *vic*-bromochlorides) by treatment with PCl<sub>5</sub>. <sup>102</sup> Alkyl chlorides can be converted to *vic*-dichlorides by treatment with MoCl<sub>5</sub>. <sup>103</sup> Enhanced selectivity at a terminal position of *n*-alkanes has been achieved by absorbing the substrate onto a pentasil zeolite. <sup>104</sup> In another regioselective chlorination, alkanesulfonamides RCH<sub>2</sub>CH<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>2</sub>NHR' are converted primarily to RCHClCH<sub>2</sub>CH<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>2</sub>NHR' by sodium peroxydisulfate Na<sub>2</sub>S<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> and CuCl<sub>2</sub>. <sup>105</sup> For regioselective chlorination at certain positions of the steroid nucleus, see **9-2**.

In almost all cases, the mechanism involves a free-radical chain:

Initiation 
$$X_2 \xrightarrow{h\nu} 2X^{\bullet}$$
Propagation  $RH + X^{\bullet} \longrightarrow R^{\bullet} + XH$ 
 $R^{\bullet} + X_2 \longrightarrow RX + X^{\bullet}$ 
Termination  $R^{\bullet} + X^{\bullet} \longrightarrow RX$ 

When the reagent is halogen, initiation occurs as shown above.  $^{106}$  When it is another reagent, a similar cleavage occurs (catalyzed by light or, more commonly, peroxides), followed by propagation steps that do not necessarily involve abstraction by halogen. For example, the propagation steps for chlorination by t-BuOCl have been formulated as  $^{107}$ 

RH + 
$$t$$
-BuOt  $\longrightarrow$  R· +  $t$ -BuOH  
R· +  $t$ -BuOCl  $\longrightarrow$  RCl +  $t$ -BuO·

and the abstracting radicals in the case of N-haloamines are the aminium radical cations  $R_2NH^{\bullet +}$  (p. 527), with the following mechanism (in the case of initiation by Fe<sup>2+</sup>):<sup>93</sup>

Initiation 
$$R_2NCl \xrightarrow{H^+} R_2\overset{\oplus}{N}HCl \xrightarrow{Fe^{2+}} R_2NH^{\bullet^+} + \overset{\oplus}{Fe}Cl$$

Propagation  $R_2NH^{\bullet^+} + RH \longrightarrow R_2NH_2 + R^{\bullet}$ 
 $R^{\bullet} + R_2NHCl \longrightarrow RCl + R_2NH^{\bullet^+}$ 

This mechanism is similar to that of the Hofmann-Löffler reaction (8-42).

The two propagation steps shown above for  $X_2$  are those that lead directly to the principal products (RX and HX), but many other propagation steps are possible and many occur. Similarly, the only termination step shown is the one that leads to RX, but any two radicals may combine. Thus, products like  $H_2$ , higher alkanes, and higher alkyl halides can be

<sup>102</sup> Luche; Bertin; Kagan Tetrahedron Lett. 1974, 759.

<sup>183</sup> San Filippo; Sowinski; Romano J. Org. Chem. 1975, 40, 3463.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>166</sup>Turro; Fehlner; Hessler; Welsh; Ruderman; Firnberg; Braun J. Org. Chem. 1988, 53, 3731.

<sup>165</sup> Nikishin; Troyansky; Lazareva Tetrahedron Lett. 1985, 26, 3743.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>106</sup>There is evidence (unusually high amounts of multiply chlorinated products) that under certain conditions in the reaction of RH with Cl<sub>2</sub>, the products of the second propagation step (RX + X\*) are enclosed within a solvent cage. See Skell; Baxter J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1985, 107, 2823; Raner; Lusztyk; Ingold J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1988, 110, 3519; Tanko; Anderson J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1988, 110, 3525.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>167</sup>Carlsson; Ingold J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1967, 89, 4885, 4891; Walling; Kurkov J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1967, 89, 4895; Walling; McGuiness J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1969, 91, 2053. See also Zhulin; Rubinshtein Bull. Acad. Sci. USSR. Div. Chem. Sci. 1977, 26, 2082.

accounted for by steps like these (these are for chlorination of methane, but analogous steps can be written for other substrates):

$$Cl^{\bullet} + HCl \longrightarrow Cl - Cl + H^{\bullet}$$

$$H^{\bullet} + H^{\bullet} \longrightarrow H - H$$

$$CH_{3}^{\bullet} + CH_{3}^{\bullet} \longrightarrow CH_{3}CH_{3}$$

$$CH_{3}CH_{3} + Cl^{\bullet} \longrightarrow CH_{3}CH_{2}^{\bullet} + HCl$$

$$CH_{3}CH_{2}^{\bullet} + Cl_{2} \longrightarrow CH_{3}CH_{2}Cl + Cl^{\bullet}$$

$$CH_{3}CH_{2}^{\bullet} + CH_{3}CH_{2}^{\bullet} \longrightarrow CH_{3}CH_{3} + CH_{2} = CH_{2}$$

$$CH_{3}CH_{2}^{\bullet} + CH_{3}CH_{2}^{\bullet} \longrightarrow CH_{3}CH_{2}CH_{2}CH_{3}$$

$$CH_{3}CH_{2}^{\bullet} + HCl \longrightarrow CH_{3}CH_{3} + Cl^{\bullet}$$

At least when methane is the substrate, the rate-determining step is

since an isotope effect of 12.1 was observed at  $0^{\circ}$ C. <sup>108</sup> For chlorinations, chains are very long, typically  $10^4$  to  $10^6$  propagations before a termination step takes place.

The order of reactivity of the halogens can be explained by energy considerations. For the substrate methane,  $\Delta H$  values for the two principal propagation steps are

	kcal/mol				kJ/	mol		
	F <sub>2</sub>	Cl <sub>2</sub>	Br <sub>2</sub>	I <sub>2</sub>	F <sub>2</sub>	Cl <sub>2</sub>	Br <sub>2</sub>	I <sub>2</sub>
$ \begin{array}{c} CH_4 + X^{\bullet} \rightarrow CH_3^{\bullet} + HX \\ CH_3^{\bullet} + X_2 \rightarrow CH_3X + X^{\bullet} \end{array} $	-31 -70	+2 -26	+ 17 - 24	+34 -21	-132 -293	+6 -113	+ 72 - 100	+ 140 - 87

In each case D for CH<sub>3</sub>—H is 105 kcal/mol (438 kJ/mol), while D values for the other bonds involved are given in Table14.4. <sup>109</sup> F<sub>2</sub> is so reactive <sup>110</sup> that neither uv light nor any other initiation is needed (total  $\Delta H = -101$  kcal/mol; -425 kJ/mol); <sup>111</sup> while Br<sub>2</sub> and I<sub>2</sub> essentially do not react with methane. The second step is exothermic in all four cases, but it cannot take place before the first, and it is this step that is very unfavorable for Br<sub>2</sub> and I<sub>2</sub>. It is apparent that the most important single factor causing the order of halogen reactivity

<sup>108</sup> Wiberg; Motell Tetrahedron 1963, 19, 2009.

<sup>169</sup> Kerr, in Weast Handbook of Chemistry and Physics, 69th ed.; CRC Press: Boca Raton, FL, 1988, pp. F174-F189.

<sup>116</sup> It has been reported that the reaction of F atoms with CH<sub>4</sub> at 25 K takes place with practically zero activation energy. Johnson: Andrews I. Am. Chem. Soc. 1980, 102 5736

energy: Johnson; Andrews J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1980, 102, 5736.

"IFor  $F_2$  the following initiation step is possible:  $F_2 + RH \rightarrow R^{\bullet} + F^{\bullet} + HF$  [first demonstrated by Miller; Koch; McLafferty J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1956, 78, 4992].  $\Delta H$  for this reaction is equal to the small positive value of 5 kcal/mol (21 kJ/mol). The possibility of this reaction (which does not require an initiator) explains why fluorination can take place without uv light (which would otherwise be needed to furnish the 38 kcal/mol (159 kJ/mol) necessary to break the F—F bond). Once the reaction has been initiated, the large amount of energy given off by the propagation steps is ample to cleave additional  $F_2$  molecules. Indeed, it is the magnitude of this energy that is responsible for the cleavage of carbon chains by  $F_2$ .

Bond	D	)
	kcal/mol	kJ/mol
H-F	136	570
H-Cl	103	432
H-Br	88	366
H-I	71	298
F-F	38	159
CI-CI	59	243
Br-Br	46	193
1-1	36	151
CH <sub>5</sub> -F	108	452
CH <sub>3</sub> -Cl	85	356
CH <sub>3</sub> -Br	70	293
CH <sub>3</sub> -I	57	238

TABLE 14.4 Some D values 109

to be  $F_2 > Cl_2 > Br_2 > I_2$  is the decreasing strength of the HX bond in the order HF > HCl > HBr > HI. The increased reactivity of secondary and tertiary positions is in accord with the decrease in D values for R—H in the order primary > secondary > tertiary (Table 5.3). (Note that for chlorination step 1 is exothermic for practically all substrates other than  $CH_4$ , since most other aliphatic C—H bonds are weaker than those in  $CH_4$ .)

Bromination and chlorination of alkanes and cycloalkanes can also take place by an electrophilic mechanism if the reaction is catalyzed by AgSbF<sub>6</sub>. <sup>112</sup> Direct chlorination at a vinylic position by an electrophilic mechanism has been achieved with benzeneseleninyl chloride PhSe(O)Cl and AlCl<sub>3</sub> or AlBr<sub>3</sub>. <sup>113</sup> However, while some substituted alkenes give high yields of chloro substitution products, others (such as styrene) undergo addition of Cl<sub>2</sub> to the double bond (5-26). <sup>113</sup> Electrophilic fluorination has already been mentioned (p. 690).

OS II, 89, 133, 443, 549; III, 737, 788; IV, 807, 921, 984; V, 145, 221, 328, 504, 635, 825; VI, 271, 404, 715; VII, 491; 65, 68.

#### **4-2** Allylic Halogenation

#### Halogenation or Halo-de-hydrogenation

$$-CH-C=C-+ \underbrace{\begin{array}{c} O \\ N-Br \xrightarrow{peroxides} \\ CCL_i \end{array}}_{D} -C-C=C-$$

This reaction is a special case of **4-1**, but is important enough to be treated separately. 114 Olefins can be halogenated in the allylic position by a number of reagents, of which N-bromosuccinimide (NBS)<sup>115</sup> is by far the most common. When this reagent is used, the

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>112</sup>Olah; Renner; Schilling; Mo J. Am. Chem. Soc. **1973**, 95, 7686. See also Olah; Wu; Farooq J. Org. Chem. **1989**, 54, 1463.

<sup>113</sup> Kamigata; Satoh; Yoshida Bull. Chem. Soc. Jpn. 1988, 44, 449.

<sup>114</sup> For a review, see Nechvatal Adv. Free-Radical Chem. 1972, 4, 175-201.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>115</sup>For a review of this reagent, see Pizey, Ref. 85, vol. 2, pp. 1-63, 1974.

reaction is known as Wohl-Ziegler bromination. A nonpolar solvent is used, most often CCl<sub>4</sub>. Other N-bromo amides have also been used. To a much lesser extent, allylic chlorination has been carried out, with N-chlorosuccinimide, N-chloro-N-cyclohexylbenzene-sulfonamide, <sup>116</sup> or t-butyl hypochlorite. <sup>117</sup> With any reagent an initiator is needed; this is usually a peroxide or, less often, uv light.

The reaction is usually quite specific at the allylic position and good yields are obtained. However, when the allylic radical intermediate is unsymmetrical, allylic rearrangements can take place, so that mixtures of both possible products are obtained, e.g.,

$$CH_3-CH_2-CH=CH_2 + NBS \longrightarrow CH_3-CH-CH=CH_2 + CH_3-CH=CH-CH_2$$
 $R_r$ 

When a double bond has two different allylic positions, e.g.,  $CH_3CH = CHCH_2CH_3$ , a secondary position is substituted more readily than a primary. The relative reactivity of tertiary hydrogen is not clear, though many substitutions at allylic tertiary positions have been performed. It is possible to brominate both sides of the double bond. Because of the electron-withdrawing nature of bromine, the second bromine substitutes on the other side of the double bond rather than  $\alpha$  to the first bromine.

NBS is also a highly regioselective brominating agent at other positions, including positions  $\alpha$  to a carbonyl group, to a C=C triple bond, and to an aromatic ring (benzylic position). When both a double and a triple bond are in the same molecule, the preferred position is  $\alpha$  to the triple bond.<sup>120</sup>

That the mechanism of allylic bromination is of the free-radical type was demonstrated by Dauben and McCoy, <sup>121</sup> who showed that the reaction is very sensitive to free-radical initiators and inhibitors and indeed does not proceed at all unless at least a trace of initiator is present. Subsequent work indicated that the species that actually abstracts hydrogen from the substrate is the bromine atom. The reaction is initiated by small amounts of Br•. Once it is formed, the main propagation steps are

Step 1 
$$Br \cdot + RH \longrightarrow R \cdot + HBr$$
  
Step 2  $R \cdot + Br_2 \longrightarrow RBr + Br \cdot$ 

The source of the Br<sub>2</sub> is a fast ionic reaction between NBS and the HBr liberated in step 1:

$$\begin{array}{c}
O \\
N-Br + HBr \longrightarrow O \\
O \\
O
\end{array}$$

The function of the NBS is therefore to provide a source of Br<sub>2</sub> in a low, steady-state concentration and to use up the HBr liberated in step 1.<sup>122</sup> The main evidence for this

<sup>116</sup> Theilacker; Wessel Liebigs Ann. Chem. 1967, 703, 34.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>117</sup>Walling; Thaler J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1961, 83, 3877.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>118</sup>Dauben; McCoy J. Org. Chem. 1959, 24, 1577.

<sup>119</sup> Ucciani; Naudet Bull. Soc. Chim. Fr. 1962,871.

<sup>120</sup> Peiffer Bull. Soc. Chim. Fr. 1963, 537.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>121</sup>Dauben; McCoy J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1959, 81, 4863.

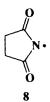
<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>122</sup>This mechanism was originally suggested by Adam; Gosselain; Goldfinger Nature 1953, 171, 704, Bull. Soc. Chim. Belg. 1956, 65, 533.

mechanism is that NBS and Br<sub>2</sub> show similar selectivity<sup>123</sup> and that the various N-bromo amides also show similar selectivity, 124 which is consistent with the hypothesis that the same species is abstracting in each case. 125

It may be asked why, if Br<sub>2</sub> is the reacting species, it does not add to the double bond, either by an ionic or by a free-radical mechanism (see 5-26). Apparently the concentration is too low. In bromination of a double bond, only one atom of an attacking bromine molecule becomes attached to the substrate, whether the addition is electrophilic or free-radical:

The other bromine atom comes from another bromine-containing molecule or ion. If the concentration is sufficiently low, there is a low probability that the proper species will be in the vicinity once the intermediate forms. The intermediate in either case reverts to the initial species and the allylic substitution competes successfully. If this is true, it should be possible to brominate an olefin in the allylic position without competition from addition, even in the absence of NBS or a similar compound, if a very low concentration of bromine is used and if the HBr is removed as it is formed so that it is not available to complete the addition step. This has indeed been demonstrated. 126

When NBS is used to brominate non-olefinic substrates such as alkanes, another mechanism, involving abstraction of the hydrogen of the substrate by the succinimidyl radical<sup>127</sup> 8 can operate. 128 This mechanism is facilitated by solvents (such as CH<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>2</sub>, CHCl<sub>3</sub>, or



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>123</sup>Walling; Rieger; Tanner J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1963, 85, 3129; Russell; Desmond J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1963, 85, 3139; Russell; DeBoer; Desmond J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1963, 85, 365; Pearson; Martin J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1963, 85, 3142; Skell; Tuleen; Readio J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1963, 85, 2850.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>124</sup>Walling; Rieger J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1963, 85, 3134; Pearson; Martin, Ref. 123; Incremona; Martin J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1970, 92, 627.
 128 For other evidence, see Day; Lindstrom; Skell J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1974, 96, 5616.

<sup>126</sup> McGrath; Tedder Proc. Chem. Soc. 1961, 80.

<sup>127</sup> For a review of this radical, see Chow; Naguib Rev. Chem. Intermed. 1984, 5, 325-345.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>128</sup>Skell; Day Acc. Chem. Res. 1978, 11, 381; Walling; El-Taliawi; Zhao J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1983, 105, 5119; Tanner; Reed; Tan; Meintzer; Walling; Sopchik J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1985, 107, 6576; Lüning; Skell Tetrahedron 1985, 41, 4289; Skell; Lüning; McBain; Tanko J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1986, 108, 121; Lüning; Seshadri; Skell J. Org. Chem. 1986, 51, 2071; Chow; Zhao J. Org. Chem. 1987, 52, 1931, 1989, 54, 530; Zhang; Dong; Jiang; Chow Can. J. Chem. 1990, 68, 1668.

MeCN) in which NBS is more soluble, and by the presence of small amounts of an alkene that lacks an allylic hydrogen (e.g., ethene). The alkene serves to scavenge any Br that forms from the reagent. Among the evidence for the mechanism involving 8 are abstraction selectivities similar to those of Cl• atoms and the isolation of β-bromopropionyl isocyanate BrCH2CH2CONCO, which is formed by ring-opening of 8.

Allylic chlorination has also been carried out 129 with N-chlorosuccinimide and either arylselenyl chlorides ArSeCl, aryl diselenides ArSeSeAr, or TsNSO as catalysts. Use of the selenium catalysts produces almost entirely the allylically rearranged chlorides in high yields. With TsNSO the products are the unrearranged chlorides in lower yields. Dichlorine monoxide Cl<sub>2</sub>O, with no catalyst, also gives allylically rearranged chlorides in high yields. 130 A free-radical mechanism is unlikely in these reactions.

OS IV, 108; V, 825; VI, 462.

#### 4-3 Halogenation of Aldehydes

Halogenation or Halo-de-hydrogenation

Aldehydes can be directly converted to acyl chlorides by treatment with chlorine; however, the reaction operates only when the aldehyde does not contain an α hydrogen and even then it is not very useful. When there is an  $\alpha$  hydrogen,  $\alpha$  halogenation (2-4) occurs instead. Other sources of chlorine have also been used, among them  $SO_2Cl_2^{131}$  and t-BOCl. 132 The mechanisms are probably of the free-radical type. NBS, with AIBN (p. 664) as a catalyst, has been used to convert aldehydes to acyl bromides. 133

OS I, 155.

## Substitution by Oxygen

4-4 Hydroxylation at an Aliphatic Carbon

Hydroxylation or Hydroxy-de-hydrogenation

$$R_3CH \xrightarrow{O_3} R_3COH$$

Compounds containing susceptible C—H bonds can be oxidized to alcohols. 134 Nearly always, the C—H bond involved is tertiary, so the product is a tertiary alcohol. This is partly because tertiary C—H bonds are more susceptible to free-radical attack than primary and secondary bonds and partly because the reagents involved would oxidize primary and secondary alcohols further. In the best method the reagent is ozone and the substrate is absorbed on silica gel. 135 Yields as high as 99% have been obtained by this method. Other reagents, which often give much lower yields, are chromic acid, 136 alkaline permanganate, 137 potassium

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>129</sup>Hori; Sharpless J. Org. Chem. 1979, 44, 4204.

<sup>136</sup> Torii; Tanaka; Tada; Nagao; Sasaoka Chem. Lett. 1984, 877.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>131</sup>Arai Bull. Chem. Soc. Jpn. 1964, 37, 1280, 1965, 38, 252.

<sup>132</sup>Walling; Mintz, Ref. 92

<sup>133</sup> Markó; Mekhalfia Tetrahedron Lett. 1990, 31, 7237. For a related procedure, see Cheung Tetrahedron Lett. **1979,** 3809.

For reviews, see Chinn Selection of Oxidants in Synthesis; Marcel Dekker: New York, 1971, pp. 7-11; Lee, in Augustine Oxidation, vol. 1; Marcel Dekker: New York, 1969, pp. 2-6. For a monograph on all types of alkane activation, see Hill Activation and Functionalization of Alkanes; Wiley: New York, 1989.

<sup>136</sup> Cohen; Keinan; Mazur; Varkony J. Org. Chem. 1975, 40, 2141, Org. Synth. VI, 43; Keinan; Mazur Synthesis

 <sup>1976, 523;</sup> McKillop; Young Synthesis 1979, 401-422, pp. 418-419.
 136 For a review, see Cainelli; Cardillo Chromium Oxidations in Organic Chemistry; Springer: New York, 1984, pp. 8-23.

137 Eastman; Quinn J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1969, 82, 4249.

hydrogen persulfate KHSO<sub>5</sub>, <sup>138</sup> methyl(trifluoromethyl)dioxirane, <sup>139</sup> ruthenium tetroxide RuO<sub>4</sub>, <sup>140</sup> F<sub>2</sub> in MeCN-H<sub>2</sub>O, <sup>141</sup> sodium chlorite NaClO<sub>2</sub> with a metalloporphyrin catalyst, <sup>142</sup> and certain perbenzoic acids. 143 Alkanes and cycloalkanes have been oxidized at secondary positions, to a mixture of alcohols and trifluoroacetates, by 30% aqueous H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> in trifluoroacetic acid. 144 This reagent does not oxidize the alcohols further and ketones are not found. As in the case of chlorination with N-haloamines and sulfuric acid (see 4-1), the  $\omega - 1$  position is the most favored. Another reagent 145 that oxidizes secondary positions is iodosylbenzene, catalyzed by Fe(III)-porphyrin catalysts. 146 Use of an optically active Fe(III)-porphyrin gave enantioselective hydroxylation, with moderate enantiomeric excesses. 147

When chromic acid is the reagent, the mechanism is probably as follows: a Cr<sup>6+</sup> species abstracts a hydrogen to give R<sub>3</sub>C<sub>2</sub>, which is held in a solvent cage near the resulting Cr<sup>5+</sup> species. The two species then combine to give R<sub>3</sub>COCr<sup>4+</sup>, which is hydrolyzed to the alcohol. This mechanism predicts retention of configuration; this is largely observed. 148 The oxidation by permanganate also involves predominant retention of configuration, and a similar mechanism has been proposed. 149

Treatment of double-bond compounds with selenium dioxide introduces an OH group into the allylic position (see also 9-16). So Allylic rearrangements are common. There is evidence that the mechanism does not involve free radicals but includes two pericyclic steps (A and B):151

The step marked A is similar to the ene synthesis (5-16). The step marked B is a [2,3]sigmatropic rearrangement (see 8-37). The reaction can also be accomplished with

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>136</sup>De Poorter; Ricci; Meunier Tetrahedron Lett. 1985, 26, 4459.

<sup>139</sup> Mello; Fiorentino; Fusco; Curci J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1989, 111, 6749. For a review of dioxiranes as oxidizing agents, see Adam; Curci; Edwards Acc. Chem. Res. 1989, 22, 205-211. See also Murray; Jeyaraman; Mohan J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1986, 108, 2470.

Bakke; Lundquist Acta Chem. Scand., Ser. B 1986, 40, 430; Tenaglia; Terranova; Waegell Tetrahedron Lett. 1989, 30, 5271; Bakke; Braenden Acta Chem. Scand. 1991, 45, 418.

<sup>141</sup> Rozen; Brand; Kol J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1989, 111, 8325.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>142</sup>Collman; Tanaka; Hembre; Brauman J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1990, 112, 3689.

<sup>143</sup> Schneider; Müller Angew. Chem. Int. Ed. Engl. 1982, 21, 146 [Angew. Chem. 94, 153], J. Org. Chem. 1985, 50, 4609; Takaishi; Fujikura; Inamoto Synthesis 1983, 293; Tori; Sono; Asakawa Bull. Chem. Soc. Jpn. 1985, 58, 2669. See also Querci; Ricci Tetrahedron Lett. 1990, 31, 1779.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>144</sup>Deno; Jedziniak; Messer; Meyer; Stroud; Tomezsko Tetrahedron 1977, 33, 2503.

<sup>146</sup> For other procedures, see Sharma; Sonawane; Dev Tetrahedron 1985, 41, 2483; Nam; Valentine New J. Chem. 1989, 13, 677.

\*\*See Groves; Nemo J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1983, 105, 6243.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>147</sup>Groves; Viski J. Org. Chem. 1990, 55, 3628.

<sup>14</sup> Wiberg; Foster J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1961, 83, 423, Chem. Ind. (London) 1961, 108; Wiberg; Eisenthal Tetrahedron **1964,** *20*, 1151.

Wiberg; Fox J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1963, 85, 3487; Brauman; Pandell J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1970, 92, 329; Stewart; Spitzer Can. J. Chem. 1978, 56, 1273.

<sup>150</sup> For reviews, see Rabjohn, Org. React. 1976, 24, 261-415; Jerussi Sel. Org. Transform. 1970, 1, 301-326; Trachtenberg, in Augustine, Ref. 134, pp. 123-153.

<sup>151</sup> Sharpless; Lauer J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1972, 94, 7154; Arigoni; Vasella; Sharpless; Jensen J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1973, 95, 7917; Woggon; Ruther; Egli J. Chem. Soc., Chem. Commun. 1980, 706. For other mechanistic proposals, see Schaefer; Horvath; Klein J. Org. Chem. 1968, 33, 2647; Trachtenberg; Nelson; Carver J. Org. Chem. 1970, 35, 1653; Bhalerao; Rapoport J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1971, 93, 4835; Stephenson; Speth J. Org. Chem. 1979, 44, 4683.

t-butyl hydroperoxide, if SeO<sub>2</sub> is present in catalytic amounts (the Sharpless method). 152 The SeO<sub>2</sub> is the actual reagent; the peroxide reoxidizes the Se(OH)<sub>2</sub>. <sup>153</sup> This method makes work-up easier, but gives significant amounts of side products when the double bond is in a ring. 154 Alkynes generally give  $\alpha, \alpha'$  dihydroxylation. 155

Ketones and carboxylic esters can be  $\alpha$  hydroxylated by treatment of their enolate forms (prepared by adding the ketone or ester to lithium diisopropylamide) with a molybdenum peroxide reagent (MoO<sub>5</sub>-pyridine-HMPA) in THF-hexane at -70°C. 156 The enolate forms of amides and esters<sup>157</sup> and the enamine derivatives of ketones<sup>158</sup> can similarly be converted to their α hydroxy derivatives by reaction with molecular oxygen. The MoO<sub>5</sub> method can also be applied to certain nitriles. 156 Ketones have also been  $\alpha$  hydroxylated by treating the corresponding silyl enol ethers with m-chloroperbenzoic acid, 159 or with certain other oxidizing agents. 160 When the silvl enol ethers are treated with iodosobenzene in the presence of trimethylsilyl trifluoromethyl sulfonate, the product is the  $\alpha$ -keto triflate. <sup>161</sup>

Ketones can be  $\alpha$  hydroxylated in good yields, without conversion to the enolates, by treatment with the hypervalent iodine reagents<sup>162</sup> o-iodosobenzoic acid<sup>163</sup> or phenyliodoso acetate PhI(OAc)<sub>2</sub> in methanolic NaOH.<sup>164</sup> The latter reagent has also been used on carboxylic esters. <sup>165</sup> O<sub>2</sub> and a chiral phase transfer catalyst gave enantioselective α hydroxylation of ketones, if the  $\alpha$  position was tertiary. 166

A different method for the conversion of ketones to  $\alpha$ -hydroxy ketones consists of treating the enolate with a 2-sulfonyloxaziridine (such as 9). 167 This is not a free-radical process; the following mechanism is likely:

152 Umbreit; Sharpless J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1977, 99, 5526. See also Uemura; Fukuzawa; Toshimitsu; Okano Tetrahedron Lett. 1982, 23, 87; Singh; Sabharwal; Sayal; Chhabra Chem. Ind. (London) 1989, 533.

153 For the use of the peroxide with O2 instead of SeO2, see Sabol; Wiglesworth; Watt Synth. Commun. 1988, 18, 1.
 154Warpehoski; Chabaud; Sharpless J. Org. Chem. 1982, 47, 2897.

155 Chabaud; Sharpless J. Org. Chem. 1979, 44, 4202.

156 Vedejs J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1974, 96, 5944; Vedejs; Telschow J. Org. Chem. 1976, 41, 740; Vedejs; Larsen Org. Synth. VII. 277; Gamboni; Tamm Tetrahedron Lett. 1986, 27, 3999; Helv. Chim. Acta 1986, 69, 615. See also Anderson; Smith Synlett 1990, 107.

157 Wasserman; Lipshutz Tetrahedron Lett. 1975, 1731. For another method, see Pohmakotr; Winotai Synth. Com-

158 Cuvigny; Valette; Larcheveque; Normant J. Organomet. Chem. 1978, 155, 147.

159 Rubottom; Vazquez; Pelegrina Tetrahedron Lett. 1974, 4319; Rubottom; Gruber J. Org. Chem. 1978, 43, 1599; Hassner; Reuss; Pinnick J. Org. Chem. 1975, 40, 3427; Andriamialisoa; Langlois; Langlois Tetrahedron Lett. 1985, 26, 3563; Rubottom; Gruber; Juve; Charleson Org. Synth. VII, 282. See also Horiguchi; Nakamura; Kuwajima Tetrahedron Lett. 1989, 30, 3323.

166 McCormick; Tomasik; Johnson Tetrahedron Lett. 1981, 22, 607; Moriarty; Prakash; Duncan Synthesis 1985, 943; Iwata; Takemoto; Nakamura; Imanishi Tetrahedron Lett. 1985, 26, 3227; Davis; Sheppard J. Org. Chem. 1987, 52, 954; Takai; Yamada; Rhode; Mukaiyama Chem. Lett. 1991, 281.

161 Moriarty; Epa; Penmasta; Awasthi Tetrahedron Lett. 1989, 30, 667.

162 For a review, see Moriarty; Prakash Acc. Chem. Res. 1986, 19, 244-250.

Moriarty; Hou Tetrahedron Lett. 1984, 25, 691; Moriarty; Hou; Prakash; Arora Org. Synth. VII, 263.

164 Moriarty; Hu; Gupta Tetrahedron Lett. 1981, 22, 1283.

165 Moriarty; Hu Tetrahedron Lett. 1981, 22, 2747.

166 Masui; Ando; Shioiri Tetrahedron Lett. 1988, 29, 2835.

167 Davis; Vishwakarma; Billmers; Finn J. Org. Chem. 1984, 49, 3241.

The method is also successful for carboxylic esters<sup>167</sup> and N,N-disubstituted amides, <sup>168</sup> and can be made enantioselective by the use of a chiral oxaziridine. 169 Dimethyldioxirane also oxidizes ketones (through their enolate forms) to α-hydroxy ketones. 169a

Dimethyldioxirane

Tetrahydrofuran was converted to the hemiacetal 2-hydroxytetrahydrofuran (which was relatively stable under the conditions used) by electrolysis in water<sup>170</sup> (see also 4-7).

OS IV, 23; VI, 43, 946; VII, 263, 277, 282.

#### **4-5** Hydroxylation at an Aromatic Carbon<sup>171</sup>

Hydroxylation or Hydroxy-de-hydrogenation

$$ArH + H_2O_2 + FeSO_4 \longrightarrow ArOH$$

A mixture of hydrogen peroxide and ferrous sulfate, <sup>172</sup> called *Fenton's reagent*, <sup>173</sup> can be used to hydroxylate aromatic rings, though yields are usually not high. 174 Biaryls are usually side products. 175 Among other reagents used have been H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and titanous ion; O<sub>2</sub> and Cu(I)<sup>176</sup> or Fe(III), <sup>177</sup> a mixture of ferrous ion, oxygen, ascorbic acid, and ethylenetetraaminetetraacetic acid (*Udenfriend's reagent*); <sup>178</sup> α-azo hydroperoxides ArN=NCHPhOOH; <sup>179</sup> O<sub>2</sub> and KOH in liquid NH<sub>3</sub>; <sup>180</sup> and peracids such as pernitrous and trifluoroperacetic acids.

Much work has been done on the mechanism of the reaction with Fenton's reagent, and it is known that free aryl radicals (formed by a process such as  $HO^{\bullet} + ArH \rightarrow Ar^{\bullet} + H_2O$ ) are not intermediates. The mechanism is essentially that outlined on p. 680, with HO• as the attacking species, 181 formed by

$$Fe^{2+} + H_2O_2 \longrightarrow Fe^{3+} + OH^- + HO$$

166 Davis; Vishwakarma Tetrahedron Lett. 1985, 26, 3539.

169 Evans; Morrissey; Dorow J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1985, 107, 4346; Davis; Ulatowski; Haque J. Org. Chem. 1987, 52, 5288; Enders; Bhushan Tetrahedron Lett. 1988, 29, 2437; Davis; Sheppard; Chen; Haque J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1990, 112, 6679; Davis; Weismiller J. Org. Chem. 1990, 55, 3715.

169aGuertin; Chan Tetrahedron Lett. 1991, 32, 715.

170 Wermeckes; Beck; Schulz Tetrahedron 1987, 43, 577.

<sup>171</sup>For reviews, see Vysotskaya Russ. Chem. Rev. 1973, 42, 851-856; Sangster, in Patai The Chemistry of the Hydroxyl Group, pt. 1; Wiley: New York, 1971, pp. 133-191; Metelitsa Russ. Chem. Rev. 1971, 40, 563-580; Enisov; Metelitsa Russ. Chem. Rev. 1968, 37, 656-665; Loudon Prog. Org. Chem. 1961, 5, 47-72.

<sup>172</sup>For a review of reactions of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and metal ions with all kinds of organic compounds, including aromatic rings, see Sosnovsky; Rawlinson, in Swern Organic Peroxides, vol. 2; Wiley: New York, 1970, pp. 269-336. See also Sheldon; Kochi Metal-Catalyzed Oxidations of Organic Compounds; Academic Press: New York, 1981.

<sup>173</sup>For a discussion of Fenton's reagent, see Walling Acc. Chem. Res. 1975, 8, 125-131.

<sup>174</sup>Yields can be improved with phase transfer catalysis: Karakhanov; Narin; Filippova; Dedov Doklad. Chem. 1987, 292, 81.

1985See the discussion of the aromatic free-radical substitution mechanism on pp. 680-681.

<sup>176</sup>See Karlin; Hayes; Gultneh; Cruse; McKown; Hutchinson; Zubieta J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1984, 106, 2121; Cruse; Kaderli; Meyer; Zuberbühler; Karlin J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1988, 110, 5020; Ito; Kunai; Okada; Sasaki J. Org. Chem. 1988, 53, 296.

<sup>177</sup>Funabiki; Tsujimoto; Ozawa; Yoshida Chem. Lett. 1989, 1267.

<sup>178</sup>Udenfriend; Clark; Axelrod; Brodie J. Biol. Chem. 1954, 208, 731; Brodie; Shore; Udenfriend J. Biol. Chem. 1954, 208, 741. See also Tamagaki; Suzuki; Tagaki Bull. Chem. Soc. Jpn. 1989, 62, 148, 153, 159.

<sup>179</sup>Tezuka; Narita; Ando; Oac J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1981, 103, 3045.

<sup>180</sup>Malykhin; Kolesnichenko; Shteingarts J. Org. Chem. USSR 1986, 22, 720.

181 Jefcoate; Lindsay Smith; Norman; J. Chem. Soc. B 1969, 1013; Brook; Castle; Lindsay Smith; Higgins; Morris J. Chem. Soc., Perkin Trans. 2 1982, 687; Lai; Piette Tetrahedron Lett. 1979, 775; Kunai; Hata; Ito; Sasaki J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1986, 108, 6012.

The rate-determining step is formation of HO• and not its reaction with the aromatic substrate.

See also 1-29.

#### 4-6 Oxidation of Aldehydes to Carboxylic Acids

#### Hydroxylation or Hydroxy-de-hydrogenation

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
R - C - H & \xrightarrow{MnO_{\bullet}} & R - C - OH \\
\downarrow & & \downarrow \\
O & O
\end{array}$$

Oxidation of aldehydes to carboxylic acids is one of the most common oxidation reactions in organic chemistry<sup>182</sup> and has been carried out with many oxidizing agents, the most popular of which is permanganate in acid, basic, or neutral solution. 183 Chromic acid 184 and bromine are other reagents frequently employed. Silver oxide is a fairly specific oxidizing agent for aldehydes and does not readily attack other groups. Benedict's and Fehling's solutions oxidize aldehydes, 185 and a test for aldehydes depends on this reaction, but the method is seldom used for preparative purposes and in any case gives very poor results with aromatic aldehydes.  $\alpha,\beta$ -Unsaturated aldehydes can be oxidized by sodium chlorite without disturbing the double bond. 186 Aldehydes are also oxidized to carboxylic acids by atmospheric oxygen, but the actual direct oxidation product in this case is the peroxy acid RCO<sub>3</sub>H, <sup>187</sup> which with another molecule of aldehyde disproportionates to give two molecules of acid (see 4-9). 188

Mechanisms of aldehyde oxidation<sup>189</sup> are not firmly established, but there seem to be at least two main types—a free-radical mechanism and an ionic one. In the free-radical process, the aldehydic hydrogen is abstracted to leave an acyl radical, which obtains OH from the oxidizing agent. In the ionic process, the first step is addition of a species OZ- to the carbonyl bond to give 10 in alkaline solution and 11 in acid or neutral solution. The aldehydic hydrogen of 10 or 11 is then lost as a proton to a base, while Z leaves with its electron pair.

182 For reviews, see Haines Methods for the Oxidation of Organic Compounds; Academic Press: New York, 1988,

pp. 241-263, 423-428; Chinn, Ref. 134, pp. 63-70; Lee, Ref. 134, pp. 81-86.

183 For lists of some of the oxidizing agents used, with references, see Hudlicky Oxidations in Organic Chemistry; American Chemical Society: Washington, 1990, pp. 174-180; Ref. 74, pp. 838-840; Srivastava; Venkataramani Synth. Commun. 1988, 18, 2193. See also Haines, Ref. 182.

184 For a review, see Cainelli; Cardillo, Ref. 136, pp. 217-225.

188 For a review, see Nigh, in Trahanovsky Oxidation in Organic Chemistry, pt. B; Academic Press: New York, 1973, pp. 31-34.
 186Bal; Childers; Pinnick Tetrahedron 1981, 37, 2091; Dalcanale; Montanari J. Org. Chem. 1986, 51, 567. See also

Bayle; Perez; Courtieu Bull. Soc. Chim. Fr. 1990, 565.

<sup>187</sup>For a review of the preparation of peroxy acids by this and other methods, see Swern, in Swern, Ref. 172, vol.

 pp. 313-516.
 IBB For reviews of the autoxidation of aldehydes, see Vardanyan; Nalbandyan Russ. Chem. Rev. 1985, 54, 532-543 (gas phase); Sajus; Sérée de Roch, in Bamford; Tipper, Ref. 37, vol. 16, 1980, pp. 89-124 (liquid phase); Maslov; Blyumberg Russ. Chem. Rev. 1976, 45, 155-167 (liquid phase). For a review of photochemical oxidation of aldehydes by O<sub>2</sub>, see Niclause; Lemaire; Letort Adv. Photochem. 1966, 4, 25-48. For a discussion of the mechanism of catalyzed atmospheric oxidation of aldehydes, see Larkin J. Org. Chem. 1990, 55, 1563.

For a review, see Roček, in Patai The Chemistry of the Carbonyl Group, vol. 1; Wiley: New York, 1966, pp.

461-505.

For oxidation with acid dichromate the picture seems to be quite complex, with several processes of both types going on: 190

Steps 1 and 2 constitute an oxidation by the ionic pathway by Cr(VI), and steps 6 and 7 a similar oxidation by Cr(V), which is produced by an electron-transfer process. Either Cr(VI) (step 3) or Cr(IV) (step 4) [Cr(IV) is produced in step 2] may abstract a hydrogen and the resulting acyl radical is converted to carboxylic acid in step 5. Thus, chromium in three oxidation states is instrumental in oxidizing aldehydes. Still another possible process has

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>190</sup>Wiberg; Richardson J. Am. Chem. Soc. **1962**, 84, 2800; Wiberg; Szeimies J. Am. Chem. Soc. **1974**, 96, 1889. See also Roček; Ng J. Am. Chem. Soc. **1974**, 96, 1522, 2840; Sen Gupta; Dey; Sen Gupta Tetrahedron **1990**, 46, 2431.

been proposed in which the chromic acid ester decomposes as follows: 191

The mechanism with permanganate is less well-known, but an ionic mechanism has been proposed<sup>192</sup> for neutral and acid permanganate, similar to steps 1 and 2 for dichromate:

For alkaline permanganate, the following mechanism has been proposed:193

RCHO 
$$\xrightarrow{OH^-}$$
 R  $\xrightarrow{C}$   $\xrightarrow{MnO_3^-}$  RCOOH +  $HMnO_4^{2^-}$   $\xrightarrow{RCOO^-}$  +  $MnO_3^-$  +  $H_2O$   $\xrightarrow{Mn(V)}$  +  $Mn(VII)$   $\xrightarrow{Mn(VII)}$   $\xrightarrow{2Mn(VI)}$ 

OS I, 166; II, 302, 315, 538; III, 745; IV, 302, 493, 499, 919, 972, 974.

#### 4-7 Electrochemical Alkoxylation

## Alkoxylation or Alkoxy-de-hydrogenation

Ethers can be converted to acetals, and acetals to ortho esters, by anodic oxidation in an alcohol as solvent. <sup>194</sup> Yields are moderate. In a similar reaction, certain amides, carbamates, and sulfonamides can be alkoxylated  $\alpha$  to the nitrogen, e.g., MeSO<sub>2</sub>NMe<sub>2</sub>  $\rightarrow$  MeSO<sub>2</sub>N(Me)CH<sub>2</sub>OCH<sub>3</sub>. <sup>195</sup>

OS VII, 307.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>191</sup>See Roček; Ng J. Org. Chem. **1973**, 38, 3348.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>192</sup>See, for example, Freeman; Lin; Moore J. Org. Chem. 1982, 47, 56; Jain; Banerji J. Chem. Res. (S) 1983, 60.

<sup>193</sup> Freeman; Brant; Hester; Kamego; Kasner; McLaughlin; Paull J. Org. Chem. 1970, 35, 982.

<sup>14</sup>Shono; Matsumura; Onomura; Yamada Synthesis 1987, 1099; Ginzel; Steckhan Tetrahedron 1987, 43, 5797.

<sup>195</sup> Ross; Finkelstein; Rudd J. Org. Chem. 1972, 37, 2387. See also Moeller; Tarazi; Marzabadi Tetrahedron Lett. 1989, 30, 1213; Shono; Matsumura; Tsubata Org. Synth. VII, 307. For a table of compounds subjected to this reaction, see Shono Electroorganic Chemistry as a New Tool in Organic Synthesis; Springer: New York, 1984, pp. 63-66.

#### 4-8 Formation of Cyclic Ethers

#### (5) OC-cyclo-Alkoxy-de-hydro-substitution

$$-C - C - C - C - C - OH \xrightarrow{Pb(OAc)_{\bullet}}$$

Alcohols with a hydrogen in the  $\delta$  position can be cyclized with lead tetraacetate. <sup>196</sup> The reaction is usually carried out at about 80°C (most often in refluxing benzene) but can also be done at room temperature if the reaction mixture is irradiated with uv light. Tetrahydrofurans are formed in high yields. Little or no four- and six-membered cyclic ethers (oxetanes and tetrahydropyrans, respectively) are obtained even when  $\gamma$  and  $\epsilon$  hydrogens are present. The reaction has also been carried out with a mixture of halogen (Br<sub>2</sub> or I<sub>2</sub>) and a salt or oxide of silver or mercury (especially HgO or AgOAc), <sup>197</sup> with iodosobenzene diacetate and I<sub>2</sub>, <sup>198</sup> and with ceric ammonium nitrate (CAN). <sup>199</sup> The following mechanism is likely for the lead tetraacetate reaction: <sup>200</sup>

though 12 has never been isolated. The step marked A is a 1,5 internal hydrogen abstraction. Such abstractions are well-known (see p. 1153) and are greatly favored over 1,4 or 1,6 abstractions (the small amounts of tetrahydropyran formed result from 1,6 abstractions).<sup>201</sup>

Reactions that sometimes compete are oxidation to the aldehyde or acid (9-3 and 9-22) and fragmentation of the substrate. When the OH group is on a ring of at least seven

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>196</sup>For reviews, see Mihailović; Partch Sel. Org. Transform. 1972, 2, 97-182; Milhailović; Čeković Synthesis 1970, 209-224. For a review of the chemistry of lead tetraacetate, see Butler, in Pizey, Ref. 85, vol. 3, 1977, pp. 277-419.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>197</sup>Akhtar; Barton J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1964, 86, 1528; Sneen; Matheny J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1964, 86, 3905, 5503; Roscher; Shaffer Tetrahedron 1984, 40, 2643. For a review, see Kalvoda; Heusler Synthesis 1971, 501-526. For a list of references, see Ref. 74, p. 445.

<sup>156</sup> Concepción; Francisco; Hernández; Salazar; Suárez Tetrahedron Lett. 1984, 25, 1953; Furuta; Nagata; Yamamoto Tetrahedron Lett. 1988, 29, 2215.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>199</sup>See, for example, Trahanovsky; Young; Nave Tetrahedron Lett. 1969, 2501; Doyle; Zuidema; Bade J. Org. Chem. 1975, 40, 1454.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>266</sup>Milhailović; Čeković; Maksimović; Jeremić; Lorenc; Mamuzić Tetrahedron 1965, 21, 2799.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>201</sup>Milhailović; Čeković; Jeremić Tetrahedron 1965, 21, 2813.

members, a transannular product can be formed, e.g., 202

β-Hydroxy ethers can give cyclic acetals, e.g., <sup>203</sup>

A different kind of formation of a cyclic ether was reported by Paquette and Kobayashi, <sup>204</sup> who found that when the epoxide 13 of second ecanedrane was treated with sodium chro-

mate and HOAc-Ac<sub>2</sub>O, the diepoxide 14 was obtained. Thus, the unusual transformation

$$H H O$$
 $C-C \longrightarrow C-C$ 

was achieved in this case. It is likely that the large degree of strain in this system was at least partially responsible for the formation of this product.

There are no references in *Organic Syntheses*, but see OS V, 692; VI, 958, for related reactions.

## 4-9 Formation of Hydroperoxides

#### Hydroperoxy-de-hydrogenation

$$RH + O_2 \longrightarrow R-O-O-H$$

The slow atmospheric oxidation (slow meaning without combustion) of C—H to C—O—H is called autoxidation.<sup>205</sup> The reaction occurs when compounds are allowed to stand in air and is catalyzed by light, so unwanted autoxidations can be greatly slowed by keeping the compounds in dark places. The hydroperoxides produced often react further

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>202</sup>Cope; Gordon; Moon; Park J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1965, 87, 3119; Moriarty; Walsh Tetrahedron Lett. 1965, 465; Milhailović; Čeković; Andrejević; Matić; Jeremić Tetrahedron 1968, 24, 4947.

<sup>203</sup> Furuta et al., Ref. 198.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>204</sup>Paquette; Kobayashi Tetrahedron Lett. 1987, 28, 3531.

The term autoxidation actually applies to any slow oxidation with atmospheric oxygen. For reviews, see Sheldon; Kochi Adv. Catal. 1976, 25, 272-413; Howard, in Kochi, Ref. 8, vol. 2, pp. 3-62; Lloyd Methods Free-Radical Chem. 1973, 4, 1-131; Betts Q. Rev., Chem. Soc. 1971, 25, 265-288; Huyser Free-Radical Chain Reactions, Ref. 1, pp. 306-312; Chinn, Ref. 134, pp. 29-39; Ingold Acc. Chem. Res. 1969, 2, 1-9; Mayo Acc. Chem. Res. 1968, I, 193-201. For monographs on these and similar reactions, see Bamford; Tipper, Ref. 37, Vol. 16, 1980; Sheldon; Kochi, Ref. 172.

to give alcohols, ketones, and more complicated products, so the reaction is not often used for preparative purposes, although in some cases hydroperoxides have been prepared in good yield. 206 It is because of autoxidation that foods, rubber, paint, lubricating oils, etc. deteriorate on exposure to the atmosphere over periods of time. On the other hand, a useful application of autoxidation is the atmospheric drying of paints and varnishes. As with other free-radical reactions of C—H bonds, some bonds are attacked more readily than others, 207 and these are the ones we have seen before (pp. 683-685), though the selectivity is very low at high temperatures and in the gas phase. The reaction can be carried out successfully at tertiary (to a lesser extent, secondary), benzylic, 208 and allylic (though allylic rearrangements are common) R. 209 The following are actual examples:

Another susceptible position is aldehydic C—H, but the peracids so produced are not easily isolated since they are converted to the corresponding carboxylic acids (4-6). The  $\alpha$  positions of ethers are also easily attacked by oxygen:

$$RO - \stackrel{\downarrow}{C} - H \xrightarrow{O_1} RO - \stackrel{\downarrow}{C} - OOH$$

but the resulting hydroperoxides are seldom isolated. However, this reaction constitutes a hazard in the storage of ethers since solutions of these hydroperoxides and their rearrangement products in ethers are potential spontaneous explosives.<sup>210</sup>

Oxygen itself (a diradical) is not reactive enough to be the species that actually abstracts the hydrogen. But if a trace of free radical (say R'•) is produced by some initiating process, it reacts with oxygen<sup>211</sup> to give R'—O—O•; since this type of radical does abstract hydrogen, the chain is

$$R'OO \cdot + RH \longrightarrow R \cdot + R'OOH$$
  
 $R \cdot + O_2 \longrightarrow R \longrightarrow O \longrightarrow O \cdot$ 

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>266</sup>For a review of the synthesis of alkyl peroxides and hydroperoxides, see Sheldon, in Patai *The Chemistry of Peroxides*; Wiley: New York, 1983, pp. 161-200.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>207</sup>For a discussion, see Korcek; Chenier; Howard; Ingold Can. J. Chem. 1972, 50, 2285, and other papers in this series.

For a method that gives good yields at benzylic positions, see Santamaria; Jroundi; Rigaudy Tetrahedron Lett. 1989, 30, 4677.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>269</sup>For a review of autoxidation at allylic and benzylic positions, see Voronenkov; Vinogradov; Belyaev Russ. Chem. Rev. 1970, 39, 944-952.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>210</sup>For methods of detection and removal of peroxides from ether solvents, see Gordon; Ford *The Chemist's Companion*; Wiley: New York, 1972, p. 437; Burfield, *J. Org. Chem.* 1982, 47, 3821.

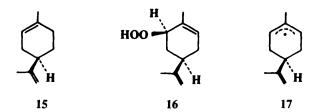
<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>211</sup>See, for example Schwetlick J. Chem. Soc., Perkin Trans. 2 1988, 2007.

In at least some cases (in alkaline media)<sup>212</sup> the radical R• can be produced by formation of a carbanion and its oxidation (by O<sub>2</sub>) to a radical, e.g., <sup>213</sup>

$$\begin{array}{c}
H \\
-C - CH = CH_2 \xrightarrow{\text{base}} \xrightarrow{\Theta} \overline{C} - C = CH_2 + O_2 \longrightarrow -\dot{C} - CH = CH_2 + \left[ \overline{Q} - \overline{Q} \right]
\end{array}$$

Autoxidations in alkaline media can also proceed by a different mechanism: R-H + base  $\rightarrow R^- + O_2 \rightarrow ROO^-$ .<sup>214</sup>

When alkenes are treated with oxygen that has been photosensitized (p. 241), they are substituted by OOH in the allylic position in a synthetically useful reaction.<sup>215</sup> Although superficially similar to autoxidation, this reaction is clearly different because 100% allylic rearrangement always takes place. The reagent here is not the ground-state oxygen (a triplet) but an excited singlet state<sup>216</sup> (in which all electrons are paired), and the function of the photosensitization is to promote the oxygen to this singlet state. Singlet oxygen can also be produced by nonphotochemical means, 217 e.g., by the reaction between H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and NaOCl<sup>218</sup> or sodium molybdate, <sup>219</sup> or between ozone and triphenyl phosphite. <sup>220</sup> The oxygen generated by either photochemical or nonphotochemical methods reacts with olefins in the same way;<sup>221</sup> this is evidence that singlet oxygen is the reacting species in the photochemical reaction and not some hypothetical complex between triplet oxygen and the photosensitizer, as had previously been suggested. The fact that 100% allylic rearrangement always takes place is incompatible with a free-radical mechanism, and further evidence that free radicals are not involved comes from the treatment of optically active limonene (15) with singlet oxygen. Among other products is the optically active hydroperoxide 16, though if 17 were an inter-



<sup>212</sup>For a review of base-catalyzed autoxidations in general, see Sosnovsky; Zaret, in Swern, Ref. 172, vol. 1, pp. 517-560.

<sup>213</sup>Barton; Jones J. Chem. Soc. **1965**, 3563; Russell; Bemis J. Am. Chem. Soc. **1966**, 88, 5491.

<sup>214</sup>Gersmann; Bickel J. Chem. Soc. B 1971, 2230.

<sup>215</sup>For reviews, see Frimer; Stephenson, in Frimer, Ref. 216, vol. 2, pp. 67-91; Wasserman; Ives Tetrahedron 1981, 37, 1825-1852; Gollnick; Kuhn, in Wasserman; Murray, Ref. 216, pp. 287-427; Denny, Nickon Org. React. 1973, 20, 133-336; Adams, in Augustine, Ref. 134, vol. 2, pp. 65-112.

<sup>216</sup>For books on singlet oxygen, see Frimer Singlet O<sub>2</sub>, 4 vols.; CRC Press: Boca Raton, FL, 1985; Wasserman; Murray Singlet Oxygen; Academic Press: New York, 1979. For reviews, see Frimer, in Patai, Ref. 206, pp. 201-234; Gorman; Rodgers, Chem. Soc. Rev. 1981, 10, 205-231; Shinkarenko; Aleskovskii Russ. Chem. Rev. 1981, 50, 220-231; Shlyapintokh; Ivanov Russ. Chem. Rev. 1976, 45, 99-110; Ohloff Pure Appl. Chem. 1975, 43, 481-502; Kearns Chem. Rev. 1971, 71, 395-427; Wayne Adv. Photochem. 1969, 7, 311-371.

<sup>217</sup>For reviews, see Turro; Ramamurthy, in de Mayo Rearrangements in Ground and Excited States, vol. 3; Academic Press: New York, 1980, pp. 1-23; Murray, in Wasserman; Murray, Ref. 216, pp. 59-114. For a general monograph, see Adam; Cilento, Chemical and Biological Generation of Excited States; Academic Press: New York, 1982.

218 Foote; Wexler J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1964, 86, 3879.

<sup>219</sup>Aubry; Cazin; Duprat J. Org. Chem. 1989, 54, 726.

<sup>220</sup>Murray; Kaplan J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1969, 91, 5358; Bartlett; Mendenhall; Durham J. Org. Chem. 1980, 45,

<sup>221</sup>Foote; Wexler; Ando; Higgins J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1968, 90, 975. See also McKeown; Waters J. Chem. Soc. B 1966, 1040.

mediate, it could not give an optically active product since it possesses a plane of symmetry.<sup>222</sup> In contrast, autoxidation of 15 gave optically inactive 16 (a mixture of four diastereomers in which the two pairs of enantiomers are present as racemic mixtures). As this example shows, singlet oxygen reacts faster with more-highly substituted than with less-highly substituted alkenes. The order of alkene reactivity is tetrasubstituted > trisubstituted > disubstituted. Electron-withdrawing substituents deactivate the olefin. 223 In simple trisubstituted olefins, there is a general preference for the hydrogen to be removed from the more highly congested side of the double bond.<sup>224</sup> With cis-alkenes of the form RCH=CHR', the hydrogen is removed from the larger R group. 225 Many functional groups in an allylic position cause the hydrogen to be removed from that side rather than the other (geminal selectivity).<sup>226</sup> Also, in alkyl-substituted alkenes, the hydrogen that is preferentially removed is the one geminal to the larger substituent on the double bond.<sup>227</sup>

Several mechanisms have been proposed for the reaction with singlet oxygen.<sup>228</sup> One of these is a pericyclic mechanism, similar to that of the ene synthesis (5-16) and to the first

step of the reaction between alkenes and SeO<sub>2</sub>(4-4). However, there is strong evidence against this mechanism,<sup>229</sup> and a more likely mechanism involves addition of singlet oxygen to the double bond to give a perepoxide (18), 230 followed by internal proton transfer. 231

Still other proposed mechanisms involve diradicals or dipolar intermediates.<sup>232</sup> OS IV, 895.

<sup>222</sup>Schenck; Gollnick; Buchwald; Schroeter; Ohloff Liebigs Ann. Chem. 1964, 674, 93; Schenck; Neumüller; Ohloff; Schroeter Liebigs Ann. Chem. 1965, 687, 26.

<sup>223</sup>For example, see Foote; Denny J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1971, 93, 5162.

<sup>224</sup>Schulte-Elte; Muller; Rautenstrauch Helv. Chim. Acta 1978, 61, 2777; Orfanopoulos; Grdina; Stephenson J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1979, 101, 275; Rautenstrauch; Thommen; Schulte-Elte Helv. Chim. Acta 1986, 69, 1638.

<sup>225</sup>Orfanopoulos; Stratakis; Elemes Tetrahedron Lett. 1989, 30, 4875.

<sup>226</sup>Clennan; Chen; Koola J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1990, 112, 5193, and references cited therein.

<sup>227</sup>Orfanopoulos; Stratakis; Elemes J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1990, 112, 6417.

<sup>228</sup>For reviews of the mechanism, see Frimer; Stephenson, Ref. 215, pp. 80-87; Stephenson; Grdina; Orfanopoulos Acc. Chem. Res. 1980, 13, 419-425; Gollnick; Kuhn, Ref. 215, pp. 288-341; Frimer Chem. Rev. 1979, 79, 359-387; Foote Acc. Chem. Res. 1968, 1, 104-110, Pure Appl. Chem. 1971, 27, 635-645; Gollnick Adv. Photochem. 1968, 6, 1-122; Kearns, Ref. 216.
<sup>229</sup>Asveld; Kellogg J. Org. Chem. 1982, 47, 1250.

<sup>236</sup>For a review of perepoxides as intermediates in organic reactions, see Mitchell Chem. Soc. Rev. 1985, 14. 399-

419, pp. 401-406.

<sup>231</sup>For evidence in favor of this mechanism, at least with some kinds of substrates, see Jefford; Rimbault J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1978, 100, 6437; Okada; Mukai J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1979, 100, 6509; Paquette; Hertel; Gleiter; Böhm J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1978, 100, 6510; Hurst; Wilson; Schuster Tetrahedron 1985, 41, 2191; Wilson; Schuster J. Org. Chem. 1986, 51, 2056; Davies; Schiesser Tetrahedron Lett. 1989, 30, 7099; Orfanopoulos; Smonou; Foote J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1990, 112, 3607.

<sup>232</sup>See, for example, Jefford Helv. Chim. Acta 1981, 64, 2534.

REACTIONS 709 **REACTION 4-11** 

#### 4-10 Formation of Peroxides

#### Alkyldioxy-de-hydrogenation

Peroxy groups (ROO) can be introduced into susceptible organic molecules by treatment with a hydroperoxide in the presence of cuprous chloride or other catalysts, e.g., cobalt and manganese salts.<sup>233</sup> Very high yields can be obtained. The type of hydrogen replaced is similar to that with N-bromosuccinimide (4-2), i.e., mainly benzylic, allylic, and tertiary. The mechanism is therefore of the free-radical type, involving ROO formed from ROOH and the metal ion. The reaction can be used to demethylate tertiary amines of the form R<sub>2</sub>NCH<sub>3</sub>, since the product R<sub>2</sub>NHCH<sub>2</sub>OOR' can easily be hydrolyzed by acid (0-6) to give R<sub>2</sub>NH, 234

#### 4-11 Acyloxylation or Acyloxy-de-hydrogenation

$$RH + Me_3C - O - O - C - R' \xrightarrow{Cu'/Cu'} R - O - C - R'$$

$$O$$

Susceptible positions of organic compounds can be directly acyloxylated<sup>235</sup> by t-butyl peresters, the most frequently used being acetic and benzoic (R' = Me or Ph).<sup>236</sup> The reaction requires a catalyst (cuprous ion is the actual catalyst, but a trace is all that is necessary, and such traces are usually present in cupric compounds, so that these are often used) and without it is not selective. Susceptible positions are similar to those in 4-9: benzylic, allylic, and the  $\alpha$  position of ethers and sulfides. Terminal olefins are substituted almost entirely in the 3 position, i.e., with only a small amount of allylic rearrangement, but internal olefins generally give mixtures containing a large amount of allylic-shift product. If the reaction with olefins is carried out in an excess of another acid R"COOH, the ester produced is of that acid ROCOR". Aldehydes give anhydrides:

Acyloxylation has also been achieved with metallic acetates such as lead tetraacetate, 237 mercuric acetate, 238 and palladium(II) acetate. 239 In the case of the lead and mercuric acetates, not only does the reaction take place at allylic and benzylic positions and at those  $\alpha$ to an OR or SR group but also at positions  $\alpha$  to the carbonyl groups of aldehydes, ketones, or esters and at those  $\alpha$  to two carbonyl groups (ZCH<sub>2</sub>Z'). It is likely that in the latter cases

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>233</sup>For a review, see Sosnovsky; Rawlinson, Ref. 172, pp. 153-268. See also Murahashi; Naota; Kuwabara; Saito; Kumobayashi; Akutagawa J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1990, 112, 7820; Ref. 206.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>234</sup>See Murahashi; Naota; Yonemura J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1988, 110, 8256.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>236</sup>For a list of reagents, with references, see Ref. 74, pp. 823-827ff, 841-842.

For reviews, see Rawlinson; Sosnovsky Synthesis 1972, 1-28; Sosnovsky; Rawlinson, in Swern, Ref. 172, vol. 1, pp. 585-608; Doumaux, in Augustine, Ref. 134, vol. 2, 1971, pp. 141-185.

The property of lead tetraacetate, see Butler, Ref. 196.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>230</sup>For reviews, see Larock Organomercury Compounds in Organic Synthesis; Springer: New York, 1985, pp. 190-

<sup>208;</sup> Rawlinson; Sosnovsky Synthesis 1973, 567-602.
239 Hansson; Heumann; Rein; Åkermark J. Org. Chem. 1990, 55, 975; Byström; Larsson; Åkermark J. Org. Chem. 1990, 55, 5674.

it is the enol forms that react. Ketones can be α-acyloxylated indirectly by treatment of various enol derivatives with metallic acetates, for example, silyl enol ethers with silver carboxylates-iodine,<sup>240</sup> enol thioethers with lead tetraacetate,<sup>241</sup> and enamines<sup>242</sup> with lead tetraacetate<sup>243</sup> or thallium triacetate.<sup>244</sup> α,β-Unsaturated ketones can be acyloxylated in good yields in the α' position with manganese triacetate. 245 Palladium acetate converts alkenes to vinylic and/or allylic acetates. 246 Lead tetraacetate even acyloxylates alkanes, in a slow reaction (10 days to 2 weeks), with tertiary and secondary positions greatly favored over primary ones.<sup>247</sup> Yields are as high as 50%. Acyloxylation of certain alkanes has also been reported with palladium(II) acetate.248

Studies of the mechanism of the cuprous-catalyzed reaction show that the most common mechanism is the following:<sup>249</sup>

Step 1 
$$\mathbf{R'COO}$$
— $t$ - $\mathbf{Bu}$  +  $\mathbf{Cu}^{+}$   $\longrightarrow$   $\mathbf{R'CO}$ — $\mathbf{Cu}^{+}(\mathbf{II})$  +  $t$ - $\mathbf{BuO}$ •

O

Step 2  $\mathbf{RH}$  +  $t$ - $\mathbf{BuO}$ •  $\longrightarrow$   $\mathbf{R}$ • +  $t$ - $\mathbf{BuOH}$ 

Step 3  $\mathbf{R}$ • +  $\mathbf{R'CO}$ — $\mathbf{Cu}^{+}(\mathbf{II})$   $\longrightarrow$   $\mathbf{ROCR'}$  +  $\mathbf{Cu}^{+}$ 

O

19

This mechanism, involving a free radical R<sub>2</sub>, is compatible with the allylic rearrangements found.<sup>250</sup> The finding that t-butyl peresters labeled with <sup>18</sup>O in the carbonyl oxygen gave ester with 50% of the label in each oxygen<sup>251</sup> is in accord with a combination of R• with the intermediate 19, in which the copper is ionically bound, so that the oxygens are essentially equivalent. Other evidence is that t-butoxy radicals have been trapped with dienes.<sup>252</sup> Much less is known about the mechanisms of the reactions with metal acetates.<sup>253</sup>

Free-radical acyloxylation of aromatic substrates<sup>254</sup> has been accomplished with a number of reagents including copper(II) acetate, 255 benzoyl peroxide-iodine, 256 silver(II) complexes,<sup>257</sup> and cobalt(III) trifluoroacetate.<sup>258</sup>

OS III, 3; V, 70, 151; 68, 109.

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<sup>246</sup>Rubottom; Mott; Juve J. Org. Chem. 1981, 46, 2717.
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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>241</sup>Trost; Tanigawa J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1979, 101, 4413.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>242</sup>For a review, see Cook, in Cook *Enamines*, 2nd ed.; Marcel Dekker: New York, 1988, pp. 251-258.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>243</sup>See Butler, Chem. Ind. (London) 1976, 499-500.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>244</sup>Kuehne; Giacobbe J. Org. Chem. 1968, 33, 3359.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>245</sup>Dunlap; Sabol; Watt Tetrahedron Lett. 1984, 25, 5839; Demir; Sayrac; Watt Synthesis 1990, 1119.

For reviews, see Rylander Organic Synthesis with Noble Metal Catalysts; Academic Press: New York, 1973, pp. 80-87; Jira; Freiesleben Organomet. React. 1972, 3, 1-190, pp. 44-84; Heck Fortschr. Chem. Forsch. 1971, 16, 221-pp. 231-237; Tsuji Adv. Org. Chem. 1969, 6, 109-255, pp. 132-143.
 Bestre; Cole; Crank Tetrahedron Lett. 1983, 24, 3891; Mosher; Cox Tetrahedron Lett. 1985, 26, 3753.

This was done in trifluoroacetic acid, and the products were trifluoroacetates: Sen; Gretz; Oliver; Jiang New J. Chem. 1989, 13, 755.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>240</sup>Kharasch; Sosnovsky; Yang J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1959, 81, 5819; Kochi; Mains J. Org. Chem. 1965, 30, 1862. See also Beckwith; Zavitsas J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1986, 108, 8230.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>250</sup>Goering; Mayer J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1964, 86, 3753; Denney; Appelbaum; Denney J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1962, 84, 4969.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>251</sup>Denney; Denney; Feig Tetrahedron Lett. 1959, no. 15, p. 19.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>252</sup>Kochi J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1962, 84, 2785, 3271; Story Tetrahedron Lett. 1962, 401.

<sup>253</sup> See, for example, Jones; Mellor J. Chem. Soc., Perkin Trans. 2 1977, 511.

For a review, see Haines Methods for the Oxidation of Organic Compounds; Academic Press: New York, 1985, pp. 177-180, 351-355.

255 Takizawa; Tateishi; Sugiyama; Yoshida; Yoshihara J. Chem. Soc., Chem. Commun. 1991, 104. See also Kaeding;

Kerlinger; Collins J. Org. Chem. 1965, 30, 3754.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>256</sup>For example, see Kovacic; Reid; Brittain J. Org. Chem. 1970, 35, 2152.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>257</sup>Nyberg; Wistrand J. Org. Chem. **1978**, 43, 2613.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>258</sup>Kochi; Tank; Bernath J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1973, 95, 7114; DiCosimo; Szabo J. Org. Chem. 1986, 51, 1365.

REACTIONS **REACTION 4-13** 711

#### C. Substitution by Sulfur

#### 4-12 Chlorosulfonation or Chlorosulfo-de-hydrogenation

$$RH + SO_2 + Cl_2 \xrightarrow{h\nu} RSO_2Cl$$

The chlorosulfonation of organic molecules with chlorine and sulfur dioxide is called the Reed reaction.<sup>259</sup> In scope and range of products obtained, the reaction is similar to 4-1. The mechanism is also similar, except that there are two additional main propagation steps:

$$R \cdot + SO_2 \longrightarrow R - SO_2 \cdot$$

$$R - SO_2 \cdot + Cl_2 \longrightarrow R - SO_2 Cl + Cl \cdot$$

Chlorosulfenation<sup>260</sup> can be accomplished by treatment with SCl<sub>2</sub> and uv light: RH +  $SCl_2 \xrightarrow{h\nu} RSCl.$ 

#### D. Substitution by Nitrogen

#### 4-13 Nitration of Alkanes

Nitration or Nitro-de-hydrogenation

$$RH + HNO_3 \xrightarrow{-400^{\circ}C} RNO_2$$

Nitration of alkanes<sup>261</sup> can be carried out in the gas phase at about 400°C or in the liquid phase. The reaction is not practical for the production of pure products for any alkane except methane. For other alkanes, not only does the reaction produce mixtures of the mono-, di-, and polynitrated alkanes at every combination of positions, but extensive chain cleavage occurs. 262 A free-radical mechanism is involved. 263

Activated positions (e.g., ZCH<sub>2</sub>Z' compounds) can be nitrated by fuming nitric acid in acetic acid, by acetyl nitrate and an acid catalyst,264 or by alkyl nitrates under alkaline conditions.<sup>265</sup> In the latter case it is the carbanionic form of the substrate that is actually nitrated. What is isolated under these alkaline conditions is the conjugate base of the nitro

$$-\overset{|}{C}|^{\Theta} + \text{MeONO}_2 \longrightarrow -\overset{|}{C} -\text{NO}_2 + \text{OMe}^{-1}$$

compound. Yields are not high. Of course, the mechanism in this case is not of the freeradical type, but is electrophilic substitution with respect to the carbon (similar to the mechanisms of 2-7 and 2-8). Positions activated by only one electron-withdrawing group, e.g., α positions of simple ketones, nitriles, sulfones, or N,N-dialkyl amides, can be nitrated with alkyl nitrates if a very strong base, e.g., t-BuOK or NaNH2, is present to convert the substrate to the carbanionic form.<sup>266</sup> Electrophilic nitration of alkanes has been performed

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>259</sup>For a review, see Gilbert Sulfonation and Related Reactions; Wiley: New York, 1965, pp. 126-131.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>260</sup>Müller; Schmidt Chem. Ber. 1963, 96, 3050, 1964, 97, 2614. For a review of the formation and reactions of sulfenyl halides, see Kühle Synthesis 1970, 561-580, 1971, 563-586, 617-638.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>261</sup>For reviews, see Olah; Malhotra; Narang Nitration; VCH: New York, 1989, pp. 219-295; Ogata, in Trahanovsky, Ref. 185, part C, 1978, pp. 295-342; Ballod; Shtern Russ. Chem. Rev. 1976, 45, 721-737.

222For a discussion of the mechanism of this cleavage, see Matasa; Hass Can. J. Chem. 1971, 49, 1284.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>263</sup>Titov Tetrahedron 1963, 19, 557-580.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>264</sup>Sifniades J. Org. Chem. 1975, 40, 3562.

<sup>26</sup> For a review, see Larson, in Feuer The Chemistry of the Nitro and Nitroso Groups, vol. 1; Wiley: New York, 1969, pp. 310-316.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>264</sup>For examples, see Feuer; Shepherd; Savides J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1956, 78, 4364; Feuer; Lawrence J. Org. Chem. 1972, 37, 2662; Truce; Christensen Tetrahedron 1969, 25, 181; Pfeffer; Silbert Tetrahedron Lett. 1970, 699; Feuer; Spinicelli J. Org. Chem. 1976, 41, 2981; Feuer; Van Buren; Grutzner J. Org. Chem. 1978, 43, 4676.

with nitronium salts, e.g., NO<sub>2</sub>+ PF<sub>6</sub>- and with HNO<sub>3</sub>-H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> mixtures, but mixtures of nitration and cleavage products are obtained and yields are generally low.<sup>267</sup>

Aliphatic nitro compounds can be  $\alpha$  nitrated  $[R_2CHNO_2 \rightarrow R_2C(NO_2)_2]$  by treatment of their conjugate bases  $\overrightarrow{RCNO}_2$  with  $\overrightarrow{NO}_2$  and  $\overrightarrow{K}_3Fe(\overrightarrow{CN})_6$ .<sup>268</sup> OS I, 390; II, 440, 512.

#### 4-14 The Direct Conversion of Aldehydes to Amides

## Amination or Amino-de-hydrogenation

ArCHO 
$$\xrightarrow{NH_3}$$
 ArCONH<sub>2</sub>

Aliphatic and aromatic aldehydes have been converted to the corresponding amides with ammonia or a primary or secondary amine, N-bromosuccinimide, and a catalytic amount of AIBN (p. 664).<sup>269</sup> In a reaction of more limited scope, amides are obtained from aromatic and α,β-unsaturated aldehydes by treatment with dry ammonia gas and nickel peroxide.<sup>270</sup> Best yields (80 to 90%) are obtained at -25 to  $-20^{\circ}$ C. The reaction has also been performed with MnO<sub>2</sub> and NaCN along with ammonia or an amine at 0°C in isopropyl alcohol,<sup>271</sup> and with a secondary amine and a palladium acetate catalyst. 272 In the nickel peroxide reaction the corresponding alcohols (ArCH<sub>2</sub>OH) have also been used as substrates. For an indirect way of converting aldehydes to amides, see 2-31. Thioamides RCSNR<sub>2</sub> have been prepared in good yield from thioaldehydes (produced in situ from phosphoranes and sulfur) and secondary amines.<sup>273</sup>

#### 4-15 Amidation and Amination at an Alkyl Carbon

#### Acylamino-de-hydrogenation

$$R_3CH + CH_3CN \xrightarrow{h_V} R_3C - NH - C - CH_3 + H_2$$

$$0$$

When alkanes bearing a tertiary hydrogen are exposed to uv light in acetonitrile containing a heteropolytungstic acid, they are amidated.<sup>274</sup> The oxygen in the product comes from the tungstic acid. When the substrate bears two adjacent tertiary hydrogens, alkenes are formed (by loss of two hydrogens), rather than amides (9-2).

An electrochemical method for amination has been reported by Shono and co-workers. <sup>275</sup> Derivatives of malonic esters containing an N-tosyl group were cyclized in high yields by anodic oxidation:

R 
$$(CH_2)_n$$
 COOMe anodic oxidation R  $(CH_2)_n$  COOMe  $n = 0, 1, \text{ or } 2$ 

R  $NH$  COOMe  $Ts$   $Ts$ 

Three-, four-, and five-membered rings were synthesized by this procedure.

<sup>267</sup>Olah; Lin J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1973, 93, 1259. See also Bach; Holubka; Badger; Rajan J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1979,

 101, 4416.
 Matacz; Piotrowska; Urbanski Pol. J. Chem. 1979, 53, 187; Kornblum; Singh; Kelly J. Org. Chem. 1983, 48, 332; Garver; Grakauskas; Baum J. Org. Chem. 1985, 50, 1699.
269Markó; Mekhalfia, Ref. 133.

<sup>270</sup>Nakagawa; Onoue; Minami Chem. Commun. 1966, 17.

<sup>271</sup>Gilman Chem. Commun. 1971, 733.

2772 Tamaru; Yamada; Yoshida Synthesis 1983, 474.

<sup>273</sup>Okuma; Komiya; Ohta Chem. Lett. 1988, 1145.

<sup>274</sup>Renneke; Hill J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1986, 108, 3528.

<sup>275</sup>Shono; Matsumura; Katoh; Ohshita Chem. Lett. 1988, 1065.

**E.** Substitution by Carbon In these reactions a new carbon-carbon bond is formed, and they may be given the collective title *coupling reactions*. In each case an alkyl or aryl radical is generated and then combines with another radical (a termination process) or attacks an aromatic ring or olefin to give the coupling product.<sup>276</sup>

#### 4-16 Simple Coupling at a Susceptible Position

#### De-hydrogen-coupling

$$2RH \xrightarrow{h_{\nu}} R - R + H_2$$

Alkanes can be dimerized by vapor-phase mercury photosensitization<sup>277</sup> in a synthetically useful process. Best results are obtained for coupling at tertiary positions, but compounds lacking tertiary hydrogens (e.g., cyclohexane) also give good yields. Dimerization of n-alkanes gives secondary-secondary coupling in a nearly statistical distribution, with primary positions essentially unaffected. Alcohols and ethers dimerize at the position  $\alpha$  to the oxygen [e.g., 2EtOH  $\rightarrow$  MeCH(OH)CH(OH)Me].

When a mixture of compounds is treated, cross-dimerization and homodimerization take place statistically, e.g.:

$$+ CH_3OH \xrightarrow{hv} + CH_2OH + CH_2-CH_2$$

$$+ CH_3OH \xrightarrow{hv} OH OH$$

Even with the limitation on yield implied by the statistical process, cross-dimerization is still useful when one of the reactants is an alkane, because the products are easy to separate, and because of the few other ways to functionalize an alkane. The cross-coupling of an alkane with trioxane is especially valuable, because hydrolysis of the product (0-6) gives an

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
 & O & \xrightarrow{hv} & O & O & \xrightarrow{H^{-}} & CHO \\
\end{array}$$

aldehyde, thus achieving the conversion  $RH \rightarrow RCHO$ . The mechanism probably involves abstraction of H by the excited Hg atom, and coupling of the resulting radicals.

The reaction has been extended to ketones, carboxylic acids and esters (all of which couple  $\alpha$  to the C=O group), and amides (which couple  $\alpha$  to the nitrogen) by running it in the presence of  $H_2$ .<sup>278</sup> Under these conditions it is likely that the excited Hg abstracts H• from  $H_2$ , and that the remaining H• abstracts H from the substrate.

In an older reaction, substrates RH are treated with peroxides, which decompose to give a radical that abstracts a hydrogen from RH to give R•, which dimerizes. Dialkyl and diacyl peroxides have been used, as well as Fenton's reagent (p. 700). This reaction is far from general, though in certain cases respectable yields have been obtained. Among susceptible positions are those at a tertiary carbon,  $^{279}$  as well as those  $\alpha$  to a phenyl group (especially if there is also an  $\alpha$ -alkyl or  $\alpha$ -chloro group),  $^{280}$  an ether group,  $^{281}$  a carbonyl group,  $^{282}$  a

<sup>277</sup>Brown; Crabtree J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1989, 111, 2935, 2946, J. Chem. Educ. 1988, 65, 290.

<sup>278</sup>Boojamra; Crabtree; Ferguson; Muedas Tetrahedron Lett. 1989, 30, 5583.

279 Meshcheryakov; Érzyutova Bull. Acad. Sci. USSR, Div. Chem. Sci. 1966, 94.

<sup>280</sup>McBay; Tucker; Groves J. Org. Chem. 1959, 24, 536; Johnston; Williams J. Chem. Soc. 1960, 1168.

<sup>281</sup>Pfordte; Leuschner Liebigs. Ann. Chem. 1961, 643, 1.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>276</sup>For a monograph on the formation of C—C bonds by radical reactions, see Giese, Ref. 1. For a review of arylation at carbon, see Abramovitch; Barton; Finet *Tetrahedron* **1988**, 44, 3039-3071. For a review of aryl-aryl coupling, see Sainsbury *Tetrahedron* **1980**, 36, 3327-3359.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>283</sup>Kharasch; McBay; Urry J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1948, 70, 1269; Leffingwell Chem. Commun. 1970, 357; Hawkins; Large J. Chem. Soc., Perkin Trans. I 1974, 280.

cyano group,<sup>283</sup> a dialkylamino group,<sup>284</sup> or a carboxylic ester group, either the acid or alcohol side. 285

OS IV, 367; V, 1026; VII, 482.

#### 4-17 Coupling of Alkynes

#### De-hydrogen-coupling

$$2R-C \equiv C-H \xrightarrow{CuX_2} R-C \equiv C-C \equiv C-R$$

Terminal alkynes can be coupled by heating with stoichiometric amounts of cupric salts in pyridine or a similar base. This reaction, which produces symmetrical diynes in high yields, is called the Eglinton reaction.<sup>286</sup> The large-ring annulenes of Sondheimer et al. (see p. 62) were prepared by rearrangement and hydrogenation of cyclic polyynes, <sup>287</sup> prepared by Eglinton coupling of terminal diynes, e.g., 288

**20** is a cyclic trimer of 1,5-hexadiyne. The corresponding tetramers  $(C_{24})$ , pentamers  $(C_{30})$ , and hexamers  $(C_{36})$  were also formed.

The Eglinton reaction is of wide scope. Many functional groups can be present on the alkyne. The oxidation is usually quite specific for triple-bond hydrogen. Another common procedure is the use of catalytic amounts of cuprous salts in the presence of ammonia or ammonium chloride (this method is called the Glaser reaction). Atmospheric oxygen or some other oxidizing agent such as permanganate or hydrogen peroxide is required in the latter procedure. This method is not satisfactory for cyclic coupling. Unsymmetrical diynes can be prepared by Cadiot-Chodkiewicz coupling: 289

$$R-C=C-H+R'-C=C-Br\xrightarrow{Cu^+}R-C=C-C=C-R'+HBr$$

This may be regarded as a variation of 0-100 but it must have a different mechanism since acetylenic halides give the reaction but ordinary alkyl halides do not, which is hardly compatible with a nucleophilic mechanism. However, the mechanism is not fully understood. Propargyl halides also give the reaction.<sup>290</sup> A variation of the Cadiot-Chodkiewicz method

<sup>283</sup>Kharasch; Sosnovsky Tetrahedron 1958, 3, 97.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>284</sup>Schwetlick; Jentzsch; Karl; Wolter J. Prakt. Chem. 1964, [4] 25, 95.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>288</sup>Boguslavskaya; Razuvaev J. Gen. Chem. USSR 1963, 33, 1967.

<sup>\*\*</sup>For reviews, see Simandi, in Patai; Rappoport The Chemistry of Functional Groups, Supplement C, pt. 1; Wiley: New York, 1983, pp. 529-534; Nigh, Ref. 185, pp. 11-31; Cadiot; Chodkiewicz, in Viehe Acetylenes; Marcel Dekker: New York; 1969, pp. 597-647.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>287</sup>For a review of cyclic alkynes, see Nakagawa, in Patai The Chemistry of the Carbon-Carbon Triple Bond, pt.

Wiley: New York, 1978, pp. 635-712.
 Sondheimer; Wolovsky J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1962, 84, 260; Sondheimer; Wolovsky; Amiel J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1962, 84, 274. 289 Chodkiewicz Ann. Chim. (Paris) 1957, [13] 2, 819.

Sevin; Chodkiewicz; Cadiot Bull. Soc. Chim. Fr. 1974, 913.

consists of treating a haloalkyne (R'C=CX) with a copper acetylide (RC=CCu). <sup>291</sup> The Cadiot-Chodkiewicz procedure can be adapted to the preparation of diynes in which R' = H by the use of BrC=CSiEt<sub>3</sub> and subsequent cleavage of the SiEt<sub>3</sub> group. <sup>292</sup> This protecting group can also be used in the Eglinton or Glaser methods. <sup>293</sup>

The mechanism of the Eglinton and Glaser reactions probably begins with loss of a proton

$$R-C = C-H \xrightarrow{basc} R-C = C$$

since there is a base present and acetylenic protons are acidic. The last step is probably the coupling of two radicals:

$$2R-C\equiv C \longrightarrow R-C\equiv C-C\equiv C-R$$

but just how the carbanion becomes oxidized to the radical and what part the cuprous ion plays (other than forming the acetylide salt) are matters of considerable speculation, <sup>294</sup> and depend on the oxidizing agent. It is known, of course, that cuprous ion can form complexes with triple bonds.

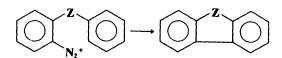
OS V, 517; VI, 68, 925; 65, 52.

4-18 Arylation of Aromatic Compounds by Diazonium Salts

Arylation or Aryl-de-hydrogenation

$$ArH + Ar'N_2^+ X^- \xrightarrow{OH^-} Ar - Ar'$$

When the normally acidic solution of a diazonium salt is made alkaline, the aryl portion of the diazonium salt can couple with another aromatic ring. Known as the *Gomberg* or *Gomberg-Bachmann reaction*,<sup>295</sup> it has been performed on several types of aromatic rings and on quinones. Yields are not high (usually under 40%) because of the many side reactions undergone by diazonium salts, though higher yields have been obtained under phase transfer conditions.<sup>296</sup> The conditions of the Meerwein reaction (4-19), treatment of the solution with a copper-ion catalyst, have also been used, as has the addition of sodium nitrite in Me<sub>2</sub>SO (to benzene diazonium fluoroborate in Me<sub>2</sub>SO).<sup>297</sup> When the Gomberg-Bachmann reaction is performed intramolecularly, either by the alkaline solution or by the copper-ion procedure,



it is called the *Pschorr ring closure*<sup>298</sup> and yields are usually somewhat higher. Still higher yields have been obtained by carrying out the Pschorr reaction electrochemically.<sup>299</sup> The Pschorr reaction has been carried out for Z = CH = CH,  $CH_2CH_2$ , NH, C = O,  $CH_2$ , and quite a few others. A rapid and convenient way to carry out the Pschorr synthesis is to

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>291</sup>Curtis; Taylor J. Chem. Soc. C 1971, 186.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>292</sup>Eastmond; Walton Tetrahedron 1972, 28, 4591; Ghose; Walton Synthesis 1974, 890.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>293</sup>Johnson; Walton *Tetrahedron* **1972**, 28, 5221.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2M</sup>See the discussions in Nigh, Ref. 185, pp. 27-31; Fedenok; Berdnikov; Shvartsberg J. Org. Chem. USSR 1973,
9, 1806; Clifford; Waters J. Chem. Soc. 1963, 3056.
<sup>26</sup>For reviews, see Bolton; Williams Chem. Soc. Rev. 1986, 15, 261-289; Hey Adv. Free-Radical Chem. 1966, 2,

<sup>\*\*</sup>For reviews, see Bolton; Williams Chem. Soc. Rev. 1986, 15, 261-289; Hey Adv. Free-Radical Chem. 1966, 2, 47-86. For a review applied to heterocyclic substrates, see Vernin; Dou; Metzger Bull. Soc. Chim. Fr. 1972, 1173-1013

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>286</sup>Beadle; Korzeniowski; Rosenberg; Garcia-Slanga; Gokel J. Org. Chem. 1984, 49, 1594.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>207</sup>Kamigata; Kurihara; Minato; Kobayashi Bull. Chem. Soc. Jpn. 1971, 44, 3152.

For a review, see Abramovitch Adv. Free-Radical Chem. 1966, 2, 87-138.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>299</sup>Elofson; Gadallah J. Org. Chem. 1971, 36, 1769.

716

diazotize the amine substrate with isopropyl nitrite in the presence of sodium iodide, in which case the ring-closed product is formed in one step.<sup>300</sup>

Other compounds with nitrogen-nitrogen bonds have been used instead of diazonium salts. Among these are N-nitroso amides [ArN(NO)COR], triazenes, 301 and azo compounds. Still another method involves treatment of an aromatic primary amine directly with an alkyl nitrite in an aromatic substrate as solvent. 302

In each case the mechanism involves generation of an aryl radical from a covalent azo compound. In acid solution diazonium salts are ionic and their reactions are polar. When they cleave, the product is an aryl cation (see p. 644). However, in neutral or basic solution, diazonium ions are converted to covalent compounds, and these cleave to give free radicals:

$$Ar-N=N-Z \longrightarrow Ar \cdot + N = N + Z \cdot$$

Under Gomberg-Bachmann conditions, the species that cleaves is the anhydride:303

$$Ar-N=N-O-N=N-Ar \longrightarrow Ar \cdot + N_2 + \cdot O-N=N-Ar$$
21

The aryl radical thus formed attacks the substrate to give the intermediate 1 (p. 680), from which the radical 21 abstracts hydrogen to give the product. N-Nitroso amides probably rearrange to N-acyloxy compounds, which cleave to give aryl radicals:<sup>304</sup>

There is evidence that the reaction with alkyl nitrites also involves attack by aryl radicals.<sup>305</sup> The Pschorr reaction can take place by two different mechanisms, depending on conditions: (1) attack by an aryl radical (as in the Gomberg-Bachmann reaction) or (2) attack by an aryl cation (similar to the Sn1 mechanism discussed on p. 644).<sup>306</sup> Under certain conditions the ordinary Gomberg-Bachmann reaction can also involve attack by aryl cations.<sup>307</sup>

OS I, 113; IV, 718.

**4-19** Arylation of Activated Olefins by Diazonium Salts. Meerwein Arylation **Arylation** or **Aryl-de-hydrogenation** 

$$Z - \stackrel{\mid}{C} = \stackrel{\mid}{C} \xrightarrow{CuCl_1} Z - \stackrel{\mid}{C} = \stackrel{\mid}{C} - Ar$$

Chauncy; Gellert Aust. J. Chem. 1969, 22, 993. See also Duclos; Tung; Rapoport J. Org. Chem. 1984, 49, 5243.
 See, for example, Patrick; Willaredt; DeGonia J. Org. Chem. 1985, 50, 2232; Butler; O'Shea; Shelly J. Chem. Soc., Perkin Trans. 1 1987, 1039.

<sup>302</sup>Cadogan J. Chem. Soc. 1962, 4257; Fillipi; Vernin; Dou; Metzger; Perkins Bull. Soc. Chim. Fr. 1974, 1075.

<sup>383</sup> Rüchardt; Merz Tetrahedron Lett. 1964, 2431; Eliel; Saha; Meyerson J. Org. Chem. 1965, 30, 2451.

<sup>344</sup> Cadogan; Murray; Sharp J. Chem. Soc., Perkin Trans. 2 1976, 583, and references cited therein.

<sup>345</sup> Gragerov; Levit J. Org. Chem. USSR 1968, 4, 7.

For an alternative to the second mechanism, see Gadallah; Cantu; Elofson J. Org. Chem. 1973, 38, 2386.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>307</sup>For examples; see Kobori; Kobayashi; Minato Bull. Chem. Soc., Jpn. 1970, 43, 223; Cooper; Perkins Tetrahedron Lett. 1969, 2477; Burri; Zollinger Helv. Chim. Acta 1973, 56, 2204; Eustathopoulos; Rinaudo; Bonnier Bull. Soc. Chim. Fr. 1974, 2911. For a discussion, see Zollinger Acc. Chem. Res. 1973, 6, 335-341, pp. 338-339.

Olefins activated by an electron-withdrawing group (Z may be C=C, halogen, C=O, Ar, CN, etc.) can be arylated by treatment with a diazonium salt and a cupric chloride<sup>308</sup> catalyst. This is called the *Meerwein arylation reaction*.<sup>309</sup> Addition of ArCl to the double bond (to

treated with an alkyl nitrite (generating  $ArN_2^+$  in situ) and a copper(II) halide in the presence of the olefin.  $^{310}$ 

The mechanism is probably of the free-radical type, with Ar• forming as in 4-25 and then<sup>311</sup>

The radical 22 can react with cupric chloride by two pathways, one of which leads to addition and the other to substitution. Even when the addition pathway is taken, however, the substitution product may still be formed by subsequent elimination of HCl.

OS IV, 15.

**4-20** Arylation and Alkylation of Olefins by Organopalladium Compounds.

The Heck Reaction

Alkylation or Alkyl-de-hydrogenation, etc.

$$R_2C=CH_2 + "ArPdX" \longrightarrow R_2C=CH-Ar$$

Arylation of olefins can also be achieved<sup>312</sup> by treatment with an "arylpalladium" reagent that can be generated in situ by several<sup>313</sup> methods: (1) by treatment of an aryl bromide with a palladium-triarylphosphine complex (ArBr  $\rightarrow$  "ArPdBr");<sup>314</sup> (2) by treatment of an aryl iodide<sup>315</sup> with palladium acetate<sup>316</sup> in the presence of a base such as tributylamine or

<sup>300</sup> FeCl<sub>2</sub> is also effective: Ganushchak; Obushak; Luka J. Org. Chem. USSR 1981, 17, 765.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>369</sup>For reviews, see Dombrovskii *Russ. Chem. Rev.* **1984**, *53*, 943-955; Rondestvedt *Org. React.* **1976**, *24*, 225-259. <sup>310</sup>Doyle; Siegfried; Elliott; Dellaria *J. Org. Chem.* **1977**, *42*, 2431.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>311</sup>Dickerman; Vermont J. Am. Chem. Soc. **1962**, 84, 4150; Morrison; Cazes; Samkoff; Howe J. Am. Chem. Soc. **1962**, 84, 4152.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>312</sup>For reviews of this and related reactions, see Heck Palladium Reagents in Organic Syntheses; Academic Press: New York, 1985, pp. 179-321; Ryabov Synthesis 1985, 233-252; Heck Org. React. 1982, 27, 345-390, Adv. Catal. 1977, 26, 323-349; Volkova; Levitin; Vol'pin Russ. Chem. Rev. 1975, 44, 552-560; Moritani; Fujiwara Synthesis 1973, 524-533; Jira; Freiesleben Organomet. React. 1972, 3, 1-190, pp. 84-105.

<sup>313</sup>For other methods, see Murahashi; Yamamura; Mita J. Org. Chem. 1977, 42, 2870; Luong-Thi; Riviere J.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>313</sup>For other methods, see Murahashi; Yamamura; Mita J. Org. Chem. 1977, 42, 2870; Luong-Thi; Riviere J. Chem. Soc., Chem. Commun. 1978, 918; Akiyama; Miyazaki; Kaneda; Teranishi; Fujiwara; Abe; Taniguchi J. Org. Chem. 1980, 45, 2359; Tsuji; Nagashima Tetrahedron 1984, 40, 2699; Kikukawa; Naritomi; He; Wada; Matsuda J. Org. Chem. 1985, 50, 299; Chen; Yang Tetrahedron Lett. 1986, 27, 1171; Kasahara; Izumi; Miyamoto; Sakai Chem. Ind. (London) 1989, 192; Miura; Hashimoto; Itoh; Nomura Tetrahedron Lett. 1989, 30, 975.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>314</sup>For reviews, see Heck Acc. Chem. Res. 1979, 12, 146-151, Pure Appl. Chem. 1978, 50, 691-701. See also Bender; Stakem; Heck J. Org. Chem. 1982, 47, 1278; Spencer J. Organomet. Chem. 1983, 258, 101.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>315</sup>For a method that uses an aryl chloride, but converts it to an aryl fodide in situ, see Bozell; Vogt J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1988, 110, 2655.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>316</sup>For a more efficient palladium reagent, see Andersson; Karabelas; Hallberg; Andersson J. Org. Chem. 1985, 50, 3891. See also Merlic; Semmelhack J. Organomet. Chem. 1990, 391, C23.

potassium acetate (ArI \rightarrow "ArPdI");317 (3) by treatment of an arylmercury compound (either Ar<sub>2</sub>Hg or ArHgX) with LiPdCl<sub>3</sub> (ArHgX → "ArPdX")<sup>318</sup> (in some cases other noble metal salts have been used); or (4) by the reaction of an aromatic compound with palladium acetate or palladium metal and silver acetate in acetic acid [in this case an ary] hydrogen is replaced (ArH  $\rightarrow$  "ArPdOAc")].<sup>319</sup> Whichever of these methods is used, the reaction is known as the Heck reaction.

Unlike 4-19, the Heck reaction is not limited to activated substrates. The substrate can be a simple olefin, or it can contain a variety of functional groups, such as ester, ether, 319a carboxyl, phenolic, or cyano groups.<sup>320</sup> Primary and secondary allylic alcohols (and even nonallylic unsaturated alcohols<sup>321</sup>) give aldehydes or ketones that are products of doublebond migration, 322 e.g.,

Ethylene is the most reactive olefin. Increasing substitution lowers the reactivity. Substitution therefore takes place at the less highly substituted side of the double bond.<sup>323</sup> Alkylation can also be accomplished, but only if the alkyl group lacks a \( \beta \) hydrogen, e.g., the reaction is successful for the introduction of methyl, benzyl, and neopentyl groups.<sup>324</sup> However, vinylic groups, even those possessing β hydrogens, have been successfully introduced (to give 1,3-dienes) by the reaction of the olefin with a vinylic halide in the presence of a trialkylamine and a catalyst composed of palladium acetate and a triarylphosphine at 100 to 150°C.<sup>325</sup> The reaction has also been done with terminal alkynes as substrates.<sup>326</sup>

The evidence is in accord with an addition-elimination mechanism (addition of ArPdX followed by elimination of HPdX) in most cases.<sup>327</sup> The reactions are stereospecific, yielding products expected from syn addition followed by syn elimination.<sup>328</sup> Because the product is formed by an elimination step, with suitable substrates the double bond can go the other way, resulting in allylic rearrangement, e.g., 329

The Heck reaction has also been performed intramolecularly. 330 OS VI, 815; VII, 361.

317 Mizoroki; Mori; Ozaki Bull. Chem. Soc. Jpn. 1971, 44, 581; Mori; Mizoroki; Ozaki Bull. Chem. Soc. Jpn. 1973, 46, 1505; Heck; Nolley J. Org. Chem. 1972, 37, 2320; Ziegler; Heck J. Org. Chem. 1978, 43, 2941; Hirao; Enda; Ohshiro; Agawa Chem. Lett. 1981, 403; Jeffery J. Chem. Soc., Chem. Commun. 1984, 1287; Bumagin; More; Beletskaya J. Organomet. Chem. 1989, 371, 397; Larock; Johnson J. Chem. Soc., Chem. Commun. 1989, 1368.

318 Heck J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1968, 90, 5518, 5526, 5535. For a review, see Larock, Ref. 238, pp. 273-292.

<sup>316</sup>See, for example, Fujiwara; Moritani; Matsuda Tetrahedron 1968, 24, 4819; Fujiwara; Maruyama; Yoshidomi; Taniguchi J. Org. Chem. 1981, 46, 851. For a review, see Kozhevnikov Russ. Chem. Rev. 1983, 52, 138-151. For a review pertaining to enol ethers, see Daves Adv. Met.-Org. Chem. 1991, 2, 59-99.

<sup>33a</sup> For a review of cases where the olefin contains an  $\alpha$  hetero atom, see Daves; Hallberg Chem. Rev. 1989, 89,

321 Larock; Leung; Stolz-Dunn Tetrahedron Lett. 1989, 30, 6629.

322 See, for example, Melpolder; Heck J. Org. Chem. 1976, 41, 265; Chalk; Magennis J. Org. Chem. 1976, 41, 273, 1206.

323 Heck J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1969, 91, 6707, 1971, 93, 6896.

324 Heck J. Organomet. Chem. 1972, 37, 389; Heck; Nolley, Ref. 317.

325 Dicck; Heck J. Org. Chem. 1975, 40, 1083; Kim; Patel; Heck J. Org. Chem. 1981, 46, 1067; Heck Pure Appl. Chem. 1981, 53, 2323-2332. See also Luong-Thi; Riviere Tetrahedron Lett. 1979, 4657; Jeffery Tetrahedron Lett. 1985, 26, 2667, J. Chem. Soc., Chem. Commun. 1991, 324; Scott; Peña; Swärd; Stoessel; Stille J. Org. Chem. 1985, 50, 2302; Larock; Gong J. Org. Chem. 1989, 54, 2047.

324 Cassar J. Organomet. Chem. 1975, 93, 253; Dieck; Heck J. Organomet. Chem. 1975, 93, 259; Sonogashira; Tohda; Hagihara Tetrahedron Lett. 1975, 4467; Singh; Just J. Org. Chem. 1989, 54, 4453. See also Heck Palladium Reagents in Organic Syntheses, Ref. 312, pp. 299-306.

Heck J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1969, 91, 6707; Shue J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1971, 93, 7116; Heck; Nolley, Ref. 317.

32a Heck, Ref. 327; Moritani; Danno; Fujiwara; Teranishi Bull. Chem. Soc. Jpn. 1971, 44, 578.

329 Larock; Baker Tetrahedron Lett. 1988, 29, 905. Also see Larock; Gong; Baker Tetrahedron Lett. 1989, 30, 2603. 334 See, for example, Abelman; Oh; Overman J. Org. Chem. 1987, 52, 4130; Negishi; Zhang; O'Connor Tetrahedron Lett. 1988, 29, 2915; Larock; Song; Baker; Gong Tetrahedron Lett. 1988, 29, 2919.

## 4-21 Alkylation and Arylation of Aromatic Compounds by Peroxides

#### Alkylation or Alkyl-de-hydrogenation

$$ArH + R - C - O - O - C - R \longrightarrow Ar - R$$

$$0 \qquad 0$$

This reaction is most often carried out with R = aryl, so the net result is the same as in 4-18, though the reagent is different. <sup>331</sup> It is used less often than 4-18, but the scope is similar. When R = alkyl, the scope is more limited. <sup>332</sup> Only certain aromatic compounds, particularly benzene rings with two or more nitro groups, and fused ring systems, can be alkylated by this procedure. 1,4-Quinones can be alkylated with diacyl peroxides or with lead tetraacetate (methylation occurs with this reagent).

The mechanism is as shown on p. 680 (CIDNP has been observed<sup>333</sup>); the radicals are produced by

Since no relatively stable free radical is present (such as 21 in 4-18), most of the product arises from dimerization and disproportionation.<sup>334</sup> The addition of a small amount of nitrobenzene increases the yield of arylation product because the nitrobenzene is converted to diphenyl nitroxide, which abstracts the hydrogen from 1 and reduces the extent of side reactions.<sup>335</sup>

Aromatic compounds can also be arylated by aryllead tricarboxylates. Best yields ( $\sim$ 70 to 85%) are obtained when the substrate contains alkyl groups; an electrophilic mechanism

$$ArH + Ar'Pb(OAc)_3 \longrightarrow ArAr'$$

is likely. Phenols are phenylated ortho to the OH group (and enols are  $\alpha$  phenylated) by triphenylbismuth dichloride or by certain other Bi(V) reagents. <sup>337</sup> O-Phenylation is a possible side reaction. As with the aryllead tricarboxylate reactions, a free-radical mechanism is unlikely. <sup>338</sup>

OS V, 51. See also OS V, 952; VI, 890.

#### 4-22 Photochemical Arylation of Aromatic Compounds

#### Arylation or Aryl-de-hydrogenation

$$ArH + Ar'I \xrightarrow{h\nu} ArAr'$$

Another free-radical arylation method consists of the photolysis of aryl iodides in an aromatic solvent.<sup>339</sup> Yields are generally higher than in **4-18** or **4-21**. The aryl iodide may contain OH

<sup>331</sup>For reviews, see Ref. 295.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>332</sup>For reviews of the free-radical alkylation of aromatic compounds, see Tiecco; Testaferri React. Intermed. (Plenum) 1983, 3, 61-11; Dou; Vernin; Metzger Bull. Soc. Chim. Fr. 1971, 4593.

<sup>333</sup> Kaptein; Freeman; Hill; Bargon J. Chem. Soc., Chem. Commun. 1973, 953.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>334</sup>We have given the main steps that lead to biphenyls. The mechanism is actually more complicated than this and includes more than 100 elementary steps resulting in many side products, including those mentioned on p. 681: DeTar; Long; Rendleman; Bradley; Duncan J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1967, 89, 4051; DeTar J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1967, 89, 4058. See also Jandu; Nicolopoulou; Perkins J. Chem. Res. (S) 1985, 88.

<sup>335</sup> Chalfont; Hey; Liang; Perkins J. Chem. Soc. B 1971, 233.

<sup>336</sup>Bell; Kalman; May; Pinhey; Sternhell Aust. J. Chem. 1979, 32, 1531.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>337</sup>For a review, see Abramovitch; Barton; Finet, Ref. 276, pp. 3040-3047.

<sup>336</sup>Barton; Finet; Giannotti; Halley J. Chem. Soc., Perkin Trans. 1 1987, 241.

<sup>339</sup> Wolf; Kharasch J. Org. Chem. 1965, 30, 2493. For a review, see Sharma; Kharasch Angew. Chem. Int. Ed. Engl. 1968, 7, 36-44 [Angew. Chem. 80, 69-77].

or COOH groups. The mechanism is similar to that of 4-18. The aryl radicals are generated by the photolytic cleavage  $ArI \rightarrow Ar^{\bullet} + I^{\bullet}$ . The reaction has been applied to intramolecular arylation (analogous to the Pschorr reaction).<sup>340</sup> A similar reaction is photolysis of an arylthallium bis(trifluoroacetate)(2-22) in an aromatic solvent. Here too, an unsymmetrical biaryl is produced in good yields.<sup>341</sup>

$$Ar'T1(OCOCF_3)_2 \xrightarrow{h\nu} ArAr'$$

In this case it is the C—Tl bond that is cleaved to give aryl radicals.

4-23 Alkylation, Acylation, and Carbalkoxylation of Nitrogen Heterocycles<sup>342</sup> Alkylation or Alkyl-de-hydrogenation, etc.

Alkylation of protonated nitrogen heterocycles (e.g., pyridines, quinolines) can be accomplished by treatment with a carboxylic acid, silver nitrate, sulfuric acid, and ammonium peroxydisulfate.<sup>343</sup> R can be primary, secondary, or tertiary. The attacking species is R. formed by344

$$2Ag^{+} + S_{2}O_{8}^{2-} \longrightarrow 2Ag^{2+} + 2SO_{4}^{2-}$$

$$RCOOH + Ag^{2+} \longrightarrow RCOO + H^{+} + Ag^{+}$$

$$RCOO \longrightarrow R^{\bullet} + CO_{2}$$

A hydroxymethyl group can be introduced (ArH -> ArCH<sub>2</sub>OH) by several variations of this method.345 Alkylation of these substrates can also be accomplished by generating the alkyl radicals in other ways: from hydroperoxides and FeSO<sub>4</sub>, <sup>346</sup> from alkyl iodides and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-Fe(II),<sup>347</sup> from carboxylic acids and lead tetraacetate, or from the photochemically induced decarboxylation of carboxylic acids by iodosobenzene diacetate.348 The reaction has also been applied to acetophenone and ferrocene.<sup>349</sup>

<sup>346</sup>See, for example, Kupchan; Wormser J. Org. Chem. 1965, 30, 3792; Jeffs; Hansen J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1967, 89, 2798; Thyagarajan; Kharasch; Lewis; Wolf Chem. Commun. 1967, 614.

Taylor; Kienzle; McKillop J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1970, 92, 6088.

Taylor; Kienzle; McKillop J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1970, 92, 6088.

Taylor; Kienzle; McKillop J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1970, 92, 6088.

Taylor; Kienzle; McKillop J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1970, 92, 6088. 489-519; Minisci Top. Curr. Chem. 1976, 62, 1-48, pp. 17-46, Synthesis 1973, 1-24, pp. 12-19. For a review of substitution of carbon groups on nitrogen heterocycles, see Vorbrüggen; Maas Heterocycles 1988, 27, 2659-2776.

Minisci; Mondelli; Ğardini; Porta Tetrahedron 1972, 28, 2403; Citterio; Minisci; Franchi J. Org. Chem. 1980, 45, 4752; Fontana; Minisci; Barbosa; Vismara Tetrahedron 1990, 46, 2525.

<sup>344</sup> Anderson; Kochi J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1970, 92, 1651.

<sup>348</sup> See Citterio; Gentile; Minisci; Serravalle; Ventura Tetrahedron 1985, 41, 617; Katz; Mistry; Mitchell Synth. Commun. 1989, 19, 317.

Minisci; Selva; Porta; Barilli; Gardini Tetrahedron 1972, 28, 2415.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>347</sup>Fontana; Minisci; Barbosa; Vismara Acta Chem. Scand. 1989, 43, 995.

<sup>346</sup> Minisci; Vismara; Fontana; Barbosa Tetrahedron Lett. 1989, 30, 4569.

<sup>349</sup> Din; Meth-Cohn; Walshe Tetrahedron Lett. 1979, 4783.

Protonated nitrogen heterocycles can be acylated by treatment with an aldehyde, *t*-butyl hydroperoxide, sulfuric acid, and ferrous sulfate, e.g., 350

These alkylation and acylation reactions are important because Friedel-Crafts alkylation and acylation (1-12, 1-14) cannot be applied to most nitrogen heterocycles. See also 3-17.

Protonated nitrogen heterocycles can be carbalkoxylated<sup>351</sup> by treatment with esters of  $\alpha$ -keto acids and Fenton's reagent:

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
 & COOR \\
 & N \\
 & O \\
 &$$

The attack is by •COOR radicals generated from the esters:

$$R' - C - COOR + H_2O_2 \longrightarrow R' - C - COOR \xrightarrow{Fe^{2\cdot}} R' - C - COOR \longrightarrow$$

$$OOH \qquad O\bullet$$

R'COOH + ·COOR

Similarly, a carbamoyl group can be introduced<sup>352</sup> by the use of the radicals  $H_2NC_2$  or

Me<sub>2</sub>NC• generated from formamide or dimethylformamide and H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, and FeSO<sub>4</sub>

or other oxidants.

## N<sub>2</sub> as Leaving Group<sup>353</sup>

In these reactions diazonium salts are cleaved to aryl radicals,<sup>354</sup> in most cases with the assistance of copper salts. Reactions **4-18** and **4-19** may also be regarded as belonging to this category with respect to the attacking compound. For nucleophilic substitutions of diazonium salts, see **3-20** to **3-24**.

#### 4-24 Replacement of the Diazonium Group by Hydrogen

#### **Dediazoniation** or Hydro-de-diazoniation

$$ArN_2^+ + H_3PO_2 \longrightarrow ArH$$

360Caronna; Gardini; Minisci Chem. Commun. 1969, 201; Arnoldi; Bellatti; Caronna; Citterio; Minisci; Porta; Sesana Gazz. Chim. Ital. 1977, 107, 491.

<sup>351</sup>Bernardi; Caronna; Galli; Minisci; Perchinunno Tetrahedron Lett. 1973, 645; Heinisch; Lötsch Angew. Chem. Int. Ed. Engl. 1985, 24, 692 [Angew. Chem. 97, 694].

382 Minisci; Gardini; Galli; Bertini Tetrahedron Lett. 1970, 15; Minisci; Citterio; Vismara; Giordano Tetrahedron 1985, 41, 4157.

363 For a review, see Wulfman, in Patai The Chemistry of Diazonium and Diazo Groups, pt. 1; Wiley: New York, 1978, pp. 286-297.

354For reviews, see Galli Chem. Rev. 1988, 88, 765-792; Zollinger Acc. Chem. Res. 1973, 6, 355-341, pp. 339-341.

Reduction of the diazonium group (dediazoniation) provides an indirect method for the removal of an amino group from an aromatic ring. The best and most common way of accomplishing this is by use of hypophosphorous acid  $H_3PO_2$ , though many other reducing agents have been used, among them ethanol, HMPA, thiophenol, and sodium stannite. Ethanol was the earliest reagent used, and it frequently gives good yields, but often ethers (ArOEt) are side products. When  $H_3PO_2$  is used, 5 to 15 moles of this reagent are required per mole of substrate. Diazonium salts can be reduced in nonaqueous media by several methods, the salt and reduction of this with NaBH4 in DMF. Aromatic amines can be deaminated (ArNH2  $\rightarrow$  ArH) in one laboratory step by treatment with an alkyl nitrite in DMF. or boiling THF. The corresponding diazonium salt is an intermediate.

Not many investigations of the mechanism have been carried out. It is generally assumed that the reaction of diazonium salts with ethanol to produce ethers takes place by an ionic (SN1) mechanism while the reduction to ArH proceeds by a free-radical process. <sup>363</sup> The reduction with  $H_3PO_2$  is also believed to have a free-radical mechanism. <sup>364</sup> In the reduction with NaBH<sub>4</sub>, an aryldiazene intermediate (ArN=NH) has been demonstrated, <sup>365</sup> arising from nucleophilic attack by BH<sub>4</sub><sup>-</sup> on the  $\beta$  nitrogen. Such diazenes can be obtained as moderately stable (half-life of several hours) species in solution. <sup>366</sup> It is not entirely clear how the aryldiazene decomposes, but there are indications that either the aryl radical Areor the corresponding anion Ar<sup>-</sup> may be involved. <sup>367</sup>

An important use of the dediazoniation reaction is to remove an amino group after it has been used to direct one or more other groups to ortho and para positions. For example, the compound 1,3,5-tribromobenzene cannot be prepared by direct bromination of benzene because the bromo group is ortho-para-directing; however, this compound is easily prepared by the following sequence:

355 For a review, see Zollinger in Patai; Rappoport, Ref. 286, pp. 603-669.

356 For lists of some of these, with references, see Ref. 74, p. 25; Tröndlin; Rüchardt Chem. Ber. 1977, 110, 2494.
 357 Shono; Matsumura; Tsubata Chem. Lett. 1979, 1051.

For a list of some of these, with references, see Korzeniowski; Blum; Gokel J. Org. Chem. 1977, 42, 1469.

389 Nakayama; Yoshida; Simamura Tetrahedron 1970, 26, 4609.

346 Hendrickson J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1961, 83, 1251. See also Threadgill; Gledhill J. Chem. Soc., Perkin Trans. 1 1986, 873.

361 Doyle; Dellaria; Siegfried; Bishop J. Org. Chem. 1977, 42, 3494.

362 Cadogan; Molina J. Chem. Soc., Perkin Trans. 1 1973, 541.

<sup>363</sup>For examples, see DeTar; Turetzky J. Am. Chem. Soc. **1955**, 77, 1745, **1956**, 78, 3925, 3928; DeTar; Kosuge J. Am. Chem. Soc. **1958**, 80, 6072; Lewis; Chambers J. Am. Chem. Soc. **1971**, 93, 3267; Broxton; Bunnett; Paik J. Org. Chem. **1977**, 42, 643.

Org. Chem. 1977, 42, 643.

\*\*See, for example, Kornblum; Cooper; Taylor J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1950, 72, 3013; Beckwith Aust. J. Chem. 1972, 25, 1887; Levit; Kiprianova; Gragerov J. Org. Chem. USSR 1975, 11, 2395.

MSBloch; Musso; Záhorszky Angew. Chem. Int. Ed. Engl. 1969, 8, 370 [Angew. Chem. 81, 392]; König; Musso; Záhorszky Angew. Chem. Int. Ed. Engl. 1972, 11, 45 [Angew. Chem. 84, 33]; McKenna; Traylor J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1971, 93, 2313.

1971, 93, 2313.

346Huang; Kosower J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1968, 90, 2354, 2362, 2367; Smith; Hillhouse J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1988, 110, 4066.

4066.
 M7Rieker; Niederer; Leibfritz Tetrahedron Lett. 1969, 4287; Kosower; Huang; Tsuji J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1969, 91, 2325; König; Musso; Záhorszky, Ref. 365; Broxton; McLeish Aust. J. Chem. 1983, 36, 1031.

Many other compounds that would otherwise be difficult to prepare are easily synthesized with the aid of the dediazoniation reaction.

Unwanted dediazoniation can be suppressed by using hexasulfonated calix[6]arenes (see p. 84).<sup>368</sup>

OS I, 133, 415; II, 353, 592; III, 295; IV, 947; VI, 334.

**4-25** Replacement of the Diazonium Group by Chlorine or Bromine **Chloro-de-diazoniation**, etc.

Treatment of diazonium salts with cuprous chloride or bromide leads to aryl chlorides or bromides, respectively. In either case the reaction is called the *Sandmeyer reaction*. The reaction can also be carried out with copper and HBr or HCl, in which case it is called the *Gatterman reaction* (not to be confused with 1-16). The Sandmeyer reaction is not useful for the preparation of fluorides or iodides, but for bromides and chlorides it is of wide scope and is probably the best way of introducing bromine or chlorine into an aromatic ring. The yields are usually high.

The mechanism is not known with certainty but is believed to take the following course:<sup>369</sup>

$$ArN_2^+ X^- + CuX \longrightarrow Ar^0 + N_2 + CuX_2$$
  
 $Ar^0 + CuX_2 \longrightarrow ArX + CuX$ 

The first step involves a reduction of the diazonium ion by the cuprous ion, which results in the formation of an aryl radical. In the second step, the aryl radical abstracts halogen from cupric chloride, reducing it. CuX is regenerated and is thus a true catalyst.

Aryl bromides and chlorides can be prepared from primary aromatic amines in one step by several procedures, <sup>370</sup> including treatment of the amine (1) with *t*-butyl nitrite and anhydrous CuCl<sub>2</sub> or CuBr<sub>2</sub> at 65°C, <sup>371</sup> and (2) with *t*-butyl thionitrite or *t*-butyl thionitrate and CuCl<sub>2</sub> or CuBr<sub>2</sub> at room temperature. <sup>372</sup> These procedures are, in effect, a combination of **2-49** and the Sandmeyer reaction. A further advantage is that cooling to 0°C is not needed.

For the preparation of fluorides and iodides from diazonium salts, see 3-24 and 3-23. OS I, 135, 136, 162, 170; II, 130; III, 185; IV, 160. Also see OS III, 136; IV, 182.

#### 4-26 Nitro-de-diazoniation

$$ArN_2^+ + NaNO_2 \xrightarrow{Cu^+} ArNO_2$$

Nitro compounds can be formed in good yields by treatment of diazonium salts with sodium nitrite in the presence of cuprous ion. The reaction occurs only in neutral or alkaline solution. This is not usually called the Sandmeyer reaction, although, like 4-25 and 4-28, it was discovered by Sandmeyer.  $BF_4^-$  is often used as the negative ion to avoid competition from the chloride ion. The mechanism is probably like that of 4-25. The electron-withdrawing

<sup>366</sup> Shinkai; Mori; Araki; Manabe Bull. Chem. Soc. Jpn. 1987, 60, 3679.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>369</sup>Dickerman; Weiss; Ingberman J. Org. Chem. 1956, 21, 380, J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1958, 80, 1904; Kochi J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1957, 79, 2942; Dickerman; DeSouza; Jacobson J. Org. Chem. 1969, 34, 710; Galli J. Chem. Soc., Perkin Trans. 2 1981, 1459, 1982, 1139, 1984, 897. See also Hanson; Jones; Gilbert; Timms J. Chem. Soc., Perkin Trans. 2 1991, 1009.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>370</sup>For other procedures, see Brackman; Smit Recl. Trav. Chim. Pays-Bas 1966, 85, 857; Cadogan; Roy; Smith J. Chem. Soc. C 1966, 1249.

<sup>371</sup> Doyle; Siegfried; Dellaria J. Org. Chem. 1977, 42, 2426.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>372</sup>Oae; Shinhama; Kim Chem. Lett. 1979, 939, Bull. Chem. Soc. Jpn. 1980, 53, 1065.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>373</sup>For discussions, see Opgenorth; Rüchardt *Liebigs Ann. Chem.* 1974, 1333; Singh; Kumar; Khanna *Tetrahedron Lett.* 1982, 23, 5191.

groups are present, the catalyst is not needed;  $NaNO_2$  alone gives nitro compounds in high vields.<sup>374</sup>

OS II, 225; III, 341.

4-27 Replacement of the Diazonium Group by Sulfur-containing Groups

#### Chlorosulfo-de-diazoniation

$$ArN_2^+ + SO_2 \xrightarrow{CuCl_2} ArSO_2Cl$$

Diazonium salts can be converted to sulfonyl chlorides by treatment with sulfur dioxide in the presence of cupric chloride.<sup>375</sup> The use of FeSO<sub>4</sub> and copper metal instead of CuCl<sub>2</sub> gives sulfinic acids ArSO<sub>2</sub>H.<sup>376</sup> See also 3-21.

OS V, 60; VII, 508.

#### 4-28 Cyano-de-diazoniation

This reaction, also called the *Sandmeyer reaction*, is similar to **4-25** in scope and mechanism. It is usually conducted in neutral solution to avoid liberation of HCN.

OS I, 514.

4-29 Aryl Dimerization with Diazonium Salts

De-diazonio-coupling; Arylazo-de-diazonio-substitution

$$2ArN_2^+ \xrightarrow[or Cu+H+]{Cu^+} Ar-Ar + 2N_2$$
 or  $Ar-N=N-Ar + N_2$ 

When diazonium salts are treated with cuprous ion (or with copper and acid, in which case it is called the *Gatterman method*), two products are possible. If the ring contains electron-withdrawing groups, the main product is the biaryl, but the presence of electron-donating groups leads mainly to the azo compound. This reaction is different from 4-18 (and from 1-4) in that *both* aryl groups in the product originate from  $ArN_2^+$ , i.e., hydrogen is not a leaving group in this reaction. The mechanism probably involves free radicals.<sup>377</sup>

OS I, 222; IV, 872. Also see OS IV, 273.

4-30 Methylation and Vinylation of Diazonium Salts

Methyl-de-diazoniation, etc.

$$ArN_2^+ + Me_4Sn \xrightarrow{Pd(OAc)_2} ArMe$$

A methyl group can be introduced into an aromatic ring by treatment of diazonium salts with tetramethyltin and a palladium acetate catalyst.<sup>378</sup> The reaction has been performed with Me, Cl, Br, and NO<sub>2</sub> groups on the ring. A vinylic group can be introduced with CH<sub>2</sub>—CHSnBu<sub>3</sub>.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>374</sup>Bagal; Pevzner; Frolov J. Org. Chem. USSR 1969, 5, 1767.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>375</sup>Gilbert Synthesis **1969**, 1-10, p. 6.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>376</sup>Wittig; Hoffmann Org. Synth. V, 60.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>377</sup>See Cohen; Lewarchik; Tarino J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1974, 96, 7753.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>378</sup>Kikukawa; Kono; Wada; Matsuda J. Org. Chem. 1983, 48, 1333.

**4-31** Conversion of Diazonium Salts to Aldehydes, Ketones, or Carboxylic Acids **Acyl-de-diazoniation**, etc.

$$ArN_2^+ + RCH = NOH \xrightarrow{CuSO_4 \atop Na,SO_3} Ar - C = NOH \xrightarrow{hydrol.} Ar - C - R$$

$$R$$

$$O$$

Diazonium salts react with oximes to give aryl oximes, which are easily hydrolyzed to aldehydes (R = H) or ketones. <sup>379</sup> A copper sulfate-sodium sulfite catalyst is essential. In most cases higher yields (40 to 60%) are obtained when the reaction is used for aldehydes than for ketones. In another method<sup>380</sup> for achieving the conversion  $ArN_2^+ \rightarrow ArCOR$ , diazonium salts are treated with  $R_4Sn$  and CO with palladium acetate as catalyst. <sup>381</sup> In a different kind of reaction, silyl enol ethers of aryl ketones  $Ar'C(OSiMe_3)$ =CHR react with solid diazonium fluoroborates  $ArN_2^+$  BF<sub>4</sub><sup>-</sup> to give ketones ArCHRCOAr'. <sup>382</sup> This is, in effect, an  $\alpha$  arylation of the aryl ketone.

Carboxylic acids can be prepared in moderate-to-high yields by treatment of diazonium fluoroborates with carbon monoxide and palladium acetate<sup>383</sup> or copper(II) chloride.<sup>384</sup> The mixed anhydride ArCOOCOMe is an intermediate that can be isolated. Other mixed anhydrides can be prepared by the use of other salts instead of sodium acetate.<sup>385</sup> An arylpalladium compound is probably an intermediate.<sup>385</sup>

OS V. 139.

4-32 Replacement of the Diazonium Group by a Metal

#### Metallo-de-diazoniation

$$ArN_2^+ BF_4^- + M \longrightarrow ArM$$

Aromatic organometallic compounds can be prepared by the treatment of diazonium salts (most often fluoroborates) with metals.<sup>386</sup> Among the metals used have been Hg, Tl, Sn, Pb, Sb, and Bi. Another method consists of treating the double salt of the diazonium salt and a metal chloride with a metallic powder, e.g.,

$$ArN_2Cl\cdot HgCl_2 \xrightarrow{Cu} ArHgCl + CuCl_2$$

Organometallic compounds of Hg,<sup>387</sup> Ge, Sn, and As have been among those prepared by this method. The mechanisms are not clear and may be either homolytic or heterolytic. OS II, 381, 432, 494; III, 665.

### **Metals as Leaving Groups**

4-33 Coupling of Grignard Reagents

#### De-metallo-coupling

$$2RMgX \xrightarrow{TIBr} RR$$

379Beech J. Chem. Soc. 1954, 1297.

<sup>360</sup>For still another method, see Citterio; Serravalle; Vismara Tetrahedron Lett. 1982, 23, 1831.

381 Kikukawa; Idemoto; Katayama; Kono; Wada; Matsuda J. Chem. Soc., Perkin Trans. 1 1987, 1511.

382 Sakakura; Hara; Tanaka J. Chem. Soc., Chem. Commun. 1985, 1545.

383 Nagira; Kikukawa; Wada; Matsuda J. Org. Chem. 1980, 45, 2365.

384Olah; Wu; Bagno; Prakash Synlett 1990, 596.

388 Kikukawa; Kono; Nagira; Wada; Matsuda Tetrahedron Lett. 1980, 21, 2877, J. Org. Chem. 1981, 46, 4413.

For a review, see Reutov; Ptitsyna Organomet. React. 1972, 4, 73-162.

387 For reviews with respect to Hg, see Wardell, in Zuckerman Inorganic Reactions and Methods, vol. 11; VCH: New York, 1988, pp. 320-323; Larock, Ref. 238, pp. 97-101.

Grignard reagents can be coupled to give symmetrical dimers<sup>388</sup> by treatment with either thallium(I) bromide<sup>389</sup> or with a transition-metal halide such as CrCl<sub>2</sub>, CrCl<sub>3</sub>, CoCl<sub>2</sub>, CoBr<sub>2</sub>, or CuCl<sub>2</sub>.<sup>390</sup> The metallic halide is an oxidizing agent and becomes reduced. Both aryl and alkyl Grignard reagents can be dimerized by either procedure, though the TlBr method cannot be applied to R = primary alkyl or to aryl groups with ortho substituents. Aryl Grignard reagents can also be dimerized by treatment with 1,4-dichloro-2-butene, 1,4-dichloro-2-butyne, or 2,3-dichloropropene.<sup>391</sup> Vinylic and alkynyl Grignard reagents can be coupled (to give 1,3-dienes and 1,3-diynes, respectively) by treatment with thionyl chloride.<sup>392</sup> Primary alkyl, vinylic, aryl, and benzylic Grignard reagents give symmetrical dimers in high yield (~90%) when treated with a silver(I) salt, e.g., AgNO<sub>3</sub>, AgBr, AgClO<sub>4</sub>, in the presence of a nitrogen-containing oxidizing agent such as lithium nitrate, methyl nitrate, or NO<sub>2</sub>.<sup>393</sup> This method has been used to close rings of 4, 5, and 6 members.<sup>394</sup>

The mechanisms of the reactions with metal halides, at least in some cases, probably begin with conversion of RMgX to the corresponding RM (2-35), followed by its decomposition to free radicals.<sup>395</sup>

OS VI, 488.

#### 4-34 Coupling of Boranes

#### Alkyl-de-dialkylboration

$$R-B-+R'-B-\xrightarrow{AgNO_3}R-R'$$

Alkylboranes can be coupled by treatment with silver nitrate and base.  $^{396}$  Since alkylboranes are easily prepared from olefins (5-12), this is essentially a way of coupling and reducing olefins; in fact, olefins can be hydroborated and coupled in the same flask. For symmetrical coupling (R = R') yields range from 60 to 80% for terminal olefins and from 35 to 50% for internal ones. Unsymmetrical coupling has also been carried out,  $^{397}$  but with lower yields. Arylboranes react similarly, yielding biaryls.  $^{398}$  The mechanism is probably of the free-radical type.

Vinylic dimerization can be achieved by treatment of divinylchloroboranes (prepared by addition of BH<sub>2</sub>Cl to alkynes; see 5-12) with methylcopper. (E,E)-1,3-Dienes are prepared in high yields.<sup>399</sup>

$$RC \equiv CR' \xrightarrow{BH,Cl} \stackrel{R}{\longrightarrow} C = C \xrightarrow{3MeCu} \stackrel{R}{\longrightarrow} C = C \xrightarrow{R'} H$$

$$RC \equiv CR' \xrightarrow{BH,Cl} \stackrel{R}{\longrightarrow} C = C \xrightarrow{R'} R'$$

- <sup>388</sup>For a list of reagents, with references, see Ref. 74, pp. 48-49.
- 369 McKillop; Elsom; Taylor J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1968, 90, 2423, Tetrahedron 1970, 26, 4041.
- <sup>396</sup>For reviews, see Kauffmann Angew. Chem. Int. Ed. Engl. 1974, 13, 291-305 [Angew. Chem. 86, 321-335]; Elsom; Hunt; McKillop Organomet. Chem. Rev., Sect. A 1972, 8, 135-152; Nigh, Ref. 185, pp. 85-91.
  - <sup>391</sup>Taylor; Bennett; Heinz; Lashley J. Org. Chem. 1981, 46, 2194; Cheng; Luo Tetrahedron Lett. 1988, 29, 1293.
  - <sup>392</sup>Uchida; Nakazawa; Kondo; Iwata; Matsuda J. Org. Chem. 1972, 37, 3749.
  - <sup>393</sup>Tamura; Kochi Bull. Chem. Soc. Jpn. 1972, 45, 1120.
  - 394 Whitesides; Gutowski J. Org. Chem. 1976, 41, 2882.
  - <sup>398</sup>For a review of the mechanism, see Kashin; Beletskaya Russ. Chem. Rev. 1982, 51, 503-526.
  - <sup>396</sup>Pelter; Smith; Brown Borane Reagents; Academic Press: New York, 1988, pp. 306-308.
  - 397 Brown; Verbrugge; Snyder J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1961, 83, 1001.
  - 398 Breuer; Broster Tetrahedron Lett. 1972, 2193.
- <sup>379</sup>Yamamoto; Yatagai; Maruyama; Sonoda; Murahashi J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1977, 99, 5652, Bull. Chem. Soc. Jpn. 1977, 50, 3427. For other methods of dimerizing vinylic boron compounds, see Rao; Kumar; Devaprabhakara J. Organomet. Chem. 1979, 179, C7; Campbell; Brown J. Org. Chem. 1980, 45, 549.

In a similar reaction, symmetrical conjugated dignes RC=C-C=CR can be prepared by reaction of lithium dialkyldialkynylborates Li<sup>+</sup> [R'<sub>2</sub>B(C=CR)<sub>2</sub>] with iodine.<sup>400</sup>

#### 4-35 Coupling of Other Organometallic Reagents<sup>388</sup>

#### De-metallo-coupling

Lithium dialkylcopper reagents can be oxidized to symmetrical dimers by O<sub>2</sub> at -78°C in THF.<sup>401</sup> The reaction is successful for R = primary and secondary alkyl, vinylic, or aryl. Other oxidizing agents, e.g., nitrobenzene, can be used instead of  $O_2$ . Vinylic copper reagents dimerize on treatment with oxygen, or simply on standing at 0°C for several days or at 25°C for several hours, to yield 1,3-dienes. 402 The finding of retention of configuration for this reaction demonstrates that free-radical intermediates are not involved. Lithium organoaluminates LiAlR<sub>4</sub> are dimerized to RR by treatment with Cu(OAc)<sub>2</sub>.403 Terminal vinylic alanes (prepared by 5-13) can be dimerized to 1,3-dienes with CuCl in THF. 404 Symmetrical 1,3-dienes can also be prepared in high yields by treatment of vinylic mercury chlorides<sup>405</sup> with LiCl and a rhodium catalyst 406 and by treatment of vinylic tin compounds with a palladium catalyst. 407 Arylmercuric salts are converted to biaryls by treatment with copper and a catalytic amount of PdCl<sub>2</sub>. 408 Vinylic, alkynyl, and aryl tin compounds were dimerized with Cu(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>.409 Alkyl- and aryllithium compounds can be dimerized by transition-metal halides in a reaction similar to 4-33.410 Triarylbismuth compounds Ar<sub>3</sub>Bi react with palladium(0) complexes to give biaryls ArAr. 411 Unsymmetrical coupling of vinylic, alkynyl, and arylmercury compounds was achieved in moderate-to-good yields by treatment with alkyl and vinylic dialkylcopper reagents, e.g., PhCH=CHHgCl + Me<sub>2</sub>CuLi → PhCH=CHMe.<sup>412</sup> Unsymmetrical biaryls were prepared by treating a cyanocuprate ArCu(CN)Li (prepared from ArLi and CuCN) with an aryllithium Ar'Li.412a

#### **Halogen as Leaving Group**

The conversion of RX to RH can occur by a free-radical mechanism but is treated at 0-76.

\*\*Pelter; Smith; Tabata J. Chem. Soc., Chem. Commun. 1975, 857. For extensions to unsymmetrical conjugated diynes, see Pelter; Hughes; Smith; Tabata Tetrahedron Lett. 1976, 4385; Sinclair; Brown J. Org. Chem. 1976, 41.

Mhitesides; SanFilippo; Casey; Panek J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1967, 89, 5302. See also Kauffmann; Kuhlmann; Sahm; Schrecken Angew. Chem. Int. Ed. Engl. 1968, 7, 541 [Angew. Chem. 80, 566]; Bertz; Gibson J. Am. Chem.

Soc. 1986, 108, 8286.

\*\*2Whitesides; Casey; Krieger J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1971, 93, 1379; Walborsky; Banks; Banks; Duraisamy Organometallics 1982, 1, 667; Rao; Periasamy J. Chem. Soc., Chem. Commun. 1987, 495. See also Lambert; Duffley; Dalzell; Razdan J. Org. Chem. 1982, 47, 3350.

63Sato; Mori; Sato Chem. Lett. 1978, 1337.

404 Zweifel; Miller, J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1970, 92, 6678.

<sup>465</sup>For reviews of coupling with organomercury compounds, see Russell Acc. Chem. Res. 1989, 22, 1-8; Larock,

Ref. 238, pp. 240-248.

\*\*Clarock; Bernhardt J. Org. Chem. 1977, 42, 1680. For extension to unsymmetrical 1,3-dienes, see Larock; Riefling J. Org. Chem. 1978, 43, 1468.

Tolstikov; Miftakhov; Danilova; Vel'der; Spirikhin Synthesis 1989, 633.

406 Kretchmer; Glowinski J. Org. Chem. 1976, 41, 2661. See also Bumagin; Kalinovskii; Beletskaya J. Org. Chem. USSR 1982, 18, 1151; Larock; Bernhardt, Ref. 406.

<sup>609</sup>Ghosal; Luke; Kyler J. Org. Chem. 1987, 52, 4296.

410 Morizur Bull. Soc. Chim. Fr. 1964, 1331

411Barton; Ozbalik; Ramesh Tetrahedron 1988, 44, 5661.

<sup>412</sup>Larock; Leach Tetrahedron Lett. 1981, 22, 3435, Organometallics 1982, 1, 74. For another method, see Larock; Hershberger Tetrahedron Lett. 1981, 22, 2443.

<sup>412a</sup>Lipshutz; Siegmann; Garcia J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1991, 113, 8161.

#### Sulfur as Leaving Group

#### 4-36 Desulfurization with Raney Nickel

Hydro-de-mercapto-substitution, etc.

$$RSH \xrightarrow{H_2} RH$$

$$RSR' \xrightarrow{H_2} RH + R'H$$

Thiols and thioethers, 413 both alkyl and aryl, can be desulfurized by hydrogenolysis with Raney nickel. 414 The hydrogen is usually not applied externally, since Raney nickel already contains enough hydrogen for the reaction. Other sulfur compounds can be similarly desulfurized, among them:

Disulfides 
$$RSSR' \longrightarrow RH + R'H$$
Thiono esters<sup>415</sup>  $RCSOR' \longrightarrow RCH_2OR'$ 
Thioamides  $RCSNHR' \longrightarrow RCH_2NHR$ 
Sulfoxides  $RSOR' \longrightarrow RH + R'H$ 
Thioacetals  $RSCSR' \longrightarrow CH_2$ 

The last reaction, which is an indirect way of accomplishing reduction of a carbonyl to a methylene group (see 9-37), can also give the olefin if an  $\alpha$  hydrogen is present.<sup>416</sup> In most of the examples given, R can also be aryl. Other reagents<sup>417</sup> have also been used.<sup>418</sup>

An important special case of RSR reduction is desulfurization of thiophene derivatives. This proceeds with concomitant reduction of the double bonds. Many compounds have been made by alkylation of thiophene, followed by reduction:

Thiophenes can also be desulfurized to alkenes (RCH<sub>2</sub>CH=CHCH<sub>2</sub>R' from 23) with a nickel boride catalyst prepared from nickel(II) chloride and NaBH<sub>4</sub> in methanol.<sup>419</sup> It is possible to reduce just one SR group of a dithioacetal by treatment with borane-pyridine

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>413</sup>For a review of the reduction of thioethers, see Block, in Patai *The Chemistry of Functional Groups, Supplement E*, pt. 1; Wiley: New York, 1980, pp. 585-600.

<sup>44</sup>For reviews, see Belen'kii, in Belen'kii Chemistry of Organosulfur Compounds; Ellis Horwood: Chichester, 1990, pp. 193-228; Pettit; van Tamelen Org. React. 1962, 12, 356-529; Hauptmann; Walter Chem. Rev. 1962, 62, 347-404.

<sup>415</sup> See Baxter; Bradshaw J. Org. Chem. 1981, 46, 831.

<sup>416</sup>Fishman; Torigoe; Guzik J. Org. Chem. 1963, 28, 1443.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>417</sup>For lists of reagents, with references, see Ref. 74, pp. 31-35. For a review with respect to transition-metal reagents, see Luh; Ni Synthesis 1990, 89-103. For some very efficient nickel-containing reagents, see Becker; Fort; Vanderesse; Caubère J. Org. Chem. 1989, 54, 4848.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>418</sup>For example, diphosphorus tetraiodide by Suzuki; Tani; Takeuchi Bull. Chem. Soc. Jpn. 1985, 58, 2421; Shigemasa; Ogawa; Sashiwa; Saimoto Tetrahedron Lett. 1989, 30, 1277; NiBr<sub>2</sub>-Ph<sub>3</sub>P-LiAlH<sub>4</sub> by Ho; Lam; Luh J. Org. Chem. 1989, 54, 4474.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>419</sup>Schut; Engberts; Wynberg Synth. Commun. 1972, 2, 415.

in trifluoroacetic acid or in CH<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>2</sub> in the presence of AlCl<sub>3</sub>. <sup>420</sup> Phenyl selenides RSePh can be reduced to RH with Ph<sub>3</sub>SnH<sup>421</sup> and with nickel boride. <sup>422</sup>

The exact mechanisms of the Raney nickel reactions are still in doubt, though they are probably of the free-radical type. 423 It has been shown that reduction of thiophene proceeds through butadiene and butene, not through 1-butanethiol or other sulfur compounds, i.e., the sulfur is removed before the double bonds are reduced. This was demonstrated by isolation of the olefins and the failure to isolate any potential sulfur-containing intermediates. 424

OS IV, 638; V, 419; VI, 109, 581, 601. See also OS VII, 124, 476.

4-37 Conversion of Sulfides to Organolithium Compounds

#### Lithio-de-phenylthio-substitution

Sulfides can be cleaved, with a phenylthio group replaced by a lithium,  $^{425}$  by treatment with lithium or lithium naphthalenide in THF.  $^{426}$  Good yields have been obtained with R= primary, secondary, or tertiary alkyl, or allylic,  $^{427}$  and containing groups such as double bonds or halogens. Dilithio compounds can be made from compounds containing two separated SPh groups, but it is also possible to replace just one SPh from a compound with two such groups on a single carbon, to give an  $\alpha$ -lithio sulfide.  $^{428}$  The reaction has also been used to prepare  $\alpha$ -lithio ethers and  $\alpha$ -lithio organosilanes.  $^{425}$  For some of these compounds lithium 1-(dimethylamino)naphthalenide is a better reagent than either Li or lithium naphthalenide.  $^{429}$  The mechanism is presumably of the free-radical type.

#### Carbon as Leaving Group

4-38 Decarboxylative Dimerization. The Kolbe Reaction

#### De-carboxylide-coupling

Electrolysis of carboxylate ions, which results in decarboxylation and combination of the resulting radicals, is called the *Kolbe reaction*.<sup>430</sup> It is used to prepare symmetrical RR, where R is straight- or branched-chained, except that little or no yield is obtained when there is  $\alpha$  branching. The reaction is not successful for R = aryl. Many functional groups

<sup>420</sup> Kikugawa J. Chem. Soc., Perkin Trans. 1 1984, 609.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>421</sup>Clive; Chittattu; Wong J. Chem. Soc., Chem. Commun. 1978, 41.

<sup>422</sup> Back J. Chem. Soc., Chem. Commun. 1984, 1417.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>423</sup>For a review, see Bonner; Grimm, in Kharasch; Meyers *The Chemistry of Organic Sulfur Compounds*, vol. 2; Pergamon: New York, 1966, pp. 35-71, 410-413. For a review of the mechanism of desulfurization on molybdenum surfaces, see Friend; Roberts *Acc. Chem. Res.* 1988, 21, 394-400.

<sup>424</sup> Owens; Ahmberg Can. J. Chem. 1962, 40, 941.

<sup>425</sup> For a review, see Cohen; Bhupathy Acc. Chem. Res. 1989, 22, 152-161.

<sup>426</sup> Screttas; Micha-Screttas J. Org. Chem. 1978, 43, 1064, 1979, 44, 713.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>427</sup>See Cohen; Guo Tetrahedron 1986, 42, 2803.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>428</sup>See, for example, Cohen; Sherbine; Matz; Hutchins; McHenry; Willey J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1984, 106, 3245; Ager J. Chem. Soc., Perkin Trans. 1 1986, 183; Ref. 426.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>629</sup>See Cohen; Matz Synth. Commun. 1980, 10, 311.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>406</sup>For reviews, see Schäfer Top. Curr. Chem. 1990, 152, 91-151, Angew. Chem. Int. Ed. Engl. 1981, 20, 911-934 [Angew. Chem. 93, 978-1000]; Fry Synthetic Organic Electrochemistry, 2nd ed.; Wiley: New York, 1989, pp. 238-253; Eberson; Utley, in Baizer; Lund Organic Electrochemistry; Marcel Dekker: New York, 1983, pp. 435-462; Gilde Methods Free-Radical Chem. 1972, 3, 1-82; Eberson, in Patai The Chemistry of Carboxylic Acids and Esters; Wiley: New York, 1969, pp. 53-101; Vijh; Conway Chem. Rev. 1967, 67, 623-664.

may be present, though many others inhibit the reaction. 430 Unsymmetrical RR' have been made by coupling mixtures of acid salts.

A free-radical mechanism is involved:

$$RCOO^{-} \xrightarrow{\text{electrolytic}} RCOO \xrightarrow{-CO_2} R \xrightarrow{} R \longrightarrow R - R$$

There is much evidence<sup>431</sup> for this mechanism, including side products (RH, alkenes) characteristic of free-radical intermediates and the fact that electrolysis of acetate ion in the presence of styrene caused some of the styrene to polymerize to polystyrene (such polymerizations can be initiated by free radicals, see p. 744). Other side products (ROH, RCOOR) are sometimes found; these stem from further oxidation of the radical R• to the carbocation  $R^{+}.432$ 

When the reaction is conducted in the presence of 1,3-dienes, additive dimerization can occur:433

The radical R• adds to the conjugated system to give RCH<sub>2</sub>CH=CHCH<sub>2</sub>•, which dimerizes. Another possible product is RCH<sub>2</sub>CH=CHCH<sub>2</sub>R, from coupling of the two kinds of radicals.434

In a non-electrolytic reaction, which is limited to R = primary alkyl, the thiohydroxamic esters 24 give dimers when irradiated at -64°C in an argon atmosphere: 435

$$2R - C - O - N \xrightarrow{hv} RR$$

In another non-electrolytic process, arylacetic acids are converted to vic-diaryl compounds 2ArCR<sub>2</sub>COOH → ArCR<sub>2</sub>CR<sub>2</sub>Ar by treatment with sodium persulfate Na<sub>2</sub>S<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> and a catalytic amount of AgNO<sub>3</sub>. <sup>436</sup> Both of these reactions involve dimerization of free radicals. In still another process, electron-deficient aromatic acyl chlorides are dimerized to biaryls (2ArCOCl → ArAr) by treatment with a disilane R<sub>3</sub>SiSiR<sub>3</sub> and a palladium catalyst. 437

OS III, 401; V, 445, 463; VII, 181.

#### 4-39 The Hunsdiecker Reaction

#### Bromo-de-carboxylation

$$RCOOAg + Br_2 \longrightarrow RBr + CO_2 + AgBr$$

Reaction of a silver salt of a carboxylic acid with bromine is called the Hunsdiecker reaction<sup>438</sup> and is a way of decreasing the length of a carbon chain by one unit.<sup>439</sup> The reaction is of

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>431</sup>For other evidence, see Kraeutler; Jaeger; Bard J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1978, 100, 4903.

<sup>432</sup> See Corey; Bauld; La Londe; Casanova; Kaiser J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1960, 82, 2645.

<sup>433</sup> Lindsey; Peterson J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1959, 81, 2073; Khrizolitova; Mirkind; Fioshin J. Org. Chem. USSR 1968, 4, 1640; Bruno; Dubois Bull. Soc. Chim. Fr. 1973, 2270.

<sup>434</sup> Smith; Gilde J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1959, 81, 5325, 1961, 83, 1355; Schäfer; Pistorius Angew. Chem. Int. Ed. Engl. 1972, 11, 841 [Angew. Chem. 84, 893].

<sup>436</sup> Barton; Bridon; Fernandez-Picot; Zard Tetrahedron 1987, 43, 2733.

<sup>436</sup>Fristad; Klang Tetrahedron Lett. 1983, 24, 2219

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>437</sup>Krafft; Rich; McDermott J. Org. Chem. 1990, 55, 5430.

This reaction was first reported by the Russian composer-chemist Alexander Borodin: Liebigs Ann. Chem. 1861, 119, 121.

\*\*For reviews, see Wilson Org. React. 1957, 9, 332-388; Johnson; Ingham Chem. Rev. 1956, 56, 219-269.

wide scope, giving good results for n-alkyl R from 2 to 18 carbons and for many branched R too, producing primary, secondary, and tertiary bromides. Many functional groups may be present as long as they are not  $\alpha$  substituted. R may also be aryl. However, if R contains unsaturation, the reaction seldom gives good results. Although bromine is the most often used halogen, chlorine and iodine have also been used.

When iodine is the reagent, the ratio between the reactants is very important and determines the products. A 1:1 ratio of salt to iodine gives the alkyl halide, as above. A 2:1 ratio, however, gives the ester RCOOR. This is called the *Simonini reaction* and is sometimes used to prepare carboxylic esters. The Simonini reaction can also be carried out with lead salts of acids. And more convenient way to perform the Hunsdiecker reaction is by use of a mixture of the acid and mercuric oxide instead of the salt, since the silver salt must be very pure and dry and such pure silver salts are often not easy to prepare. All

Other methods for accomplishing the conversion RCOOH  $\rightarrow$  RX are:<sup>442</sup> (1) treatment of thallium(I) carboxylates<sup>443</sup> with bromine;<sup>444</sup> (2) treatment of carboxylic acids with lead tetraacetate and halide *ions* (Cl<sup>-</sup>, Br<sup>-</sup>, or I<sup>-</sup>);<sup>445</sup> (3) reaction of the acids with lead tetraacetate and N-chlorosuccinimide, which gives tertiary and secondary chlorides in good yields but is not good for R = primary alkyl or phenyl;<sup>446</sup> (4) the reaction between a diacyl peroxide and CuCl<sub>2</sub>, CuBr<sub>2</sub>, or CuI<sub>2</sub><sup>447</sup> [this reaction also takes place with Cu(SCN)<sub>2</sub>, and Cu(CN)<sub>2</sub>]; (5) treatment of thiohydroxamic esters (24) with CCl<sub>4</sub>, BrCCl<sub>3</sub> (which gives bromination), CHI<sub>3</sub>, or CH<sub>2</sub>I<sub>2</sub> in the presence of a radical initiator;<sup>448</sup> (6) photolysis of benzophenone oxime esters of carboxylic acids in CCl<sub>4</sub> (RCON=CPh<sub>2</sub>  $\rightarrow$  RCl).<sup>449</sup> Alkyl fluorides can be prepared in moderate to good yields by treating carboxylic acids RCOOH with XeF<sub>2</sub>.<sup>450</sup> This method works best for R = primary and tertiary alkyl, and benzylic. Aromatic and vinylic acids do not react.

The mechanism of the Hundsdiecker reaction is believed to be as follows:

Step 1 
$$RCOOAg + X_2 \longrightarrow R - C - O - X + AgX$$

25

Step 2  $RC - O - X \longrightarrow RCOO \cdot + X \cdot \text{ (initiation)}$ 

Step 3  $RCOO \cdot \longrightarrow R \cdot + CO_2$ 

Step 4  $R \cdot + RCOOX \longrightarrow RX + RCOO \cdot \text{ (propagation)}$ 

etc.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>440</sup>Bachman; Kite; Tuccarbasu; Tullman J. Org. Chem. 1970, 35, 3167.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>441</sup>Cristol; Firth J. Org. Chem. 1961, 26, 280. See also Meyers; Fleming J. Org. Chem. 1979, 44, 3405, and references cited therein.

<sup>442</sup> For a list of reagents, with references, see Ref. 74, pp. 381-382.

<sup>40</sup> These salts are easy to prepare and purify; see Ref. 444.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>444</sup>McKillop; Bromley; Taylor J. Org. Chem. 1969, 34, 1172; Cambie; Hayward; Jurlina; Rutledge; Woodgate J. Chem. Soc., Perkin Trans. 1 1981, 2608.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>48</sup>Kochi J. Am. Chem. Soc. **1965**, 87, 2500, J. Org. Chem. **1965**, 30, 3265. For a review, see Sheldon; Kochi Org. React. **1972**, 19, 279-421, pp. 326-334, 390-399.

<sup>44</sup> Becker; Geisel; Grob; Kuhnen Synthesis 1973, 493.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>447</sup>Jenkins; Kochi J. Org. Chem. 1971, 36, 3095, 3103.

<sup>448</sup> Barton; Crich; Motherwell Tetrahedron Lett. 1983, 24, 4979; Barton; Lacher; Zard Tetrahedron 1987, 43, 4321; Stofer; Lion Bull. Soc. Chim. Belg. 1987, 96, 623; Della; Tsanaktsidis Aust. J. Chem. 1989, 42, 61.

<sup>449</sup> Hasebe; Tsuchiya Tetrahedron Lett. 1988, 29, 6287.

<sup>459</sup> Patrick; Johri; White; Bertrand; Mokhtar; Kilbourn; Welch 1986, Can. J. Chem. 64, 138. For another method, see Grakauskas J. Org. Chem. 1969, 34, 2446.

The first step is not a free-radical process, and its actual mechanism is not known.<sup>451</sup> **25** is an acyl hypohalite and is presumed to be an intermediate, though it has never been isolated from the reaction mixture. Among the evidence for the mechanism is that optical activity at R is lost (except when a neighboring bromine atom is present, see p. 682); if R is neopentyl, there is no rearrangement, which would certainly happen with a carbocation; and the side products, notably RR, are consistent with a free-radical mechanism. There is evidence that the Simonini reaction involves the same mechanism as the Hunsdiecker reaction but that the alkyl halide formed then reacts with excess RCOOAg (0-24) to give the ester.<sup>452</sup> See also 9-13.

OS III, 578; V, 126; VI, 179. See also OS VI, 403.

# **4-40** Decarboxylative Allylation Allyl-de-carboxylation

$$R-C-C-C-COOH + H2C=CHCH2-O-C-CH3 \xrightarrow{Pd(PPh,)_{2}}$$

$$O$$

$$R-C-C-C-CH2-CH=CH2 + CO2 + CH3COOH$$

The COOH group of a  $\beta$ -keto acid is replaced by an allylic group when the acid is treated with an allylic acetate and a palladium catalyst at room temperature. The reaction is successful for various substituted allylic groups. The less-highly-substituted end of the allylic group forms the new bond. Thus, both CH<sub>2</sub>—CHCHMeOAc and MeCH—CHCH<sub>2</sub>OAc

## 4-41 Decarbonylation of Aldehydes and Acyl Halides

#### Carbonyl-extrusion

## RCHO RhCl(Ph<sub>3</sub>P)<sub>3</sub> RH

Aldehydes, both aliphatic and aromatic, can be decarbonylated<sup>454</sup> by heating with chlorotris(triphenylphosphine)rhodium<sup>455</sup> or other catalysts such as palladium.<sup>456</sup> RhCl(Ph<sub>3</sub>P)<sub>3</sub> is often called *Wilkinson's catalyst*.<sup>457</sup> In an older reaction aliphatic (but not aromatic) aldehydes are decarbonylated by heating with di-t-peroxide or other peroxides,<sup>458</sup> usually in a solution

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>451</sup>When Br<sub>2</sub> reacts with aryl R, at low temperature in inert solvents, it is possible to isolate a complex containing both Br<sub>2</sub> and the silver carboxylate: see Bryce-Smith; Isaacs; Tumi Chem. Lett. 1984, 1471.

<sup>452</sup> Oae; Kashiwagi; Kozuka Bull. Chem. Soc. Jpn. 1966, 39, 2441; Bunce; Murray Tetrahedron 1971, 27, 5323.

<sup>453</sup> Tsuda; Okada; Nishi; Saegusa J. Org. Chem. 1986, 51, 421.

<sup>44</sup>For reviews, see Collman; Hegedus; Norton; Finke Principles and Applications of Organotransition Metal Chemistry; University Science Books: Mill Valley, CA, 1987, pp. 768-775; Baird, in Patai The Chemistry of Functional Groups, Supplement B, pt. 2; Wiley: New York, 1979, pp. 825-857; Tsuji, in Wender; Pino Organic Syntheses Via Metal Carbonyls, vol. 2; Wiley: New York, 1977, pp. 595-654; Tsuji; Ohno Synthesis 1969, 157-169; Bird Transition Metal Intermediates in Organic Synthesis; Academic Press: New York, 1967, pp. 239-247.

<sup>455</sup> Tsuji; Ohno Tetrahedron Lett. 1965, 3969; Ohno; Tsuji J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1968, 90, 99; Baird; Nyman; Wilkinson J. Chem. Soc. A 1968, 348.

<sup>456</sup> For a review, see Rylander, Ref. 246, pp. 260-267.

<sup>457</sup> For a review of this catalyst, see Jardine Prog. Inorg. Chem. 1981, 28, 63-202.

<sup>488</sup> For reviews of free-radical aldehyde decarbonylations, see Vinogradov; Nikishin Russ. Chem. Rev. 1971, 40, 916-932; Schubert; Kintner, in Patai, Ref. 189, pp. 711-735.

containing a hydrogen donor, such as a thiol. The reaction has also been initiated with light, and thermally (without an initiator) by heating at about 500°C.

Wilkinson's catalyst has also been reported to decarbonylate aromatic acyl halides at 180°C (ArCOX  $\rightarrow$  ArX). 459 This reaction has been carried out with acyl iodides, 460 bromides, and chlorides. Aliphatic acyl halides that lack an α hydrogen also give this reaction,<sup>461</sup> but if an  $\alpha$  hydrogen is present, elimination takes place instead (7-19). Aromatic acyl cyanides give aryl cyanides (ArCOCN -> ArCN). 462 Aromatic acyl chlorides and cyanides can also be decarbonylated with palladium catalysts. 463

It is possible to decarbonylate acyl halides in another way, to give alkanes (RCOCl → RH). This is done by heating the substrate with tripropylsilane  $Pr_3SiH$  in the presence of tbutyl peroxide. 464 Yields are good for R = primary or secondary alkyl and poor for R = primary or secondary alkyltertiary alkyl or benzylic. There is no reaction when R = aryl. (See also the decarbonylation ArCOCl → ArAr mentioned in 4-38.)

The mechanism of the peroxide- or light-induced reaction seems to be as follows (in the presence of thiols):465

RCHO 
$$\xrightarrow{\text{radical}}$$
 RC•  $\longrightarrow$  R• + CO
$$0$$
R• + R'SH  $\longrightarrow$  RH + R'S•

RCHO + R'S•  $\longrightarrow$  RC• + R'SH etc
$$0$$

The reaction of aldehydes with Wilkinson's catalyst goes through complexes of the form 26 and 27, which have been trapped.<sup>466</sup> The reaction has been shown to give retention of

$$R \xrightarrow{H} PPh_{3} \longrightarrow R \xrightarrow{CO} H \longrightarrow RH + Ph_{3}P \xrightarrow{Rh} PPh_{3}$$

$$O \xrightarrow{Cl} PPh_{3} \longrightarrow Ph_{3}P \xrightarrow{Cl} PPh_{3}$$

$$Cl$$

$$26$$

$$27$$

configuration at a chiral R;467 and deuterium labeling demonstrates that the reaction is intramolecular: RCOD give RD. 468 Free radicals are not involved. 469 The mechanism with acyl halides appears to be more complicated. 470

For aldehyde decarbonylation by an electrophilic mechanism, see 1-38.

- 459Kampmeier; Rodehorst; Philip J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1981, 103, 1847; Blum Tetrahedron Lett. 1966, 1605; Blum; Oppenheimer; Bergmann J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1967, 89, 2338.
  - 466 Blum; Rosenman; Bergmann J. Org. Chem. 1968, 33, 1928.
  - 461 Tsuji; Ohno Tetrahedron Lett. 1966, 4713, J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1966, 88, 3452.
  - 462Blum; Oppenheimer; Bergmann, Ref. 459.
- 463 Verbicky; Dellacoletta; Williams Tetrahedron Lett. 1982, 23, 371; Murahashi; Naota; Nakajima J. Org. Chem. 1986, 51, 898.

  \*\*Billingham; Jackson; Malck J. Chem. Soc., Perkin Trans. 1 1979, 1137.
- 46 Slaugh J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1959, 81, 2262; Berman; Stanley; Sherman; Cohen J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1963, 85,
  - Suggs J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1978, 100, 640; Kampmeier; Harris; Mergelsberg J. Org. Chem. 1984, 49, 621.
  - 447 Walborsky; Allen J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1971, 93, 5465. See also Tsuji; Ohno Tetrahedron Lett. 1967, 2173.
- \*\*Prince; Raspin J. Chem. Soc. A 1969, 612; Walborsky; Allen, Ref. 467. See, however, Baldwin; Barden; Pugh; Widdison J. Org. Chem. 1987, 52, 3303.
  - Kampmeier; Harris; Wedegaertner J. Org. Chem. 1980, 45, 315.
- Kampmeier; Rodehorst; Philip, Ref. 459; Kampmeier; Mahalingam; Liu Organometallics 1986, 5, 823; Kampmeier; Liu Organometallics 1989, 8, 2742.